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High Order Thinking Skill (HOTS) Principles in Developing Students Worksheet

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Abstract
Worksheet in the textbook takes a leading role in the English learning process because it assists the students to practice their ability to get a good achievement in the teaching and learning process. Hence, the worksheet is beneficial for the teachers to know the students’ understanding of the teaching material and students’ accomplishment in four basic skill. Reading ability plays a crucial role in students’ education. It is a language teachers’ mission to be aware of the useful and beneficial strategies to improve their students’ reading comprehension ability. When education around the world needs improvement, the teacher demands to more competitive in developing the students’ task. HOTS principle is one of good
strategies to achieve target learning. Moreover, the HOT Skills that are needed in solving problems in learning can be distinguished into two kinds of skills namely analytical and creative thinking skills. Analytical thinking skill is useful in thinking critically and selecting the best alternative. In another hand, the creative thinking skill involves finding or identifying problems, supporting efficiency or producing many ideas, producing a broad range of ideas, originality or producing uncommon ideas and elaboration or developing ideas. Eventually, this paper’s aim is to develop the insight of students in mastering English, especially in reading Comprehension skill.

**Keywords:** Higher Order Thinking Skill (HOTS), Reading Comprehension, Worksheet

**Introduction**

Every country around the world busies in discussing about the development of education in every sector. It is the answer to face the world challenge, mainly for the human resources development. All of the experts always make an experiment to look for the solution through many ways. Year by year, the expert finds the key to solve the recent problem. Indonesia is the one of the country in this world that always builds the new revolution to break the foolishness in every level through the renewable education system. As we know that Indonesia has changed the education curriculum about ten times as the appropriate method in resolve each case in every element when the implementation of the curriculum has any trouble. It must be a big dealing that Indonesia is very large and the spreading of prosperity not perfect yet. Of course, it is the extra homework for us to provide the alternative way when apply the curriculum in an appropriate circumstance.

Especially for English as the second language for Indonesian people, it will arise any problem in education sector. English is an obligatory subject in school – start from junior high school until the high education level – has its own role in the education development to build our best generation to joining in the world competition. As the importance of language skill, English is difficult for some people. That is why some of them register themselves in a course to add hours in learning English after back to school. Moreover, the private course is reputed more effective in guiding the students in mastery English. This reputation makes the learning English in school seems fail in improving the student skills. And also, the teacher looks cannot find an interesting way to take the students attention in learn English. Moreover, the thinking and learning process can be subject to some factors. First, each type of learning requires a different strategy, because there is no single strategy that can be used for all types of learning,
although certain strategies work only for certain types. Second, intelligence is no longer seen as something that cannot change, but rather it is an ability that can be influenced by various factors, for example teaching strategies. Third, understanding of the thinking process has shifted even further to a multidimensional view such as a complex network of interactive capabilities from a linear, hierarchical, or spiral process. Fourth, research over the past two decades has focused on more specific topics such as insights, waiting times for problem solving, visual imagery and metaphors, and schemata.

As the teachers’ role in enhancing the students’ interest in learning process, they should create any something different to assist the students in learning English. One of the way to fulfill the lack in mastering English is by applying the high order thinking in setting the students’ worksheet. Everyone agrees that the usual item questions do not give a challenge for students to explore their idea. The usual item questions no need any more analyzing activity to answer it. Sometimes, it just can find in the text implicitly.

Several studies show that in general teacher assessments based on observations and assessments are not of high quality and that teachers rarely assess higher-order thinking skills (Stiggins, Griswold, and Wiklund 1989). High Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) is a thinking ability that involves critical, logical, reflective, metacognitive, and creative thinking. This kind of thinking is used in unusual circumstances or when individuals face uncertainties, questions, or dilemmas. The successful use of this way of thinking can be seen from valid explanations, decisions, performance, and results in the context of knowledge and experience that encourage the continuous development of intellectual skills. The process of learning this skill has a goal to encourage sustainable growth in other intellectual skills (Latifa & Nur, 2019). Teaching strategies and the right learning environment provide space for their growth as do students' enthusiasm for learning, self-monitoring, and an open, flexible attitude (Latifa & Nur, 2019). Although some experts and other researchers differ in using the frameworks to describe high-level skills and how to acquire them, all frameworks are generally agreed upon taking into account the conditions under which they develop (King, et al).

Theoretical Review

An Overview of High order thinking skills principles.

High Order Thinking Skill (HOTS) principle is a taxonomy in education which is developed by Bloom, then well-known as Bloom’s Taxonomy. Bloom’s Taxonomy was created in 1956 under the leadership of educational psychologist Dr. Benyamin Bloom who was born in Pennsylvania and earned doctorate in education from the University of Chicago in
1942. Taxonomy is another word for classification. Bloom Taxonomy is a classification system of cognitive thinking skills developed by Bloom. It has been extremely influential in education for the past 50 years (Krathwohl, 2002). In the 1970s, Bloom taxonomy was used as a tool for objectives-based evaluation and as a model for designing items that measure low-level skills versus higher-level skills (Marzano & Kendall, 2007). Higher order thinking skill consists of the three top ends of Bloom’s taxonomy, analyze, evaluate, and create. Further, the higher order thinking skill is related with the scientific approaches in the 2013 curriculum; observing, questioning, associating, experimenting, and communicating, because those approaches are also related with the problem solving and critical thinking skill which belong to the higher order thinking skill.

Basically, Bloom’s six major categories were changed from noun to verb forms. Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) define the Bloom’s new taxonomy as:

a. Remembering: Retrieving, recognizing, and recalling relevant knowledge from long-term memory.

b. Understanding: constructing meaning from oral, written, and graphic messages through interpreting, exemplifying, classifying, summarizing, inferring, comparing, and explaining.

c. Applying: carrying out or using a procedure through executing or implementing.

d. Analyzing: breaking material into constituent parts, determining how the parts relate to one another and to an overall structure or purpose through differentiating, organizing, and attributing.

e. Evaluating: making judgments based on criteria and standards through checking and critiquing.

f. Creating: putting elements together to form a coherent or functional whole; reorganizing elements into a new pattern or structure through generating, planning, or producing.

In fact, there are several definitions that were stated by some experts. McDavitt (1993) in Ayat Abdul Qader defines that HOTS is the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/ or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication as a rubric to belief and action. In addition, Petress (2005) said that it involves examining assumptions and values, evaluating evidence, and assessing conclusions. Then the new source from McDavitt (1999) said that “Higher Order Thinking Skills includes analysis, synthesis, and evaluation and require mastery of previous levels, such as applying routine rules
to familiar or novel problems”. Students with HOTS take new information from the text and interrelates or rearranges it and then extends this information to achieve a purpose. According to Lopez and Whittington (2001) HOTS occurs when a person takes a new information and information stored in memory and interrelates and or rearranges and extends this information to achieve a purpose or find possible answers in perplexing situation.

From the above listed definitions of HOTS, the researcher concludes that HOTS are intellectual processes where students have to activate their minds in order to understand the hidden meaning from the information introduced to them, realize the relations among ideas, draw principles and rules, analyze and classify, generate and combine new ideas, evaluate and judge.

**Concept that related to HOTS Principles**

There are six concepts related to the implementation of HOTS principle. They are explained as below:

a. Meta-cognition and HOTS

Meta-cognition is basic skill that enables an individual to achieve a higher order thinking activity successfully. According to Crowl et al. (1997), one's success with meta-cognition depends, in part, on a belief in one's ability to get smarter as well as the beliefs of others, such as teachers, in one's ability.

b. Procedural knowledge and HOTS

Procedural knowledge sometimes referred to a higher order thinking skill. On the contrary, neither of these capabilities (reciting and application) involve higher order thinking. Instead, applications of procedural knowledge that also involve analysis and synthesis of two or more concepts would be considered higher order thinking. Procedural knowledge means how to do something, methods of inquiry and criteria for using skills, algorithms, techniques, and methods (Pickard, 2007). It appears as a type of knowledge and a prerequisite for higher order thinking since it includes methods of inquiry and criteria for using these skills.

c. Comprehension and HOTS

Comprehension is a part from Bloom's taxonomy. It's considered to be one of the lower order skills, but is integral to HOTS development. While it's an important prerequisite, it is not a higher order thinking skill. Comprehension remains the process by which individuals’ construct meaning from information and form new "schemata" through specific activities (Crowl et al., 1997), including but not limited to:
1. Generating and answering questions that demand higher order thinking about old and new ideas
2. Confronting conflicting ideas and information, problems, or dilemmas
3. Exploring and making discoveries
4. Conducting systematic inquiries
5. Summarizing, reciting, and discussing new ideas and their relationships
6. Relating new understandings to other concepts
7. Applying new ideas and information in basic problem-solving activities, or
8. Reflecting and verbalizing about cognitive processes involved in comprehension.

d. Creativity and HOTS

Crowl et al. (1997) defines that creativity requires many of the same conditions for learning as other higher order thinking skills. The learning processes are enhanced by supportive environments and deteriorate with fears, insecurities, and low self-esteem. It deteriorates with extrinsic motivation, restraint on choice, and the pressure of outside evaluation. According to Fakhomah, D.N. & Utami, M.S. (2019) higher order thinking also useful for creating meaningful learning in the teaching and learning process because it gives broader vision of learning that includes not only acquiring knowledge but also being able to use the knowledge in a variety of new situations in the students’ everyday life.

It enables the students not only to remember and understand the knowledge or information they got but also to use the knowledge in increasingly more complex way. Creativity involves discovering and solving problems. Innovative approaches are used to accurately evaluate short coming, and actions are taken to remedy those weaknesses. The students who already have the higher order thinking skills should be able to examine assumptions and values, evaluate evidence, and present the conclusions with their own words. It is also very crucial in today’s world. In addition, Stenberg and Davidson (1995) convey that creativity involves selecting the relevant aspects of a problem and putting pieces together into a coherent system that integrates the new information with what a person already knows.

e. Intelligence and HOTS

The relation between intelligences and higher order thinking skills is interactive. That is, to practice any higher order thinking skills, an individual is in need of more than one intelligence. For example, producing a speech to be addressed to a certain audience is a synthesis cognitive skill where a speaker is in need of utilizing logical, verbal, linguistic, interpersonal, intrapersonal and bodily abilities. It is related to what Gardner (1983) asserts,
that each person is able to develop each intelligence and that some of the intelligences will be more developed than others. Thus, each person can develop his / her intelligences through education especially when there is training at early ages.

f. Critical thinking and HOTS

The core critical thinking skills are interpretation, analysis, inference, evaluation, explanation, and self-regulation. Critical thinking and HOTS require high intellectual processes and cultivation of one's mind so that one could be an active respondent to information not just memorize it. According to Jones (1989), many educators believe that critical thinking is the single most important cognitive skill. He defines it as "Reflective and reasonable thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe or do".

Teaching Reading by Applying High Order Thinking Skill

In this stage focuses on teaching reading comprehension strategies which are divided into three reading stages proposed by some scholars, this includes:

a. Pre-reading Stage

In this stage, students are invited to call out words, knowledge, and experience that relevant to the text, relevant language, and expectation meaning (Gibbons, 2002 and Brown, 2001). Generating text type or text structure is also the activities that can be created in this stage. Discussion the text type in teaching reading comprehension is aimed to familiarize students with the major contextual features or text structure and to show how these features can help them to work out the main function of the text and the possible content.

The next activity which can be applied is sequencing pictures. It is also important for teacher to discuss new vocabulary with students in this stage because discussing new vocabulary can help them to comprehend text. When the students have problems of known words, teacher can encourage them to use dictionary. Another activity is predicting. This strategy is suggested to use by (Anderson, 1999)

b. While-reading Stage

In this stage, a teacher can generate appropriate strategies to help students in comprehending the text. The common one is reading aloud activity which is recommended to use by (Gibbson, 2002). The next activity that teacher can generate in this stage is silent reading. Anderson (2003) said that the majority of reading that we do will be done silently.

c. Post-reading Stage

For this stage, a teacher activity is primarily to evaluate the students’ comprehension in particular tasks. In this case, teacher can conduct such activities; scanning, question,
summarizing, learner’s purpose, and following-up. Additionally, Anderson (1999) propose predicting, questioning, clarifying, summarizing, monitor, comprehension, and justify comprehension as the strategies that can be implemented in classroom activities in teaching reading comprehension.

Kinds of Reading Exercise

According to J.B Heaton, kinds of reading exercises are:

a. Matching Test
This test is purely concerned with word and sentence recognition. It tests the students’ ability to differ the words which have the same spelling. This item tests are used to develop word recognition tests.

b. True / False Reading Test
True/ False test is one of the most used tests of reading comprehension. Because the scoring of this test is quick and reliable with the reading comprehension. The items can also be constructed easily and quickly.

c. Multiple Choice Item Test
In this item, the students should choose the best answer of some choices given.

d. Completion Item
Completion items measure recall rather than recognition. In this item, the students usually supply a word or short phrase.

e. Short-Long Answer Questions
1. Short-answer question; Short-answer question is a reading test that the students spend 3-5 minutes to answer the question.
2. Long-answer question; Long-answer question is a reading test that the students spend 7-10 minutes to answer the question.

Concepts of Worksheet

The teacher role in solving the learning difficulties has a big impact. The professional teacher not only teaching well, but also can be able to motivate the students and create the interesting atmosphere in classroom. one way that can be reached to pay attention the students as long as the learning process is by making a good learning plan. The teacher can improve any material, one of them is printed material or – in the curriculum 2013 called by – students’ worksheet. According to Prastowo (2014), worksheet is one of the printed material in a piece of paper which is content of summary, material, and the guideline in doing learning task that
lead to the basic competence and have to mastered by students. Anasy, Zaharil (2016) said that Worksheet has many functions that is can be able to minimize the contribution of teacher (student-centered), consist of the lesson summary and individual assignment, helpful for students in mastering the lesson, and the last is easy to apply by teacher.

In the learning process, student worksheets basically have certain goals and benefits (Ardiyanti, 2016). One of the goals is as a written stimulus or guide for teachers in teaching by using pictures or other visual media to attract students' attention. In preparing worksheets, four important points must be considered, namely:

a. to develop interactive subject matter that is easy for students
b. to presents an assessment to improve mastery of subject matter
c. to train student independence
d. to make it easier for teachers to provide assessments (Prastowo, 2015)

In addition, there are several things to be achieved in the learning process using worksheets, namely:

a. Provide knowledge, attitudes, and skills that should be possessed by students
b. Train students' level of understanding of the subject matter.
c. Applied for subjects that are difficult to explain verbally
d. Can help students receive subject matter through learning activities.

Based on these considerations, the researcher concluded that with the use of student worksheets it is hoped that students can be motivated in learning, especially in the sub-topics of natural resources and environment, technology, and society. In the learning process, student worksheets are used as a learning tool to direct students to understand more deeply about the subject. Students will be trained to observe, classify, interpret, predict, communicate, ask questions, propose hypotheses, design experiments, use subject matter, apply concepts, and conduct the experiments.

Research Methodology

This research focused on finding out the effect of applying high order thinking skill in teaching reading comprehension. For this purpose, the researcher used an experimental design. This research was conducted at SMPN 3 Parepare. The location of this school is in Sudirman Street No. 4, Parepare South Sulawesi. The population of this research was all the third grade (year 9) students at SMPN 3 Parepare School. There were eight classes with a total of 256 students. One class has chosen at random to be the samples for this research was Class 1X – 3 as the Experimental class. The researchers used two instruments to get data, viz: tests and a
questionnaire. Tests were used to find out the students’ ability in identifying and understanding
the messages in reading passages before and after applying High Order Thinking Skill with the
Experimental class.

The reading test is administered of test: pretest and posttest. The pre-test is given to the
students in order to know their basic achievement in reading comprehension. In pre-test, the
researcher uses the LOTS reading task. The post-test is given to the students to compare the
student’s achievement in reading comprehension between the applying HOTS and LOTS
principle in students’ reading worksheet. The reading worksheet model is setting by the
researcher in every meeting as long as the treatment phase.

Results and Discussions

In this researcher, the researcher found that teaching high order thinking skill (HOTS)
principles in developing students’ worksheet in a reading of the ninth grade students SMPN 3
Parepare can enhance the students reading skill. The students were taught through principle
High order thinking skill applied in teaching reading comprehension to them. Moreover, it
showed where T-Test value was higher than T-Table.

Before giving treatment, the students’ reading comprehension was categorized fair,
which was proven by the percentage of the total score of pre-test and the students’ mean score
from pre-test obtained by the students was 48.27. Then, after giving treatment for four times to
the students in experimental class. The students’ reading comprehension was categorized good,
which was proven by the percentage of the total score of post-test and the students’ mean score
from post-test obtained by students’ was 74.97. it means that the mean score of pre-test and
post-test obtained by the students in experimental class were different where t-test value (9.134)
greater than t-table value (2.048) for 0.05 level of significant, degree of freedom df (N-1) 28.
It means that the achievement of the student who were never taught through principle High
order thinking skill applied in teaching reading comprehension. In conclusion, it can be said
that, these strategies provided overall solutions for the students to improve their learning skills.

Conclusions and Suggestions

Conclusion

Based on the findings and discussion presented in the previous chapter, it was found
that teaching reading comprehension by applied High order thinking skill principles in teaching
reading comprehension of the ninth grade students of SMP Negeri 3 Parepare. It was supported
by the data in pre-experimental class which the mean score of the students in the pre-test is
48.27 and in the post-test 74.97 from the data have found, it showed that there was different students’ mean score between before and after giving treatment. Besides that, in applying t-test of the students’ post-test for both of the classes, it was found the t-test was greater than t-able value.

**Suggestion**

Based on the conclusion presented in the previous sub-chapter, the researcher would like to give some suggestion for the future researcher as follows:

a. The researcher should make the learning environment more fun and realistic in order to make the students enjoy in learning and learning process.

b. The English teacher should apply the various methods and teaching media in teaching English especially in reading comprehension in order to make the student easily to improve their skill in English.

c. The teacher mush always help the student to solve their problem in learning English. One of them is teaching reading comprehension through applying high order thinking skill.

d. The student should be serious in paying attention to their teachers, and have braveness to ask about the things that they do not know to the teacher and express their mind.

**References**


Psychological Factors that Hinder Students' Reading Comprehension

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Abstract
Experts have agreed that psychological factors play a major role in hindering students' reading comprehension but until now research on what psychological factors are the most dominant inhibiting them and how the solutions are not widely known. This study aims to find out what are the most dominant psychological factors that hinder students' reading ability, causes of why the factors are dominant, and the solutions given to students to overcome the factors that hinder their reading comprehension. The data of this study was obtained through class observations, questionnaires, and interviews. This study applied survey research design. The psychological factors analyzed in this study are attitude, self-efficacy, anxiety, interest, and motivation. These factors can prevent students from comprehending reading in English classes. The researchers revealed that motivation is the most dominant factor that hinders students' reading comprehension. The cause why motivation hinders the students' reading comprehension is because the class environment is not conducive or favorable for students. There are some solutions offered for the English teachers that could solve the psychological factors that hinder students' reading comprehension. English teachers must increase student motivation; it can be done by giving gifts, giving value to students when they can give opinions, answer questions, and explain information as support so that they become more active in the teaching and learning process. The findings of this study suggested that the English teachers have to be aware of the psychological factors that hinder the students to understand and comprehend material given in the classes.

Keywords: attitude, self-efficacy, anxiety, interest, reading comprehension

Introduction
Reading is essentially the mechanical skill of decoding, of turning the printed symbols into the sounds which are language learning. This is of course because we turn the print into sound is to get at the meaning. Grigg and Mann in Habibian, Roslan, Idris, & Othman (2015) asserted that one of an alternative that must be mastered further and do the important thing in building understanding and comfort in reading. This suggests that to effectively access school curricula and vocations, students need to improve their reading skills and achieve mastery in
reading. On the other hand, students need to pay attention to personal conditions to understand the importance of building a sense of confidence to produce something that can help improve their ability through reading. Alderson in Habibian (2015) states there are two important factors involved, the reader and the text. Text (reading material) is the main supporting device in the reading process. Also, the text is a tool that can help the reader to get some information. With text, the ability to understand a person in reading can be easy. Goodman (2014) states that reading is a precise process. It involves exact, detailed, sequential perception and identification of letters, words, spelling patterns and large language.

Comprehension, on the other hand, is often required individuals to connect and synthesize information across a text (e.g., successfully identifying complex topics such as themes and tones) and not just make a familiarity-based decision. At best, recognition is a crude index of comprehension (Foroughi, Werner, Barragăñ, & Boehm-Davis, 2015).

Good reading comprehension is obtained through the analysis of a text that is done by involving the maximum physical condition and a good psychological state. With a good psychological condition then the increased understanding of reading in a text will be maximized. While Learning can be said is one of the obligations and also the needs of every human being, and also the person who wants to change in a better direction. Learning, in this case, can relate to the name of things academic, discipline, accuracy and also the craft of someone to carry out these activities or learning activities. On the other hand, learning can be said as a necessity, there are still problems that are often found in the field so that it will certainly be very disturbing and also hinder the learning process. Obstacles in learning can vary. As seen as a problem that is quite heavy and also difficult, therefore many also feel depressed, uncomfortable and feel unpleasant, so that in the process many are unable to continue. Many question it, what is the cause of the obstacles that occur in it, especially in psychology, so that this learning activity seems to be hampered. For this reason, in this article, we will discuss things in the psychological field that can cause obstacles in the learning process to get information. Information can be found from other media such as television and radio, the role of reading is irreplaceable. Reading still plays an important role in everyday life because not all information can be obtained on television and radio.

The problem faced by students in Southeast Sulawesi especially the students who sit in senior high school (SMA) not too proficient in understanding the reading. What exactly is it that makes the student not skilled in reading comprehension? What is the system that makes it? Or is it the lack of awareness of students about the importance of being proficient in reading
comprehension, or the presence of psychological factors that make students have a low ability in reading, motivational factors for example.

Based on information obtained from English language teacher through a brief interview conducted, it seems the problems are, (a) lack of support from parents of students to help develop and increase their children's interest in reading especially, (b) students unable getting the message from the text, and (c) students fail to answer questions related to text. It is well known that in understanding various types of texts, students must have the ability to understand the reading. For example, evaluating the text with appreciation and trying to understand a word, and making conclusions to understand the text. Thus, understanding a text can vary by readers, because students not only have different motivations but also psychological perspectives students' in reading, this case was found in the classroom learning process. When the student has difficulty understanding a word in the reading assignment given by the English teacher, students are not motivated to complete the assignment given. One of the reasons we are interested in writing about factors that hinder reading comprehension is to know what is going on in school. Where children are not interested in reading to improve their understanding, but we see the availability of reading material and that time is enough support for it. Some of the Senior High Schools in Kendari become my research sources to find out factors that hinder students' reading comprehension.

The problems proposed as the main focused area related to "psychological factors that hinder the students reading comprehension at Senior High Schools in Kendari". From this focus have developed to be sub-focus, such as:

1. What are the most dominant psychological factors hindering the students' reading comprehension at Senior High Schools in Kendari?
2. Why is it the most predominant factor?
3. How to deal with psychological factors that hinder the students' reading comprehension at Senior High Schools in Kendari?

*Theoretical framework*

Goodman (2014) reading is a good process used for the learning process. It involves details, accuracy, or sequence and identification of letters, words, spelling patterns, and large language units. Graesser (2007) reading is an effective outcome when one sees and analyzes the level of ability in the part to be mastered. Seeing things that need to be considered is the right consideration when reading a simple story. Realizing the ability to read is a very good consideration made by the reader. Reading needs to pay attention to all aspects, so in the
process of reading can easily understand what the purpose and content of the book read. The role of a teacher can understand the character of each student in the classroom. So the purpose of learning will be achieved when in the learning process in the classroom students feel comfortable with the methods or ways applied.

Reading activity is an arrest and understanding of ideas, reader activities that accompanied the outpouring of the soul in living the script. The process of reading begins from the activity of the mechanical activity of the sense of the eye for the normal. Also, reading activities emphasize the accuracy and speed as well as competence patterns or language skills, specific intelligence and broad life referrals. Readers with sufficient ability must also understand the words quickly and precisely so that the final goal of reading can be fully understood (Ouellette, 2006). From the various notions of reading above, it can be concluded that the activity of reading is to understand the content, ideas or ideas either expressed or implied in the reading material.

Cunningham & Stanovich (1998) state that reading activities have cognitive consequences that exceed the habits of the reader directly to lift the meaning and purpose of a particular passage. This is also stated by Gilakjani & Sabouri (2016b) that reading comprehension is a skill to determine the meaning or get the essence of reading. Furthermore, Gilakjani & Sabouri also stated that such skills are obtained when the reader can recognize words, fluency, and has initial knowledge of the text he is reading. However, getting to that stage requires a very complicated process.

The nature of psychological factors

Many factors that affect reading ability, both reading beginning and reading further (reading comprehension), are physiological, intellectual, environmental, and psychological factors. Other factors that also affect the progress of reading ability are psychological. According to Habibian et al. (2015) these factors include 1). attitude, 2). self-efficacy, 3). anxiety, 4). interest, and 5). motivation.

Psychological factors that hinder reading comprehension

Reading comprehension is one of the most important skills that students must possess and develop; whether at school or home since it is the point for success in school life, academics, and so on. In the context of the school, students are encouraged to gain knowledge from various sources. They read for various purposes to be an impressive reader, students need to master and practice some reading techniques. Therefore, the teacher needs to guide students
to master the techniques and provide the right material for students starting from the elementary school level and understanding the cognitive needs of students. Related to this Fotovatian & Shokrpour (2007) cognitive strategies are used in the process of interaction with the material to be given to students, manipulating the material appropriately or applying certain techniques for learning tasks. In the context of schools, students read for various purposes such as the following: to get knowledge or facts related to a theme or problem to get an overall picture of a theme or problem to understand a problem to gather various opinions related to a problem. The impact of the application of the model and material carried out by the teacher in the classroom will lead to several factors such as psychological factors for students.

Besides, other factors influence students in reading comprehension, for example, the attitude of reading students to the reading text. Yamashita (2007) in Baki (2018) states that reading attitude is one of the factors that influence reading ability, it consists of three components, namely cognitive, affective and behavioral. Among the several physiological factors that have been discussed, there are also other inhibiting factors such as anxiety factors as stated in Saito, Horwitz, & Garza (1999) in Bahmani & Farvardin (2017). And (Liao & Wang, 2018). And (Kirby, Ball, Geier, Parrila, & Wadeâ€•Woolley, 2011).

**The methodology of the study**

This study applied survey research design by conducted observations to determine students' participation and responses in the process of teaching and learning English and researcher observed activity in the classroom towards attitudes, self-efficacy, anxiety, interest, and motivation of students by using Questionnaires to find out and complete the most dominant psychological factors that hinder students' reading comprehension. The questionnaire intended for respondents so that the researcher received their responses in the form of written data and it given to students is a list of questions that must be answered by students to add information. This item was adopted and modified from several previous studies by applying the Likert scale. It consisted of 25 numbers of psychological factors related to choices that prevented students from reading comprehension and. In the process of answering students are free to choose items contained in the questionnaire based on their manager.

The population in this study was all students of Senior High School at 3rd grade in Kendari which amounted to 108 students. There were two different majors of the grade that we investigated, i.e. IPA and IPS. Each class had a different total of the students. As seen in table 3. the total population at Senior High School at 3rd grade in Kendari below:
Table:

*The population and sample of students*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Senior High School</th>
<th>Majors</th>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Students Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SMA Negeri 4 Kendari</td>
<td>IPA</td>
<td>XII 1</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IPS</td>
<td>XII 2</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SMA Negeri 2 Kendari</td>
<td>IPA</td>
<td>XII 1</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>IPS</td>
<td>XII 2</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Students</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>108</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Adapted: SMA in Kendari, July 2018*

In analyzing the study findings in the class based on the results of the questionnaire, the researcher used descriptive analysis to find the difference in percentage. To find out the value obtained from psychological factors reading students, the scores obtained by students are changed in the form of values using the formula:

\[ P = \frac{F}{N} \times 100 \]

Where:
- \( P \) : Percentage
- \( F \) : The frequency of each answer chosen by the respondent
- \( N \) : Number of respondents

(Pardede & Tamba, 2018)

**Findings and Discussion**

The researcher finds out that the five factors that most dominant to psychological hinder students' reading comprehension, they are (a) attitudes, (b) self-efficacy, (c) anxiety, (d) interests, and motivation. The researcher started to analyze first is class XII IPA 1. Based on the analysis it was found that Attitude had a percentage of 68.2%, Self-efficacy of 65.8 % Anxiety of 67.7 %, Interest of 66.4 % and Motivation of 68.7 %. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that the most dominant psychological factors that hinder students' reading comprehension are motivation. On the other hand, the second class is XII IPS 2, it was found that Attitude had a percentage of 66.6 %, Self-efficacy of 60.4 % Anxiety of 69.6 %, Interest of 61.3 % and Motivation of 69.9%. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that the most dominant psychological factors that hinder students' reading comprehension are Motivation factors. Finally, the third class is XII IPA, found that Attitude had a percentage of 67.3 %,
Self-efficacy of 60.2 % Anxiety of 67.8 %, Interest of 58.8 % and Motivation of 71%. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that the most dominant psychological factors that hinder students' reading comprehension are Motivation factors. The fourth class is XII IPS, from the analysis found that Attitude had a percentage of 67.1 %, Self-efficacy of 57.9 % Anxiety of 67.9 %, Interest of 62.9 % and Motivation of 73.3 %. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that the most dominant psychological factors that hinder students' reading comprehension are Motivation factors. The first data is the questionnaire results are supported by the findings of the researcher from the observations found that students' interest and motivation in receiving lessons are very lacking. The researcher found a lack of motivation caused by the condition of the classrooms which were very hot when afternoon class hours were underway. In the learning process, the researcher sees the method used by the subject teacher is very monotonous, where the method used is speech and assignment methods. So that students' motivation in learning is very lacking. The secondly is the Psychological factors that hinder the reading comprehension of Senior High School in Kendari, students with agree criterion is dominated by students' motivation. This result is in line with Mokhtari and Reichard (2002) which states that in the domain of reading comprehension it has caused greater emphasis on the role of metacognitive awareness of one's cognitive processes and motivations when reading. That is, psychological factors are the dominant factor that leads to the reading comprehension of students in Senior High School in Kendari.

Ainley, Hidi et al. (2002) state that this behavior is associated with psychological conditions of positive influence on actions and tends to result in increased learning. In this case, desires and actions must play an active role in fostering students' confidence to improve their reading comprehension. The pattern of education must also be addressed, teachers not only transfer knowledge but also instruct students to read on their own and seek additional knowledge for themselves.

A study by Rahman in Mali (2015), the findings do indicate that instrumental motivation, such as finished a task and to build a successful in learning was the primary factor for the students to learn the target language. Responding to the findings in this study, teachers are required to be able to generate student motivation in learning with various techniques. In another study explained that based on the results of observation in Taiwan students found to have low self-efficacy and strategies used in the learning process not optimal in improving the quality of students' quality of English comprehension (Shang, 2010). These factors turn to undermine student motivation in learning and completing the task given.
In the learning process theoretically, students experience some difficulties in reading comprehension. These factors can be influenced by one, even more than one factor. These factors trigger the difficulty of learning. When the learning process takes place in the class at observations, teachers in motivating their students to learn must have many obstacles that come from other teachers, students, and the environment. Some of the factors that hinder the teacher's efforts to improve student learning motivation are as follows: (1) The classroom environment is not conducive, (2) The teaching methods delivered by subject teachers are monotonous and lecture so students feel bored to attend the teaching and learning process carried out in the classroom. So Among the hinder factors of the teacher in increasing the motivation of students' reading comprehension is the presence of students thinking about how badly he did compare to other students, the assumption of students that what they did was bad, so they did not want to try.

In solving the problem related to these factors is the role of the teacher on how to motivate students to get, knowledge, skills thanks to the teacher or peers by giving rewards and supporting them. Giving assignments to students to do both in grade and at home can increase students' motivation for reading comprehension, because students feel they have the responsibility to do it. Giving homework reading short stories is a powerful way to improve and facilitate students' reading comprehension.

**Conclusion**

From five Psychological Factors, including attitude, self-efficacy, anxiety, interest, and motivation that hinder students' reading comprehension at Senior High School in Kendari, the most dominant factor is the motivation of the students. This factor can be seen from the findings of contributions and overall achievement of the factors that influence students in answering questionnaires. The results of the questionnaire showed that the four classes, all the class that has the highest questionnaire results that show motivation is the most dominant factor that hinders students' reading comprehension. Furthermore, the percentage result of each class is XII IPA 1 with 68.7%, XII IPS 2 with 69.9%, XII IPA with 71%, and XII IPS with a percentage of 73.3%.

Data obtained is based on the results of questionnaires given to students when the research process takes place. Data processing is done using the SPSS Windows 20 application to support accurate data processing. Also, from the results of observations obtained by the researcher through monitoring the learning processes that take place in the classroom, the researcher found that students have different abilities so that some students are less interested
and motivated in accepting a task from the topic of reading. The condition of the room is also one of the factors that influence students in learning, such as the absence of air conditioning, this can disrupt students' concentration while studying. The application of methods from subject teachers is monotonous as long as learning takes place such as lecture and assignment methods so that students feel bored. The implication of this research is the need for learning motivation to pay special attention to teachers in learning reading comprehension. In addition, a more in-depth research is needed to be related to techniques to provide motivation in learning to read comprehension.

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A Constrastive Approach on Foreign Languages: German and English Tenses

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Abstract

Since very studies focusing on German and English tenses comparison, this research aims to fill the research gaps where not much publication is found on a contrastive analysis on English and German tenses. This research aims to describe the similarities and differences between English and German language tenses in terms of structural elements: past, present, and future tenses. The approach to compare these languages was a contrastive analysis. The result of the analysis shows that there are several differences between English and German. The future tense sentence is that German has a different verb position from English. German verb was placed at the end of the sentence, while English is positioned in the middle of the sentence following auxiliary. The present tense sentence is that German has different collocation from English. All German verbs must be collocated with the subject, while, in English, the only third singular subject has to be collocated with the subject. Concerning the past tense sentence, both English and German have to employ past tense verbs. This research has the implication of the teaching and learning German as both foreign language within Indonesian contexts. This study contributes to the understanding of tenses in both languages. Research on views of the teachers and lecturers as practitioners of both languages is recommended to further explore to build a comprehensive understanding of English and German differences in the context of teaching and learning.

Keywords: Contrastive Analysis, German, English, Tenses

Introduction

Contrastive analysis is one of the important types of analysis tools used in language teaching. It is also one of the key subjects that are taught in German and English units. This research aims to examine the grammatical difference between German and English including future tense, present tense, and past tense.

Johansson (2008, p. 9) defines contrastive analysis (CA) as “the systematic comparison of two or more languages, to describe their similarities and differences. CA has often been done for practical/pedagogical purposes. The aim has been to provide better descriptions and better teaching materials for language learners.” Also, Abdi, (2019) define a contrastive analysis as an approach to compare two languages by focusing on particular similarities and differences. These definitions provide the lens for conducting CA in language teaching particularly to enhancing understanding teaching materials and pedagogical purposes.
Globally, several researchers have researched contrastive analysis. For example, Liang & Han (2005) use a contrastive analysis approach to comparing politeness strategies of disagreement between American English & Mandarin Chinese. Akram (2008) conducted a study on contrasting speech acts of Urdu languages and English. Sebüktekin (2017) compared the Turkish morphology in corresponding to the English structure. Flöck (2016) conducted a contrastive analysis between requests in British English and American English. These investigations show that contrastive analysis has been applied in many contexts. In addition, Liang and Han (2005) conducted a contrastive study on disagreement strategies for politeness between American English & Mandarin Chinese.

In Indonesia, research on contrastive analysis was conducted in several areas. For instance, Daeng and Weda (2019) applied the contrastive analysis approach to comparing the syntax of three languages: Indonesian, Macassan, and English syntax. Also, Hamsa and Weda, (2019) conducted a comparative study on Indonesian and English through the identification of linguistics elements. Specifically, Saud and Weda (2019) carried out a comparative study of English and German syntactic variation on complex predicates in Indonesian university contexts.

From these studies in Indonesian contexts, it shows that none of the studies focuses on German and English tenses comparison. This study aims to fill the research gaps where not many studies have been conducted on a contrastive analysis on English and German tenses. Therefore, this study aims to compare English and German tenses within educational contexts. This paper is significant for lecturers to understand the comparison between grammatical features German and English language teaching.

Literature Review

In the search of the literature, there are several important references related to a contrastive analysis recently(Johansson, 2008; Lennon, 2008; Memon, Abbasi, & Umran, 2016). This literature works to become the underpinning research concept for this paper. The first, Johansson (2008) proposed a comprehensive model for contrastive analysis in language teaching. Using a corpus-based analysis model, he compared two languages: English and Norwegian languages. The paper focused on the contrastive analysis for undergraduate students’ levels. The findings suggest that parallel corpus-based between English and Norwegian provided a new lens for conducting similar analyses for different languages. Thus, the author recommends that such a corpus-based contrastive analysis can be a model for other languages.
Second, Lennon (2008) investigated the relationship between contrastive analysis, error analysis, and interference. The research is based on the theory of contrastive analysis, structuralist linguistics, and behaviorist psychology. Lennon identified that contrastive analysis is based on the notion of the audiolingual approach, and the application of contrastive analysis is important to predict language errors. Lennon further argued that contrastive analysis tends to reveal learners as passive users rather than active users of the language. This is due to the contrastive analysis that does not provide a set of language learning tasks for learners rather than a set of errors made by learners.

Thirdly, Memon, Abbasi, & Umran (2016) explored the contrastive analysis of two teaching methods: Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). They investigated the effectiveness of these two teaching methods to teach grammar. The research design used a Likert scale questionnaire to twenty teacher participants in Pakistan. The finding suggests that GTM is much effective in teaching grammar compared to CLT. It indicated by 60% of the participant prefer GTM compared to 40% of them like CLT. From the literature works, it indicated that comparative analysis is an important tool to compare and contrast two languages. None of the previous studies has investigated the contrastive analysis between German and English. This paper aims to explore the tenses differences between German and English.

**Methods**

**Research question**

This research is to respond to the following questions:

a. What are the similarities and differences between past tense elements of German and English?

b. What are the similarities and differences between past tense elements of German and English?

c. What are the similarities and differences between past tense elements of German and English?

**Data collection and analysis**

Data in this paper were taken from the corpus of two books: *Studio D for German* and *Headway for English*. The reasons for choosing these books because they were used for teaching at university levels both in German and English departments. Data collection aimed to provide, as suggested by Johansson (2008): a) to describe and compare tenses between German and
English; and b) to foresee difficulty level and c) to use the results to improve teaching materials.

The data analysis follows the suggestions of Johansson (2008):
   a. Selection of texts from two languages, in this case, German and English
   b. Comparing two language sources
   c. Identifying differences between two language sources
   d. Provide a comprehensive picture of two languages.

## Results

### Future tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>German</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I will go to my school.</td>
<td>Ich werde zu der Schule gehen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My father will go to the office.</td>
<td>Mein Vater wird zu dem Büro fahren’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He will go to the theater.</td>
<td>Du wirst in das Kino gehen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sentence of future tense use *will/going to* (English) and “werden. + infinitive” (German). There are several differences between German and English: a) The auxiliary verb in English does not change as the auxiliary of German; b) The auxiliary verb in English is followed directly by a verb. On the other hand, the auxiliary of German has to suit the main verb at the end of the sentence: “wird .... gehen.”. The examples as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>German</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I will go to the theater.</td>
<td>Ich werde in das Kino gehen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I will go to the theater</td>
<td>Du wirst in das Kino gehen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He will go to the theater</td>
<td>Er wird in das Kino gehen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She will go to the theater</td>
<td>Sie wird in das Kino gehen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It will go to the theater.</td>
<td>Es wird in das Kino gehen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We will go to the theater.</td>
<td>Wir werden in das Kino gehen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They will go to the theater.</td>
<td>Sie werden in das Kino gehen</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Present tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>German</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Your mother buys some sugar.</td>
<td>Deine Mutter kauft den Zucker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My daughter studies English.</td>
<td>Meine Tochter lernt English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>His son plays football.</td>
<td>Sein Sohn spielt den Fussball.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this present tense, both English and German the verb must be collocated with the subject, for example, third-person singular must be followed by an appropriate verb. In German, all verb must be collocated with the subject. The example is as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>German</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I go to school every day</td>
<td>Ich gehe jeden Tag in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You go to school every day</td>
<td>Du gehst jeden Tag in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He goes to school every day.</td>
<td>Er geht jeden Tag in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She goes to school every day.</td>
<td>Sie geht jeden Tag in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It goes to school every day.</td>
<td>Es geht jeden Tag in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We go to school every day.</td>
<td>Wir gehen jeden Tag in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They go to school every day.</td>
<td>Sie gehen jeden Tag in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In English, only third singular persons (she, he, it) has to be followed by certain verbs (s, es, ies). In German, all sentences have to be matched with the subjects, such as Ich stam + e, Du stam + st, Er, Sie ,Es stam + t, Wir stam + en, Ihr stam + t, dan Sie, Sie stam + en.

Past tense

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>German</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>She bought an apple.</td>
<td>Sie kaufte einen Apfel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We drunk a cup of coffee.</td>
<td>Wir tranken eine Kaffeeetasse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You asked the teacher.</td>
<td>Du fragtest den Lehrer.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The past tense sentence is “Rahmat ging in das Kin” (German), and “Rahmat went to the theatre” (English). Both English and German used “past” verb. In German, all verb must be collocated with the subject of the sentence. The examples are as follows:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>German</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I went to school yesterday.</td>
<td>Ich ging gestern in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He went to school yesterday.</td>
<td>Du gingst gestern in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He went to school yesterday.</td>
<td>Er ging gestern in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>She went to school yesterday.</td>
<td>Sie ging gestern in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I went to school yesterday.</td>
<td>Es ging gestern in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We went to school yesterday.</td>
<td>Wir gingen gestern in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They went to school yesterday.</td>
<td>Sie gingen gestern in die Schule.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Discussion**

From the findings, it reveals that the similarities of German and English can help to predict what Johansson (2008) claim as a way to predict difficulty level and to use the contrastive analysis results to improve the preparation and delivery of teaching materials. The finding of this study extends what Lennon (2008) argued understanding the similarities and differences of two languages can be used as a way to understand the type of errors in language learning and a way to formulate the solutions or feedback to language errors.

The contrastive analysis between German and English tenses can help learners to understand the syntax of two languages. This is due to that tenses are part of the syntax elements in both languages. Mair (2018) argues that the research on using a contrastive analysis approach especially German and English can improve several areas of both languages: the teaching foreign language, translations of both languages, benefits for the language communities, and complement the knowledge body of contrastive analysis. On the other hand, conducting contrastive analysis as Mair (2018) claims can be a source of difficulty for both learners if they do not pay attention to the similarities and differences of the two languages.

The contrastive analysis shows the linguistics differences among the two or more languages compared. The linguistics differences between German and English as it is suggested by Abdi (2019) that it can relate to the different meanings semantically and culturally. It means that the contrasting two languages may mean dissimilar semantically and culturally.

The understanding of comparative tenses in both English and German can help teachers to deliver writing effectively (Setyowati, Sukmawan, & El-Sulukkiyah, 2020) in both languages effectively. The theme of comparison in this study can be a source for professional development (Rosmaladewi, Abdul, & Basri, 2020) for teachers in both languages so that they can work in their teaching practice professionally. The mastery of both language tenses can
help students to be bilingual competence (Abduh & Rosmaladewi, 2018) for at least English and German grammar section. Further, the mastery of English and German tenses can improve both students and teacher’ cognitive skills (Setoodeh & Jadidi, 2020) because the mastery of bilingual tenses involve the cognitive process and development.

**Conclusion**

Both English and German have similarities and differences. The similarities are that both languages used auxiliary and verbs and verbs changes according to the situation. The differences are seen from the present, past, and future tenses of two languages. The future tense sentence is that German has a different verb position from English. German verb was placed at the end of the sentence, while English is positioned in the middle of the sentence following auxiliary. The present tense sentence is that German has different collocation from English. All German verbs must be collocated with the subject, while, in English, the only third singular subject has to be collocated with the subject. Concerning the past tense sentence, both English and German have to employ past tense verbs.

By looking at similarities and differences, the teaching of tenses of the two languages relies on the creativity of teachers to deliver appropriate teaching materials that suit student levels. The findings of this research recommend conducting further research on the experience of teachers teaching tenses, the use of media in teaching tenses, and the current implication of curriculum changes to the teaching of tenses in both languages; German and English.

**Pedagogical Implications**

There are several pedagogical implications for this study:

a. Lecturers and researcher need to understand both language tenses to be able to teach them properly in many different contexts.

b. The comparison of both German and English tenses can help teachers identifying the differences and the similarities of two languages so that they can teach both languages in foreign language contexts comprehensively.

c. Understanding the two tenses of the two languages (German and English) can help learners to learn both language tenses fasters

d. Mastering two language tenses can assist the learners to become a competent person in two languages or being bilinguals.

e. Teachers of English and German need to pay attention on the grammatical differences and similarities to deliver contrastive teaching effectively.
f. Teachers have now basic references for the comparison between English and German tenses so that they use for the basis of future research references.
g. For student teachers, this research result provides a comparative description between English and German, so that they can utilize for their teaching practicum and inform their students about the similarities and differences.

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Pre-University ESL Learners’ Attitude Towards M-Learning: An Investigation on the Moderating Role of Gender

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Nur Yasmin Khairani Zakaria is a lecturer at the Centre for Innovations in Teaching and Learning, Faculty of Education, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM). Her research areas are massive open online course and gamified learning.

Abstract

Based on the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT), this research examined the moderating role of gender in the relationship between performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, perceived language learning potential, learning preference and self-management of learning, and pre-university English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards m-learning. Quantitative research design was employed in
In order to quantify and test the research hypotheses. A data collection instrument adapted from previous studies was developed and administered. The respondents were 378 polytechnic ESL learners from four different zones. Bootstrapping was conducted to test each of the hypotheses. The results indicated that gender moderates the relationships between performance expectancy and attitude as well as the relationship between learning preference and attitude. The findings imply relative differences in the important role of gender in learners’ attitude towards m-learning. This has given another perspective in the theory in which gender have not influence the relationships of the factors. Thus, activities or tasks for mobile learning could cater both genders (male and female). The results also indicated that strategic plans and guidelines considering the role of gender need to be developed in order to include all critical success factors for the sustainable deployment of mobile learning to enhance English as a Second Language learning among pre-university ESL learners. It is hoped that the findings of this study could offer implications for research and practice in the area of m-learning for ESL.

**Keywords**: UTAUT, gender, m-Learning, attitude, ESL learners

**Introduction**

The development of 21st century learning, request teachers to find measures that would address and serve the vast population of diversified learners in acquiring second language (Yunus et al., 2018). Mobile learning is seen as a learning tool that would address the vast population of the diversified learners and allows students to learn anywhere and anytime without being confined in a physical classroom (Ismail et al., 2017). Learning can take place anywhere as long as learners are equipped with the right tool and know how to use it appropriately (Mohamad et al., 2017). The potential benefits of using mobile devices for learning have been widely touted from a range of purposes, including cost savings, ubiquitous communications, study aids, and location-based services (Cheon et al., 2012). Mobile learning is proven to help learners to make faster progress than the traditional ways (Soraya et al., 2014; Yunus et al., 2010). In a study conducted by Kurniawan (2017), students were found to have a positive acceptance towards m-learning as they put their attention to access learning material continuously repeatedly.

In Malaysia, the reception of mobile learning is seen as encouraging (Hashim et al., 2010), thus, it is becoming widespread and research in this area is urgently needed (Economides & Grousopoulou, 2009). In the past several years, many researchers have investigated the use and effectiveness of mobile devices for second language learning and until
today, mobile learning has continued to attract the interest of several researchers (Hashim et al., 2018). Despite of that, mobile learning is still considered one of the new research areas in language teaching and learning (Mandlakayise Patrick Mthethwa, 2014).

Nonetheless, the use of mobile learning in supporting students’ language learning need could be ineffective if the students reluctant to use it (Sharples et al., 2005). Learners should accept and intend to use a proposed solution before the solution could be implemented (Venkatesh et al., 2007). Apart from investigating factors affecting students’ behaviour of using technology, the role of gender should not be left aside. Additionally, according to several studies, the gender of the learners does play a significant role in learning a second or foreign language (Ok, 2003). Females were found to be more in expressing opinions and tended to be passive in class (Novio et al., 2018).

The role of gender in the original TAM has been analysed since the end of the ‘90s. Gefen and Straub (1997) pointed out that gender has generally been avoided in behavioural research in the IT field. However, it is believed that the influence of gender can be decisive. Gender is one of the fundamental variables which is likely to have an influence on individual learners’ perceptions and use of network-based computer resources such as emails and the Internet in the workplace (Morris & Morris et al., 2005; Ong & Lai, 2006; Venkatesh, 2000). In a study conducted by Hargittai and Shafer (2006), the gender effects appear to be significant with respect to self-perceived skill levels.

According to the UTAUT model by Venkatesh et al. (2003), the moderating variable of gender is very important in understanding the characteristics of different user groups. Sun and Zhang (2006) stated it is important to examine the potential moderating effects in user technology acceptance. Additionally, Lee et al. (2016) mentioned that an individual learning style may be influenced by the gender to which one belongs. In a different study, Karthigeyan and Nirmala (2013) and Nematipour (2012) found that the differences between learning styles and autonomy in relationship to gender were not significant. Gender is theorised to play a moderating role on the influence of performance expectancy on behavioural intention (Morris & Venkatesh, 2000; Venkatesh & Morris, 2000). The influence of performance expectancy on behavioural intention will be moderated by gender and that the effect will be stronger for men and particularly for younger men (Venkatesh et al., 2003). As for effort expectancy, the effect being stronger for women, particularly younger women (Venkatesh et al., 2003). For the influence of social influence on behavioural intentions, the effect is stronger for women (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Thus, this research examined the moderating role of gender in the relationship between performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, perceived
language learning potential, earning preference and self-management of learning, and pre-university English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards m-learning.

Methodology

A survey was distributed among semester one students at four Malaysian polytechnics across different programmes. Students responded to the survey on their perception of performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence. The items were derived from different research areas and were adapted in the context of mobile technologies. 378 valid cases with 8 variables and a total of 40 items were used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) testing. Bootstrapping was conducted to test each of the hypotheses. In examining the effect of moderator (gender), this study employed the method proposed by Zainudin (2015). Analyses on moderation were conducted for performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, perceived language learning potential and learning preference as illustrated in the following figure.

![Conceptual Framework of the Study](image)

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework of the Study

Findings & Discussion

In analysing the effect of gender as moderator in the relationship between performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, perceived language learning potential and learning preference on the Malaysian polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude for using mobile learning; data were split into two groups which are male and female. The path of interest was selected one at a time to test the moderator. The differences
in Chi-square values between constrained model and unconstrained model for each path were obtained. If the value for each testing differs by more than 3.84, then the moderation occurs in the path (Zainudin, 2015). The results are presented in the following table;

**The moderation effect of gender in the relationship between Performance Expectancy and Attitude**

In order to test the moderation effect of gender in the relationship between performance expectancy and attitude, Chi-square values for both constrained and unconstrained models were obtained. The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. The Chi-Square Value and DF for the constrained and unconstrained model for male group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1704.307</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.836</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4125.698</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>6.195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>1682.301</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.804</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4125.698</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>6.195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to Table 1, the Chi-square value for constrained model for male group is 1704.307 while for the unconstrained model is 1682.301. The moderation test for male group
was conducted by obtaining the difference between both values. The results are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The moderation test for Male group data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>Chi-Square Difference</th>
<th>Result on Moderation</th>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-Square</td>
<td>1704.307</td>
<td>1682.301</td>
<td>22.006</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hypothesis statements:

**$H_{014}$** Gender does not moderate the relationship between performance expectancy and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning. 
($\alpha = 0.10$)

**$H_{14}$** Gender does moderate the relationship between performance expectancy and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning. 
($\alpha = 0.10$)

** The moderation test is significant since the difference in Chi-Square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is more than 3.84.

Based on Table 2, the difference in Chi-square value is 22.006 (1704.307 - 1682.301), while the difference in Degree of Freedom is 599 – 598 = 1. For the test to be significant, the difference in Chi-square value must be higher than the value of Chi-square with 1 Degree of Freedom, which is 3.84. The results show that the moderation test for male group is significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. The procedure for performing the test of moderation for performance expectancy using another data set (female) was then carried out. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3 The Chi-Square Value and DF for the constrained and unconstrained model for female group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1578.557</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>2.622</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

45
Referring to Table 3, the Chi-Square value for constrained model for female group is 1578.557 while for the unconstrained model is 1536.577. The moderation test for female group was conducted by obtaining the difference between both values. The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4. The moderation test for female group data
Chi-Square 1578.557 1536.577 41.98 Significant
DF 599 598 1

The hypothesis statement:

$H_{014}$ Gender does not moderate the relationship between performance expectancy and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

$(\alpha = 0.10)$

$H_{14}$ Gender does moderate the relationship between performance expectancy and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

$(\alpha = 0.10)$

** The moderation test is significant since the difference in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is more than 3.84.

Based on Table 4, the difference in Chi-square value is 41.98 ($1578.557 - 1536.577$), while the difference in Degree of Freedom is $599 - 598 = 1$. The results show that the moderation test for female group is significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. In order to identify which group is more pronounced, the standardised parameter estimates and its significant for both groups were obtained. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5 The effect of PE on A is for male and female group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Standardised Beta Estimate</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>PE</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on Table 5, the standardised parameter estimate for “female” is 0.75 while the same estimate for “male” is 0.60. Thus, it can be concluded that the effect of PE on Attitude is more pronounced in “female” group compared to “male” group.

**The moderation effect of gender in the relationship between Effort Expectancy and Attitude**

In order to test the moderation effect of gender in the relationship between effort expectancy and attitude, Chi-square values for both constrained and unconstrained models were obtained. The results are shown in Table 6.

Table 6 The Chi-square Value and DF for the constrained and unconstrained model for male group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1405.603</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4125.698</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>6.195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>1405.141</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4125.698</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>6.195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to Table 6, the Chi-square value for constrained model for male group is 1405.603 while for the unconstrained model is 1405.141. The moderation test for male group
was conducted by obtaining the difference between both values. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7. The moderation test for Male group data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>Chi-square Difference</th>
<th>Result on Moderation</th>
<th>Result on Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>1405.603</td>
<td>1405.141</td>
<td>0.462</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
<td>Failed to reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hypothesis statement:

H₀₁₅ Gender does not moderate the relationship between effort expectancy and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

(α = 0.10)

H₁₅ Gender does moderate the relationship between effort expectancy and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

(α = 0.10)

** The moderation test is not significant since the difference in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is less than 3.84.

Based on Table 7, the difference in Chi-square value is 0.462 (1405.603 – 1405.141), while the difference in Degree of Freedom is 599 – 598 = 1. The results show that the moderation test for male group is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is failed to be rejected. The procedure for performing the test of moderation for effort expectancy using another data set (female) was then carried out. The results are as follows:

Table 8. The Chi-square Value and DF for the constrained and unconstrained model for female group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1493.87</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.494</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Referring to Table 8, the Chi-square value for constrained model for female group is 1493.877 while for the unconstrained model is 1491.462. The moderation test for female group was conducted by obtaining the difference between both values. The results are presented in Table 9.

Table 9. The moderation test for female group data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>Chi-square Difference</th>
<th>Result on Moderation</th>
<th>Result on Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>5794.58</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>NPAR 103</td>
<td>CMIN 1491.46</td>
<td>DF 2</td>
<td>P 0.000</td>
<td>CMIN/DF 2.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>5794.58</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The hypothesis statements:

\( H_{0_{15}} \) Gender does not moderate the relationship between effort expectancy and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

\( (\alpha = 0.10) \)

\( H_{1_{15}} \) Gender does moderate the relationship between effort expectancy and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

\( (\alpha = 0.10) \)

**The moderation test is not significant since the difference in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is more than 3.84.**

Based on Table 9, the difference in Chi-square value is 2.415 (1493.877 – 1491.462), while the difference in Degree of Freedom is 599 – 598 = 1. The results show that gender does not moderate the relationship between effort expectancy and attitude. Therefore, the null hypothesis is failed to be rejected.

The moderation effect of gender in the relationship between Social Influence and Attitude

In order to test the moderation effect of gender in the relationship between social influence and attitude, Chi-square values for both constrained and unconstrained models were obtained. The results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10. The Chi-Square Value and DF for the constrained and unconstrained model for male group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1405.993</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Referring to Table 10, the Chi-square value for constrained model for male group is 1405.993 while for the unconstrained model is 1405.141. The moderation test for male group was conducted by obtaining the difference between both values. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. The moderation test for Male group data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Default Model</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4125.698</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>6.195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hypothesis statements:

\( H_{016} \) Gender does not moderate the relationship between social influence and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning. (\( \alpha = 0.10 \))

\( H_{16} \) Gender does moderate the relationship between social influence and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning. (\( \alpha = 0.10 \))

** The moderation test is not significant since the difference in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is less than 3.84.
Based on Table 11, the difference in Chi-square value is 0.852 (1405.993 - 1405.141), while the difference in Degree of Freedom is 599 – 598 = 1. The results show that the moderation test for male group is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is failed to be rejected. The procedure for performing the test of moderation for social influence using another data set (female) is carried out. The results are as follows:

Table 12. The Chi-square Value and DF for the constrained and unconstrained model female group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1491.621</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.490</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>5794.584</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>8.701</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>1491.462</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>5794.584</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>8.701</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to Table 12, the Chi-Square value for constrained model for male group is 1491.621 while for the unconstrained model is 1491.462. The moderation test for female group was conducted by obtaining the difference between both values. The results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. The moderation test for female group data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>Chi-square Difference</th>
<th>Result on Moderation</th>
<th>Result on Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

53
The hypothesis statements:

\(H_0\) Gender does not moderate the relationship between social influence and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

\((\alpha = 0.10)\)

\(H_1\) Gender does moderate the relationship between social influence and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

\((\alpha = 0.10)\)

**The moderation test is not significant since the difference in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is more than 3.84.**

Based on Table 13, the difference in Chi-square value is 0.159 (1491.621 - 1491.462), while the difference in Degree of Freedom is 599 – 598 = 1. The results show that gender does not moderate the relationship between social influence and attitude. Therefore, the null hypothesis is failed to be rejected.

**The moderation effect of gender in the relationship between Perceived Language Learning Potential and Attitude**

In order to test the moderation effect of gender in the relationship between perceived language learning potential and attitude, Chi-square values for both constrained and unconstrained models were obtained. The results are shown in Table 14.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1405.529</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.346</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4125.698</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>6.195</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Referring to Table 14, the Chi-square value for constrained model for male group is 1405.529 while for the unconstrained model is 1405.141. The moderation test for male group was conducted by obtaining the difference between both values. The results are presented in Table 15.

Table 15. The moderation test for Male group data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>1405.141</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.350</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4125.698</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>6.195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hypothesis statements:

H₀₁₇ Gender does not moderate the relationship between perceived language learning potential and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning. (α = 0.10) Failed to reject

H₁₇ Gender does moderate the relationship between perceived language learning potential and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning. (α = 0.10) Rejected

** The moderation test is not significant since the difference in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is less than 3.84.

Based on Table 15, the difference in Chi-square value is 0.388 (1405.529 - 1405.141), while the difference in Degree of Freedom is 599 – 598 = 1. The results show that the moderation test for male group is not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is failed to be
rejected. The procedure for performing the test of moderation for perceived language learning potential using another data set (female) is carried out. The results are as follows.

Table 16. The Chi-square Value and DF for the constrained and unconstrained model for female group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1494.007</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>5794.584</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>8.701</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>1491.462</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.494</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>5794.584</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>8.701</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to Table 16, the Chi-square value for constrained model for female group is 1494.007 while for the unconstrained model is 1491.462. The moderation test for female group was conducted by obtaining the difference between both values. The results are presented in Table 17.

Table 17. The moderation test for female group data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>Chi-square Difference</th>
<th>Result on Moderation</th>
<th>Result on Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

56
The hypothesis statements:

H_{017}  Gender does not moderate the relationship between perceived language learning potential and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.  
(α = 0.10) Failed to reject

H_{17}  Gender does moderate the relationship between perceived language learning potential and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.  
(α = 0.10) Rejected

** The moderation test is not significant since the difference in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is more than 3.84.

Based on Table 17, the difference in Chi-square value is 2.545 (1494.007 - 1491.462), while the difference in Degree of Freedom is 599 – 598 = 1. The result shows that gender does not moderate the relationship between perceived language learning potential and attitude. Therefore, the null hypothesis is failed to be rejected.

**The moderation effect of gender in the relationship between Learning Preference and Attitude**

In order to test the moderation effect of gender in the relationship between perceive language learning potential and attitude, Chi-square values for both constrained and unconstrained models were obtained. The results are shown in Table 18.

Table 18. The Chi-square Value and DF for the constrained model for male group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1419.622</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.358</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>4125.698</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>6.195</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Referring to Table 18, the Chi-square value for constrained model for male group is 1419.622 while for the unconstrained model is 1415.448. The moderation test for male group was conducted by obtaining the difference between both values. The results are presented in Table 19.

Table 19. The moderation test for Male group data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>Chi-square Difference</th>
<th>Result on Moderation</th>
<th>Result on Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square</td>
<td>1419.622</td>
<td>1415.448</td>
<td>4.174</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DF</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The hypothesis statements:

$H_{0i8}$ Gender does not moderate the relationship between learning preference and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

($\alpha = 0.10$)

$H_{1i8}$ Gender does not moderate the relationship between learning preference and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

Failed to reject ($\alpha = 0.10$)

** The moderation test is not significant since the difference in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is more than 3.84.

Based on Table 19, the difference in Chi-square value is 4.174 ($1419.622 - 1415.448$), while the difference in Degree of Freedom is 599 – 598 = 1. The results show that moderation test on male is significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. The procedure for
performing the test of moderation for learning preference using another data set (female) was then carried out. The results are as follows:

Table 20. The Chi-square Value and DF for the constrained and unconstrained model for female group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>1523.060</td>
<td>599</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.530</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>5794.584</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>8.701</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>NPAR</th>
<th>CMIN</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>CMIN/DF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Default Model</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>1516.241</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>2.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saturated Model</td>
<td>703</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independence Model</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>5794.584</td>
<td>666</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>8.701</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Referring to Table 20, the Chi-square value for constrained model for female group is 1523.060 while for the unconstrained model is 1516.241. The moderation test for female group was conducted by obtaining the difference between both values. The results are presented in Table 21.

Table 21 The moderation test for female group data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Constrained Model</th>
<th>Unconstrained Model</th>
<th>Chi-square Difference</th>
<th>Result on Moderation</th>
<th>Result on Hypothesis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

59
The hypothesis statements:

H$_{018}$ Gender does not moderate the relationship between learning preference and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

(α = 0.10)

H$_{18}$ Gender does moderate the relationship between learning preference and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude towards mobile learning.

(α = 0.10)

** The moderation test is significant since the difference in Chi-square value between the constrained and unconstrained model is more than 3.84.

Based on Table 21, the difference in Chi-square value is 6.819 (1523.060 – 1516.241), while the difference in Degree of Freedom is 599 – 598 = 1. The results show that the moderation test on female is significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. In order to identify which group is more pronounced, the standardised parameter estimates and its significant for both groups were obtained. The results are presented in Table 22.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Standardised Beta Estimate</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>LP</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>0.540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>0.362</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The standardised parameter estimated for “male” is 0.540 while the same estimate for “female” is 0.362. Thus, it can be concluded that the effect of LP on Attitude is more pronounced in “male” group compared to “female” group.

Summary of results
Table 23. Results on Moderation Role of Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Results on Moderation</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performance Expectancy</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>The effect is more pronounced in F group compared to M group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effort Expectancy</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
<td>Gender does not moderate the relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Influence</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
<td>Gender does not moderate the relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived Language Learning Potential</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
<td>Gender does not moderate the relationship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning Preference</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>The effect is more pronounced in M group compared to F group</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the Table 23, gender only moderates the relationship between performance expectancy and attitude as well as the relationship between learning preference and attitude. For performance expectancy, the difference in Chi-square values for both male and female group show that the modification test for both groups is significant. Therefore, gender was found to moderate the relationship between performance expectancy and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude for using mobile learning. The standardised parameter estimate for “female” is 0.75 while the same estimate for “male” is 0.60.

Thus, it can be concluded that the effect of PE on Attitude is more pronounced in “female” group compared to “male” group. As for learning preference, the difference in Chi-square values for both male and female group show that the modification test for both groups is significant. Therefore, gender was found to moderate the relationship between learning preference and polytechnic English as a Second Language (ESL) learners’ attitude for using mobile learning. The standardised parameter estimated for “male” is 0.540 while the same
estimate for “female” is 0.362. Thus, it can be concluded that the effect of learning preference on attitude is more pronounced in “male” group compared to “female” group. This result is consistent with Venkatesh and Morris (2000). They discovered that gender is an important determinant of attitude which lead to short-term usage and can be used to predict sustained usage.

**Conclusion**

To conclude, gender was found to moderate only between the relationships of performance expectancy and learning preference, and attitude. This has given another perspective in the theory in which gender have not influence the relationships of the factors. Thus, activities or tasks for mobile learning could cater both genders (male and female). The results also indicated that pre-university institutions need to develop strategic plans and provide guidelines considering the role of gender in order to include all critical success factors for the sustainable deployment of mobile learning in order to enhance English language learning.

**Pedagogical Implication**

Pedagogically, this study has potential implications for the implementation of mobile learning. Gender has found to moderate the relationship between performance expectancy and learners’ attitude towards mobile learning as well as the relationship between learning preference and learners’ attitude towards mobile learning. Thus, it is suggested that more concern is given on how to increase students’ awareness on the potential usage of mobile learning to increase their ESL proficiency level regardless of their gender. The results of this study could provide insight into what factors need to be considered for designing mobile learning applications for learning English language.

**Acknowledgement**

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What does competence mean during the transition to language teaching?
Insights from future-oriented identities of Filipino NLTs

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Eunbi Kwon²
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Abstract

Beliefs about one’s competence have hounded individuals during normative life transitions. In this paper, we attempt to answer the question: What does competence mean among new language teachers (NLTs) as they transition into their role as English language teachers? To address this, we explored the notion of language teacher possible selves, which are identity relevant constructs about what NLTs hope to be or fear becoming (Kubanyiova, 2007). We drew data from interviews with NLTs (n=15), who were either pre-service language teachers in their final practicum semester or in-service language teachers in their initial year of teaching practice. The interview data were analyzed thematically to conjecture the predominance of competence-related future-oriented language teacher identities. We found that competence was indeed a salient dimension of NLT identity. This is seen in the emergence of a ‘competent language teacher self’ and a countervailing ‘incompetent language teacher self’ in the NLTs’ future oriented self-concept. NLTs were motivated by a desire to move toward competence in three aspects: knowledge, teaching confidence, and behavior toward teaching. On the other hand, they espoused a desire to move away from incompetence in two aspects: knowledge and teacher character. We discuss the implications of these language teacher identity constructs – NLT possible selves – for ELT preparation and practicum.

Keywords: teacher competence, language teacher possible selves, language teacher identity, teacher transition, Filipino teachers

Introduction

Beliefs about one’s competence have hounded individuals during normative life transitions. Among language teachers, competence is a prevalent issue during the transition into the English language teaching (ELT) role. The prevalence of the need to demonstrate personal competence during the transition into language teachers’ specific roles and teaching context makes it ‘an important source of identity formation’ (Tsui, 2007, p. 674). Anderman et al. (1999, in Oyserman & Fryberg, 2006) maintained that ‘wanting to do schoolwork in order to prove one's competence or to appear more able or competent than other students.’ Among new language teachers, this seems to also be the case as evidenced by an abundance of studies focused on the subject (Bernardo & Malakolunthu, 2013; Dayagbil, 2013; Kayi-Aydar, 2015; Pavlenko, 2003; Peacock, 2001; Song, 2016; Trent, 2013; Tsui, 2007, 2013; Valmori & De Costa, 2016; Vilches, 2015; Xu, 2013; Yuan, 2016).
Competence is intricately linked with teacher identity. Tsui (2007) demonstrated this by examining competence in the context of teacher professional identity and using narrative inquiry. Anchored on Wenger’s (1998 in Tsui, 2007), the study followed Minfang, a male Chinese EFL teacher, through his six-year journey as an EFL learner initially and an EFL teacher consequentially. The analysis revealed complicated links between membership, competence, and legitimacy of access to practice. Minfang cautiously monitored his utterances and made sure that he did not commit grammatical mistakes to avoid being viewed as professionally incompetent. Competence was thus found to encompass knowledge on how to interact with students and teachers and to navigate through ELT as an enterprise in which members are engaged.

Perception about one’s competence is influenced by external and internal factors. Xu (2013) investigated four Chinese EFL teachers’ imagined identities and practiced identities while teaching in K-12 schools in China. Using interview, journal, and classroom observation data collected longitudinally through four years, the study revealed that teacher identities related to competence shifted from ones based on external rules to ones based on the EFL teachers’ own schema of what it means to be a competent teacher. The participants reported the need to nurture novice teachers to be guided more effectively and positively. This is against a backdrop where, for example, age, not actual teacher competence, was rewarded, which proved to be a blow on their own perceptions of teaching competence.

Competence is multifaceted. In her study of the profiles of an effective English teacher in the context of Philippine secondary schools, Saban (2015) argued that effective teachers possess “personal and professional practices and qualities that made them effective and rise above the countless challenges in the public education system (p. 122). Questionnaire and interview data gathered from 22 public school English teachers point to several facets of teacher competence, namely “purpose-driven, language learning-focused, concerned for students’ overall welfare, highly family-oriented, connected to God, well-informed in their area of teaching, articulate, organized and prepared, student-centred, committed to teaching, adaptable and teachable, willing to learn, resilient optimistic” (p. 128).

A quick review of studies that examined language teacher competence shows that a majority hinged on a non-‘self’ notion of competence or, if the focus was the ‘self,’ were limited to the present language teacher self. It can thus be said that current research on competence uses the present time as temporal anchor, whereby language teachers assess their competence based on the context during which data were gathered. To date, very little has been done to document competence deduced from the direction that language teachers hope to or
fear taking in the future. To this end, the introduction of Markus and Nurius’ (1986) possible selves theory has the potential to enrich current understanding of competence and identity among language teachers. Although the theory was traditionally used as an anchor in investigating youth’s and students’ identity and motivation (Gaines et al., 2017; Macayan & Quinto, 2015; Oyserman, Bybee, Terry, & Hart-Johnson, 2004; Oyserman & Fryberg, 2006; Quinto & Castillo, 2016; White & Ding, 2009), it has recently been used to investigate teacher identity and experiences (Hiver, 2013) for a number of sound practical and theoretical reasons. For one, language teacher possible selves (Kubanyiova, 2007, 2009) are socially construed and personalized future-oriented notions of the self. Kubanyiova (2007) defined possible language teacher self as the future dimension of teachers’ cognitions, which embraces personalized and socially construed (Markus & Nurius, 1986) cognitive representations of language teachers’ ‘ideal, ought-to, and feared selves in relation to their work as language teachers’ (Kubanyiova, 2009, p. 315). By using language teacher possible selves as a bellwether of the ongoing competence-focused identity construction of new language teachers, it is the hope of this paper to enrich current understanding of what it means to be competent (or otherwise) among new language teachers as they transition into the English language teaching (ELT) role.

It is said that individuals undergoing critical life transitions, in this case transition into the ELT role, reflect very deeply and critically on the changes that surround their immediate context. Therefore, by inquiring on language teacher possible selves, the research aims to gather identity and, in this case, competence-related information from using the lens of teacher possible selves. The aim of the paper is then to understand the future-oriented notion of competence among Filipino NLTs. As such, the objective is encapsulated in one question: *Along what future-oriented notions of competence do new language teachers (NLTs) define themselves?*

**Method**

To achieve the aim of this study, the researchers utilized a qualitative research design using semi-structured interviews as data gathering tool. Broadly defined, a semi-structured interview is a technique used to collect qualitative data by setting up a situation that allows a participant the time and scope to talk about their opinions on a subject. The objective is to understand the participants’ point of view about a language teaching and learning phenomenon (Macayan, Quinto, Otsuka, & Cueto, 2018a, 2018b; Quinto, 2015; Quinto & Macayan, 2019; Quinto, Ofalia, Bae, & Salonga, 2019), which is on language teacher identity in relation to
competence. This is part of a larger project on teacher possible selves among Filipino language teachers (Quinto, 2018).

The interview questions were generally open-ended questions that are few in number (Creswell, 2014) and intended to elicit rich descriptions about future-oriented identities (Hamman et al., 2013) among NLTs. Four questions guided the first interviews with new language teachers; however, as the concurrent qualitative data gathering and analysis and constant comparison of interview data unfolded (Corbin & Strauss, 1990), new questions emerged to ensure that data saturation was achieved (Bowen, 2008).

The participants in the study are practicum semester and one-year beginning English language teachers in the Philippines. Collectively, they shall be called ‘new language teachers’ (NLTs), a term adopted from Hamman et al. (2010), encompassing two groups facing the same transitional phase ‘marked by a realignment or accommodation of professional identity’ (p. 1350).

NLTs were sampled using a maximum variation, purposeful sampling technique (Patton, 1990; Sandelowski, 1995), which ‘aims at capturing and describing the central themes or principal outcomes that cut across a great deal of participant variation’ (Patton, 1990, p. 172). Maximum variation sampling was focused on different teacher characteristics. By focusing only at maximally varying demographic characteristics with which NLTs may be different, the researchers addressed potential issues in the disparity of cases (Patton, 1990).

Following this technique, 20 participants were initially identified to participate in this study; with the researchers being open for more participants should new codes continue to emerge along the way. Thus, it was data saturation in the tradition of grounded theory research (Corbin & Strauss, 1990) that the researchers were most concerned with in determining the final number of participants. This entailed ‘bringing new participants continually into the study until the data set is complete, as indicated by data replication or redundancy’ (Bowen, 2008, p. 140). During the concurrent data gathering and analysis, data saturated after the seventh interview among pre-service language teachers and after the eighth interview among in-service language teachers. The final sample participants included 15 NLTs from five TEIs with Center of Excellence in Teacher Education in Manila (pre-service = 7; in-service = 8).

All participants were not personally acquainted with the researchers. Thus, they initially sought permissions from five teacher education institutions (TEIs). A letter of invitation which explains the nature and purpose of the study was sent to the respective TEIs. A standard interview protocol with minor differences based on whether the participant was a pre-service or in-service teacher guided the conduct of the semi-structured interviews. Each interview
lasted for 45 minutes to an hour and 30 minutes. The same interview questions were asked the participants, but, as the researchers went along the 15 semi-structured interviews, it became necessary to ask probing questions, which assisted them in clarifying concepts, addressing issues, and ensuring data saturation. A majority of the interviews were conducted in venues determined by the TEIs, although some were carried out in venues participants requested for their convenience. After each interview, a simple token was given the participant.

To remain consistent with elements of grounded theory procedures (Bowen, 2008; Corbin & Strauss, 1990), data processing was carried out immediately after each interview. Data processing involves transcribing audio material. Because transcribing interviews could be tedious, the researchers heeded the advice of using computer support (Schmidt, 2004), particularly an online time stretcher. This data processing procedure went on for each of the semi-structured interviews. The output was a material that was ready for coding.

Codes from a previous interview were necessary before the next interview. Thus, the material was coded immediately after data processing. Coding was carried out in the tradition of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006), which coincides with material-oriented formation of analytical categories (Schmidt, 2004, p. 254). Here, attention in the reading of the transcripts was guided by ‘the researcher’s own theoretical prior knowledge and the research questions (Schmidt, 2004, p. 254). Coding continued after every sequence of data gathering and processing until data saturation was reached. After the last sequence of interview, transcribing, and coding, the researchers reviewed and finalized to ensure that each extracted code identifies ‘a feature of the data that appears interesting’ (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 18), which could be ‘assessed in a meaningful way regarding the phenomenon’ (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 63).

Results

The theoretical thematic analysis of semi-structured interview data revealed two salient and countervailing themes of teacher possible selves in the participants future-oriented notions of competence. These are ‘a competent language teacher’ and ‘an incompetent language teacher’, which are discussed in this section accordingly.

**A competent language teacher**

Career transition primes identity-relevant thoughts about one’s competence. During this phase, individuals appraise their current abilities vis-à-vis expectations to deliver instructional and curricular outcomes. Because of the developmental nature of self-beliefs, the impacts of
transition, among Filipino NLTs, could be traced in the rise of a hoped-for competent language teacher self, which is the first competence-related theme that emerged from the data.

Among new language teachers, the transition into their respective current teaching contexts primed judgments about their knowledge and abilities to achieve expected instructional and curricular outcomes. It represented a phase when they projected their next-year competence in relation to their current individual and social contexts and realities. For the participants, their acting and being new language teachers in their current teaching contexts shaped and were shaped by the salience of certain possible selves. For them, the coming year serves a temporal marker of an emerging hoped-for competent language teacher self, apparent in three aspects: knowledge, teaching confidence, and behavior toward teaching.

Situated along a personal dimension, a competent language teacher self primarily emerges from new teachers’ appraisal of the knowledge they must possess in the coming year. For most participants, being competent meant being knowledgeable and gaining and deepening one’s knowledge is a language teacher possible self that is worth approaching.

(1) I hope to be more knowledgeable in types of speeches and other speaking activities/topics such as impromptu speeches, debates, etc. (Carina, 21)

(2) I think I know general things about the language itself, but I want to deepen more about my knowledge. I only know this level, and I want to know more about it. I want to deepen everything about it. (Mary, 19)

(3) I want to be the ultimate source of knowledge. (Adrian, 21)

(4) I hope to add some more in their knowledge, since this type of century we have, 21st century, plus you have 21st century learners, um, we need to have more knowledge, yeah more knowledge, whether it’s reality based or experience based. (Shy, 22)

(5) I want to explore teaching topics that are not taught in the grade levels that I have taught already. I want to widen my knowledge of those topics. I think I need several years for me to fully tell to myself that really I am a knowledgeable and competent language teacher. (Maritess, 21)

For these new language teachers, becoming competent meant acquiring the necessary knowledge expected of a language teacher in the coming year. The knowledge-based competence apparent in these language teachers’ possible selves took several forms. For Carina, it was knowledge about topics and activities related to speaking. Mary imagined her
competence in terms of a deep understanding of language, as opposed to a general one. Adrian’s competent language teacher self resonated a traditional view of the teacher as the ultimate source of knowledge in the classroom, while Shy’s suggested a rather contemporary view which indicated that for her having 21st century learners meant gaining ‘more knowledge.’ Finally, for Maritess, knowledge of topics beyond what she teaches is necessary in negotiating a competent language teacher self. In fact, in Excerpt (9), she equates being knowledgeable to being a competent language teacher; although, the latter, for her, is a temporally distant possible self, she views the coming year necessary to ‘widen’ her knowledge of topics not taught in grade levels she previously handled.

The unique projections of a competent language teacher self in the coming year among each new teacher suggest the individualized conceptions of possible selves. Although the convergence of codes around a common competence component of new language teacher identity indicates that these possible selves are shaped within the confines of their ELT context, they have been projected individually and in unique ways that reflect what being knowledgeable meant for each language teacher based on their past and present experiences. For example, about the emergence of a traditional view on teacher identity where the teacher acts as the ‘ultimate source of knowledge’ in the classroom, Adrian offered this contextual background:

(6) I want to be the ultimate source of knowledge. That’s not what the ideology [name of school withheld] has taught me, but it’s like what I want to be. I’m that person who can’t be pushed over when it comes to language teaching and, I guess, that’s evident in my evaluation when it comes to the student evaluation. (Adrian, 21)

Two contextual realities appeared to have r rivalled in shaping Adrian’s projection of a language teacher self who is the ‘ultimate source of knowledge’ in the classroom. On the one hand, there was his TEI as a social context. He admitted that his TEI did not prepare him toward a traditional view of self-as-teacher. On the other hand, his being a ‘person who can’t be pushed over when it comes to language teaching’ served as a more salient individual context, which effectively buffered the social context that prevailed over his TEI. In Excerpt (10), the emergence of a specific form of competent language teacher self seemed to have been a by-product of a better fit between Adrian’s individual context and an ‘ultimate source of
knowledge’ self than between a past social context and the same projection of a competent language teacher self.

Another aspect around which projections of a competent language teacher self converged pertains to the participants’ teaching confidence. Confidence in one’s ability to deliver instructional objectives in ELT seemed to have also absorbed some of the impacts of transition to participants’ self-definition in a manner that they became increasingly aware of the importance of one’s confidence in achieving instructional and curricular objectives and thus strived harder to achieve a certain level of confidence about one’s teaching ability.

(7) I hope next year I would be able to reach that 10, that level 10 confidence in language teaching. (Arnold, 20)

(8) When a student is not really confident and you are able to make them speak English without being intimidated or pressured, that’s fulfilling. It boosts my confidence in my ability to teach too. I hope I can carry over that confidence next year so that I can reach out to more students. (Mina, 28)

(9) A little more push today and I know next year I’ll be more confident in my teaching ability. (Faith, 20)

(10) I took inspiration from Sir Ali. Sir Ali will confidently say that he’s a writing teacher. And I took inspiration from him. That’s why I will always say that I love writing and I want to become a good and confident writing teacher. (Adrian, 21)

Because possible selves are quite malleable, it follows that using them as lens to understand the confident of language teacher identity would allow one to see how they are shaped in the process. Thus, a confidence aspect of a competent language teacher self coheres with the malleability of a future self, reflecting the product of a negotiation between one’s present state and a state they strive to achieve in the coming year. A competent language teacher self possessed a confidence component, which the participants perceived to be worth approaching. Indeed, transitioning into a profession foregrounds issues about how well one thinks they could accomplish professional tasks. During a transition, individuals begin to appraise the current self in terms of current confidence level and the level needed to achieve a possible self. Moving towards closing the gap between two confidence levels separated by a temporal distance gave rise to this aspect of a competent language teacher self. It makes sense then that the impacts of professional transition could be traced in how new language teachers
perceive their as-yet unrealized teaching confidence in the coming year. This is the case for each of the examples presented as Excerpts (11)–(14).

For Arnold, a possible self with a ‘level 10 confidence in language teaching’ rose from self-appraisal during his ongoing practice teaching in a public secondary school. When asked about his current teaching confidence, he described it as ‘confident but not very confident.’ Asked why he described himself that way, Arnold recounted an experience when he struggled to teach the structures of diagramming besides an admission that he finds teaching grammar difficult. Teaching the topic for the first time took a toll on Arnold’s confidence and led him to negatively appraise his current self. In Excerpt (15), Arnold offers a vivid description of this experience.

(11) That particular experience with the structures of modifications, because I was really disappointed with myself. If I may say, it damaged my confidence, Sir, because all along I thought I was equipped, but then that particular lesson crushed me. (Arnold, 20)

Arnold went on to explain that if he taught grammar better in the coming year he would regain a part of his confidence lost in this struggle during the practicum. This instructional goal was absorbed in Arnold’s next-year possible self that has ‘level 10 confidence in language teaching.’

As for Mina, the emergence of a teaching confidence aspect of a competent language teacher took a different route within the context of her first few months of in-service teaching at a private secondary school. Mina placed greater emphasis into the fulfillment she got from being able to achieve expected instructional outcomes in language teaching. As an in-service language teacher for only 11 months at the time, Mina considered being able to make her language learners speak despite their lack of confidence constituted much of what it means to be a competent language teacher within her current individual and social contexts. Thus, this aspect of competence into Mina’s one-year possible self and was considered necessary in being able to ‘reach out to more student.’

A final aspect of a competent language teacher appears in new language teachers’ perceptions of behavior toward language teaching they hope to exhibit in the coming year. Clearly, the emergence of a behavioral aspect toward language teaching into the participants’ possible language teacher selves suggest the importance of competence drawn from one’s behavior toward a task during life transitions at which identities are constructed, negotiated,
and reconstructed. For new language teachers, they appraised the kind of teacher they hope to be in the coming year in terms of good behavior toward language teaching. Many codes under the theme of a competent language teacher suggest that this behavioral aspect meant being ‘very organized’ and ‘always prepared.’ Also, it can be surmised from the codes that this aspect of a possible language teacher revolved around a behavior toward language-teaching related tasks.

(12) I have this prof when I was in second year, and she is Ma’am Monje. And I wanted to be like her, because she’s really good in writing research papers and I am very interested in writing research papers. And she’s very organized in her works. (Mary, 19)

(13) Our CT is very organized, very systematic. Especially in his records, and even though he doesn’t meet his class every day, the five sections every day, he knows their names, their surnames, their personalities, and I was amazed because how did he remember all of their names. He’s also the kind of teacher I want to be. (Francine, 20)

(14) I hope to be always prepared, so that I won’t ever enter my classroom thinking that everything’s going to be okay and then suddenly there will be a word I cannot define. I want to be that kind of teacher who is always prepared. (James, 21)

Individuals normally experience dissonance induced by a life transition. During a transition, they reevaluate and reassess their behavior to accomplish the tasks at hand. They appraise the dissonance between current and future behavior and the dissonance appraisal tends to be carried over into how they perceive themselves at a specific temporal distance.

For the new language teachers, professional transition brought authentic experiences about what it means to be a competent language teacher. Everyday successes and failures in the language classroom provide them an opportunity to rethink their behaviors about teaching and whether these behaviors contribute to teaching competence. Dissonance appraisal allows them to think about the discrepancy between their current behavior and the necessary or desirable future behavior needed to reach their goals for language teaching.

Clearly, this indicates new language teachers’ increasing awareness of the need to exert behavior self-regulation during professional transition; that language teaching entails a tedious process of planning to executing is what several participants started to think about, accept, and
embrace. Interestingly, at this stage, they also recognize and embrace the need to minimize the discrepancy between the current and future selves and, in the process, negotiate an identity reflected in a competent language teacher self that contains an aspect of hoped-for behavior toward language teaching. For several participants, the emergence of a behavioral aspect played out by drawing images of a competent language teacher self from their immediate personal and social contexts, primarily mentors, self-reflection, and experiences.

In their accounts, Mary’s and Francine’s conceptions of the behavioral aspect of a competent language teacher have been provided by their university instructor and cooperating teacher, respectively. Their interactions with individuals who have already gained significant experience within the same niche provided Mary and Francine projections of a competent language teacher self that is ‘very organized’ which is almost synonymous to ‘very systematic.’ In the absence of a personal experience or where mentoring relations become salient and relevant in one’s identity work, the two based their appraisal of the importance of being ‘very organized’ on the examples provided by their mentors. Thus, their examples illuminate the critical role that mentors play in shaping specific possible selves during life transitions, insofar as mentors may inform individuals of what they hope to become (hoped-for selves) or what they fear becoming (feared selves). Considering Mary’s and Francine’s examples, the impact of their mentors had been that they informed the two of a competent language teacher they hope to become, that is ‘very organized’ and ‘very systematic’ like Mary’s university instructors and ‘very organized’ like Francine’s cooperating teacher in her practicum site. For Mary and Francine, the impact of these relations became apparent in their manifestations of ‘wanting to be like’ their mentors in the form of a hoped-for possible self along a personal dimension of competence.

In another example, in perceiving a competent language teacher self that is ‘always prepared’, James drew from his experiences from his practicum. He recalled two instances when he had no answers for students’ grammar and word meaning questions and felt embarrassed about using a dictionary in front of the students. In Excerpt (15), he recognized that he could have done something before his classes that prevented those ‘bad experiences’ to unfold.

(15) I should have used words or incorporated vocabulary words in my lesson plan, and before the start of the day, I should know all those words already and then about the grammar lesson I felt that I should’ve double checked. It’s like every
time that I need to teach a new topic, I have to double check, double review, because I can’t afford to teach the wrong thing. (*James, 21*)

It was in the context of these experiences during the practicum that James conceptualized a competent language teacher self in terms of being ‘always prepared,’ shown in Excerpt (15).

The theme of a competent language teacher reveals a personal dimension along which new language teachers defined themselves. For them, being a competent language teacher is worth approaching in the coming year.

**An incompetent language teacher**

Since beliefs about one’s competence are at the core of new language teachers’ identity work during a transition into teaching, emergence of a negatively-valenced counterpart of a competent language teacher self is almost if not totally expected. During this transition, new language teachers’ appraisal of the current self in relation to the demands of instructional and curricular outcomes primes not only hoped-for but also feared future identities. The impacts of reflection, experiences and mentoring relationships during this transition gave rise to an incompetent language teacher self.

Among new language teachers, the transition represented a phase when they projected their next-year competence in relation to their current individual and social contexts and realities. For several of them, the coming year is the temporal marker of every identity-related effort to move away from a feared possible self. Unlike the competent language teacher self, the incompetent language teacher self, as a theme, was apparent in only two clear aspects: gaining knowledge and teacher character.

Like the competent language self, the incompetent language teacher self arises from a self-evaluation of the knowledge required to successfully navigate through the expected changes in the coming year. Several participants articulated this feared language teacher self along concerns about failure to advance one’s knowledge competence in the coming year. Excerpts (16)-(19) exemplify this.

(16) I fear that the transition will once again have me repeat the trial and error process and that I will end up giving the students disappointing lessons, incorrect information, and confusing discussions. But I will try my best to work on it. (*Carina, 21*)
And it’s really hard now that we’re in the realistic side of teaching because, I know how to teach but I don’t know what to teach. *(Maritess, 21)*

I fear to be ignorant in front of my students. *(Mary, 19)*

I don’t want my students telling me. I don’t want to hear from my students that, ‘Sir, that’s wrong.’ *(Adrian, 21)*

In the participants’ future-oriented feared selves, incompetence could be traced in a knowledge aspect. In imagining their feared possible selves, new language teachers conveyed concerns about a failure to meet the knowledge competence demands of the coming year.

This was the case in Carina’s negotiation of an incompetent language teacher self. Even with the knowledge foundation she gained from her language teacher preparation and seven months of in-service experience, she expressed a fear about giving students ‘disappointing lessons, incorrect information, and confusing discussions.’ When she was probed further, it was found that this fear was primed by a recent information about her teaching assignment in the coming semester. Having been in the junior high school department, Carina voiced out a reservation in an upcoming assignment to teach senior high school students. In Excerpt (16), she initially raised her concern that a shift in the level of students she is going to teach would entail another ‘trial and error process.’ Considerable effort has gone toward this in the previous semester according to her. Thus, at the backdrop of a desire to strengthen knowledge competence in her classes during the first semester, she constructed a feared language teacher self that is unable to meet the knowledge demands of a shift to another group of learners in a higher grade. It might also that Carina’s incompetent language teacher echoes an alternative desire to be assigned classes about the same grade to strengthen her knowledge competence or focus her energy on other aspects of teaching other than going back to a ‘trial and error process.’

Excerpt (17) teases out the content of Maritess’ incompetent language teacher self. Her case yielded multiple codes reflecting concerns about knowledge demands of the coming year. In fact, Maritess’ future-oriented identity construction resonated greater concern over ‘what to teach’ than ‘how to teach.’

Excerpts (18) and (19) show one common content of an incompetent language teacher self across multiple interview data. As new language teachers, the participants’ future-oriented identity work reflected a desire to avoid or move away from incompetence. Mary’s and Adrian’s incompetent language teacher selves articulate a future identity, where they are embarrassed in front of the students, ‘looking ignorant’ and ‘being corrected by them,’ due to
a lack of knowledge. This content of an incompetent language teacher self resonates among several participants, particularly since it hinges on various issues surrounding transition, teacher status, inexperience and a continuing need to strengthen one’s knowledge competence.

Increasing awareness of the impact of teacher status and lack of experience during a phase inherently fraught with challenges for self-definition led several participants to raise concerns about the knowledge needed to offset the impacts. With an awareness of his status as a new teacher, Adrian further described an incompetent language teacher self along an imbalance between idealism and knowledge competence, as shown in Excerpt (20).

(20) I don’t want to be that kind of English teacher, who is idealistic, but commits mistakes when it comes to the topics that he’s teaching. (Adrian, 21)

Although codes pertaining to an incompetent language teacher self converged predominantly around failing to meet the knowledge demands of the coming year, other participants’ future-oriented identities manifested a fear toward negative aspects of one’s character as a teacher. While they approached hopes of becoming ‘very organized’ and ‘always prepared,’ they also exhibited an increased awareness of teacher characteristics that they want to move away from. For them, an incompetent language teacher self could also be traced in one’s being ‘terror’, ‘boring’, and ‘authoritative’ among other possible negative aspects of one’s character as a teacher.

(21) Terror. Although I had terror teachers before, I try to be not super lenient. Strictness is there, but not in a way that my students will be afraid me. (Mina, 28)

(22) I fear to be a kind of teacher who is boring. (James, 21)

(23) The concern I have earlier about being authoritative, I’m very fearful about that. I don’t want to be a teacher that is very strict and very authoritative. (Francine, 20)

Mina feared becoming a ‘terror’ language teacher. Although she mentioned a feared ‘terror’ self, she explained this incompetent language teacher using descriptions of what it is not. Although she herself had ‘terror’ teachers before, Mina’s reflection in Excerpt (21) seems to suggest a wisdom she saw in having a certain level of strictness. By describing this feared using her projection of a to-be-approached teacher character, i.e., one that is not very lenient
and not very strict either, Mina projected an incompetent language teacher self that exuded a sense of balance with a hoped-for counterpart.

Interestingly, whenever new language teachers projected a feared possible self, they also often think about its hoped-for valence. There appeared a greater need to balance out the projection of a feared language teacher self, than the projection of a hoped-for identity.

Like Mina, James also felt the need to think about and articulate a balance between a ‘boring’ teacher self and its hoped-for counterpart. In Excerpt (24), James offset his projection of an incompetent language teacher self by claiming greater focus on the language teacher he wants to be.

(24) If I am boring now or if I ever become a boring teacher, I know for sure that will not stay like that, so I’m focused on the teacher I want to be.

Finally, Francine’s incompetent language teacher comprised of a concern about being too ‘authoritative’ in class, which to a certain extent echoes Mina’s fear of becoming a ‘terror’ language teacher. Francine’s feared language teacher took shape as a result of interactions with and feedback from her students, classmates, and teachers. In Excerpts (25) and (26), she disclosed two instances when she received such feedback.

(25) Before going to the field, we were required to do demo teaching in our classes. And, of course, I got feedbacks from my classmates and my teachers that I am too authoritative. I’m too authoritative, but I’m confident in class.

(26) And the feedback was they were so scared of me and that’s the reason why I picked more mature students because I often get, give off the vibe that I’m… because of my stature, like that, that I’m *maldita* (bratty). I’m *matapang* (having strong personality).

Feedback from significant others became a mechanism for Francine to gain an understanding of her character as a teacher. Multiple feedback pertaining to her personal attributes became reference points of her identity construction. Having gained an awareness of an aspect of her current self which she carried negative evaluations about, Francine’s working self-concept absorbed the impact of such negative evaluations. In the process, she carried over information about her current self and negotiated a future-oriented identity that still possesses this negative teacher character. Francine’s authoritative language teacher constituted a salient aspect of her ongoing language teacher identity work, such that she was also becoming
increasingly aware of what she ought to do to overcome her natural tendency to appear authoritative. She shares this strategy she employs to move away from an incompetent language teacher self in Excerpt (27).

(27) Yes. I often say, every time I go to class, that “Smile. Always smile.” And always give jokes so that the class will be light, and not be intense.

An incompetent language teacher self as a theme of future-oriented language teacher identity reveals a negative dimension of language teacher competence. For the NLTs, an incompetent language teacher fails primarily in meeting the knowledge competence required during the transition. Also, this future-oriented identity reflects concerns about negative teacher character. Both aspects of this language teacher possible self, i.e., gaining knowledge and teacher character, represent an competence-related identity that NLTs move away from or avoid in the coming year.

Discussion and Conclusion

Competence is a prevalent issue among new language teachers during the transition into ELT role. Thus, the emergence of a dimension of language teacher possible selves centered on a need to demonstrate personal competence articulates an oft-raised issue in language teacher identity research (Duff & Uchida, 1997; Mora, Rivas, Lengeling, & Crawford, 2015; Saban, 2014; Song, 2016; Tsui, 2013; Xu, 2013; Zacharias, 2016).

Even if competence has been established as ‘an important source of identity formation’ (Tsui, 2007, p. 674), the rise of competent and incompetent language teacher selves in NLTs working self-concept offers a fresh vantage point into the influence of the need to demonstrate personal competence on ongoing language teacher identity formation. Framing competence using future-oriented identities revealed traditional foci of transitional competence, including knowledge (Dayagbil, 2013; Mora et al., 2015), confidence (Branch-Mueller & de Groot, 2016; Mora et al., 2015; Song, 2016), and behavior toward teaching (Hiver, 2016; Trent, 2015), which only a few viewed from the lens of to-be-approached and to-be-avoided selves (Chan, 2006; Itoi, 2014; Yuan, 2016).

By focusing attention on identities NLTs move toward or away from in relation to as yet unrealized competence, the press of this issue could be traced in the ongoing two-way behavior regulation (Chan, 2006) of NLTs in professional development. For NLTs, ‘hypothetical images’ (Oyserman, Terry, & Bybee, 2002) or ‘identity goals’ (Pizzolato, 2006)
along a competence dimension acted as ‘roadmaps’ (Oyserman et al., 2004), in that they regulated NLTs’ current actions through ‘plausible strategies’ (Oyserman et al., 2004) toward the competent language teacher self and away from the incompetent language teacher self.

Language teacher possible selves act as a two-way mirror (Quinto, 2018). When they are primed, i.e., language teachers thinking of their future selves, they can inform teacher educators and administrators of the impact of curricular and co-curricular requirements of teacher preparation programs. Administrators and teachers should promote reflective practice among future language teachers, which would in turn reveal not only what these teachers know and do not know about their competence as a language teacher and about language teaching in general, but also what they feel about it, their hopes and fears. In this study, it was clear that what NLTs moved towards and away from were the most salient aspects of the preparation program they were enrolled in.

Also, another implication is on (re)designing teaching the teaching practicum, which is probably the single, most crucial component of a teacher curriculum that has been found to bring about effects, some even long-term, to teacher candidates’ competence. One theory-driven approach in monitoring progress during teaching practicum that could complement existing measures is the use of a possible selves-based reflective practice. Because possible selves are deeply rooted in the immediate social environment, abundance or scarcity of certain possible selves may reveal ‘characteristics of the settings in which in-service and student teachers are working’ (Hamman et al., 2010, p. 1356). As such, language teacher possible selves may also be source of data for institutions to evaluate the quality of practicum sites and experiences that teacher candidates receive from their respective contexts.

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Situating the Rhetoric in Nelson Mandela’s Oratorical Speech

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Abstract:
Whatever else rhetoric has involved, it has always been understood as situated discourse which necessitates the use of an approach to convey the meaning in the discourse; hence, this study on situating the rhetoric in the speech of Nelson Mandela utilized a descriptive research design. The rhetorical analysis was made in the light of Jolliffe’s rhetorical situation concept. In addition, ideology, hegemony and power as rhetorical approaches corroborated to this discourse inquiry. The speech was strongly situated in the need to address social justice and this was approached by the orator or speaker’s use of his strongest weapon which was not merely the guarantee of his physical endurance to resist the despotism of the colonial masters but his strong will to emerge from his political history and stormy struggles. His advocacy emanates from his mature self-preservation, strong psycho-social determination, and upright socio-political principles that are cohesively embrace of social justice, as supported by sympathy and compassion, and upliftment of the vulnerable citizens of the nation and of the world. These attitudinal characteristics are in today’s language pedagogies necessary harbor to be part of knowledge transmission.
**Introduction**

Human interaction is premised on the understanding of a language and the effect this language has on the speech community. The power to use language to move people both to action and decision is heavily dependent on rhetoric. Along this vein, Wardle & Downs (2014) underscore the view that rhetoric is thus both the art of human interaction (including persuasion) through language and other symbols, as well as the study of that interaction.

The rhetorical development as highlighted by Palmieri & Mazzali-Lurati (2016) commences with the view that ever since Ancient Rhetoric, the centrality of the audience for the analysis and the design of argumentative interventions in public arenas has been strongly emphasized. Accounting for “the nature of our particular audience” when approaching public discourse is one of the fundamental principles in Aristotle’s Rhetoric (Ret. I, 9, see Ross 1959) and is reaffirmed in subsequent Latin rhetorical treatises from Cicero to Quintilian where the rhetor has to face the crucial task of obtaining a receptive, benevolent, and attentive hearer.

The necessity of taking into consideration the opinions of the hearers leads the speaker to point out the need to speak differently to different classes of men and to underline that it is precisely this ability of audience adaptation that demonstrates the rhetor’s eloquence. The reflections made by the abovementioned classical authors have been recovered by contemporary linguists and argumentation scholars. Bakhtin (1982) opined that discourse (and particularly rhetorical discourse) always has a dialogic nature: it “always is oriented towards an addressee and his/her explicit and implicit response” and Roccie (2009) supports this with the view that it “is internally constructed to anticipate the addressee’s reactions and objections”.

Premised on the development, it could be ascertained that whatever else rhetoric has involved, it has always been understood as situated discourse. Its specificity to circumstances, available audiences, and cultural norms has distinguished a rhetorical understanding of human communication from others. In current times, the ancient recognition of rhetoric’s situatedness was given fresh and theoretically significant expression by Lloyd Bitzer’s landmark essay, “The Rhetorical Situation” (Bitzer, L. F. 1992; Hauser, G. A., & Kjeldsen, J. E., 2010).
Rhetorical situations are in effect means to explain the events and unfold influential factors that help clarify why decisions were made and why things turned out as they did. With this precept, understanding rhetorical situations fundamentally helps explore the extent to which the world is in order, which reasonably pictures a place where actions follow patterns and things happen – thus, it is imperative to rhetorically analyze this situation.

Analysis of rhetorical situations as strongly professed by Grant-Davie (2014) and Wardle and Downs (2010) show that some events might easily have turned out otherwise, while the outcomes of other events seem all but inevitable when seen in the light of the situations when they occurred. An activity, an event, or a situation is considered rhetorical when it is shaped by language or communication—also called discourse—that tries to get people to do something. In order to understand rhetoric, it is necessary to understand the motivations—the purposes, needs, values, and expectations—of the rhetors—that is, the people who generate it.

Accordingly, Bitzer’s (1992) position is that an audience is truly rhetorical only if it has the possibility and capability to act as mediator of change, thereby positively modifying the rhetor’s exigence. In this respect, he distinguishes the rhetorical audience from “a body of mere hearers and readers”, who are neither affected by the discourse nor can they affect the exigence of the rhetor. This remark is extremely relevant for the approaches that speakers consider in their discourses. Further, rhetoric involves an audience for it takes place in the interaction between people who have the ability to determine the meaning of the symbols exchanged in an interaction. It is practical as it suggests that it is used to accomplish something or achieve some end. It is effective when it is able to bring people (the audience) together to make a decision that is popularly accepted. In this way, the rhetorical community for this type of exchange consists of all members of the culture in which the rhetoric occurs. With the rhetorical community, individuals play an active role in determining policies and values. In like manner, rhetoric establishes what is probably true.

From a perspective that positions human symbolic processes as the domain of rhetoric, it is hard to exclude the rhetoric of world leaders, influential in the change of the people they constitute —situating the rhetoric of interaction within a discourse community that depends on concerns, meanings, value schemes, to name a few, shared between a leader acting in any official capacity and have the elite status that provides access to established power and the ordinary people who neither act in any official civic capacity nor have established power. This is rhetoric as experienced in political discourse, and which further challenges the rhetor’s approach to put the message across, effectively.
Hence, at the heart of this paper is the concern to arrive at a consciousness with how this rhetoric is linked to the rhetorical situation and rhetorical approach. To a large measure, the linguistically rhetorical competence in the speeches of the earlier world great leaders, which consist of political enthusiasts and pious religious leaders as well as social reconstructionists or socio-political reformers, had manifested persuasive ideology, hegemony, and power. Writers and speakers use plausible words anchored on their intellectually prowess and seasoned experiences to influence an audience who may be characteristically composed of multicultural identities and backgrounds, psychological disposition, personal and social interest, and affiliation. Scholars and scientists similarly do the same to communicate scientific findings with thorough consideration of its disciplinal, etymological, and epistemological origin.

Emphatically, one of the types of expressions where this rhetorical competence is viewed is in a political speech, which according to Fairclough (2000) as cited in Canay and Temporal (2019) is used to argue, to reason, to sustain their ideas, to continue in power, to oppress people and nations, to establish and perpetuate ideas, and or to defend people in their needs, to promote civil rights, and peace.

The rhetorical constructs of ideology, hegemony, are featured in speeches as well. Ideology in the context of rhetorical analysis surfaces a set of normative doctrinal convictions, beliefs, and values that describes and shapes thoughts (assumptions and expectations), actions, and interactions drawn from the systems of ideas and ideals of a person or an entity. Hegemony as relatively subsumed in ideology accounts for the predominant influence of a person or political or religious entity on the composite societal consciousness indicated particularly by the constituents’ common affirmation, collective submissiveness, and binding commitment to be one with the majority.

On the other hand, Bachrach & Baratz (1962) and Lukes (1974) as cited by Morriss (2006) stress that power constitutes the potential will and absolute determination of a person or entity to do, accomplish and materialize such an act that is fundamentally grounded, framed, or back up by due prior knowledge of issues, agenda, and manipulations.

Hence, this study tried to discover through rhetorical analysis the rhetorical situation and the rhetorical approaches used in the oratorical speech and its delivery of a world leader. The selection of the oratorical speech as the corpus rests significantly on Bizzell and Herzberg (2001) perception that rhetoric is a practice of oratory which stresses strategies on the use of language, written or spoken, in order to inform or persuade and thus establish the relation between language and knowledge.
Statement of the Problem

Generally, this study analyzed the rhetoric in Nelson Mandela’s oratorical speech *Make Poverty History*. It aimed to describe rhetorical situation and rhetorical approaches found in the speech.

Specifically, it sought to situate the rhetoric in the speech with a focus on elements namely exigence, audience, and purpose. It likewise described the rhetorical approaches used by the speaker/orator in terms of ideology, hegemony, and power.

Scope and Delimitation

This study centered its investigation on the analysis of rhetoric of President Nelson Mandela’s oratorical speech *Make Poverty History*. It limits the rhetorical analysis on the rhetorical situation and rhetorical approaches found in the speech of the President.

Within the scope of this study, exigence, audience and purpose serve as the main points for the analysis of the rhetorical situation. Whereas, ideology, hegemony and power shape the analysis for the rhetorical approach. While the frame of analysis used in this study is Joliffe’s Framework of Rhetorical Situation, it excluded other elements in the framework such as rhetorical appeals by logos, ethos and pathos. Moreover, this study did not cover an investigation who the real writer was of the speech delivered by the world leader, if ever there is any of this sort.

Conceptual Framework

This study was anchored on the view that rhetoric is seen as the art of using the persuasive language for a meaningful, effective, and purposeful text and interaction between the speaker, listener, message, and situation which necessitates an analysis should the essence of the corpus under study be clearly construed. Along this thought, Nordquist (2019) believed that rhetorical analysis is a form of criticism or close reading that employs the principles of rhetoric to examine the interactions between a text, an author, and an audience. In fact, rhetorical analysis does not only describe and analyze text but also evaluates it. To evaluate considers all elements of the rhetorical situation—the audience, purpose, medium, and context. (Miami University Oxford Oh, 2016) together with the approaches used in the rhetoric.

When a writer is faced with a rhetorical situation, he or she is trying to communicate through either the oral or written form. Hence, the need to consider the components such as *writer, audience, purpose, message, and context and culture* (Last and Neveu, 2019; Rahmat, N. H., 2020). However, for the purpose of rhetorical analysis of the current study, it adopts the
Jolliffe’s Rhetorical Framework Diagram which presents the rhetorical situation components: (1) the exigence or the tension or urgency, (2) the audience, and (3) the purpose of the speech, which will be of help in understanding the language ideology, language hegemony and language power used in the speech Make Poverty History.

The rhetorical approaches figured out the mind constructs of the speakers in relation to leaders’ ideological, hegemonic and power in language use to persuade and lead the audience to the ideals and vision of the known leaders/speakers. The ideology, hegemony and power are language rhetorical construct on approaches influenced by logical presentation, ethical norms and sympathy for individual distinctive persuasions and intentions of deliveries. Ideology gives color to the science of ideas, hegemony as manifestations of socio-cultural predominance, and power as being indicated by speaker’s knowledge of issues, agenda and manipulation process. These rhetorical approaches can interplay with each other as all together could be manifested based on what at the moment in time and how people be confronted with.

Research Methodology

Research Design

The study made use of a descriptive research design through a qualitative approach using rhetorical analysis. The qualitative research design was employed to determine the rhetorical situation with emphasis on exigence, audience, and purpose and the rhetorical approaches along ideology, hegemony and power found in the President Nelson Mandela’s speech Make Poverty History.

Corpus of the Study

The data for this study came from the corpus under the category of Speeches That Moved a Nation: Make Poverty History” delivered by President Nelson Mandela, in 2005.

The copy of the speech that was rhetorically analyzed served as the basis in situating the rhetoric and in determining rhetorical approaches that surfaced in the speech. The rhetorical situation was analyzed based on the components namely exigence, audience, and purpose. The rhetorical approaches were analyzed based on the parameters of ideology, hegemony and power.

Data Gathering Procedure

For the introduction of the speech, the rhetorical situation was established before the rhetorical analysis of the rhetorical approach was conducted. This step was done to connect
on what situates the speech and why the approach was utilized thereby giving the readers an understanding of the background of the speeches.

The speech was introduced following the rhetorical situation composed of exigence, audience and purpose. (1) Exigency refers to the essential needs or necessities of challenging time or pressing circumstances that when addressed would bring peace, order, security or stability. Exigence may also include the time and place of the piece and the event that prompts the speaker to speak. It also includes the context surrounding the topic or issue, when the piece was written and the prevailing beliefs at the time. On the other hand, (2) audience is another concern for the rhetorical situation. It refers to the group of listeners who are the intended listeners of the speech and their preconceived notions or perspective. For the last part is the (3) purpose. This is the reason or mission behind the speech. The purpose could be to persuade, to argue, to describe, to narrate or other purposes. It connects with the occasion and the audience.

There are three rhetorical approaches that will be used in the analysis of the speeches: Ideology, Hegemony and Power. The concept of power was based on Lukes (1974) which has three dimensions, specifically issue, agenda and manipulation.

**Data Analysis**

Rhetorical analysis was employed in this study which made use of rhetorical situation which was patterned from Jolliffe’s Rhetorical Framework Diagram covering exigence, audience, and purpose. The rhetorical approaches of ideology, hegemony and power were separately analyzed.

**Results and Discussions**

*The Rhetorical Situation*

The speech was addressed by Nelson Mandela for the “Make Poverty campaign” in London- United Kingdom on February 3, 2005 (mandela.gov.za, 2005). This speech is characterized both as deliberative and epideictic since Mandela’s appeal was to reiterate the discharge of the sense of responsibility and accountability on influential immediate and mediated audience. It is also meant to praise the noble efforts of the organizers of the conference on poverty alleviation. Leader/speaker has made things clear to the audience that the inaction of concerned wealthy individuals to make poverty a history would consequently result to multiple sorts of social imbalance, disintegration and heavier impoverish life of the growing population.
The great leader/speaker of the South African Republic surfaced almost a balance of ethical, logical and emotional appeals in his speech delivered to the World’s advocates for global call against poverty.

It infers that in Mandela’s working principle and character are focused with much ethical standards and logical temper. As nationalist, his national liberation struggle advocacy is much empowered with a balance and interdependent prowess of his public humane respect, universally accepted justifying reason for noble cause, and inherent qualities of his power of conciliating human relations. Mandela’s biography journals cite that for 20 years, he directed a campaign of peaceful, nonviolent defiance against the South African government and its racist policies.

Moreover, a review of Mandela’s biography proves that he, like Gandhi, is a man of law, chosen as deputy president of the ANC, and was sworn in as president of the country's first multi-ethnic government. Similarly, he too eventually gained the respect of the British authorities, support of the black people, and sympathy of the international community for peace and order advocacy.

The Rhetorical Approaches

The analysis presents the dominant variables in rhetorical approaches (ideology, hegemony and power) in the speech “Make Poverty History” delivered by Nelson Mandela of Africa.

The exigency of this speech grounded by strong conviction of Mandela is based on his experiences as political leader of an impoverish nation. He has the belief that poverty can be both a result of aged-old struggles of the poor due to feudalistic practices of the highly developed industrial countries and influentially powerful monopolists in the society, and/or the absence of concerted humanitarian civic actions from elite interest groups of well-developed nations to push them up from socio-economic and political difficulties.

Thus, the purpose of the leader/speaker on this speech was to instill in the mind, heart and soul of the fortunate people to be human, humane and humanitarian in consideration to the basic needs of the poorest of the poor societies and nations. While it is a reality that wealth across geographies is not evenly distributed or not made equitably accessible, life of every human on earth is precious. Ideally, nobody should be left behind. That is why a sequel of reality to this rests in the fact that once the rich nations open their material assistance to the poor, it is certainly sure that no one is so poor who cannot contribute to socio-economic developments at all. It is just a matter of cooperation for the common good.
The leader/speaker had just been limited to the manifestation of language ideology, and power as rhetorical approaches of Mandela. As regards Mandela’s rhetoric and linguistic inclination, it is obviously observed that it was more prone to driving doctrinal conviction for his language ideology, while knowledge on issues and agenda for his language power. These findings imply that Mandela who had been deliberately prejudiced of fundamental human freedom and public basic rights to be heard singly resorted to put much ideological prowess in his linguistic approaches for those sorts of political amenities. Moreover, his powerful rhetorical language was much confidently relied on his knowledge of issues and agenda. To him, knowledge is power and wisdom is his conviction, which set him free finally from despotic political bondage.

To classify the dimension of language power of Nelson Mandela was more of the integrative power similar to Chairman Mao, Rizal and Gandhi’s rhetorical approach.

For 20 years, he directed a campaign of peaceful, nonviolent defiance against the South African government and its racist policies. The first black president of South Africa, elected after time in prison for his anti-apartheid work. He won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1993. His rhetoric calls for action especially those whose advocacy is for the poor. Though he calls for action, his ‘leadership is without force’, Suarez (2002).

**Excerpts from Mandela’s Oratorical Speech**

For language ideology, the excerpt reads:

“...overcoming poverty is not a gesture of charity. It is an act of justice. It is the protection of a fundamental human right, the right to dignity and a decent life. While poverty persists, there is no true freedom.”

For Mandela, to constitute and substitute poverty with prosperity is by no means a dole-out. To him, featuring out preservation of human rights, dignified and decent life should be a matter of mutual help, where for instance, the underdeveloped nations with rich natural resources should not be subjects of exploitation but partners of widespread regional development, as anyone agrees with the fact that no nation is an island. Ideally, it should be a situation whereby more technologically and technically advanced industrial nations are into treaty or bicameral agreement of mutual aids of multiple sort. Also, both poor and rich nations in this case can be reapers of diverse socio-economic benefits arising from their
productive export and import that pave way to a sustainable inter-country trade and commerce relationship.

For language power, the excerpt reads:

“... as long as poverty, injustice and gross inequality persist in our world, none of us can truly rest... Massive poverty and obscene inequality are such terrible scourges of our times - times in which the world boasts breathtaking advances in science, technology, industry and wealth accumulation - that they have to rank alongside slavery and apartheid as social evils.”

Nelson Mandela in his claim believed that the existence of poverty among peoples of the world co-exists with the interdependence of human injustices that in turn consequently result gross inequality. Though he already retired from being an active national political figure in South Africa, his presence in the drives for gross attention to world issues of structural poverty remains his strongly felt personal influential accountability. This social reconstructive view similar to what he worked hard for in the duration of his long years of fight and political administration is the same social appeal he has for concerned citizens of the world to address, no matter how painstakingly it may be.

Mandela likewise acknowledged the influx of science and technology. However, in his view, the emergence is not yet in its progressive and pragmatic course to make the world as smaller village where the depressed, deprived, marginalized, disadvantageous and underprivileged societies are supposedly lifted up.

The excerpt reads:

“The steps that are needed from the developed nations are clear. The first is ensuring trade justice. I have said before that trade justice is a truly meaningful way for the developed countries to show commitment to bringing about an end to global poverty. The second is an end to the debt crisis for the poorest countries. The third is to deliver much more aid and make sure it is of the highest quality”

In addition, Nelson Mandela has adequacy of clearer knowledge on tri-dimensional perspectives in narrowing the gap of disparity between the well off and the impoverished nations or the technologically equipped and the knowledgeably handicapped people. The absence of: (1) self-serving international trade policies based upon by powerful nations, (2) usurious financial assistance extended by profit-oriented large-scale corporations in the guise
of providing seed capital for livelihood development, and (3) string-attached-oriented transfer of technology and pseudo philanthropic transfer of payments, would in unison make both the participating developed and underdeveloped nations have equal footing of growth and development as they are both from equitable chance to take off at their own pace and dynamic promising potentials.

**Conclusion**

The rhetoric in the President’s oratorical speech in the light of rhetorical situation and approaches used surfaces the advocacy underpinning of the speech delivered. The speech was strongly situated in the need to address social justice and this was approached by the orator or speaker’s use of his strongest weapon which was not merely the guarantee of his physical endurance to resist the despotism of the colonial masters but his strong will to emerge from his political history and stormy struggles. His advocacy emanates from his mature self-preservation, strong psycho-social determination, and upright socio-political principles that are cohesively embrace of social justice, as supported by sympathy and compassion, and upliftment of the vulnerable citizens of the nation and of the world. These attitudinal characteristics are in today’s language pedagogies necessary harbor to be part of knowledge transmission.

**Pedagogical Implication**

It is a language teaching where “humanitarian inclusivity” should be sustained as the sustainable governing mantra of multicultural education. Language learning should cover the magnification of the concepts of philanthropic virtues and altruistic values that surely would open the gates and windows for the idea of growing together in a world that is becoming a smaller village through the power of science and technology. It is one avenue for educational advocacy development where there are chances to open more opportunities for stronger platforms of partnership, purposeful collaboration and prosperity and peace-oriented collaboration on any socio-economic endeavors. Furthermore, as projected by Medriano & De Vera (2019), use of political speech as corpus for analysis and understanding, espouses pedagogical significance, especially for the benefit of language teachers and literature teachers. Their study, similar with the present study, arouses interest in using political speeches as discourses that can be tackled for class discussions, or even for purposes of literary criticism. Students must be exposed to authentic uses of language and its reproduction of power differentials and how this phenomenon is subconsciously conveyed in verbal communication.
**Recommendations**

As the study is limited only to the rhetorical situation and rhetorical approaches, it is suggested that an examination of the speech acts performed during speech delivery especially by the Head of the State be conducted as the analysis can provide insights into the intentions of the speaker and the effects or responses these may cause in the audience.

A stylistic analysis registering styles of the speaker in oratorical speeches is also recommended. Furthermore, a pragmatic and rhetorical analysis based on the appeals to ethos, pathos, and logos are also recommended. Lastly, a comparative rhetorical analysis may also be conducted in the speeches of the world’s great leaders.

**References**


Assessing EFL Post Graduate Students’ Writing Skills

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Abstract

The present study aims at investigating the level of mastering writing skills for postgraduate students at the departments of English/ College of Education for Humanities and College of Basic Education/ University of Mosul for the academic year 2019 - 2020. The study includes 30 postgraduate students as a sample. An achievement test and a questionnaire were prepared for the purpose of this study to collect data. The results show that postgraduate students scored low level in mastering writing skills. The reasons behind that may related to teachers of writing in the departments of English & their little experience and their methods used in teaching students. As well as, textbooks prescribed for teaching writing affect students' learning. In the light of these results, the researcher set number of recommendations.

Keyword: assessment, writing skills

Statement of the Problem

Learning a language involves basically mastering its four language skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing. Writing well is a big challenge for foreign students. It plays a vital role for foreign language learners to expand their language knowledge. The teaching of writing skills has become central in foreign language classrooms. Students will learn to work...
out their ideas and reflect on experiences in a way that brings their thinking forward. Students use writing for many purposes such as assessment, improve their understanding, develop their critical thinking, enhance their communicative skills and to be prepared for future professionals in different fields of knowledge.

Assessing writing skills for EFL postgraduate students has not been given its due attention. Those students have finished four years of studying English at the college level, as well as, the previous academic stages. They should master writing skills, but, a lot of them still complain that academic writing still constitutes a real problem for them in almost all forms of writing. Likewise, teachers complain that learners still commit errors and are unable to make use of writing lessons in their writing in literature or easy questions. This problem has not been investigated from all its aspects; the teacher, the student and the syllabus. The current research tries to investigate this problem to see where the real problem lies.

Aim

The present research aims are:
1- Investigating EFL postgraduate students' level of mastering writing skills.
2- Investigating the reasons behind students' fail to learn some writing skills concerning such variables; teacher, student and syllabus

Hypotheses

In the light of the aims, the researcher sets the following hypotheses:
1- EFL postgraduate students have a low level of writing skills.
2- EFL postgraduate students’ background knowledge has no effect on students' fail to learn some writing skills.
3- Teachers' teaching method has no effect on students who fail to learn some writing skills.
4- Syllabus prescribed for teaching writing skills has no effect on students' fail to learn some writing skills.

Scope of the study

The current study is limited to EFL postgraduate students in the College of Education for Humanities and College of Basic Education/ University of Mosul for the academic year 2019 /2020.
Theoretical background

Writing Skills

Writing is a form of communication that allows people to set their feelings and ideas on paper, to organize their knowledge into persuasive arguments, and to convey meaning through well-constructed text. It is an essential skill in our daily life. It helps in realizing communication among people in the community. It is not just about putting spoken language down on the paper or screen. Writing is also about the construction of texts that can communicate without author's existence (Raimes, 1983:76).

EFL writing skills involve a number of basic sub-skills; mechanics of writing, cohesion and coherence, and parallelism.

Mechanics of writing skills:

The first step in teaching writing skills in a foreign language classroom center around the mechanics of writing skills. "Mechanics of writing skills usually refer to the rules of the written language such as capitalization, punctuation, and spelling. It accounts for the essential components of scholarly writing and how they combine together to form sentences" (Elshahawy, 2020; Glomo-Narzoles, & Glomo-Palermo, 2020; Olshtain, 1991; Medriano & De Vera, 2019). Richards (1996: 43) states that these skills are necessary for effective written communication because they make the reader's work easier and more comprehensible. Students who do master punctuation, capitalization, and spelling will have some of the devices they require to perform effective and clear writing in any area. By contrast, students who do not master these skills will rarely write a good essay, and their ideas will not be conveyed effectively. Mechanics of writing involve two main elements; punctuation marks and capitalization.

Punctuation marks are considered one of the crucial elements of writing. It is used to enhance writing and create a more intelligent appearance. The whole point of punctuation is to increase clarity. Without punctuation, much of our writing would be nonsense. Punctuation errors comprise mistakes in the utilization of the colon, apostrophe, comma, hyphen, parentheses, dash, ellipsis, quotation marks, semicolons, slashes, ellipsis points, abbreviations, dots, and exclamation marks" (Dajang & Adewale, 2016).

Capitalization signals the beginning of a sentence or points out certain words within a sentence. Capital letters are like red flags because they draw attention to important words.

Cohesion and Coherence

They are among the best qualities of writing skills which are regarded as vital
components in constructing and creating organized, unified and comprehended text. Donald et al. (1996) point out that cohesion and coherence are very essential features of the text which make it a syntactic and semantic unit and enable the reader to understand the meaning. They are the most significant two elements in each section of writing, where all parts are connected logically to form a good essay. It should be clear that coherence and cohesion are not the same things. The difference between them is that a text is said to be cohesive if its elements are linked together, while a text is coherent if it makes sense (Elbow, 1998).

**Parallelism**

It means” the use of the same pattern of words for two or more ideas that have the equal level of importance" (Waldhorn et al., 1981). (1999:75) defines parallelism as "the expression of two or more equivalent sentence elements of the same grammatical form; verb paired with verbs, nouns with nouns, adjectives with adjectives and so forth". Song et al. (2016:54) point out that "Parallelism is a significant rhetorical device". It can be defined as two or more coherent text spans (Phrases or sentences) which have similar syntactic structures and related semantics, and express relevant content or emotion together.

**Evaluating Writing Skills**

The evaluation of writing has long been regarded as a problematic area for educational practices, particularly when it comes to assess the writing of EFL students. The assessment of EFL writing becomes a challenging matter due to students' different linguistic and cultural backgrounds", (Olshtain, 1991). However, the skill of writing possibly seems the least attractive and the most difficult to learn. The model of writing as a product considers writing as an object that can be analyzed and separated, with its concentration on the proper use of linguistic knowledge.

Testing writing skills must include students' understanding of the conventions of standard written English. These conventions allow teachers to depend on a standardized system for checking writing and giving feedback to students.

Regarding, assessing essay writing, students have to take into consideration two important things. The first one has to do with the content when evaluating writing, students have to pay considering the correct use of spelling, structure, punctuation, vocabulary and so on. The second one is the formality. The students have to take into consideration how the material is introduced in an essay, (Novigenty, 2015).

Finocchiaro, (1986)
The main consideration when planning writing evaluation tasks is determining the purpose for which students are requested to write. The purpose refers to the aim of writing; (narrative) the formality of narrative essay is to tell what happens, (expository) the purpose of which is to inform or share knowledge, (descriptive) the purpose of which is to describe places things, people, moments and theories (persuasive/argumentative) which aims to convince or persuade the reader to believe or do something.

In order to accomplish the purpose of the writing task, students can use a variety of types of writing. These types refer to the expected form of written products; for example, an essay, a letter, or laboratory report.

Methodology
The researcher follows these steps to conduct this study:

Population and sample:
The present study includes (16) postgraduates students from the College of Education for Humanities and (14) other students from the College of Basic Education in the University of Mosul for the academic year 2019-2020. So the total number of students is (30). The whole students are selected to represent the sample of the study.

Instruments
The researcher prepared two instruments to collect data. The first one is an achievement test in writing to test students' achievement in writing skills. The second one is a questionnaire for collecting students' own point of view about the reasons behind their failure in learning writing skills.

Achievement Test
The most common research instruments for collecting data is the test. A test is a process that is administered to measure students' ability to perform in a particular field in a certain time limit with some specific goals. In teaching different skills, there should be a test that follows the teaching process. It is designed to provide information about the students' level and understanding.
In this study, the test is prepared to verify the hypotheses set before. The test consists of five questions to cover features of writing skills. Each question represents one of the basic writing skills that students have supposed to know. The questions have been set as follows:

**Question 1:** test students' ability to use punctuation marks and capitalization properly in writing.
**Question 2:** test students' ability to write a clear and cohesive introductory paragraph.
**Question 3:** test students' ability to write a whole essay.
**Question 4:** test students' use of transition words (cohesive devices) to make a well-constructed and understandable cohesive and coherent text.
**Question 5:** test students' ability to summarize and paraphrase the main information about something without giving all the details.

The total score of the test is (50) marks. Each question carries (10) marks. The time allotted for students to answer the test is (2) hours. The validity and reliability of the test have been examined (appendix 1).

**The questionnaire**

A questionnaire is one of the most common research instruments. It is a list of items set to check students' opinions about the reasons behind their low achievement in writing skills. The questionnaire includes three basic reasons with three alternatives for each reason (agree, neutral, don't agree). The indents have to choose one of the alternatives for each reason depending on their own point of view. The validity and reliability of the questionnaire have been tested (Appendix 2).

**Results**

The collected data has been analyzed Statistically in light of the four hypotheses set before. The results are as follow:

- concerning the first hypothesis and to check postgraduate students' achievement level in writing skills;

  The achievement test has been administered upon the sample of the study. Students' answers were checked and scored. Then, the mean score for the whole sample was computed. The total mean score obtained by students was (22). Then, t-test for one sample has been used to see if the mean score is statistically significant. The finding is shown in table1:
Table 1
T-test for one sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No. of students</th>
<th>Computed Mean</th>
<th>Standard Score</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>t-value Calculated</th>
<th>Tabulated</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.86</td>
<td>1.854</td>
<td>2.045</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The calculated t-value is less than the tabulated one at 0.05 level of significance and 29 degrees of freedom. This means that there is a significant statistical difference. This also means that the first hypothesis is accepted and postgraduate students have low level in mastering writing skills and it is obvious that their performance level is relatively weak. It simply indicates that postgraduate students have not mastered basic writing skills after many years of studying writing. It is clear that they face obstacles in learning writing skills.

In order to check which writing skills were the most difficult one for the students, the mean score of each question was computed as shown in table 2:

Table 2
Mean score for each question

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q. No.</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>3.866</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>3.933</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>6.066</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from table 2 that postgraduate students face difficulties in learning some writing skills. Postgraduate students are weak in writing clear and cohesive paragraphs, as well as writing an essay. They are weak in using transition words to make a well-constructed and understandable cohesive and coherent text. This is clear from the low degrees they scored on questions 2, 3, 4 in the achievement test.

The researcher sees that the low level of postgraduate students in mastering some writing skills may due to definite reasons; the teaching method, the students’ weak background knowledge, or the textbooks prescribed for teaching writing in the previous academic stages. Accordingly, the analyzes of the collected data from the questionnaire which has been given to
students, will illustrate which one of those reasons was behind students' low level in mastering writing skills, as shown in table 3:

### Table 3
**Analyzes of the questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Degree of sharpness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students' weak background</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers and teaching methods</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllabus</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning hypothesis 2 which supposes that the reason behind students’ weak achievement in writing skills may not due to the students’ weak background knowledge. The statistical analysis of the students’ responses to the questionnaire (table 3) shows that the degree of sharpness for the first item is (1.8). This degree of sharpness is less than the mean score of the questionnaire (2). This means that this item has no effect on students' low achievement. This also means that the second hypothesis is accepted.

Concerning the third hypothesis which does not relate the reason behind students’ low achievement in writing skills to the teachers and methods of teaching. Table (3) indicates that the degree of Sharpness for the second item is (2.133). This degree is higher than the mean score of the questionnaire (2). This means that the third hypothesis is rejected Teachers and methods of teaching affects students’ learning of writing skills. This is one of the reasons behind students’ low achievement.

Concerning the fourth hypothesis which indicates that the reason behind students' low achievement is not due to the syllabus and textbooks prescribed to teach English writing skills. The degree of sharpness for the third item in the questionnaire (table 3) is (2.466). It is higher than the mean score of the questionnaire (2). Accordingly, the fourth hypothesis is rejected. The prescribed syllabus and textbooks play an important role and affect learning writing skills. Hence, they are behind students’ low achievement in some writing skills.
Discussion of Results

From the statistical analyses illustrated above, the researcher finds that postgraduate students in the College of Education for Humanities and College of the Basic Educations University of Mosul have weak achievement in writing skills. Their achievement is below the expectation. The postgraduate students have not mastered the basic writing skills, although, they have studied writing for many years before. Those students have mastered mechanics of writing skills better than other writing skills; e. g. cohesive devices, making a summary, writing an essay..etc. Students have difficulty in the area of some writing skills. It seems that most students were not aware of the semantic relations expressed by cohesive devices. Students' styles were also weak in writing an essay. They find difficulty in expressing their thoughts as they lack vocabulary items and grammatical structures to write appropriate essays. But what is the reason behind that result.

Based on the questionnaire given to Postgraduate students, it has been found that there are definite reasons behind Students' weak performance on the achievement test. It seems to the researcher that the real problem lies in students’ carelessness and not preparing materials at home depending on the teacher in the classroom only. Also, the teaching methods used seem to be outdated. Some teachers were poorly trained and they lack long experience in teaching writing. This can also be a reason behind students' low achievement. In addition, some teachers do not read the specifications set by the Ministry of Higher Education concerning the objectives of teaching writing to EFL University level students. The textbooks prescribed for teaching writing in the Department of English are not well organized. They play an important role and affect students' achievement in writing.

Recommendations

In the light of the findings above, the researcher recommends the following:

1. Teachers should devote much time to writing classes. They should give many drills and home works to students and then check their answers distinctively.
2. Teachers of writing should attend many training courses to be acquainted with recent information and increasing their knowledge about teaching writing skills.
3. Students should be trained on how to choose the appropriate vocabularies and shape their ideas logically. They should have extensive practice in writing.
4. Syllabus prescribed for teaching writing in the Department of English should be reviewed from time to time to ensure obtaining the objectives of teaching.
References


Medriano, R. S., & De Vera, P. V. (2019). Dominance Construction in Monologic Political Discourse based on Selected Public Speeches of President Rodrigo Roa Duterte. Asian EFL Journal, 23(3), 5–21.


Appendix 1

An Achievement Test on writing Skills

Q.1. Read the following paragraph and then add Punctuation marks and capitalization recommended:

"The head of state is the monarch currently the queen in the UK but the government carries the authority of the crown. The Monarch the Westminster parliament has two chambers: the house of lords and the house of Commons which sit separately and are constituted on different principles. The Common is an elected body of members. Substance reform is being carried out in the upper house. The house of lords where it is proposed that the majority of members be appointed with a minority elected replacing the hereditary peers. There is no written constitution but Constitutional law consists of statute law, Common law and Constitutional conventions."

Q.2. Write a paragraph on the following topic focusing on age, behavior, background etc.

-A Faithful Friend

Q.3. Write an essay to argue the following statement:

Women are a source of happiness

Q.4. Fill in the blanks with the most suitable transitions (nevertheless, beside, therefore etc.)

"Animals use various means to protect themselves. Color is one that is widely used as a protective device. For instance, some birds display bright colored feathers ________ they are threatened. These are designed to frighten away the enemy ________ to color, some animals emit a peculiar smell for the same purpose. ________ form may be used to conceal the animal. Some insects, ________, conceal themselves by making themselves resemble plants of flowers. In this way, they are hardly visible because they can merge into their surroundings. Other animals adopt regular patterns for ward and stand still, ________ buffaloes were almost eliminated in the 19th century ________ their lack of resistance to hunters.

Q.5. Summarize the following text in not more than 50 words:

"Jonas Salk was born in New York city in 1914. Although his parents were immigrants and had little formal education, they wanted their children to be well educated. As a result, Jonas was the first member of his family to go to college. At first he studied law but then changed to medicine. It was during his medical training that he developed an interest in viruses.

After medical school he worked with the microbiologist Thomas Francis Jr. to try and discover a vaccine for influenza "flu as it! is more commonly known. This research was successful, and an anti-flu vaccine was developed. Salk's interest then turned to the disease poliomyelitis, or "Polio". In 1947 he became Head of the Virus Research laboratory at the
university of Pittsburgh and started working on a polio Vaccine. In 1952 he tested the first Vaccine on volunteers including himself and his family. In 1955, after further testing, the discovery of a polio vaccine was made public and Salk became a national hero. This vaccine and its development later, by Albert Sabin, was saved lives all over the world."

Appendix 2
Students' Questionnaire

Dear students

"Most of your performance on writing skills achievement test man was less than the standard degree of pass. So, what do you think the reason behind that? please tick the suitable alternative for each reason from your own point of view."

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Students' weak background knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Teachers and methods teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Textbooks prescribed for teaching writing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pakistani Textbooks and Native English Corpora:
A Corpus-Based Comparative Analysis of Lexical Collocations

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Abstract

The present study aims at investigating the frequency of the types of collocation in Pakistani Intermediate textbook and comparing it with that of the selected corpora – BNC and COCA. To achieve the objectives of the study, a corpus of English textbook (CETB) was compiled. The study used the text analysis tool AntConc 3.2.1 to find the frequency of the collocations in the textbook so that they can be compared with BNC and COCA. The findings of the study show that the textbook presents a high frequency of some collocations which are very rarely used by the native speakers and there are some combinations of words that are not found in the reference corpora. Moreover, the results of the study revealed that Pakistani intermediate textbook does not repeat the collocations in a systematic way so that they can be the part of students’ language. Thus, the study suggests that the syllabus books need either to be revised or changed in order to help language learners improve their language skills.

Keywords: Collocation, Pakistani textbook, BNC, COCA, language skills.

Introduction

As vocabulary holds a central position in teaching and learning a foreign language, the significance of collocations in teaching vocabulary cannot be denied. Language teaching and learning involve various skills and sub-skills. Vocabulary teaching and learning is one of them. Vocabulary is seen as the most significant and at the same time difficult language component for learners in acquiring language proficiency (Karoly, 2005). Using collocations appropriately enables a learner communicate effectively. Teaching collocations can help learners develop their mental lexicons in a more systematic way. Difficulty arises from the very fact that learning English vocabulary does not mean that the learner will acquire proficiency in using language. Collocation knowledge is an integral part of communicative competence (Vasiljevic, 2014). At the same time, ‘it tends to be one of the most problematic and error-generating areas of vocabulary, especially for second language learners’ (Martyńska, 2004). According to Farrokh (2012), collocations help native speakers express themselves fluently, moreover, they provide
such vocabulary that is ready to use. Collocations are not only an important factor in increasing language proficiency of native speakers, but they play a very important role for nonnative speakers to speak and write fluently and accurately (Jaen, 2007; Alrefaee, Mudkanna & Almansooob, 2020; Medriano & De Vera, 2020). Duan and Qin (2012) indicate the importance of collocation stating; “Collocation is not only a necessary element of language but also an outstanding feature that makes language-specific and correct. Therefore, to learn English well learners should attach much importance to collocation” (p. 1891). Shin and Nation (2008), ‘explain one of the reasons as to why teachers and learners should be interested in collocations is that collocations improve learners’ language fluency and ensure native-like selection’ (p. 199).

Keeping in view the importance of collocations in fluent and effective communication, different publishers have included various exercises and tasks for teaching collocations and different examination boards – Certificate of Advanced English (CAE) and Proficiency (CPE), Cambridge First Certificate (FCE), etc. have started testing collocations to test a learner’s proficiency in English language.

However, unfortunately, ‘it seems that collocations have not yet been generally integrated into teaching material, and, as a consequence, not been given serious consideration in the English classroom’ (Hodne, 2009, p. 1). Further, Lewis (2000) ‘encourages teachers to raise students’ awareness of collocations and to initiate their own action research to make sure the changes they make are of benefit to students’ (p. 133). As collocations can help students improve their fluency and make their communication effective, there is a need not only to give prime importance to the teaching of collocations in classroom but to evaluate the existing textbooks and see if they contain enough practice or examples of collocations in use. However, there is hardly any research evaluating the appropriateness of textbooks keeping in view collocations. The present study is an attempt to examine the instances of collocation in the selected textbook and draw the attention of English language teachers, course designers, and textbook publishers towards this important aspect of language teaching and learning.

**The Statement of Problem**

Since vocabulary and grammar are important in learning a foreign language, the use of appropriate collocations is crucial. As collocation is an important aspect of vocabulary learning, there is a need to focus on how far the textbooks offer appropriate and sufficient instances of collocations to familiarize the students with the appropriate use of collocations. The textbook presently being taught (for years) to the students of intermediate in Pakistan are apparently
fulfilling the requirement(s) of teaching English – providing them an exposure to English, familiarizing them with lexical items in context, etc. However, there is a need to explore if the books are providing the students with appropriate exposure to the correct use of collocations which is crucial for the students to be fluent and affective in English communication.

Research Questions
The present study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What are the types of collocations that recur in the selected textbook?
2. What is the frequency of each type of collocations extracted from the selected textbook?
3. How far is the frequency of the types of collocation in the selected textbook different from (or similar to) those of the selected corpora – BNC and COCA?
4. What do the differences (or similarities) in the use of collocations suggest?

Literature Review

Studies on collocations are diverse in nature. They approach collocations from different perspectives and dimensions. Some of them study collocations from the point of view of error analysis, others focus on translating collocations.

Mahmoud (2005) investigated errors made by Arab Learners of English. The findings of the study show that using the right collocations is a problem for Arab learners. He suggested a solution to this problem that by increasing learners’ consciousness with the help of simple contrastive analysis, the problem can be overcome. Particularly, in speaking, the students of other languages commit errors in using collocations. Likewise, Mahmoud (2005) conducted his study on Arab learners and suggested the necessity of direct teaching of collocations and designing bilingual collocation dictionaries for Arab learners. Hsu (2010) examined the effect of direct collocation instruction on reading comprehension and vocabulary learning of the students of Taiwanese college. Cao and Nishina (2007) analyzed the adjectival collocations errors of Japanese students. By classifying collocational errors, they constructed “an error database”. Al-Salmani (2002) investigated Collocations and idioms in English-Arabic translation. As far as translators are concerned, Dweik and Shakra (2011) suggested, they should be deeply aware of the nature of lexical and metaphoric collocations while translating religious text and should always avoid literal translation. Kouzouloglou (2015) in his work highlighted the ‘deficiency’ and ‘unsystematicity’ of collocations in Greek State Schools.

Siavosh (2003) focused on English lexical and grammatical collocations in the Iranian context and found that prefabricated patterns (collocations) help improve writing proficiency.
Sung’s study (2003) shows that there is a close relationship between English lexical collocations and speaking fluency. Hsu and Chiu (2008) conducted the same study and reached different findings. They claim that although there is a strong correlation between knowledge of collocations and speaking proficiency yet there is no specific relationship between knowledge and use of collocation. As far as writing is concerned, Hsu (2007) conducted a study on Taiwanese students. He conducted an online test and evaluated through a web-based writing program to investigate the impact of lexical collocations on the writing of Taiwanese students. The study finds a significant correlation between the frequency of lexical collocations used by the students and their online writing scores. Mounya (2010) also investigated the role of teaching collocations to improve English language writing proficiency and found a strong linear correlation between writing competence and the ability to use collocations. He suggested Communicative-Collocational Approach to teaching writing to develop students' collocational competence.

Bahns et al. (1993) carried out a study to see whether collocations should be taught to English Language students or not. Their findings show that learners’ knowledge of collocations lagged behind from their vocabulary knowledge. Molavi et al. (2014) investigated the distribution of Lexical collocations in three selected series of English textbooks. The findings of the study showed that the books contain a low number of frequent collocations which are used by native speakers. However, no study has yet been carried out in Pakistani context to investigate the use of collocations in textbooks in order to see if they are effective in making collocations a part of learners’ actual competence.

**Methodology**

The present study analyses the use of collocations in Pakistani intermediate (high school level) textbook in comparison with their use in the selected corpora. The process of data collection, analysis, and comparison follow the following steps:

1. Corpus of English textbook (CETB) was prepared. For this purpose, intermediate textbook (short stories) was scanned and converted into electronic files for analysis. The text file was further cleaned and made computer-readable.
2. The corpus was examined to identify all possible collocations. The collocations were collected and categorized as Verb + Noun, Adjective + Noun, Noun + Verb, Noun of Noun, Adverb + Adjective, and Verb + Adverb.
3. AntConc 3.2.1 was applied to figure out the frequency of the collocations in the textbook. The frequency of the collocations was counted both individually and as a type.
4. Each collocation was verified in all two corpora, BNC and COCA, for analysis.

**Data Analysis and Discussion**

The present study investigates the frequency of collocational patterns in the selected textbook in comparison with Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and British National Corpus (BNC). The data collected from the selected textbook was ranked according to their frequencies in their corresponding categories. Then the percentage of the respective categories was calculated to find out how different or similar are these categories from each other to make a comparison between textbook corpus and reference corpora. In this study, descriptive analysis was used to interpret results. The results of categories of collocation show, as in table 1, that in textbook there is more emphasis on particular patterns such as (Adjective + Noun and Verb + Noun) and less on the patterns such as (Noun + Verb, Noun 1 + of + Noun 2, Adverb + Adjective and Verb + Adverb).

**Table 1. Types and number of Lexical Collocations in English Book I (Short Stories)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Book</th>
<th>V +</th>
<th>Adj +</th>
<th>N +</th>
<th>N1</th>
<th>Adv +</th>
<th>V +</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English Book I (Short Stories)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td>213</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>358</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 1 shows, English book I includes 358 collocations. It includes all six types of lexical collocations. The number of collocations of one type (Noun + Verb) is very low, i.e., 09. The categories (Verb + Noun, Noun 1 + of + Noun 2, Adverb + Adjective and Verb + Adverb) have 49, 33, 21 and 33 collocations respectively. The category Adjective + Noun has the highest number of collocations, i.e., 213. Further, the distribution of the categories of Lexical collocations is demonstrated in Figure 1.
Figure 1 demonstrates the unevenness of the distribution of collocations in the selected textbook. Adjective + Noun collocation is quite prominent among other collocations.

Verb + Noun collocations are divided into two parts – the ones which occur in the reference corpora in high frequency and the those that occur in abnormally low frequency.

Table 2. Verb-Noun collocations I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Collocation</th>
<th>Book</th>
<th>COCA</th>
<th>BNC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb + Noun</td>
<td>Blaze air</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Build rocket</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dig grave</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Lifted a stick</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Made up mind</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preach his ambition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Taste yams</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wiped the raindrops</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency per 1000 words: 9(180), 2 (0.19), 1(0.61)

Table 2 shows an interesting fact that the collocations that are found in the book are either not found in COCA and BNC or in a very low frequency. Made up mind is found only one time in COCA and not found in BNC. In the same way, build rocket is found in COCA only one time and not found in BNC. Further, blaze air occurs only once in BNC and not in COCA. The rest of the collocations, dig grave, lifted a stick, preach his ambition, taste yams, and wiped
The raindrops do not occur even once in both the reference corpora. The distribution of the categories of Lexical collocations is demonstrated in Figure 2.

![Figure 2. Frequency per 1000 words](image)

In the book, the frequency of Verb + Noun collocation per 1000 words is 180 which is a very high frequency as compared to 0.19 in COCA and 0.61 % in BNC. This demonstrates that the selected textbooks use collocations that are not frequently used by the native users of the language.

### Table 3. Verb-Noun collocations II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Collocation</th>
<th>Book</th>
<th>COCA</th>
<th>BNC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Cleared his throat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1368</td>
<td>155</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Making sense</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>773</td>
<td>101</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Open the door</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3180</td>
<td>485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Take it easy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>923</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Frequency per 1000</strong></td>
<td><strong>4 (80)</strong></td>
<td><strong>6244 (603)</strong></td>
<td><strong>855 (529)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 3 shows, the collocations that occur one time in the textbook happens to be in the reference corpora in considerably high frequency – ranging from around 118 to 3180 times in COCA and 12 to 485 in BNC. Where the frequency of Verb + Noun (VN) collocations is 80 per thousand words, it is 603 in COCA and 529 in BNC. Interestingly, remained quiet is the lowest in frequency in both COCA and BNC, and open the door is the highest again in both the corpora. On one hand, the frequency of VN collocations is way above it is in the textbook which indicates that the representation of VN collocations is not sufficient in the textbook. i.e., 80 times in every ten thousand words in comparison with 603 in COCA and 529 in BNC. On the
other, the collocations used in the textbook are in high frequency in COCA as compared to BNC which indicates that the book uses collocations that are mostly used by the Americans as compared to the British. The distribution of the categories of VN collocations is further demonstrated in Figure 4.

Figure 3. Frequency per 1000 words

It is quite apparent that the textbook does not represent VN collocation appropriately. Its frequency is only 80 per ten thousand words in comparison with the high frequency in COCA and BNC (603 and 529 respectively).

Noun + Verb (NV) collocations are also divided into two parts – the ones which occur in the reference corpora in high frequency and the ones that occur in abnormally low frequency.

Table 4. Noun-Verb collocation I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Collocation</th>
<th>Book</th>
<th>COCA</th>
<th>BNC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>Dirt Run</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>Doctor’s order</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency per 1000 words</th>
<th>Book</th>
<th>COCA</th>
<th>BNC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dirt Run</td>
<td>2(200)</td>
<td>1(0.84)</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows the trend of the collocations which occur in the reference corpora in considerably low frequency. The frequency of the collocation, doctor’s order is 100 per thousand times in the book but it is not found both in COCA and BNC at all. However, dirt run is found one time in COCA and not found in BNC. The number of these collocations in the Book is more than COCA and BNC. The distribution of the categories of Lexical collocations is demonstrated in Figure 3.
Figure 4. The Categories of Lexical Collocations

NV collocations occur 200 per thousand times in textbook but they are not found in BNC. However, it is 0.84 in every thousand words in COCA. The overall occurrence of NV is considerably low in the textbook. Only five instances were found in the textbook.

Table 5. Noun-Verb collocation II

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Collocation</th>
<th>Book</th>
<th>COCA</th>
<th>BNC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>+ Wind blew</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>662</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 5 shows, NV collocations, *man sat, telephone rang* occur one time in the textbook and *wind blew*, two times. 200 per thousand NV collocations are found in textbook which is far less than 559 in COCA and 313 in BNC.
Figure 5. Comparison Between the Occurrences of NV Collocation

Figure 5 provides a comparison between the occurrences of NV collocation in the textbook and the reference corpora and demonstrates the inappropriate representation of NV in the textbook.

Table 6. Frequencies of V+N collocation repetition in textbook, COCA and BNC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Book</th>
<th>COCA</th>
<th>BNC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>12 (25%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>48 (98%)</td>
<td>3 (6%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twice to five time</td>
<td>1 (2%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than five times</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>37 (76%)</td>
<td>23 (47%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total collocations present out of 49</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the above table, the total number of Verb+Noun collocations COCA and BNC is 44 and 37 respectively as compared to them in the textbook, i.e., 49. The table shows that percentage of the zero collocation in COCA and BNC is 10% and 25% respectively. The percentage of one-time collocation is 98% in the textbook, 6% in COCA, and 14% in BNC. The table shows that the frequency of 1-time collocation in the textbook corpus is higher than the other two corpora. The frequency of Two to five times collocations is higher in BNC than the textbook and COCA. Further, the frequency of the VN collocations that occur more than five times in BNC is higher than COCA, whereas, there is no VN collocation that occurs more than five times in the textbook corpus.

Table 7. Frequencies of N+V collocation repetition in Textbook, COCA and BNC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Book</th>
<th>COCA</th>
<th>BNC</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Zero</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1 (11.3%)</td>
<td>3 (33.3%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>9 (100%)</td>
<td>1 (11.1%)</td>
<td>1 (11.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twice to five time</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3 (33.3%)</td>
<td>1 (11.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than five times</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4 (44.4%)</td>
<td>4 (44.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total collocation out of 9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As table 7 shows, the total number of Noun + Verb collocations in COCA and BNC is 8 and 6 respectively as compared to them in the textbook, i.e., 9. The table also highlights that percentage of the zero collocation in COCA and BNC is 11% and 33% respectively. The percentage of one-time collocation is 100% in the textbook, 11% in COCA, and 11% in BNC respectively. The table shows that the frequency of 1-time collocation in the textbook is higher than the other two corpora which means the book does not provide the students with appropriate scope of revising or drilling the collocations by repeating them in the text. The frequency of Two to five times collocations is higher in BNC than the textbook and COCA. Whereas, the frequency of the NV collocations that occur more than five times in BNC and COCA is equal in numbers. There is no NV collocation that occurs more than five times in the textbook corpus.

Conclusion

The present study investigated the frequency of collocations in the selected textbook and drew its comparison with COCA and BNC. It includes all six types of lexical collocations, however, the frequency of Adjective + Noun and Verb + Noun is higher than that of Noun + Verb, Noun 1 + of + Noun 2, Adverb + Adjective, and Verb + Adverb. The category Adjective + Noun has the highest number of collocations, i.e., 213. The analysis of the data shows that the selected textbook uses some collocations that are not used or at least not frequently used by the native users of the language. It is interesting to note that some VN collocations (dig grave, lifted a stick, preach his ambition, taste yams and wiped the raindrops, made up mind, build rocket, blazing air, etc) that are found in the book are either not found in COCA and BNC or in a very low frequency. In the book, the frequency of VN collocations is 180 per thousand words which is a very high frequency as compared to 0.19 in COCA and 0.61 in BNC. The same is the case with some NV collocations. The collocation, doctor's order occurs 100 per thousand words in the book but it is not found both in COCA and BNC. Further, the overall occurrence of NV is considerably low in the textbook. Only five instances were located in the textbook.

Now there are some collocations that occur one time in the textbook, which happens to be in the reference corpora in considerably high frequency. Where the frequency of Verb + Noun (VN) collocations per thousand words is 80, it is 603 in COCA and 529 in BNC. It shows that the representation of VN collocations is not sufficient in the textbook that is only 80 per thousand words in comparison with 603 in COCA and 529 in BNC. Further, the collocations used in the textbook are in high frequency in COCA as compared to BNC which indicates that the book uses collocations that are mostly used by the Americans as compared to the British.
Also, some NV collocations occur only one or two times in the textbook. They are 200 per thousand words in the textbook which is far less than 559 in COCA and 313 in BNC.

**Recommendations**

The selected textbook is expected to help the students improve their language competence and the expected goal can be fulfilled only if the input in the form of the content in the book is appropriate. However, the findings of the study show that the collocations used in the book are not appropriate. On one hand, the frequency of the collocations is too low as compared to their frequency in the reference corpora. In this case, the textbook does not repeat the collocations in a systematic way so that they can be the part of students’ language. On the other hand, the book presents a high frequency of some collocations which are very rarely used by the native speakers. Still, there are some combinations of words that are not found in the reference corpora. Thus, the study suggests that the syllabus books need either to be revised or changed in order to help language learners improve their language skills.

**Acknowledgement:** The authors are grateful to the Deanship of Scientific Research of Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, Al-Kharj Saudi Arabia, for its support in the publication of this study.

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## Appendix 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb + Noun</th>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Collocations</th>
<th>Book (25,640 words)</th>
<th>COCA (520 million words)</th>
<th>BNC (100 million words)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arrived home</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>135</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ate supper</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blazing air</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bring salt</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Build rocket</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buy meat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buy tickets</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>271</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carried a basket</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cheated death</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleared her throat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>462</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleared his throat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1368</td>
<td>155</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cleched teeth</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>313</td>
<td>69</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooked the food</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cut the cloth</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dig grave (2)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Driving rain</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finished his task</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fire pistol</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Get breath</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting dark</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Getting upset</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grown furious</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lifted a stick</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Looked thin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lose faith</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lowered his eyes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Made speeches</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Made up mind</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Make the money</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making sense</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>773</td>
<td>101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metal shop</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Open the door</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3180</td>
<td>485</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preach his ambition</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prove innocence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Put the button</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raise crops</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raised a hand</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>302</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raised corn</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remained quiet</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Repressed a smile</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>02</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek justice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Take it easy</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>923</td>
<td>114</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taste yams</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Walked home</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>407</td>
<td>96</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wins the race</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wiped sweat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wiped the raindrops</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wiped the tears</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Won the war</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>304</td>
<td>46</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Frequency per 1000 words**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Book (25,640 words)</th>
<th>COCA (520 million words)</th>
<th>BNC (100 million words)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency per 1000 words</td>
<td>50 (1.9)</td>
<td>10,348 (0.01)</td>
<td>1616 (0.01)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Types</td>
<td>Collocations</td>
<td>Book (25,640 words)</td>
<td>COCA (520 million words)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun + Verb</td>
<td>Blood shed</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dirt run</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Doctor’s orders</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Glasses flying</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Men sat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rockets come</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sunlight comes</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Telephone rang</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wind blew</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>662</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Frequency per 1000 words | 10 (0.390) | 1184 (0.002) | 300 (0.003) |
The Semantics of the Modal Verbs:  
A Corpus-based Analysis of Manipulation and Ideology in Literary Text(s)

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Dr. Zahoor Hussain is currently serving as a coordinator at BZ University Multan for its Layyah Campus. He has more than 10 years of working experience as an EFL educator. His
Abstract

English language as a tool of connectivity and communication has achieved global recognition. With the advent of technology English language has played a pivotal role in bringing understanding and acceptance between the people of different cultures and religions. Infact, English has become a common man's medium to reach out to different cultures and different ideologies across the Globe. Modality as a linguistic device encompasses a variety of forms, including (but not limited to) modal auxiliaries, modal verbs, modal adverbs, and modal adjectives. The present paper focuses specifically on the use of modal auxiliaries in two literary texts. The study seeks the significance of modal verbs in two English novels: Ulysses by James Joyce and The Mayor of Casterbridge by Thomas Hardy. It highlights the hidden ideologies of possibility, probability, inference, and belief of the writers through the use of modals. All the basic, marginal, and other modal auxiliaries are segregated from the corpora of the selected novels. The corpus-based approach is utilized and for this AntConc version 3.5.8 is used as a tool to retrieve 14 modal verbs serving as the sample data. The data is analyzed under the theoretical frameworks of Palmer’s (2001) 8 Meanings Model and the General Spectrum. Results are displayed in Statistical, graphical, and descriptive forms which indicate that the epistemic modal auxiliary ‘May’ is used highest at 33.65% by James Joyce indicating the claim for the (non)-commitment to the truth of the proposition of the addresses textualized by the author in his work. Using the data obtained through this analysis, we argue that Hardy’s writing constitutes persuasion, whereas Joyce’s constitutes manipulation.

Keywords: Modal Auxiliaries, Modality, Ideologies, General Spectrum

Introduction

Modality is the linguistic feature that performs certain functions in a text through certain ways. Writers employ this feature to establish their ideology; attitudes, and opinions by using this feature either directly or indirectly through the utterances of their characters in their literary works. According to Palmer (2001), modality is concerned with a speaker's attitude or opinion regarding the proposition in a clause. Hence by analyzing the modal sources used in any text, one can reach to understand the background intentions and the objectives of the users or the writers. As a matter of fact, people use language not only for the purpose of communication but
at times use it for certain social constructions too (CheeKeong, Yassin, & Abdulrahman, 2014). Through the use of Modals, the attitudinal and interpersonal meanings are communicated (Yassin, & Razak, 2018). In this study, an effort has been made to analyze that what are those modals which are used by James Joyce in the novel *Ulysses* and by Thomas Hardy in his novel *The Mayor of Casterbridge*, especially there is an unambiguous focus extended by the researcher that which type of the modal verbs are used more than the other, what their functions are and what writers of these two novels intended to gain as objectives through the use of those modal verbs in their novels. The effect and the impact of the texts on the minds of the readers and the hearers are always undeniable as writers deliberately opt selecting special vocabulary and words to convey and establish their opinions and attitudes. Fairclough (2003: 8), also states that texts have causal effects upon, and contribute to changes in people (belief, attitude, etc.), actions, social relations, and the material worlds. Hence through the textual analysis of a literary text one may evaluate and gauge such effects in some statistical representations and can draw certain results and fallouts.

**Statement of Problem**

Authors use different linguistic features in their literary works other than by means of the stylistic devices which serve several purposes in their texts, but apart from those stylistic devices, they also exploit certain linguistic features of grammatical nature in their writings, which contribute in establishing some specific purposes too, such as conveying any ideology, attitude or the opinion of the writers in their own creative work. Understanding the reason and the significance behind using such features of a language by authors is not only one of the most important part of the linguists’ works, but it is equally an essential matter of concern for the general readership too, as they also need to be aware of the reasons behind using those features to be better able to comprehend the creative works of the writers.

**Research Objectives**

i) To find out the modal verb types used in both novels selected for this study?

ii) To investigate which modal verb type/s is not used at all by both authors in these two novels?

iii) To seek the significance of the modal verbs used in the novels of *Ulysses* and *The Mayor of Casterbridge* to be able to some extent to understand the bent of mind of these two writers with which they wrote these novels.
Research Questions

i) Which modal verb types are used in both novels selected for this study?
ii) Which modal verb type/s is not used at all by both authors in these two novels?
iii) What is the significance of the modal verbs used in the novels selected for this study under the framework of General Spectrum & Palmer’s model?

Significance of the Study

This research is significant as the study provides help in addressing the solution of the problem that general readership of literary works interacts with, in terms of not understanding the purpose behind using the modal auxiliaries in the written creative works of writers. Moreover, the study also confirms that writers do have a philosophy or an ideology behind using different modal verbs in their writings which play certain roles in the text constructing particular effects and impacts on the minds of the readers and the audience.

Delimitation

There are many frameworks proposed by different theorists on the subject of modality, modal verbs, and their types which are used in wide-ranging researches to analyze literary or other texts by different researchers. Among them, the most popular works are of the theorists named Lyon (1968), Halliday (1994), Verchueren (1999), Fairclough (2003), Simpson (1993), and Palmer (2001). But in this current study, only two research frameworks are applied to draw results and conclusions on the subject of modal verbs used in two English novels chosen for this task. One research framework is the Palmer's 8modal meanings model, while the other is the general spectrum under which 14 modal verbs are analyzed. Later on, the findings of both frameworks are compared and analyzed in a refined way to produce some significant fallout. But in this particular paper, only the comparison of epistemic and the deontic modal verbs under the theoretical framework of Palmer (2001) is done in the special setting of two novels; one each of James Joyce and Thomas Hardy to seek the significance of these modal verbs used by these writers.

Literature Review

What is Modality

Modality is an aspect of Systemic Functional Linguistics which is dealt in critical discourse analysis. According to Halliday (1994:75), modality is the ‘speaker’s judgment of the probabilities or the obligations involved in what he is saying’. Verschueren (1999), as quoted in
Fairclough (2003:165), also comments that modality is concerned with the many ways in which attitudes can be expressed towards the pure reference and predication content of utterance, signaling factuality, degree of certainty or doubt, vagueness, possibility and even permission and obligation. Lyons, J. (1968) defines 'mood'- interrogative, declarative and imperative-in relation to an unmarked class of sentences which express simple statement of facts unqualified with respect to the attitude of the writer he is saying. Explicitly mood is something that indicates or refers to the tone of a verb used in a sentence so that the intentions of the speaker or the writer may become clear. But when taking the term into consideration from the grammar's perspective it falls into five different types namely conditional, interrogative, subjunctive, indicative, and imperative. Lyon (1968) believes that mood is essentially a grammatical category, while as he considers 'modality' a semantic category in connection with the language use. According to Simpson (1993: 43), modality refers to a writer's attitude towards or opinion about the truth of a proposition expressed by the sentence. It also extends to the speaker's attitude towards the situation of the event described by a sentence. There are various opinions of different scholars and theorists about modality which view modality from different perspectives and in varied ways, which not only express their opinions but allow other researchers to view the subject of modals and modality from new verges. According to Palmer (1990:49), there are many warning statements about modal verbs, ranging from ‘problematic’ or ‘complicated’ to ‘messy’, leading to a certain modal ‘abyss’: whatever book we consult in this respect, the approach is different, ranging from considering modals are irregular verbs (cf. some dictionaries) to the ‘ultimate’ list of modal verbs, including or excluding certain entries (used to, have to, be to). Carter & McCarthy (2006: 679-713), say that speech acts may be expressed by the following options: declarative as questions, modal verbs, interrogatives, and imperatives. Arats (2011:275), states that the shortest possible definition is that modality deals with non-factual or not actualized things, actions, or events, while a well-summarized definition is that modality refers to speaker's or writer's attitude towards, or point of view about, a state of the world. Similarly, Lewis, (1986, p.100), explains the two rules about modals appearance in sentences, that one of the books highlights the importance of two rules regarding modal verbs, which may serve as a starting point: modal auxiliaries occur in the first place in the verb phrase, and it is not possible for them to co-occur with the others. Badescu (1984:383) says that even there are more ways to refer to modal verbs: modal-auxiliaries, defective modal verbs (lacking the majority of forms), anomalous or special finites, mood formers. Greenbaum (1996:153) adds one more way of modal verbs by saying, even
secondary auxiliaries, although the term is not very logical as they are always ‘first’ in a string of verbs.

**Varied Types of Modality**

Simpson, P. (1993) conceives four types of modalities which include Deontic Modality, Boulmaic Modality, Perception Modality, and Epistemic Modality. Deontic Modality refers to the modal system of 'duty' as it relates itself to the writer's attitude to the degree of obligation attached to the performance of certain actions. The common examples and the words which express the deontic modalities include the auxiliary verbs, must, have to, may, can, should, and ought to, but sometimes the adjectives, i.e. obligatory, permissible and impermissible are also considered as the examples of deontic modalities. Deontic modality is further divided into directives, comissives, imperatives, and others. Boulmaic Modalit is the modality that expresses what is possible or necessary given as someone’s desires. Perception Modality is the modality that relates to the fact that the degree of commitment to the truth of a proposition is predicted on some reference to human perception like visual perception. And now the concept of multimodal perception is also emerging as a contemporary trend in linguistic modality. Some examples of perception modality are: it is obvious that you are right, you are clearly correct. Epistemic Modality refers to the judgments about possibility, probability etc. This modality is expressed by using the modal verbs: might, must, and adverbial as probably or possibly. Some examples of epistemic modality in English language are: he might be there, he may be there, he should be there, he must be there by now. Huddleston (2002) explained the term modality by sing examples and stated three values of modality defined by Haliday (1991:362), who said that there were three values of modality: High value Must, Should, Ought to, Need to, Has to, is to, Median Value Will, would, shall, Low value May, Might, Can Could, while Leech (1969) claims that possibility and ability meaning is very common than the permission. Modal 'can' mostly shows a strong possibility.

**General sub-division of Modal Verbs in English Grammar**

English Modal Verbs can be classified into three sub-groups too, such as central modals, marginal modals or semi-modals, and others. There are 9 central modals verbs such as can, could, must, may, might, will, would, shall, should, while there are 8 marginal or semi-modals verbs. These eight modals verbs make two groups, each group having four members in it: dare, need, ought to, used to, & had better, would rather, be to, have (got) to. The third group of the
Palmer’s 8 modal meanings model

Modality can be used as a method to identify the attitude of a narrator. Palmer (2003), divides modality into three categories namely, epistemic, deontic and dynamic. According to Palmer (2003, p.7), epistemic modality is concerned with the speaker's attitude to the status of proposition, while —deontic and dynamic modalities are seen as directives concerned with enabling the subject of the sentence to act. However, deontic is concerned with the—circumstances external to the subject of a sentence, while with dynamic, the control— is internal to the subject and ability comes from the subject's own ability.

Three modalities

✓ Epistemic Modality (may, must, will)
This term is taken from the Greek episteme which means knowledge. Modality is a linguistic feature and it is said to be modality when a modal verb is used to express the opinion of the speaker about any statement. It serves to express the attitude of the speaker whether any proposition is true or not. Moreover, it relates to the speaker's acceptance that there is a possibility, the speaker is not certain about the truth value of a particular proposition. It conveys its meaning through the modal verbs like; may, must & will, 'May’ is named as Epistemic Possibility, ‘Must’ is named as Epistemic Necessity, and ‘Will’ is named as Epistemic W/S.

✓ Deontic modality (may+can, must, can)
Deontic Modality is the modality that has a concern with what is necessary or possible according to different rules, such as norms of morality, the laws of some country, and the laws and the principles of practical rationality. The modal verbs included in this modality are 'May, Can', ‘Must’, & ‘Can’. ‘May, Can’ is named as Deontic Possibility, and the modal verb ‘Can’ is controlled by the speaker’s permission. This modality refers to external control and permission. Deontic is concerned with the circumstances external to the subject of the sentence. Deontic modalities are seen as directives concerned with enabling the subject of the sentence to act.

✓ Dynamic modality: (Can, will)
Dynamic modality is the one that is concerned with the internal control of the subject and the ability comes from the own ability of the subject. These modalities like Deontic modalities also are seen as directives, concerned with enabling the subject of the sentence to act. The modal
verbs that are included in this type of modality are Can & Will. For 'can' it is named as Dynamic Possibility, and for 'will' its name is Dynamic W/S.

**Palmer’s 8 Modal Meanings**

Palmer (1990: 36-37), describes his 8 modal meanings which include eight types of modalities, i.e. Epistemic Possibility (may): show that the speaker is uncertain, Epistemic Necessity (must), Epistemic W/S (will) Deontic Possibility (may, can): can is controlled by the speaker’s permission (external), Deontic Necessity (must) Deontic W/S (will), Dynamic Possibility (can): can is controlled by the subject (internal), Dynamic W/S (will).

![Fig: Palmer’s 8 Modals Meanings Model](image_url)

**Research Methodology**

It is a corpus-based study which bears the mixed features of qualitative as well as quantitative research. The corpus is the plain text of two English novels meant to investigate the modal verb types and their ratios by percentages in the relevant text to seek the meanings of those modals behind their use made by the authors of these two novels. The name of one novel is *Ulysses* written by an Irish writer James Joyce while the name of the other novel is *The Mayor of Casterbridge* written by an English writer Thomas Hardy.

**The corpus**

The corpus of this study comprises the text of two novels. One of the novels that include in research is *The Mayor of the Casterbridge* written by the English author Thomas Hardy. This novel was originally published in 1886 and the complete novel is sectioned into forty-five very well structured chapters. The reason behind choosing this novel for this study is that it is the best known novel of Hardy, as well as it is unanimously considered as one of his most powerful works in English literature. It is set in a fictional rural England with Casterbridge standing in
Dorset where Hardy spent his best youth time. The other novel selected for the corpus is a modernist novel *Ulysses* written by an Irish writer James Joyce. This novel was published in parts in an American journal *The Little Review* from March 1918 to December 1922. Later on, it was published in its entirety in *Paris* by Sylvia Beach in 1922. The page count of this novel is 730. The reason behind the selection of this novel for the current research is that it is the novel that is stylistically dense and thrilling. This novel of James is generally considered as a masterpiece of his and it has been the subject of many volumes of commentary and analysis for different researchers and the literature lovers. More specifically it is thought that this novel is constructed as a modern parallel to Homer's *Odyssey*. (britannica.com)

**Data manipulation**

The Pdf. text of both of the novels was converted into a plain text file, and software AntConc. Version 3.5.8 as a concordance tool was run to segregate the modal verbs from the plain text of the novels. Ant Conc like some other concordance tools offers multiple choices and options to its user, which facilitates the user or the researcher to analyze different linguistic features of the text. Some basic features of this particular concordance tool include concordance frequencies, concordance plot, file view, clusters/N Gram, collocates, word list, and Keyword list. This tool has some advance functions and the features too, but here in this study as the work was focused more upon the investigation of the frequencies of the modal verbs and the search for seeking the significance of their use by both authors in their novels, the 'concordance' feature was found most useful tool. Thus with the help of this feature, the text of both of the novels was analyzed to retrieve all the modal verbs used in the data. And a final Table of the required data was prepared so that the actual analysis could be carried out to reach some results and the conclusions.

**Research framework**

There are two research frameworks applied in this research to draw results and conclusions. One is Palmer's 8modal meanings model, while the other is the general spectrum under which 14 modal verbs are analyzed. Later on, the findings of both frameworks are compared and analyzed in a refined way to produce some significant outfall.

**Data analysis**

**Introductory Note before the data analysis**

There are two samples of the data for conducting the analysis of this research, i.e.
• Sample data-1: 14 modal verbs/general spectrum data.
• Sample data-2: 5/8 modal verbs/under Palmer’s model.

Both samples (1 & 2) are presented in the form of 4 separate Tables having all the mandatory statistics in each of them; those appeared to be helpful in the analysis purpose to draw clear and connected results for this research. And to avoid unnecessary Tables for the representation of the data these are restricted to number 4 only.

**Data representation**

Unlike pure quantitative research, in this mixed research maximum representation of statistical nature is made in the 4 Tables. The detail of these Tables is listed as below:

✓ Table-1: complete data-general spectrum (sample data-1,frequency hits, & %ages,)
✓ Table-2: complete data-Palmer’s model (sample data-2, frequency hits, &%ages )
✓ Table-3: grand data-1( %ages of Palmer's Ratios & General Spectrum Data)
✓ Table-4: Grand Data-2 ( Final % age Ratios in Hardy’s & James Joyce’s Works)

**Table-1: Complete Data-General Spectrum (Sample data-1, Frequency hits, & % ages)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample data-1 (14 modal verbs)</th>
<th>No of hits in Thomas Hardy’s novel</th>
<th>No of hits in James Joyce’s novel</th>
<th>% age ratios of Hardy’s work</th>
<th>%age ratios of James’s work</th>
<th>Difference in %ages of both works</th>
<th>Who gains greater frequency hits in (Sample data-1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Would</td>
<td>346</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20.86</td>
<td>14.46</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.09</td>
<td>4.95</td>
<td>13.14</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11.51</td>
<td>9.50</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Will</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10.97</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>7.67</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>9.04</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Might</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.92</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>6.45</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Must</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6.57</td>
<td>15.28</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>James Joyce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>May</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>39.25</td>
<td>33.65</td>
<td>James Joyce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.18</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ought to</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>James Joyce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have to</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>James Joyce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Had better</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dare</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>None of the Two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Count</td>
<td>1,658</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>99.98</td>
<td>99.93</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2: Complete Data-Palmer’s Model (Sample data-2, Frequency hits, &%ages)**
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Palmer’s Modality Types</th>
<th>Sample Data-2</th>
<th>Hits in Hardy’s Work</th>
<th>Hits in James’s Work</th>
<th>% of Hardy’s Work</th>
<th>% of James’s Work</th>
<th>Difference in %ages of both works</th>
<th>Who gains greater hits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic Possibility</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>7.52</td>
<td>29.05</td>
<td>21.53</td>
<td>James</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic Necessity</td>
<td>Must</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>8.81</td>
<td>11.31</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>James</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic W/S</td>
<td>Will</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14.72</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>12.28</td>
<td>Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deontic Possibility</td>
<td>May, Can</td>
<td>93, 191</td>
<td>95, 23</td>
<td>22.97</td>
<td>36.08</td>
<td>13.11</td>
<td>James</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deontic Necessity</td>
<td>Must</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>8.81</td>
<td>11.31</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>James</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deontic W/S</td>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.95</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic Possibility</td>
<td>Can</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>15.45</td>
<td>7.03</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic W/S</td>
<td>Will</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14.72</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>12.28</td>
<td>Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Hits</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>1,236</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>99.95%</td>
<td>99.96</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3: Grand Data-1 (%ages of Palmer’s Ratios & General Spectrum Data)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compared Modals</th>
<th>Palmer’s Ratios</th>
<th>General Spectrum Ratios</th>
<th>Who gains greater hits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Palmer’s Modality Types</td>
<td>Auxiliary Modals</td>
<td>Difference in % ages in both works</td>
<td>Who gains greater hits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic Possibility</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>21.53</td>
<td>James</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deontic Possibility</td>
<td>May, Can</td>
<td>13.11</td>
<td>James</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic W/S</td>
<td>Will</td>
<td>12.28</td>
<td>Thomas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic W/S</td>
<td>Will</td>
<td>12.28</td>
<td>Thomas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamic Possibility</td>
<td>Can</td>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>Thomas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deontic W/S</td>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>Thomas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deontic Necessity</td>
<td>Must</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>James</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Epistemic Necessity</td>
<td>Must</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>James</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Hits</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4: Grand Data-2 (Final Ratios in Hardy’s & James Joyce’s Works)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Palmer’s Ratios</th>
<th>General Spectrum Ratios</th>
<th>Grand Difference</th>
<th>Compared Modals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Difference in % ages</td>
<td>Who gains greater hits</td>
<td>Difference in % ages</td>
<td>Who gains greater hits</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.53</td>
<td>James</td>
<td>33.65</td>
<td>James Joyce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.11</td>
<td>James</td>
<td>No data in general spectrum for duel modals</td>
<td>May, Can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.28</td>
<td>Thomas</td>
<td>7.67</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.28</td>
<td>Thomas</td>
<td>7.67</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.42</td>
<td>Thomas</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>Thomas</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>Thomas Hardy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>James</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>James Joyce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>James</td>
<td>8.71</td>
<td>James Joyce</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data analysis

Data analysis of this study is done under the specifications shown in 4 Tables. And all these specifications are displayed in their relevant tables under the frameworks of General Spectrum & Palmer’s model. The sequence of the analysis in this part of the paper is followed on the following pattern:

➢ Analysis of Sample Data-1 (General Spectrum): Table 1
➢ Analysis of Sample Data-2 (Palmer’s Model): Table 2
➢ Analysis of Grand Data-1(General Spectrum & Palmer’s Model):Table-3
➢ Analysis of Grand Data-2(General Spectrum & Palmer’s Model):Table-4
➢ Analysis related to the Research Q 2.

Analysis of Sample Data-1 (General Spectrum): Table 1

Data analysis of Table-1 is presented as follows:

1. In Sample Data-1 for the General Spectrum, there are 14 modal verbs retrieved through the concordance tool Ant Conc. which includes the modals as would, may, can, will, should, might, must, may, shall, ought to, need, have to, had better & dare.

2. Frequency hits against 14 modal verbs for Thomas Hardy’s novel are as 346,300,191,182,150,148, 109, 83, 86, 19, 17, 11, 7, 0, while the frequency hits for James Joyce’s novel are as 35,12,23,8,16,6, 37,95,1, 0,6,3, 0, respectively.

3. Overall occurrences of the hits for all the 14 modal verbs for Hardy are 1,658 while for James Joyce they are 242.

4. Percentage ratios of the modal verbs of would, may, can, will, should, might, must, may, shall, ought to, need, have to, had better & dare for Thomas Hardy’s novel are as 20.86,18.09,11.51,10.97, 9.04, 8.92, 6.57, 5.60, 5.18, 1.14.1.02, 0.66, 0.42, & 0, while for James’ Joyce these are 14.46, 4.95, 9.50, 3.30, 6.61, 2.47, 15.28, 39.25, 0,41, 0,2.47, 1.23, 0,& 0, respectively.

5. Highest frequency hits are gained by James Joyce for the modal verb ‘may’ in the novel of Ulysses with a percentage mark up of 33.65, which surpasses all the other %ages in the data.

Analysis of Sample Data-2 (Palmer’s Model): Table 2

Data analysis on Table-2 is presented as follows:
1. In Sample Data-2 for Palmer’s Model, there are 8 modal verbs having their categories by meanings namely Epistemic Possibility (may), Epistemic Necessity (must), Epistemic W/S (will), Deontic Possibility (may+can), Deontic Necessity (must), Deontic W/S (shall), Dynamic Possibility (can), & Dynamic W/S (will). These 8 modal verbs are may, must, will, may+can, must, shall, can, & will.

2. Frequency Hits for 8 modals for Hardy are as 93, 109, 182, 93+191, 109, 86, 191, 182.

3. Frequency Hits for 8 modals for James Joyce are as 95, 37, 8, 95+23, 37, 123, 8.

4. Total Frequency hits for hardy in the novel under Palmer’s model are 1,236.

5. Total Frequency hits for James Joyce in the novel under Palmer’s model are 327.

6. The % ages for the above 8 modals for Hardy are as 7.52, 8.81, 14.72, 22.97, 8.81, 6.95, 15.45, & 14.72 respectively.

7. The % ages for the above 8 modals for James Joyce are as 29.05, 11.31, 2.44, 36.08, 11.31, 0.30, 7.03, & 2.44 respectively.

8. Highest frequency hits are gained by James Joyce for the modal verb ‘may’ in the novel of Ulysses with a percentage mark up as 21.53, which surpasses all the other %ages in the data.

Analysis of Grand Data-1 (General Spectrum & Palmer’s Model) Table-3

Data analysis of Table-3 is presented as follows:

1. Palmer’s 8 modal verbs having their categories by meanings namely Epistemic Possibility (may), Epistemic Necessity (must), Epistemic W/S (will), Deontic Possibility (may, can), Deontic Necessity (must), Deontic W/S (shall), Dynamic Possibility (can), & Dynamic W/S (will). These 8 modal verbs are may, must, will, may+can, must, shall, can, & will are compared with only 7 modal verbs of General Spectrum, and the modals of General Spectrum include as may, must, will, must, shall, can, & will.

2. Difference in the %ages of both writers’ works under Palmer's model against 8 modals is as 21.53, 13.11, 12.28, 12.28, 8.42, 6.65, 2.25 & 2.25 respectively.

3. Difference in the %ages of both writers' works under General Spectrum against 7 modals excluding the Deontic Possibility (may+can) is as 33.65, ----, 7.67, 7.67, 2.01, 4.77, 8.71, & 8.71 respectively.

Analysis of grand data-2 (general spectrum & Palmer's model) Table-4

Data analysis on Table-4 is presented as follows:
1. Gross Difference in the % ages based upon Palmer's ratios and the General Spectrum ratios in Table-4 against 7 compared modals excluding the Deontic Possibility (may+can) are as 12.12, ----, 4.45, 4.61, 6.41, 1.88, 6.21, & 6.21.

2. Highest frequency hits under Palmer’s Model & General Spectrum is gained by James Joyce for the modal verb ‘may’ in the novel of *Ulysses* with a percentage mark up of 12.12.

Analysis related to the research q 2.

There are zero frequency hits against the modal verb 'dare' for both of the writers in the selected novels for this study.

**Results & discussion**

The results are compiled in the light of the specifications shown in all the 4 Tables used for the data analysis, and on the basis of the data analysis itself. Tables are not displayed again in this section of 'Results' to avoid repetition, only the findings and the relevant graphs are shared to make the work simpler and easily understandable. The sequence adopted for sharing the findings of this research is followed by the following pattern mentioned below:

- Results of sample data-1 (general spectrum): Table 1
- Results of sample data-2 (Palmer’s model): Table 2
- Results of grand data-1(general spectrum & Palmer's model)Table-3
- Results of grand data-1(general spectrum & Palmer's model)Table-4
- Results related to the research q 2.

**Results of sample data-1 (general spectrum): Table 1**

In Sample data-1 of General Spectrum, there are 14 modal verbs retrieved from the corpus of 2 English novels selected for this study. These modals include as would, may, can, will, should, might, must, may, shall, ought to, need, have to, had better & dare. The gross frequency hits in Table-1 show that both novelists; Thomas Hardy and James Joyce have given importance to the representation of these modals in their novels, especially James Joyce in his novel *Ulysses* in comparison to Thomas Hardy in his novel *The Mayor of Casterbridge*. The highest percentage of modal 'May' shows a markup of 33.65 in Table-1 which is gained by James Joyce, which indicates his bent of mind towards using this particular modal with special focus to convey its meanings to his readers.

There is one very interesting finding in Table-1 regarding the frequency hits gained by Thomas Hardy against the modal verb 'Would' which shows the highest no of frequency hits as it goes like 346 out of the total toll of 1,658. Which is the top-hit in the list, but in spite of this
highest frequency gain, Hardy could not surpass James Joyce, since the frequency hit of James Joyce against the modal verb 'May' gained the % age difference at the rate of 33.65 in the whole data. Another surprising finding is about the usage of the modal verb: dare, which could not attract anyone of the two writers at least for these two novels. The frequency hit shown for this modal was zero for both of the writers.

Following are the 2 graphs presented to show the frequency hits of 14 modal verbs of both writers along with the highest frequency hit of James Joyce’s modal ‘May’ with its 33.65 % age on the basis of the numerical data under the General Spectrum in Table -1

Graph 1 (From Table-1): Frequency Hits of 14 Modal Verbs in Hardy’s & James Joyce’s Novels

![Graph 1](image)

Elucidation of the Graph-1: (Sample Data-1)

Graph-1 represents the occurrence of the modal verbs in the novels *The Mayor of the Casterbridge* written by Thomas Hardy and the novel *Ulysses* by James Joyce. The modal verbs included can, will, should, might, must, may, shall, ought to, need, have to, had better and dare. The software of Ant Conc. (version: 3.5.8) extracted the frequencies in Hardy’s novel as 346,300,191,182,150,148, 109, 83, 86, 19, 17, 11, 7, 0, while the frequencies for the *Ulysses* by James Joyce were as 35,12,23,8,16,6, 37,95,1, 0,6,3, 0,0 respectively. Overall occurrences for all the 14 modal verbs for Hardy were 1,658 while for James Joyce they were 242.

Graph 2- (From Table-1): Highest %age of James Joyce’s use of Modal ‘May’ by 33.65%
Elucidation of the Graph-1: (Sample Data-1)

Graph-2 presents the highest percentage of 33.65 of the modal verb (may) used by James Joyce in his novel *Ulysses* in comparison to the novel of *The Mayor of Casterbridge* written by Thomas Hardy. Other percentages were 6.4, 13.14, 2.01, 7.67, 2.43, 6.45, 8.71, 4.77, 1.14, 0.57, 0.42, and 0. Against the modal verbs would, could; can, will, should, might, shall, ought to, need, have to, had better, and dare.

**Statistical results of sample data-2 (Palmer’s model): Table 2**

In sample data-2 of Palmer’s 8 modal meanings model, there are 8 modal verbs retrieved from the corpus of the same novels selected for this study. Palmer has categorized 8 modals by defining them as ‘8 modal meanings’ And the names expressing meanings of these 8 modals are Epistemic Possibility (may), Epistemic Necessity (must), Epistemic W/S (will), Deontic Possibility (may+can), Deontic Necessity (must), Deontic W/S (shall), Dynamic Possibility (can), & Dynamic W/S (will). These 8 modal verbs are may, must, will, may+can, must, shall, can, & will. The total frequency hits of these 8 modals for Hardy are 1,236, while for James Joyce these are 327 under Palmer’s model. The interesting finding of this table prepared under Palmer’s model is, that in this model too, the statistics show the highest % after the comparison of the two writers is surprisingly gained by James Joyce against the same modal ‘may’ which is named as Epistemic Possibility by Palmer in his model of 8 modal meanings.
Graph 3: Showing frequency hits for Hardy & James Joyce under Palmer’s model

Elucidation of the Graph 3: (From Palmer’s Model-Table2)
This graph shows the Frequency Hits of Hardy and James Joyce under Palmer’s Model of 8 Modals.

**Statistical results of grand data-1( general spectrum & Palmer's model) Table-3**

Table 3- represents the % differences subjected to the Frequency hits of both writers under Palmer’s and the General spectrum. Differences in the %ages of the both writers’ works under Palmer’s model against 8 modals is as 21.53, 13.11, 12.28, 12.28, 8.42, 6.65, 2.25 & 2.25, while the differences in the %ages of the both writers’ works under General Spectrum against 7 modals excluding the Deontic Possibility (may+ can) is as 33.65, ----,7.67, 7.67, 2.01, 4.77, 8.71, & 8.71. A strange feature of Palmer’s model than the General Spectrum is the Deontic Possibility as named by Palmer, which is gained by the combined features of 2 modals: May+ Can, but this is the feature that is missed in General Spectrum and the result was that there was no frequency hit to show against it. Hence in Table no-3, the data shows the comparison of 8 Palmer’s modals with 7 modals of General Spectrum.

Graph-4 represents the % differences subjected to the Frequency hits of both writers under Palmer’s and the general spectrum.
Elucidation of graph-4

Differences in the %ages of the both writers’ works under Palmer’s model against 8 modals is as 21.53, 13.11, 12.28, 12.28, 8.42, 6.65, 2.25 & 2.25, while the differences in the %ages of the both writers’ works under General Spectrum against 7 modals excluding the Deontic Possibility (may+ can) is as 33.65, ----, 7.67, 7.67, 2.01, 4.77, 8.71, & 8.71.

Statistical results of grand data-1(general spectrum & Palmer's model) Table-4

Table-4 shows the Gross Difference in the % ages based upon Palmer’s ratios and the General Spectrum ratios in Table-4 against 7 compared modals excluding the Deontic Possibility (may+ can) are as 12.12, ----, 4.45, 4.61, 6.41, 1.88, 6.21, & 6.21. Highest frequency hits under Palmer's Model & General Spectrum is gained by James Joyce for the modal verb 'may' in the novel of Ulysses with a percentage mark up of 12.12.

Graph-5: highest frequency hits under Palmer’s model & general spectrum

Elucidation of graph-5

Highest frequency hits under Palmer’s model & general spectrum is gained by James Joyce for the modal verb ‘may’ in the novel of Ulysses with a percentage mark up of 12.12.

Other results related to the research q 2.

There are zero frequency hits against the modal verb 'dare' for both of the writers in the novels selected for this study, which shows that either they overlooked this modal verb and didn't use in their these two novels, or they both didn't consider it this near to their taste of writing at least in these two works.
Significance of the Use of modals by Writers in selected novels (In reply of the research question-3)

Modal verbs convey a certain meaning when used in sentences. Following Table-5 can help in understanding the purpose and the meanings behind using them in sentences. In this research 14 Modal verbs were segregated from the plain text of the selected novels to conduct data analysis for drawing some useful results.

Table 5- for the comprehension of some important Modal Verbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sr. #</th>
<th>Modal Verbs</th>
<th>Signification/ Meanings of the some Modal Verbs</th>
<th>Same Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Would</td>
<td>Wish, (with to like), polite request, a habit in past.</td>
<td>May/Might Can/Could</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Could</td>
<td>Ability, doubt, astonishment, permission, polite request.</td>
<td>Can/Could/ May</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Can</td>
<td>Ability, doubt, astonishment, permission, polite request.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Will</td>
<td>Wish, Desire, Will, Confidence in the future.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Should</td>
<td>Necessity, Advice, Blame, Recommendation, Reproach, regret.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Might</td>
<td>Ability, doubt, astonishment, permission, polite request.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Must</td>
<td>Obligation, Firm Necessity, Logical Conclusion, Probability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>May</td>
<td>Permission, If not prohibited, Supposition with doubt.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Shall</td>
<td>Intension, Supposition.</td>
<td>Can/Could</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Ought to</td>
<td>Moral Duty, Insistent Advice, Strict Recommendation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Need</td>
<td>(un) necessity.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Have to</td>
<td>Unwillingness, Forced Circumstances.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Had better</td>
<td>Refers to Present/Future, Desirable actions in certain situations.</td>
<td>Must/ Have to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Dare</td>
<td>Provocation, Invitation, While Taking risk.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conclusion

Modality is the linguistic feature which relates to performing different underlying uses of language. It is established through the use of modal verbs in the texts. Writers and speakers use auxiliary modal verbs to convey meanings and perform multiple functions of the language. For example, writers or speakers may make people to do something or not to do certain things, they may ask or grant permission, they may desire to establish a degree of certainty, they may try to influence other people in different ways, and they may exercise their opinions through them.

The interesting fact about the term modality is that it has attracted the attention of many linguists and the theorist this dynamically that they are consistently engaged in viewing this linguistic feature from different angles and aspects to explore and understand the very nature of the same. Not only regarding its types, its place of occurrence in sentences, and the possible functions in its capacity in varied ways. If some theorists include certain types of modal auxiliaries in one kind or category, the other has his/her own valid grounds to put it into another
type or the kind, very because of the reason that now considering any linguistic feature in a text or a discourse (spoken/written/images/ or in combination) in conventional terms is becoming difficult if not possible, especially the way the latest and the contemporary progress of language knowledge is increasing with every passing day. Researchers find and explore new dimensions and different aspects on the same subject, which eventually affect the other areas too. For example, Kierfer (1994), looks at modality on the ‘relativisation of the authenticity of statement meanings to set of possible words' or the mirror through which the public can see the world to be diverse. In other words, modality permits the language users to express what is, what would be, what may be, and what should be, while as Fowler (1997) allows the interlocutors to speak something without transmitting an outlook to that very thing. Morley (2004), accepts the greater significance of modals in editorials compared with news reports, while Alireza Bonyadi (2011) conducted a similar study on native and non-native newspaper editorials, i.e., New York Times from America and Tehran Times from Iran respectively. Murvai (2001, p.59) very correctly commented that the extended view of modality makes it difficult to set boundaries for modals, making it virtually impossible to delimit them.

References


The Habits of Mind in Constructing Typical EFL Teacher's Stereotypes

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Abstract

The Study aims at portraying and assessing 16 typical EFL teacher's stereotypes according to the 16 habits of mind. A random stratified sampling method is used to select 50 students as a study sample from the English Department, College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad. The students use typical EFL teachers' stereotypes that constructed by the researcher to assess the teacher performing of the 16 stereotypes as bad, ordinary, or typical stereotypes. Whole the 16 stereotypes constructed according to the habits of mind are assessed as typical. Thus, it is recommended to use these stereotypes in training the students of educational colleges in the teacher training course and suggested using the habits of mind for teaching different language skills, structure, and literature genres.

Keywords: Habits of mind, EFL teacher, teachers' stereotypes.

Introduction

The 16 habits of mind that identified by Costa and Kallick have represented a comprehensive mind map that could be used to enhance and support the EFL students in selecting and shaping their teacher's stereotype.

The habits of mind play a role in the learning-teaching process in educational settings, real-life experiences, and as an internal director along with life (Vollrath, 2016: 29). This aim can be achieved by analyzing the EFL\ ESL teaching principles (Gebhard, 2006: 63-143) and then corresponding them to the 16 habits of mind to portrait the target stereotypes. After that, the educational college students of the department of English transform these pictures practically into an authentic teaching situation. The suggested procedure represents the solution to the problem of the absence of a typical stereotype of the communicative EFL teachers at schools. The teachers teach as they were taught, and most of the teachers nowadays at schools teach according to the audio-lingual method.

Oleson and Hora (2013:30) argue that the faculty lacks the theoretical knowledge about pedagogy and learning theories, and they depend on imitation when they teach. The lucking of theoretical background ensures the importance of demonstrating the teachers' professional identities. This identity influenced by many factors, including knowledge of the subject matter, social context, and the knowledge that they develop over time about the way of teaching particular topics.

Following the huge development in technology and communication technology, English language is becoming one of the most dominating language worldwide (Alzeebaree & Yavuz,
2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020; Alrefaee & Al-Ghamdi 2020). "The teachers teach the way they were taught" this statement is a double-edged sword in that the English language Iraqi teachers at schools nowadays teach the way their audio-lingual teachers have been taught them. On the other hand, this statement motivates educators to enhance the English language teachers to imitate a typical communicative teacher for the next years.

Why teachers teach the way they were taught? Adults from Lev Vygotsky's theory, which "centered on children's cognitive development, society, and culture," suggests the scaffolding to guide the less skilled students to perform what they have to do. The student mimes their teacher as scaffolding to learn how to perform a skill; After the skills have been successfully mastered, the scaffolding, the teacher, is taken away. Another theory has explained the imitation state as behaviorism. People start to mime what they saw before because they did not have enough experience; as a result, the teachers teach the way they were taught (Cox, 2014:10-11).

Oleson and Hora (2013: 30-31) argue that the existing knowledge and expertise of the teachers cannot be ignored, and it is a mistake to focus on overly top-down approaches in teacher training courses. The teachers need to model their educator or even their previous teachers. However, this is not enough for them as they need the provision of new skills and information about methods of teaching. Accordingly, the training course will be more effective when supporting "the teachers' growth as professional educators while also respecting their existing knowledge and skills."

Instead of neglecting this idea, it could be made use of it by preparing typical stereotypes for a language teacher to followed and imitated.

The problem of lacking the ability to imagine and immerse in communicative language teaching has existed at Iraqi schools for nearly ten years. Many studies have investigated this problem, and many suggested methods and strategies have been presented. Al Saadi, and Mahdi,2013; and Saalh, 2014, deal with EFL student-teachers training courses to overcome this problem in Iraq. Constructivist teachers create an ideal classroom by engaging the students with tasks in authentic contexts. The pre-service teachers have to experience new methods of teaching in their training to initiating a revolution in societal reform (De Los Reyes, De Vera & Medriano,2018; Maguddayao & Medriano, 2019; Owens, 2013). The rarity of handling the habits of mind and teacher stereotype in EFL teacher education has urged the researcher to use the habits of mind as an intelligent way for constructing a typical EFL teacher stereotype as well as help the educational college students (teachers of future) to internalize the habits of mind within their personality and then reflect the habits of mind spontaneously and authentically, as
valid stereotypes, to their students in the future. "Grounding dispositions as habits of mind in selected educational theories may guide and support the professional development of teaching dispositions" (Altan et al., 2017:1).

**The Study Aims**

The study aims at:

1. Portraying 16 stereotypes for English as a foreign language teachers according to Costa and Kallick's 16 habits of mind.
2. Assess these stereotypes according to the EFL college students' point of view.

**The Study Limits**

This Study is limited to second-year college students at the department of English College of Education for the Women of the University of Baghdad in the first term of the academic year 2018-2019. English as a foreign or second language of Gebhard as a course textbook.

**Definition of basic terms**

1. Habits of Mind

   Costa & Kallick (2008: 17) define the habits of mind as "a composite of many skills, attitudes, cues, past experiences, and proclivities. It means that we value one pattern we should use at a certain time."

2. Stereotype

   Stereotypes are a common perspective of a social group concerning a phenomenon, being or object according to descriptive or attitudinal aspects. It is worth distinguishing between their *descriptive* and *attitudinal* aspects. The descriptive aspect is the characteristics, features, or content of the stereotyped being. The attitudinal aspect is represented in terms of positive or negative or good or bad (Popovic, 2004: 23).

3. EFL Teacher's Stereotype

   There are many stereotypes of teachers, such as talkative teachers, the forgetful teacher, the repetitive teacher. The most problematic is "Get-off-my-lawn teachers" whose beliefs in teaching was better back than it is in their days. When there was not social media contraptions, standardized tests, or smartphones, get off their lawn—and take your iPad with you.
4. The operational definition of the typical EFL teacher stereotype

The study intends to portray a typical English language teacher stereotype that characterized the (16) habits of mind, according to Costa & Kallick (2008).

Theoretical Background

Habits of mind

The habits of mind can be used to look inside the text. Accordingly, the text is analyzed according to the habits of minds to get farther insight into the text. Moreover, the theoretical material would transfer to use practically outside the classroom (Reilly, 2009: 82).

The habits of mind shared three distinctive characteristics: first, habits of mind are transdisciplinary, which means there is no specific subject matter for habits of mind; instead, it applies to any subject matter. Second, using the habits of mind to help the students for internalizing the desired disposition. The third characteristic is the students' awareness of the habits of mental strengths and weaknesses, and the ability to use the habits skillfully in different situations (Costa and Kallick, 2009: 2-3).

The Habits of Mind are an identified set of 16 problem-solving, life-related skills necessary to effectively operate in society and promote strategic reasoning, insightfulness, perseverance, creativity, and craftsmanship. The understanding and application of these 16 Habits of Mind serve to provide the individual with skills to work through real-life situations that equip that person to respond using awareness (cues), thought, and intentional strategy to gain a positive outcome (Costa and Kallick, 2008).

These 16 habits of mind are described as follows by matching them with student's and teachers' behavior.

1. Persisting. (Sticking to the task.) Students need to acquire persistence habits, i.e., "do not give up easily." Therefore, teachers should stick to activity until the end and do not interrupt the learning environment for others. As students and teacher increase their persistence, the teacher will give a persistent teacher stereotype.

2. Managing impulsivity. (Taking enough time.) By encouraging the students to use think time before answering the question, an inspired teacher stereotype is represented.
3. Listening with understanding and empathy. (Understand others.) When the teacher takes the time to listen to others, the students take time to understand him/her. Understanding others leads less likely to get into disagreements with them.

4. Thinking flexibly, (Look at it another way) prevents rigid thinking and support open-minded responses. Teachers need to provide students opportunities for practicing and demonstrating flexible thinking, which fosters tolerance of others.

5. Thinking about thinking (metacognition). When teachers become aware of their thinking (reflective teaching), they begin to understand that their way is not the best or the only way. Students who learn from their teachers to think about their thinking will appreciate and understand the thinking and actions of others.

6. Striving for accuracy. (Look over your work.) Teachers who take time to check for accuracy are less likely to act impulsively. They check their facts and the sources of information before taking action. This teacher instills within his/her students to be accurate.

7. Questioning and posing problems. (Work it out.) Taking the time to question and problem solve prevents student disputes and disagreements. Students who problem-solve become more thoughtful, respectful citizens. Problem solvers are less impulsive in their actions and responses to others.

8. Applying past knowledge to new situations. (Use what you learn.) By using prior knowledge, students are less prone to repeat poor choices or mistakes. Students using prior knowledge learn from their past experiences.

9. Thinking and communicating with clarity and precision. (Be clear.) Students who develop precision of language and thought communicate their ideas, intentions, and actions to others.

10. Gathering data through all senses. (Use natural pathways.) Students who use all their senses take the time to examine issues from all viewpoints. They listen to problems, but they also seek out confirming information visually before taking positive action.
11. Creating, imagining, and innovating. (See things differently.) Creative students solve differences in a more thoughtful manner. They seek alternate solutions to the classroom and school issues.

12. Responding with wonderment and awe. (Have fun working it out.) By enjoying problem-solving, students do not let themselves get burdened by life's little problems. They see problems as opportunities to enhance their thinking skills.

13. Taking responsible risks. (Seek adventure with responsibility.) Students often take irresponsible risks on the playground and in the classroom. This tendency endangers the safety, well-being, and personal space of others around them. Responsible risk-takers plan and think carefully before taking risks in any situation.

14. Finding humor. (Pursue joy and laughter.) Students who know the value of humor do not let themselves get overburdened with the minor traumas and vicissitudes of everyday life. Instead, they seek pleasure in the world around them. They learn to use humor intelligently to diffuse classroom and playground problems.

15. Thinking interdependently. (Work together.) When students work, plan, and think together, they expand their thinking and develop a strong learning environment. By working together, students develop an appreciation for the talents and skills of those around them. They begin to value their classmates' contributions.

16. Remaining open to continuous learning. (Keep your mind growing) Teachers need to model the importance of lifelong learning. Students need to see teachers fascinated by the joy and wonderment of new learning. As they develop this habit, students will remain open to the contributions, thoughts, and teaching from those around them.  
(Schnorr, 2009: 78-81)

Miraglia (2009:14) clarifies the teacher's ability to start with any of the 16 habits or make a list of students' motivation priorities or students' needs, such as lacking "the awareness of their problem solving" or their metacognition skills. Furthermore, the teacher can use any subject matter as a vehicle for developing the students' habits of mind and simultaneously using the habits of mind for developing the students' theoretical and practical experiences.
Whereas Cooper and Jenson (2009:19) state that the selection of priorities depends on the educational goals to provide the students with an intelligible problem-solving skills and the power to become independent learners and thinkers.

English language teachers, like other teachers, "can enhance their students' learning by using these Habits of Mind: gathering data through all senses. “I hope that through the sensory processes of role-playing, moving, touching, smelling, tasting, and envisioning, students can enhance their self-knowledge, become aware of how they learn best, and apply that knowledge in their continuous, lifelong learning” (Costa, 2009:92).

**EFL Teachers' Stereotype**

Stereotypes from sociological perspective include generalizations that are in contrast with reality, but it contains part of the truth. The features of a stereotype are as follows: "It is linked to the name; its subject is groups of people; it has a social genesis and an emotional charge which creates the illusion of complete truthfulness; it is long-lasting and resistant to change, and seeks to achieve social goals."

Stereotypes are diversified according to sociological trends, the result approach, cognitive approach, and context-opinion approach, into a stereotype is imaginaries on ethnic group, a stereotype is a way of perceiving reality and representational pattern, and a stereotype is an opinion or view respectively (Łaszkiewicz, 2017: 159-160).

Knigge et al. (2016: 161) present the stereotype as an aspect of social cognition, which is known as attitudes with a cognitive, affective, and behavioral dimension. Stereotypes imply a social and an achievement-related dimension that competes with the out-group judged. Where no comprehensive information is available, the judgments are biased by a stereotypic point of view. Furthermore, people rely on stereotypes when they are under high cognitive stress, as using stereotypes is an economical way to process information and regulate action.

Łaszkiewicz (2017: 16) presents the stereotype in psychology according to the following two trends: The first one about the content of stereotypes, in that what the first group thinks about the second group and vice versa. The second trend is about strengthening the functions and their influences from the perspective of an individual towards others. For a long time, the stereotype is considered a negative opinion. However, nowadays, stereotypes are understood as accurate or not, positive or negative. Two types of stereotypes are introduced: typical stereotypes, the typical representative of a given type, and conspiracy stereotypes, the unfamiliar group is an enemy.
In cognitive psychology, stereotypes are the cognitive patterns and indispensable that accelerate cognitive processes. Moreover, stereotypes predict people's behavior, which gives a sense of security. "Stereotypes play social, group-creating functions, as they heighten a sense of community" (Łaszkiewicz, 2017: 16).

Related Previous Studies

Bee, Maria Shu Hong, Goh Hock Seng & Kamaruzaman Jusoff (2013)

The study aims at exploring the habits of mind in the reading session among primary school pupils. The case study is used to collect data from six students selected by using a purposeful sampling method. After audio and video recording of the reading session, the checklist used to explore the pupils' use of the habits of mind. The results show that the three most frequently used habits of mind are "Questioning and posing problems (17.0%), thinking and communicating with clarity and precision (14.3%), and applying past knowledge to a new situation".

Roberto, Eliana Edith & Gladis Leonor Arias (2016)

This study had investigated six EFL teachers' and (20) EFL undergraduate students' stereotypes. A semi-structured questionnaire and interview collected the data. The results showed that language teachers created stereotypes about students' academic work, behavior, and attitudes according to their experiences with them. At the same time, the students created English language teachers' stereotypes according to their experiences in English class.

Al-Assaf, Jamal Abd Al-Fattah, August (2017)

The relation between teaching habits of mind and positive behavior among the teachers of social studies has been set as the aim of this study. The study sample consisted of (60) teachers (males and females). The stratified random sample method has been used to select the study sample. The study tools were “The Scale of the Teaching Habits of Mind,” which consists of (45) items distributed on (8) habits of mind (5) items for each one. The second one was a positive behavior scale, which consists of 20 items divided into two subscales: Personal positive behavior and Academic positive behavior. The results showed that the teachers of social studies have a mean for the teaching habits of mind and positive behavior aspects. According to the gender variable, the results showed a significant difference in favor of males in both the teaching habits of mind and positive behavior aspects.
Discussion of previous studies

The first and third of the previous studies deal with the habits of mind while the second deal with English language teacher's stereotypes. However, the present differs from the first and third in that the present aims at using the habits of mind for constructing the English language teachers' typical stereotype while the first aims at exploring the pupils' habits of mind in reading sessions and the third aims at investigating the relationship between the teachers' habits of mind and their positive behavior. Accordingly, the third one is nearer to the present in that teachers are the study sample though the third is social studies teachers, and the present is English language teachers. The second study shares the present in its aim, which is to examine the English language teacher stereotype and the samples that in both studies are the English language teachers. The instruments of all studies, the present and the previous, are either questionnaires or checklists.

Procedures

Population and sample of the Study

The population of this descriptive study is represented with (100) students of the second class at the Department of English College of Education for Women the University of Baghdad. (50) Female students selected according to the stratified random sampling method from the population to represent the study sample.

The instrument of the Study

The study instrument is a questionnaire of (16) items. It has been constructed by the researcher to find out the typical EFL teacher stereotype, according to the (16) habits of mind (Costa and Kallick, 2008). Each habit is used for constructing one item with (3) alternatives (bad stereotype, ordinary stereotype, typical stereotype). The alternatives take the (1, 2, 3), respectively.

Face validity

The accurate interpretation of the results and useful generalization represents the degree of validity (Brown and Rodgers, 2004, 241). The questionnaire is given to the jury members, table (1), for ensuring its face validity. After modifying some items according to the jury members' instructions, all the items become valid.
Table (1): The Academic Ranks, Names, Fields, and Locations of the Jury Members

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Academic Ranks</th>
<th>Names</th>
<th>and College</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Professor, Ph.D. in Educational Psychology</td>
<td>Khulud Raheem</td>
<td>College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Professor, Ph.D. in ELT</td>
<td>Madiha Saif Aldeen Salih</td>
<td>College of Education for Women, University of Tikrit.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Instructor, Ph.D. in ELT</td>
<td>Sawsan Aziz</td>
<td>College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Item Analysis

The items are analyzed statistically by using the study sample as a sample of statistical analysis to ensure the validity of the items.

Two methods are used for statistical analyses: the internal consistency (an item correlation with the total score) and the item discrimination (comparing the 25th high responses with 25th low responses), (see table 2). The results show that all the items are valid within the level of significance 0.05 and the tabulated value for correlation coefficient at df. (50) is (0.273), and the tabulated value of the t-test at df (48) and (0.05) level of significance is(2.009).

The Alpha- Cronbach value (0.85) indicates acceptable reliability for the scale. The test-retest value (0.86) also indicates acceptable reliability for the students' answers.

Table (2). T-test values for discrimination power and person correlation values for internal consistency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Higher Group</th>
<th>Lower Group</th>
<th>T-value</th>
<th>Person correlation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.73</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>0.76</td>
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<td>3.</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>2.00</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>0.76</td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.73</td>
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<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>0.52</td>
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<td>7.</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>0.60</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>1.84</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>2.36</td>
<td>0.70</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.64</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>2.00</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>0.89</td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The processes of the work

The processes of work are represented with the following steps.

1. The researcher has defined 16 teachers' stereotypes according to the habits of mind (see the scale items).
2. The teaching principles, according to Gebhard (2006), are selected as a subject matter of the course. These principles are teaching language as interaction among people, classroom management, teacher's talk, EFL/ESL Material and technology, and culture and the language teacher.
3. With each session, the researcher during the teaching process acts as one of the defined stereotypes.
4. After they have exposed to specific teacher's stereotypes, the students are asked to respond to the scale as a bad stereotype, ordinary stereotype, or typical stereotype.
5. At the end of the study course, the researcher collects the data and then analyzes them by using weighting mean to find out which stereotypes represent the typical one for the students.

The statistical tools

The statistical tools that used to analyze the data and to find out the results are:

1. Person correlation formula
2. Two independent groups T-test formula.
3. Alpha Cronbach
4. Weighting means
5. Percentage
Results

The weighting means from 2.1-3 refers to the typical stereotype, while the ordinary stereotype weighting means is 1.1-2, and the bad stereotype weighting means 0.1-1. The results show that the weighting means of all items are ranged between (2.66-2.08). The weighting means of the scale items are (2.66, 2.56, 2.52, 2.5, 2.44, 2.42, 2.4, 2.32, 2.22, and 2.08) and the percentages according to these weighting means respectively are (88.7%, 85.3%, 84%, 83.3%, 81.3%, 80.7%, 80%, 77.3%, 74%, and 69.3%). The order of the items according to the weighting means. Percentages are as follows: (1) for the item number (12) which represents the wonderful teacher, (2) for (11-creative teacher), (3) for (5- reflective teacher), (4) for (2-thinker teacher, 14-cool teacher and 15-cooperative teacher), (5) for (10-sensitive teacher and the 16-innovative teacher), (6) for (4- flexible teacher and 8- continuous teacher), (7) for ( 1-persistent teacher and 7-problem solver teacher), (8) for ( 3-good listener teacher and 13-risk-taker teacher), (9) for (9- precise teacher) and (10) for (6- accurate teacher) see table (3).
Table (3). The frequency of each alternative, weighting means, percentage, and the item order.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>n</th>
<th>items</th>
<th>Bad stereotype</th>
<th>Good stereotype</th>
<th>Typical stereotype</th>
<th>Weighting means</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>The items order</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>(Persistent teacher) a teacher is a person, always sticks to the task at hand, follows through with tasks to completion, remains focused, and if the teacher does not succeed in explaining the material for the first time, she tries different strategies to get the aim.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>(thinker teacher) The teacher manages her impulses, and she is willing to delay gratification to attain long-term goals. She always thinks before acting.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>83.3%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>(good listener teacher) The teacher listens to others with understanding and empathy. She always makes an effort to understand The students' point of view and emotions.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>77.33%</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>(flexible teacher) The teacher is a flexible thinker. She seeks new and different perspectives and can change her mind. She tries to look at things in another way.</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>80.7%</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Percent</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>(reflective teacher)</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The teacher's awareness of how she is thinking (metacognition):</td>
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<td></td>
<td>When she is trying to solve a problem, she is aware of her thoughts,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>strategies, feelings, and actions and their effects on students.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>(accurate teacher)</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>69.3%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The teacher checks her work for quality and tries to be accurate and</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>precise in everything she does. She is always checking and finding ways to</td>
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<td></td>
<td>improve continually.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>(problem solver teacher)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The teacher asks questions, search for data to support conclusions, and</td>
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<td></td>
<td>inquire into intriguing ideas. She has a questioning attitude</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>(continuous teacher)</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>80.7%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The teacher draws on what she has learned and applies it to new situations</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to solve problems.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>(Precise teacher)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>She is continually adding new words to her vocabulary. She thinks about her</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>words and chooses them to communicate her ideas precisely.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Sensitive teacher</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>81.3%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The teacher uses all her senses (sight, hearing, touching, smelling, tasting) to learn. She gathers data through all of these senses.

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>(Creative teacher)</td>
<td>She is a creative person and knows how to generate ideas and processes.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>(Wonderful teacher)</td>
<td>The teacher is intrigued and has a sense of wonderment about the world. She enjoys giving the students problems to solve.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>(risk-taker teacher)</td>
<td>The teacher willing to take calculated and responsible risks to venture into the unknown and to try new ideas and strategies</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>2.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>(Cool teacher)</td>
<td>The teacher can make fun of the class and find humor in many situations.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>(Cooperative teacher)</td>
<td>The teacher collaborates with the students to contribute to and learning from cooperative work.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16.</td>
<td>(innovative teacher)</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>2.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The teacher is a continual learner. She reflects on and learns from her experiences and readily admits what she does not know.</td>
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</table>
Discussion

Since the typical stereotypes weighting means is (2.1-3), this indicates that the students have accepted the (16) characters that the teacher has personified them as typical stereotypes of an EFL teacher. However, the stereotypes are ranged from 2.66 for the wonderful teacher to 2.08 for the accurate teacher. These results provide the EFL teachers with an insight into how they start the lesson, select effective interaction activities, and how the teacher talk and classroom management could be handled. Furthermore, the habit of mind will be internalized within the students, and they will get the reflection on their teaching in the future since they will be EFL teachers in the future. The constructing of a positive picture for the teacher supports the students' achievement (Al-Assaf, 2017: 47) as well as supports the teacher self-development.

Conclusion

Neither constructing a typical EFL teacher's stereotype nor internalizing the habits of mind in teacher education are searched topics. Though the habits of mind and the English language teacher's stereotype have appeared in the teaching English as foreign language studies, none devote the habits of mind for constructing EFL teacher's stereotype. The present study uses the habits of mind to construct 16 teacher's stereotypes and then present these stereotypes for the students who themselves will be EFL teachers. They are asked to assess if any of the characters that their teacher personifies for them as typical stereotypes. The students assess all the 16 characters as typical stereotypes that EFL teachers can internalize within their teaching competencies for developing their teaching skills as well as for teaching their EFL students.

Recommendations

According to the results, the researcher recommends providing the students of colleges of Education with such stereotypes to enable them to imitate good teacher's characteristics.
Suggestions

It has been suggested to carry out further studies concerning implying the habits of mind within the education colleges' syllabuses. The second suggestion is to carry out studies about typical teacher's stereotypes by using different thinking skills and strategies.

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The Effect of Flow as a Strategy on EFL Student-teachers' Performance and their Flow

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Abstract
This study aims at suggesting flow as a strategy for training female EFL student-teachers in the teaching training course and finding out the effect of this strategy on their performance and their flow state. The training course syllabuses will be constructed according to the flow nine factors and the teaching skills. The measurement tools are the student-teacher performance checklist that has already been used by the department of English language and SHORT Flow State Scale (S FSS-2). The study population is represented with the (60) female student-teachers/ fourth stage/ evening studies at the
English department /college of education for women/the University of Baghdad. The study is used the experimental design in that (30) of the student-teachers are selected randomly and divided into two groups (15) student-teachers for the experimental group, trained according to the flow strategy, and (15) for control one, trained according to the conventional way. The flow state is investigated and used for comparing the two groups. After gathering the data and analyzing them statistically, the results show that the strategy has influenced the experimental group students' performance and their flow state. Accordingly, the recommendation indicates the importance of incorporating the flow in the teacher education programs, and the suggestions are given to study the flow in in-service EFL teachers and to make further studies concerning the flow and positive psychology of the EFL teacher.

Introduction

Problem and its Significance

Flow or optimal experience describes how the individual “being in the zone," which means that the performer is at best and he\'she obtains the highest satisfaction and joy from this experience (Zollar, 2017:44).

The results of the Tardy and Snyder (2004:118) study clarify the importance of the flow in the field of teacher education in that "the concept of flow provides a tool for understanding more about teachers’ practices, beliefs, and values in their teaching" and the fact that guiding the EFL student-teachers to the immersing state of teaching leads to the students' engagement in the lesson.

Teaching English as a foreign language in Iraqi schools is a real problem because of many obstacles, such as the new curriculum. Many studies handle this problem, searching for better ways to facilitate the pre- and in-service teachers to overcome these obstacles. Mahdi (2009) finds out that the EFL teachers’ self-efficacy influenced their pupils’ achievement in the English language. Thus she recommends developing the EFL teachers’ self-efficacy. Then, study Alssadi and Mahdi (2013) the effect of the scaffolding on the EFL teachers’ teaching competencies, self-efficacy, and self-awareness trying to find effective ways for developing efficient EFL teachers.
After tremendous advances in science and technology, lives of the human beings have changed dramatically. Consequently, English has become a global language and means of communication among the speakers of different languages and cultures (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020; Alrefaee & Al-Ghamdi, 2019). Saalh (2014) has tried to present a practical strategy for developing EFL teachers’ ability to teach communicative course book and their teaching competencies by using experiential learning. However, still, this new curriculum of teaching the English language in Iraq requires teachers with specific skills and Knowledge. Teachers immerse themselves in teaching to know and overcome these obstacles. The problem of this study is the need for teachers with high positivity and utterly involved with their job.

Csikszentmihalyi (1997: 33) presents flow experience in teaching as flow enhances new challenges and the development of new skills. Thus educators have a great interest in flow.

The grand challenges that the EFL teachers face at schools require multidimensional training programs that qualify them to be good EFL teachers. One of these dimensions is infusing the flow state within the training program to immerse them with teaching, mainly because of the relationship between the flow state and happiness and creativity.

Tardy and Snyder (2004: 119) investigate the flow experiences of teachers of English as a foreign language (EFL), and their results emphasize the importance of flow in teaching experience. However, the literature has not presented any experimental study that investigated the effect of training the teachers according to flow nine components on the teachers' performance or their flow state.

Nakamura& Csikszentmihalyi (2009: 96) clarifies the importance of flow in that, the flow encourages an individual to insist at and return to an activity because of the experiential rewards it promises and thereby fosters the growth of skills over time. In several studies, the flow was associated with commitment and achievement during the high school years. The enhancement of the positive outcomes and mastering challenges in daily life may protect against negative outcomes.
Aims of the Study
The study aims at finding out:

2. The effect of flow strategy on the female EFL student-teachers' flow.

Two null hypotheses are set to be verified:

1. There are no statistically significant differences between the rank mean of the experimental group who study according to the flow strategy and the control group who study according to the conventional method in the posttest performance.
2. There are no statistically significant differences between the rank mean of the experimental group who study according to the flow strategy and the control group who study according to the conventional method in their flow.

The definitions of Basic Terms

Flow is a "subjective state that people report when they are completely involved in something to the point of forgetting time, fatigue, and everything else but the activity itself" (Csikszentmihalyi, 2014: 230).

The operational definition

Flow is the student-teachers' responds to the nine items of the SHORT Flow State Scale (S FSS-2).

Student-teachers' performance includes the student-teacher’s abilities "in lesson planning, preparation, presentation in the class, classroom management, communication skills, and evaluation procedures in order to augment English language teaching practices" (Merç, 2015:45).

The operational definition

Student-teachers' performance is the student-teachers' ability to implement the teaching skills that assessed according to the observation checklist.
Theoretical background

Flow theory

Flow theory emerged in the 1980s from the work of Csikszentmihalyi (1990) researching human’s most enjoyable moments, which he labeled “optimal experiences.” An intense focus on a task in which a person’s energy and ability ‘flow’ unhindered. Characteristics of activities that are conducive to flow also include descriptions of the flow phenomenon (Csikszentmihalyi, 1997: 8).

(Salanova et al., 2014) declares that flow leads to happiness by controlling the inner’s life of an individual. The first step towards this happiness is controlling consciousness. Organizing consciousness helps to experience flow; consequently, the quality of life will improve. Well, organized consciousness makes “even the usually boring routines of work become purposeful and enjoyable.” Flow is the state of controlling the psychic energy to order consciousness. Being closer and closer to self-discipline leads to happiness, it leads to ecstasy and self-fulfillment. Furthermore, leads to struggle for establishing control over attention. To sum, anyone who has experienced flow knows that deep enjoyment requires a disciplined concentration (p.40).

The exchange medium between person and environment, and forming the self is represented in the information that processes in consciousness and limited by attention. Thus, attention plays an important role in entering and staying in the flow. Entering flow by attention takes place by connected the past with the present. “Apathy, boredom, and anxiety, like flow, are largely functions of how attention is being structured at a given time. In boredom, and even more so in apathy, the low level of challenge relative to skills allows attention to drift. In anxiety, perceived challenges exceed capacities. Particularly in contexts of extrinsic motivation, attention shifts to the self and its shortcomings, creating a self-consciousness that impedes engagement of the challenges.” (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2009:93).

Csikszentmihalyi (1990) presents another step to happiness is the involvement in what one is doing that the activity becomes almost automatic and spontaneous and not being aware of him\' herself as separate from the performed actions (p.53). The individuals’ personality, family, culture, and the activity all of these are necessary conditions for experiencing the flow that leads to enjoyment and happiness (Ibid:74).
Zollars (1984:30-333) discusses the following three models of the flow experience.

1. Csikszentmihalyi model (1975/2000): flow is the balance between skills and challenge in action. If the challenge exceeds the skills, the worry, and then the anxiety will occur. Whereas, if the skills exceed the challenge, the boring will occur.

2. The Absolute Difference Regression Model: this model focuses mainly on the subjective experience of concentration, interest in the activity, enjoyment of the activity, and happiness.

3. The componential model. This model is a psychometrically sound one. It utilizes the nine components of flow as a basis to increase the understanding of the nature of the flow.

   The followings are the nine components of the flow as summarized from Sheehan and Kats (2012:58):
   
   1. Defining a clear goal.
   2. Balancing skills and challenges.
   3. Getting immediate feedback.
   4. Emerging action and awareness.
   5. Losing the sense of time.
   6. Concentrating on the present moment.
   8. Losing the self-consciousness.
   9. Experiencing the “autotelic experience.”

*Achieving Flow in Foreign Language Teacher education*

Flow theory approved its urgency in teacher education science. The teachers themselves are more important than any other method of teaching (Tardy and Snyder, 2004:119).

Guan (2013:788) uses the flow theory factors to drive main principles to achieve flow in language teaching. The same principles are used here to illustrate the use of flow theory in language teachers’ education.
The teacher’s education programs need to immerse the educators in language teaching, to do that there should be:

1. a clear definite goal for the teachers’ training course.

   With a clear goal, the English language teachers get a clear vision about what is required of them.

2. A balance between the educators’ skills and challenges.

   To achieve this principle, educators should have a suitable ability in the English language.

3. Direct feedback

   Getting direct feedback enhances the educators to keep in the task because they know how well their performances are.

4. An emerging action and awareness. Here the educators will keep their attention on the task.

5. Losing the sense of time. The trainees need to immerse themselves in the task as much as to lose the sense of time.

6. Concentrating on the present moment. The trainees need to think only on the task in hand and nothing else.

7. Having a sense of self-control on the activity. It is essential in the flow experience to feel in self-control, especially under challenging tasks.

8. Losing the self-consciousness. The trainees need to engage in the task without caring about oneself.

9. Experiencing the “autotelic experience. The trainees here need to set their intrinsic rewards that each of them enjoys getting this reward for his or her reasons.

   However, each of the previous principles can achieve the flow by itself (Fritz and Evsec, 2007:7). Furthermore, flow is a psychological theory of motivation and engagement that proved its usefulness in education (Shahian et al., 2017:529). Kirchhoff (2013:197) The high flow classroom records high learners’ engagement in the classroom and intrinsic motivation. Consequently, these engagement and intrinsic motivation lead to the creative learner. “Flow is evident in the work habits of those who make significant creative contributions.” (Botticchio and Vialle, 2009:101). Frase (198:4) links the work successfully with the flow and presents the optimal life experience of teachers by stating that “teachers do experience flow and that certain workplace factors do influence the
frequency and quality of their flow experience.” Despite the immersing, internal motivation and enjoyment, the flow appears in work and not in the leisure time (Bakker and Woerkom, 2017:48, Maguddayao & Medriano, 2019). Salanova et al. (2014: 436) explain the flow experience as an optimal experience at work that consists of emotional components such as enjoyment and happiness, as well as motivational and cognitive components.

**Previous studies**

Fritz and Avsec (2007) consider the flow as a state that connected directly with high achievement and positive experiences. The study sample is 84 students of the academia of music. The study tools are the positive effect and negative effect schedule, Life satisfaction scale, and the dispositional flow scale. The results show that experiencing flow is more related to emotional experiences than cognitive.

Kirchhoff (2013) aims to investigate the influence of flow theory in students’ engagement and motivation in second language reading, for collecting data concerning the flow. Flow Conditions Questionnaire has been used. The results show that the learners have experienced the flow while reading with immediate feedback. However, the flow experiences do not correlate with a long reading period.

Guan (2013) handles the flow as positive psychology that characterized by the attention and skills-challenge balance and other previously mentioned flow characteristics. The application of flow theory in language teaching considered as newly trained in this study.

The study works on utilizing the flow theory in teaching translation. The course is designed for emerging the flow factors with the tasks, students, and teacher's roll in the course. The intrinsic motivation and attention show a significant influence on the students’ performance in translation. Learning is then presented. Flow theory is later applied in translation; thus, the emerging of flow in the translation course gets the optimization of teaching.

Shahian et al. (2017) examine the relationship between flow and reading comprehension. The study sample consists of 238 upper-intermediate and advanced English as a Foreign Language pupils. The study instruments are four reading exams and
flow and emotion scales. The results show that emotion has a significant relationship with the flow and with reading comprehension.

Bakker and Woerkom (2017), in their study, deal with the flow at work. The study aims at exploring the workers’ creation of their own optimal experiences. The findings show that workers who are in flow immerse in the activities and experience.

**Method**

*The Population and Sample*

(60) fourth-year student-teachers represent the population of the study at the department of English Language/ evening studies / Colleges of Education for Women at Baghdad University. (30) student-teachers are selected randomly from the population in order to represent the sample. The sample of the study is represented with (15) student-teachers who are selected randomly as experimental group and (15) as control one. The researcher is the student-teachers educator; therefore, they behave naturally without the stress of their knowledge about the experiment work.

*The Research Method*

The experimental method is used to achieve the study aims. The experimental design is the quasi-experimental nonrandomized control group pretest-posttest design. This design is used for exploring the effect of the strategy on the female EFL student-teachers' performance and their flow, see table (1).

**Table (1): The Experimental Design**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The groups</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Posttest</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Observational checklist &amp; SHORT Flow State Scale</td>
<td>Flow strategy</td>
<td>Observational checklist &amp; SHORT Flow State Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td></td>
<td>Conventional method</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

181
The two groups are equalized with some variables. These variables are the student-teachers’ age, the performance pretest, and the flow pretest. The computed U-values are (109.5, 81.5, 102.5) respectively. Since the computed U-values are higher than the tabulated value (72) at 0.05 level of significance, the two groups are equal in all variables, see Table (2).

Table (2): U-Value for Equalization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
<th>Sum Rank</th>
<th>Computed U-Value</th>
<th>Tabulated U-Value</th>
<th>Sig. 0.05</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>229.50</td>
<td>109.5</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15.70</td>
<td>235.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test performance</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.57</td>
<td>263.50</td>
<td>81.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13.43</td>
<td>201.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test performance</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>14.16</td>
<td>222.50</td>
<td>102.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Not Sig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16.17</td>
<td>242.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Study Instruments

Two instruments are used for gathering data. The first one is the student teacher's observational checklist that is adopted by the department of English for assessing the student-teachers' performance. It consists of three sections. The first section is about general characteristics, the second one about planning, the third section is the implementation, the fourth is the follow-up, and the fifth is the evaluation of (10) items. The lower score is (0), and the higher is (2.5) for each item. The lower score for the scale is (0), and the higher is (25). This observation checklist has already been validated to be used as a measurement tool; see Appendix (3).

The second one is the (Jackson et al., 2008) SHORT Flow State Scale (S FSS-2), which is adopted to measure the student-teachers' flow. The scale consists of (9) items to measure the nine components of flow. The state scale is rated on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from (1-strongly disagree) to (5-strongly agree). There is one item for each of the nine flow dimensions represented in the SHORT scales. The item scores are used to represent each flow dimension. The scoring procedure of the short flow scale is to sum the nine items together, and then divide by 9 to obtain a low flow score. If there is a
missing item score, the average of the items with responses can be taken. The low agreement with the item statement indicates the low in flow-like experience, and high agreement indicates a high flow-like experience.

As the two instruments are adopted, there is no need to validate them. They have already been validated. Alpha- Cronbach is used to ensure the reliability of the instruments. The Cronbach coefficient of reliability for the two instruments is (0.844) and (0.861), which indicates that they are both reliable.

The Process of the Experimental Work

The Experiment period starts at the beginning of the (2014-2015) academic year. The whole (duration is 13) weeks 14/10/2015 - 20/1/2016, four hours a week. Both the experimental and control groups are pretested by observing their micro-teaching and assessing their flow. After pre-testing, they have received the same syllabuses of the training course. The difference is in the training method.

The student-teachers of the experimental group are trained according to the flow strategy. This strategy involves preparing PowerPoint slides around teaching skills. Nine questions, derived from the nine flow characters, are asked about each skill supported with videos and pictures. The student-teachers respond to the questions by using worksheets that have been already prepared by the researcher.

The student-teachers of the control group are trained according to the conventional method, which also supported the same videos but different worksheets (appendix 2).

After each skill, student-teachers of the experimental group will present micro-teaching to demonstrate each skill. On the other hand, the student-teachers of the control group present micro-teaching at the end of the training course. Finally, the student-teachers’ performance is assessed at school during the practicum period. The student-teachers’ flow state is also assessed after the ending of the practicum period.

Statistical Tools

SPSS is used for statistical analyses.

1. Mann Whitney (U-test) for two independent samples is used for equalizing the experimental and control groups in the age of students and for pre and posttests.
2. Cronbach alpha is used to find the reliability of the instruments.

The Results and Their Discussion

The Results

The null hypotheses have been investigated to find out the study results. Table (3) show that the two null hypotheses are rejected since the computed U-values are (17.5) and (15.5) for the posttests of student-teachers' performance and flow, respectively.

Table (3): The U-Value of the Posttests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Posttests</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>No. of Subjects</th>
<th>(Mean Rank)</th>
<th>(Sum Rank)</th>
<th>&quot;U&quot; values</th>
<th>Level of Significance at 0.05</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Performance Posttest</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21.83</td>
<td>327.50</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>72 Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>91.17</td>
<td>137.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flow Posttest</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21.97</td>
<td>329.50</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.03</td>
<td>135.50</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Result and Discussion

The aims of this study are cored around the teaching performance and their flow state. The student-teachers' performance and their flow state display that the flow strategy has influenced the student-teachers. Thus, these results adjust with the Jackson et al. (2008: 561) in that flow optimizing the subjective experience. Jackson and Eklund (2002: 132) describe the flow as an optimal psychological state. Flow is the moments "when everything comes together for the performance." Further studies in flow emphasize that individuals are happier as they engaged in flow activities, and they show a higher-quality and more creative output (Duncan and West, 2018:2).

The second result shows that the enability to develop the student-teachers' flow state that conforms with the result of Botticchio & Vialle (2009: 104), which indicates that there is a reciprocal relationship between the performance and flow. Thus, flow
enhances productivity and creativity, which leads to better preferable performance. On the other hand, good performance enhances the flow state within the individual.

**Recommendations and Suggestions**

According to the results, the researcher has recommended infusing the flow strategy with teacher training courses. Studying the flow in language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) has been suggested for further studies.

**References**


Appendices

Appendix (1) Typical Lesson Plans

Typical Lesson Plan of the Experimental Group

Time: 4 hours

Lesson: Student-Teachers' Training Course

Lesson title: Classroom Management

Grade Level: 4th grade/ College students/Department of English Language

Objectives:

1. The EFL student-teachers can use knowledge of classroom management in order to create opportunities for EFL students to interact in the English language meaningfully.
2. The EFL student-teachers can manage their classroom to create a learning setting for EFL students.
3. The EFL student-teachers can overcome the problems they face in managing classroom interaction.

Materials: Data show projector, Worksheet.

Procedures:

1. The student-teachers will watch videos about the classroom management Knowledge: teachers talk, teachers' questions, setting up classroom activities, seating arrangements, giving instruction, keeping students on task, Classroom management to create learning setting and overcoming classroom management problem (honing their skills, Balance of Challenges and Skills).
2. They will respond in groups of five student-teachers about each video according to different worksheets (concern about nothing except responding to the worksheet, Focus).
3. Each group will select one of them to demonstrate they are responding to the worksheet (the actions become spontaneous, The Merging of Action and Awareness).
4. The other groups assess a student teacher's performance according to an observational checklist (Knowing the goal of participating in action).
5. They will compare all the checklists together to decide the best performance (feedback).
6. Each group will design the best performance steps (developing a sense of control).
7. Each group will give as many numbers of suggestions as they can to overcome specific classroom management problems (Loss of Self-Consciousness).
8. Each group set specific criteria to achieve the primary goal of managing the classroom (exploring new opportunities utilizing the skills available to the participant, Autotelic Experience).
9. As a conclusion for the lesson, the educator will ask the student-teachers to summarize all the previous steps and transform them into practical, authentic situations without limiting them with the time (Distortion of the Perception of Time).

Evaluation:
The student-teacher will prepare microteaching to display her teaching ability in a specific situation.

Typical Lesson Plan of the Control Group
Time: 4 hours
Lesson: Student-Teachers' Training Course
Lesson title: Classroom Management
Grade Level: 4th grade/ College students/Department of English Language
Objectives:
1. The EFL student-teachers can use knowledge of classroom management in order to create opportunities for EFL students to interact in the English language meaningfully.
2. The EFL student-teachers can manage their classroom to create a learning setting for EFL students.
3. The EFL student-teachers can overcome the problems they face in managing classroom interaction.

 Procedures
1. The student-teachers will watch different videos to clarify classroom management.
2. They will respond in groups to specific worksheets.
3. They will discuss their responses with the educator.
4. They will conclude with educators the classroom management types and problems.
Evaluation:
The student-teacher will prepare microteaching to display her teaching ability in a specific situation.

Appendix (2) The Two Groups Worksheets

Experimental Group Worksheets

The Purpose of Teachers Questions

1. According to the video that you have just seen, give a question for each type, and unify them around the same topic.

And then, present micro-teaching to demonstrate your handling of these questions.

2. Classify the questions that appeared in the video into the following

Present micro-teaching demonstrating your dealing with these questions in the classroom

Control Group Worksheet

1. Which types of questions do appear in the video
2. Write down the content of teachers’ questions that appeared in the video.
Appendix (3) Assessment Checklist of Student-Teachers’ Performance

University of Baghdad
College of Education for Women
Department of English

Educational and Scientific Supervisor Checklist

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>2.5</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1.5</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0.5</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Section one: General Characteristics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Presence, styles, and appearance.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Clarity of voice suitability of intonation in speech, fluency and appropriate use of language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Rapport with pupils, i.e., the ability to involve the pupils during the lesson via effective questioning techniques and verbal feedback.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Section two: Planning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>a. Daily plan (objectives, language, and vocabulary).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. The exact time for each activity is estimated according to the teachers’ book.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Section three: Implementation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>State lesson’s objective orally at the beginning of the lesson and then focus on pupils’ attention while presenting each activity.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>Preparation of the activities and familiarity with the subject content.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Ability to control and direct the classes through organizing and using varied activities with effective instructional aids (e.g., audio, pictures, cards) or resource materials during the lessons.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
8. Activate pupils’ role by either working groups, pairs, or individually.

Section Four: Follow up

9. Conclusion and achievement of the objectives

Section five: Evaluation

10. Self-evaluation, i.e., evaluates own performance and assesses the professional development options necessary to improve the performance.

SUM

Supervisor’s name: Date:
Investigating the Impact of Social Networks on English Writing Anxiety of the Common First-Year Students

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2Dr. Iftikhar Alam is currently working as the Head of English Section in the Deanship of Common First Year (CFY) at Al Qunfuda Campus, Umm Al Qura University Makah, Saudi Arabia. He has worked at Al Baha University KSA for 10 years. He has worked Umm Al Qura University Makkah for 7 years. He has been ELT, ESL, and TEFL instructor for 17 years. He has special interest in Washback Effect Studies of Applied Linguistics.
Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of Twitter on English language writing apprehension of the Common First Year (CFY) students at Umm Al Qura University, Saudi Arabia. It also aimed at assessing the level and the type of English writing apprehension experienced by The CFY students. English writing has always been a problem among Saudi students. The study adopted the experimental method. The participants were divided into two groups with each 15. Cheng's (2004) instrument for Second Language Writing Apprehension Inventory (SLWAI) was applied for the study as a pre and post-test. The study took ten-week teaching and assessment for both groups. In the control group, the participants would hand over their writing assignments to the teacher. While in the experimental group, the participant would send writing assignments to the teacher's Twitter account. The data was analyzed using SPSS, means, and T-test. Findings revealed that most of the CFY students experienced high levels of EL writing apprehension. Results showed that Twitter had a positive impact on participants' writing fear in the experimental group. Moreover, cognitive anxiety was experienced by CFY participants. This study recommended Twitter as an assistant tool in English writing classes to provide EFL learners with the opportunity to practice more writing, which would help them in reducing their anxiety of EL writing.

Keywords: Anxiety, Cognitive, Social Network, Twitter, Writing Apprehension

Introduction

English language as a tool of connectivity and communication has achieved global recognition. With the advent of technology English language has played a pivotal role in bringing understanding and acceptance between the people of different cultures and religions. In fact, English has become a common man's medium to reach out to different cultures and different ideologies across the Globe (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020). Writing skills are the most critical and challenging component for English language learners to be master in writing. The English writing skills present a high complexity for EFL and ESL learners (Kurt & Atay, 2007; Latif, 2007; Jahin & Idress, 2010). Writing is a challengeable skill (Magrath, 2003), and it is
even more challenging and demanding in EFL\ESL contexts (Hassan, 2001; Al-Ahmad, 2003).

In speaking or reading, for example, a student can receive immediate feedback. On the contrary, during writing, a student cannot get instant feedback. The writer needs to write carefully to be clearly understood by the reader. In other words, the lack of linguistic knowledge in the target language leads to much burden on a writer to transfer the ideas into a written form. Therefore, the written speech needs to be well prepared and understandable. Tsui (1996) states that learning to write in a foreign language involves as much anxiety as learning other skills because students are deprived of help, support, and encouragement. Writing anxiety may result in "distress associated with writing" and "profound distaste from the process" (Cheng, 2002:648).

Hassan (2001) writing anxiety is defined as "the individual's general avoidance of writing and of situations that require some amount of writing accompanied by the potential for evaluation of that writing" (p: 4). Avoidance behavior, as a result of L2 writing anxiety, would be harmful to L2 writing performance as writing is a productive activity and needs a certain quantity of practice (Zhang, 2011).

Silva and Leki (2004) consider writing as a cognitive and socio-cultural activity. Writing is not merely an individual activity but a process between interlocutors within social communications (Dyson, 1995; Medriano & Bautista, 2020). It is a process of sharing thoughts and opinions in a written community. This process includes sub-processes of planning, drafting, revising, and editing. From a communicative perspective, EFL\ESL teachers should provide their students with a social context in which they can develop their cognitive abilities and practice more writing.

The usage of smartphones and tablet technologies has provided convenient and constant access to social networks, such as Twitter and Facebook, and other Web sites among users around the world. The quick communication and the swift dissemination of information through social networks lead many educators to look at them as appropriate tools in delivering authentic communication in language classes (Cheng, 2012). Thus, it has been prevalent to find them in today's classroom and, more specifically, in EFL\ESL learning settings, especially among young people. Mainly, Twitter is the most popular microblogging social network used as a part of the learning process among educators
This is because Twitter is more amenable to an ongoing public dialogue (Junco, Heibergert & Loken, 2011).

The studies (Dunlap & Lownthal, 2009; Junco, Heibergert & Loken, 2011) on Twitter prove that the platform has positive impacts on enhancing social interaction among participants. According to Ahmad (2015), Twitter can be beneficial in developing students' literacy and enhancing collaborative learning and act as a quick information exchange platform between learners. Moreover, another study shows a positive attitude among participants toward the application of Twitter in the learning process (Lomicka & Lord, 2011; Cheng, 2012). Twitter provides an environment for learners to ask freely without the fear of ridicule (Heibergert & Loken, 2011; Cheng, 2012).

Twitter today in 2020 is the most popular microblogging application, with almost 152 million daily users. Therefore, this study aims at expanding previous research in the EFL context by applying a survey to examine the effect of Twitter on Saudi EFL Common First Year (CFY) writing anxiety. More specifically, Twitter is integrated purposefully, as one of the most recent applications, to reveal whether using it helps in reducing Saudi EFL CFY students' apprehension while writing in English.

Teaching EL Writing in Saudi EFL Classes

In the Saudi context, English is taught as a compulsory foreign language in primary, intermediate, and high school. In CFY at UQU, English classes are held six or seven times a week for two hours. English syllabus of integrated skills (speaking, listening, grammar, vocabulary, reading, and writing) is taught in the English classes of CFY.

During writing classes, students are required to write on controlled topics. As time is limited in these writing classes, Saudi students do not practice enough writing in the classroom (Al-Haysony, 2012). Paragraphs are written in one draft, in which the teachers correct the grammatical and punctual errors and give minor attention to the meaning. Jahin (2012) emphasized that EFL teachers need to realize that students can work on the entire process-planning, generating ideas, drafting, revising, and editing-instead of having to achieve perfection in the first draft. In the Saudi context, although English as a foreign language is taught as a compulsory subject since the primary stage,
Saudi learners need to continue to effectively practice writing in English class (Al-
Hasony, 2012).

However, the literature on EFL writing anxiety in the Saudi context proved that
English writing provokes anxiety among EFL college students (Al-Jafen, 2013; Al-
Asmari, 2013). Findings showed that the weakness of the previous education is the main
reason behind the gap in the English writing skill (Al-Khasawneh, 2013) and the students'

Since Second Language Writing Anxiety at the college level has been recognized
and identified by previous educators and researchers (Jahin, 2012; Al-Asmari, 2013; Al-
Jafen, 2013), An EFL writing anxiety among university students have rarely been
investigated. As a result, this study is designed to shed light on EFL writing anxiety
experienced by CFY students at UQU, Saudi Arabia. It is hoped that by integrating
Twitter, as a platform for discussing writing assignments between the instructor and the
EFL students, students may overcome these feelings that are associated with writing.

**Statement of the Problem**

English writing aggravates anxiety among EFL college students (Al-Asmari,
2013). Ahmed and Abou Abdelkader (2016) comment that Arabic writers of English are
facing problems in developing their writing skills in their university English courses.
During writing tasks in CFY classes, where this study took place, the researcher noticed
that some students in the writing class felt nervous when they were asked to write a
paragraph in English. Writing anxiety makes a negative impact on their EFL writing
performance. In the classroom, the students are asked to think about a particular topic,
arrange their ideas, and then write them down. Due to their lack of a sufficient amount of
vocabulary and accuracy in grammar, most of the EFL students continuously seek help
from their teachers in constructing their paragraphs. This seems impossible within this
limited class time.

Therefore, the lack of time for the first draft, the big class sizes, and the students'
insufficient amount of vocabulary and grammar knowledge could intensify students'
feelings of apprehension during English writing tasks. One of the tools that can provide
a purposeful communicative context between students and teachers is Twitter. Twitter
can give authentic communication outside the class, where the students can communicate freely with their instructors and peers (Junco et al. 2011). Although there have been studies carried out on Twitter worldwide, there is no well-matched research conducted on Saudi EFL students.

Thus, this study is aimed to ascertain the level and type of EFL writing anxiety among Saudi CFY students. Moreover, it attempts to use Twitter as a convenient and new language tool to extend the discussion about the writing assignments outside the classroom. The researcher also tries to examine the Twitter impact on CFY students' EFL writing anxiety.

Research Questions

The main goal of this study is to investigate whether integrating Twitter, as an assistant tool in EFL writing classes, affects learners' EFL writing anxiety. This study aims to explore and answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent is the level of EFL writing anxiety experienced by Saudi CFY students?
2. Is there any significant difference in the levels of EFL writing anxiety between Saudi CFY students who use Twitter as a supplementary tool for EFL writing classes and those who do not use Twitter?
3. What type of EFL writing anxiety experienced by Saudi CFY students?

Research Hypothesis:

This study attempted to verify the following hypothesis:

1. Saudi CFY students experience high levels of EFL writing apprehension.
2. There is no significant difference in the level of EFL writing anxiety between the Twitter and non-Twitter group.
3. There is no specific writing anxiety experienced by Saudi CFY students.

Objectives of the Study

This study was attempted to investigate the impact of Twitter on EFL writing anxiety among Saudi CFY students of Umm Qura University at Al Qunfudah
Another aim was to determine the level and type of EFL writing anxiety experienced by Saudi EFL students.

**Significance of the Study**

There is no research on the impact of Twitter as a tool for EFL writing anxiety and to investigate the level and the type of EFL writing apprehension among Saudi EFL students studying in CFY at UQU, Saudi Arabia.

A significant contribution of this study is to examine the impact of Twitter as a new useful application for English writing anxiety. Additionally, this study proposes a way for learners to practice writing by communicating with the teacher and their peers in a social context, which may positively affect their writing apprehension. Jahin (2007) in his study further suggests the need for teachers to create a sense of community within the EFL writing classroom, as well as the obligation to provide learners with ample opportunities to cooperate in groups so that they can overcome their apprehension block.

There have been a few studies (Al-Asmari, 2013; Al-Jefan, 2013) that have investigated Saudi students' English writing apprehension. This study will add more to this particular field by examining the writing anxiety of CFY students at UQU.

**Background**

The following literature review is focused on both writing anxiety in language learning among ESL\EFL students and the application of Twitter for a positive impact on English writing anxiety.

The research was initiated to examine the role of writing anxiety in the learning process when Daly and Miller (1975) coined the initial term "writing anxiety." Daly (1975) stated that writing anxiety is an important topic that requires an understanding of the correlation between writing anxiety and human characteristics. Thompson (1980) defined writing anxiety as "a fear of the writing process that outweighs the project gain from the abilities to write" (P: 121). L2 writing anxiety refers to a set of negative emotions, including fears, apprehensions, and worries. Horwitz, & Cope (1986), defined "anxiety" as the "subjective feelings of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worries associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (P: 125).
Similarly, McLeod (1987) defined anxiety in writing as "generally understood to mean negative, anxious feelings that disrupt some parts of the writing process" (P: 427). More specifically, according to Bloom (1985) "writing anxiety" is "a label of one or a combination of feelings, beliefs, or behaviors that interfere with a person's abilities to start work on or finish a given writing task that he or she is intellectually capable of doing."

In short, writing anxiety is the individual tendency to avoid writing situations that are accompanied by some amount of evaluation due to negative feelings, beliefs, and behaviors that affect an individual's ability in the writing process. Daly and Miller referred to such emotions as anxiety, while Cheng (2004) as apprehension.

Cheng (2004) defined a multidimensional conceptualization of writing anxiety: Somatic Anxiety, Cognitive Anxiety, and Avoidance Behavior. L2 writing anxiety was examined from these three dimensions. For deriving a group of scale items, a study was conducted on 85 students. Then the scale was applied as a data collection on 421 EFL students from different colleges in Taiwan. An exploratory factor analysis was employed to determine the final makeup of the Second Language Writing Apprehension Inventory (SLWAI).

The effect of writing apprehension in writing achievement was also investigated in Zhang's (2011) study, who conducted a correlation study on 96 Chinese students majoring in English and found a remarkable negative effect(r=0.838) between their level in the SLWAI and 30-minute writing task grades. In other words, highly anxious participants had lower writing proficiency grades than those who were less anxious.

Zhang's (2011) study conducted Cheng's (2004) SLWAI on Chinese students majoring in English and found that Cognitive Anxiety was the most common type of L2 writing apprehension among the participants. Contrary to Zhang's findings were those of Min's (2014) study, which found that Somatic Anxiety was the most common type of anxiety experienced by final-year engineering students.

In respect to the negative relationship between EFL writing anxiety and performance, Susoy and Tanyers (2013) applied the SLWAI to examine the writing apprehension levels of 48 EFL pre-service teachers. The participants' levels of writing apprehension were compared with their first midterm exam scores as an index of their
English writing performance. Results showed that there was a significant negative correlation between writing anxiety and performance.

By using the SLWAI scale, Al-Asmari (2013) assessed the relationship between the level of writing apprehension among 198 Saudi EFL university students and their achievements. Findings showed that the majority of the participants suffered from a noticeable level of writing apprehension. Moreover, a significant negative correlation was found between writing anxiety and achievement. In other words, writing performance was negatively affected by the students' high writing apprehension.

**EFL Writing Apprehension in Saudi Arabia**

Some studies investigated the impact of EFL writing anxiety among Saudi Students (Jahin, 2012; Al-Jefan, 2013; Al-Asmari, 2013). The findings of these studies confirmed that SLWA played a significant role in language learning in the Saudi context. For example, Al-Jefan examined the level of EL writing anxiety among 296 Saudi college EFL students majoring in Science. Results revealed various sources of writing anxiety among the participants. The primary cause was the weakness of the previous education, followed by a lack of confidence and the teacher's evaluation. In Al-Khasawneh's (2013) study, which aimed at exploring the reasons behind the weakness of L2 writing among Saudi pre-year students, he also found that educational backgrounds were the main reasons behind students' gap in the writing skills.

Additionally, Al-Asmari (2013) aimed at discovering the difficulties of Saudi EFL students encountered during the writing process. The results of SLWAI showed that most of the participants suffered from anxiety when writing in English. Findings also showed a negative correlation between writing anxiety and achievements. Through the interview, he revealed that most of the high-apprehension students suffered from similar difficulties when writing in English, and such challenges seemed to be rooted in the early stages of their EFL education.

Furthermore, in Jahin's (2012) attempt at assessing the impact of peer review on the participants' writing apprehension level and essay writing ability, he found that the majority of the participants had high or average writing apprehension and suffered from a deficient level of essay writing ability. Thus from the previous review of literature, it
seemed that the weakness of the previous education negatively affected students' low writing ability and writing anxiety. The findings of these studies confirmed that most of the students suffered from the weakness of their previous education. Few, if none, investigations have been conducted regarding the impact of Twitter on the EFL writing apprehension on Saudi CFY university students.

**Twitter for Educational Purposes**

Web 2.0 led to the development and evaluation of Social media and many applications, such as wikis, blogs, microblogging, web-sharing sites, and social networking. These modern inventions have created new social interaction-oriented language learning tools, such as social media and online forums (Mompean & Fouz-González, 2016).

With the revolution of various devices, smartphones and tablet technologies, the increasing accessibility to social media has led to "a collection of internet Web sites, service and practice that support collaboration, community building and sharing" (Junco, Heibergert & Loken. 2011, P: 1). Recently, social media (such as blogs, micro-blogs, video-sharing sites, and social networks) has attracted the attention of many instructors and educators in the educational field who has investigated its impact on the learning and teaching processes.

In particular, Twitter is one of the most popular micro-blogging social networks, with almost 150 million daily active users, who can send and receive messages via the web, SMS, instant message clients, and by third-party applications. The free micro-blogging platforms hold the interest of many educators who indicated that it is increasingly becoming popular in classrooms. Recent studies that utilized Twitter in the learning and teaching process confirmed its potential value as an educational tool (Yang, 2011).

**Twitter as a Tool for Writing**

The environment of Twitter could stimulate users to utilize reading and writing to engage in social interaction and support communicative competence in English learning (Borau et al., 2009; De Los Reyes, De Vera & Medriano 2018). As a consequence of this,
some researchers devoted studies to examine the effect of students' literacy. Most of this relevant research detected that Twitter had some potential benefits as an assistant tool in students' literacy. For instance, Lakarnchua (2012) investigated how six Thai EFL learners, three with high proficiency and three with low, used Twitter while they worked on completing their reading and writing assignments.

In another study, Cheng (2012) examined the effect of Twitter on 58 EFL college students' writing and reading competence. Findings showed that Twitter groups' writing scores were slightly higher than that of the control group.

Similarly, Ahmad (2015) investigated the effect of Twitter on Saudi EFL college students' writing achievement. In that study, the EFL writing test was used as an instrument. The writing test was given to the participants twice (pre-test and post-test) to assess their writing developments. Findings indicated that Twitter had a positive effect on the improvement of students' writing skills.

**Methodology:**

**Design**

Quantitative research is proposed to answer the research questions. This study applies an experimental research approach in which one independent variable is investigated to find its impact on the dependent variables. According to Gay, Mills &Airasian (2006), experimental research is the most structured of all research types. It can usually produce the soundest evidence regarding the cause-effect relationship.

In this study, the independent variable is Twitter as a supplementary tool in English writing classes. The dependent variable is the participants' EFL writing anxiety. The participants were assigned randomly into two groups: experimental and control group, each group comprising of 15 participants each.

**Population**

The population of the current study consists of 30 male CFY medical students, who were studying in the First Semester of 2019/2020 academic year at Al Qunfudah Campus, UQU Saudi Arabia. The researcher is a member of the teaching staff and thus has sufficient knowledge about the students' backgrounds. As the participants in this study
were EFL students, they were required to take a 120-minute English writing class each week. The CFY is using the English textbooks selected by the UQU. English textbooks contain all language skills.

The participants were all native speakers of Arabic, and ages ranged from 18 to 19 years old. The participants' backgrounds were relatively homogeneous; their secondary scores in the final examinations proved that they fulfilled the course requirements. The random selection was made out of the volunteers' lot. The participants were found with their own Twitter accounts.

**Instrument**

The Second Language Writing Apprehension Inventory (SLWAI) (Cheng, 2004) is used in this study. It consists of 22 items. The SLWAI asks respondents to rank their agreement with a statement on a 5-point Likert scale. The responses continuum is: 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Not Certain, 4=Agree, 5=Strongly Agree. Before administrating the scale, the researcher familiarized the participants with the study.

The SLWAI is applied twice, once as a pre-test and the other as a post-test, to investigate if there is any significant difference in the level of students' English writing apprehension after applying Twitter.

**Reliability and Validity**

The reliability of the SLWAI survey questionnaire was checked by using the equation of Cronbach's alpha. The reliability coefficient was (0.87). The validity of the survey questionnaire for construct relevance and construct representation was attained by two senior EFL writing mentors of the same English department.

**Procedure**

During the first week in their English classes, the participants in both the experimental and control groups completed the SLWAI. The purpose of applying this survey as a pre-test was to assess the participants' levels of L2 writing anxiety before applying Twitter. In the second week, Twitter was used as a platform for the experimental group to discuss English writing assignments between the teacher and the students.
This study lasted for ten weeks, in which the participants wrote on ten different topics. A new writing topic was presented each week on the EFL writing-class. They had to write argumentative, comparative, descriptive, and narrative paragraphs. All the writing assignments were assigned to the participants in both the experimental and control group were from the students' English textbooks. The Twitter and non-Twitter groups had the same teacher and experienced the same writing activities and writing assignments.

In the experimental group, the participants were required to post their answers to the teacher's questions and their piece of writing in English to the teacher's Twitter account. The teacher monitored the participants' tweets by logging their participation and providing feedback on learners' questions and writing pieces.

In the class meeting, the teacher generally would project all the participants' Tweets and their different writing passages. The teacher would briefly discuss their writing passages and introduce each participant's tweet to explain the tweets' sentence structures.

On the other hand, the non-Twitter group used traditional instruction. That means they had to submit their writing assignments to the teacher during regular English class meetings. Then, after revising their first draft, they had to return them to the teacher again. In the control group, a free writing discussion was held in-person between the teacher and the participants to discuss the organization of their written assignments.

At the end of the ten weeks, the Twitter and non-Twitter groups were asked to fill out the post-test. After the survey, the sample T-test was applied to the received scores from the pre and post-test to find out whether Twitter had a statistically significant effect on the participants' EFL writing anxiety.

**Data Analysis**

The SLWAI data were analyzed by adding the participants' ratings of the 22 items scored on a five-point Likert response scale rating from 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. Four of the questions were negatively worded and required reverse scoring before being summed up to yield a total score. These items were 3, 6, 16, and 21. The scale for these items ranged from strongly agree=1 to strongly disagree =5. A total score above 67 points represented a high level of writing anxiety, a total score below 52 points indicated
a low level of writing anxiety, and overall rating between 52 and 67 presented a moderate level of writing anxiety.

According to Cheng (2004), the SLWAI scale can be divided into three categories of anxiety: Cognitive Anxiety (which is represented in items 1, 3, 6, 9, 14, 16, 20, and 21), Somatic Anxiety (items 2, 7, 8, 11, 13, 15, and 19) and Avoidance Behavior (items 4, 5, 10, 12, 17, 18, and 22). The questionnaire-survey is show in appendix “A”.

Results

Research Q1: To what extent is the level of EFL writing anxiety experienced by Saudi CFY students?

Hypothesis 1: Saudi CFY students experience high levels of EFL writing apprehension.

To answer the first research question, the researcher applied the SLWAI to the participants before applying the treatment. Then, the SLWAI data were analyzed with SPSS to obtain the levels of EFL writing anxiety experienced by participants in both groups. The participants' responses through SLWAI in the pre-test were summed up. All the participants in the control and the experimental groups were given an overall score. Then, the students were divided into high-, moderate-, and low anxiety. The results of the participants' levels of EFL writing apprehension are shown in table-1.

Table-1 Descriptive statistics: numbers, percentages, and means.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of Anxiety</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th></th>
<th>Control Group</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Numbers</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Numbers</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High anxiety</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>73.3%</td>
<td>79.87</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>86.6%</td>
<td>81.91</td>
<td>77.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderate anxiety</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
<td>59.30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>56.00</td>
<td>57.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low anxiety</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

206
Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the two groups before applying the treatment. The mean score in the experimental group was \( M=74.58 \), and the control group \( M= 77.95 \), which reflected a high level of L2 writing anxiety in both groups.

Also, in the experimental group, majority of the participants (\( n=11 \)) were found to have high levels of anxiety while writing in English (73.3%), and the other participants (\( n=4 \)) were found to have moderate levels of anxiety (26.6%).

On the other hand, most of the participants (\( n=13 \)) in the control group were found to have high levels of L2 writing anxiety (86.6%), and two students were found to have moderate levels of anxiety (13.3%). In both groups, no participants were rated as having a low level of anxiety.

The results of the participants' scores in the pre-test showed that both groups had higher levels of writing apprehension see Table 1. This result validated the first hypothesis of the study.

**Research Q2:** Is there any significant difference in the levels of EFL writing anxiety between Saudi CFY students who use Twitter as a supplementary tool for EFL writing classes and those who do not use Twitter?

**Hypothesis 2:** There is no significant difference in the level of EFL writing anxiety between the Twitter and non-Twitter group.

To answer this research question, the researcher applied the SLWAI as a post-test on both groups after implementing the treatment. Then averages (means) were calculated. The students were divided into high, moderate, and low anxiety.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics: numbers, percentages, and means.
Table 2 presents a low level of anxiety in the experimental group (M=49.33<67) after applying Twitter. Moreover, table 2 shows a high level of English writing anxiety in the control group (M=70.56>67). This indicated that the level of English writing anxiety remained high among the control group. Most of the participants (n=10) in the control group still suffer higher levels of English writing anxiety (66.6%). This means that Twitter assisted the participants in the Twitter group to cope with their anxiety while writing in English.

Table 3 the results of the mean scores of the experimental and control group on the pre and post-test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test by Group</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviations</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>(t)Value</th>
<th>Level of significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>74.58</td>
<td>6.61</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>-1.306</td>
<td>0.653</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>77.95</td>
<td>7.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>49.33</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>-7.006</td>
<td>0.00**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>70.56</td>
<td>9.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**meaning: statistically significant at the level of statistical significance (α=0.05).**

As shown in Table 4, the mean scores of the pre-test in the experimental group were (M=74.58, SD=6.61) and in the post-test (M=49.33, SD=6.32). The mean scores of the pre-test in the control group were (M=77.95, SD=7.55) and in the post-test (M=70.56, SD=9.93). The comparison of the means scores of the Twitter group and non-Twitter group indicated that there is a significant decrease in the mean scores of the experimental group. In contrast, the mean scores in the control group remained high.
A decrease in the mean scores in the experimental group means that Twitter alleviated the participants' anxiety while writing in English in the experimental group. This result nullified the second hypothesis of the study.

Research Q3. What type of EFL writing anxiety experienced by Saudi CFY students?

The hypothesis: There is no specific writing anxiety experienced by Saudi CFY students.

The SLWAI offers a three-dimensional conceptualization of anxiety: Somatic Anxiety, Cognitive Anxiety, and Avoidance Behavior (Cheng, 2004). By calculating the scores of the items related to each category, it was evident that Cognitive Anxiety was the most common type of EFL writing anxiety experienced by both groups in the post-test.

Table-4: Descriptive statistics: means and standard deviation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of anxiety</th>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Somatic Anxiety</th>
<th>Cognitive Anxiety</th>
<th>Avoidance Behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High anxiety</td>
<td>M = 24, SD. = 0.0</td>
<td>M = 30, SD. = 0.0</td>
<td>M =15, SD. = 0.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low anxiety</td>
<td>M = 13.14, SD. =3.14</td>
<td>M = 15.47, SD= 2.60</td>
<td>M = 11.64, SD. = 3.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>M = 14.78, SD. =3.86</td>
<td><strong>M = 17.33, SD= 3.36</strong></td>
<td>M = 12.61, SD. =3.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was apparent from table-4 that cognitive anxiety was the most common type of English writing anxiety experienced by the participants in the experimental group.

Table-5 shows the descriptive statistics (means and standard deviation) for the control group.

Table-5: Descriptive statistics: means and standard deviation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of anxiety</th>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Somatic Anxiety</th>
<th>Cognitive Anxiety</th>
<th>Avoidance Behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High anxiety</td>
<td>M =26.81, SD. = 4.26</td>
<td>M =26.04, SD. = 4.01</td>
<td>M = 23.58, SD. = 4.64</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Similarly, table-5 shows that in the control group, the most common type of EFL writing anxiety experienced by the participants was Cognitive anxiety.

For each type of EFL writing anxiety, it is evident that Cognitive Anxiety is the most common type of EFL writing anxiety experienced by both experimental and control groups.

**Discussion**

The participants in both groups were found to have high levels of writing apprehension before the experiment. The high degree of participants' EFL writing apprehension was in line with Al–Asmari's (2013) study, which reported high and moderate levels of L2 writing apprehension among Saudi EFL students. Al-Asmari (2013) attempted to explore the relationship between writing apprehension and writing achievement among Saudi EFL students at the university level. The finding of this study showed that the Saudi EFL students of CFY at UQU had high levels of writing apprehension.

The results of this study indicated that the EFL writing apprehension of the participants in the Twitter group (experimental) was found significantly reduced after implementing Twitter as a tool for English writing practice. While the EFL writing apprehension in the non-Twitter group (control) who used traditional ways in English writing classes remained high, this means that Twitter assisted the participants in the Twitter group to cope with their writing apprehension.

Another indication of the current study was Cognitive Anxiety. Cognitive Anxiety was the most common type of writing apprehension experienced by Saudi CFY university medical students. This result favored Zhang (2011) Cognitive Anxiety, which was related to cynical expectations and fear of evaluation and testing.
Findings

This study discovered the following results:

1. Most of the participants in Twitter and non-Twitter groups suffered from high levels of EFL writing apprehension.
2. There was a statically significant difference in the total average score in the post-test between Twitter and the non-Twitter groups in favor of the experimental group.
3. The participants of EFL writing have dominant cognitive anxiety.

Recommendation

Based on the results of this study, the researcher would like to propose some recommendations:

1. EFL teachers could be confident of the positive impact of Twitter as a useful tool in reducing their students' EFL writing apprehension.
2. Students should be motivated to involve in the social community provided by Twitter to overcome their English writing anxiety.
3. EFL teachers could integrate Twitter as a positive tool in their writing classes to provide learners with an opportunity to practice more writing. The adequate practice of writing with proper use of Twitter can have a positive impact on EFL learners' writing ability with the reduction of EFL writing anxiety.
4. EFL teachers should modify their old-fashioned methods of EFL writing into a communicative way that increases students' participation in the learning-teaching practice.

Suggestions

The researcher recommends the following points:

1. Repetition of this study on students from dissimilar backgrounds, experience, majors, and age groups would be essential to gain in-depth statistics about Saudi students' anxiety in English writing.
2. This study could be conducted on Saudi female EFL students to examine the EFL writing anxiety among the same background, education, and age.
3. Future study is required to investigate the motives behind the CFY Saudi EFL
writing apprehensions.

Limitations

The results of this study are restricted to the participants of this study. Firstly, only 30 Saudi Male CFY medical students were investigated in this study, and its effects may not be able to be generalized to a broader population or setting. Secondly, the findings from this research might not represent all Saudi EFL learners and English teaching environments in general. Thirdly, the instrument used in this study consisted merely of a survey (pre and post-test). Finally, the researcher was the same teacher of both the experimental and control groups, and this might have affected the objectivity of the study.

Conclusion

The study showed that the learning environment provided by Twitter positively affected the students' EFL writing anxiety. The application of Twitter in instructional practice remained positive in reducing the EFL writing anxiety in this study. Twitter, as a tool, has the potential to change traditional-teaching writing practices into a relaxed environment. The use of the English language is restricted to a classroom setting in the Saudi context. This study advocated that Twitter may be used in language classes to provide learners with a social community, in which they can practice writing. Thus, practicing the language in a social community will lead to the development of EFL learners' writing competence, which positively impacts EFL writing apprehensions.

References

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Daly, J. A., & Miller, M. D. (1975). The empirical development of an instrument of


Appendix A

Read the following statement and express your degree of agreement / disagreement by ticking (√) the appropriate column.

Note that SA=Strongly Agree, A=Agree, U=Uncertain, D=Disagree, SD=Strongly Disagree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. While writing English essays / compositions / paragraphs. I feel anxious and uncomfortable if I know they will be assessed.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2. When I write English essays/compositions/paragraphs under a time restriction, I feel my heart pounding.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. I don't feel nervous at all when I write in English.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Often, I decide to write my ideas and thought in English.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Most of the time, I do my best to escape writing English essays/compositions/paragraphs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. I don't mind that my English writings (essays/compositions/ paragraphs) are worse than my class fellows.</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. When I start working on English writing, my mind often becomes blank.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. I sweat and feel shivering when I write English essays /compositions/ paragraphs under a time restriction.</td>
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<td>9. I feel worried about getting low grades if my English compositions are being evaluated.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. I always avoid the situations which oblige me to write in English.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11. When I write English essays/ compositions/ paragraphs under time limits, my ideas and thoughts become mixed-up.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. If I have a choice, I will not use English to write compositions/ paragraphs.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I usually feel disturbing and fearful when I write English essays/ compositions/ paragraphs under time limits.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I'm always afraid of that other students will ridicule my English</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
writing when they read it.

15. I almost freeze up when the teacher suddenly asks me to write an English composition/ paragraph/ essay.

16. I don't worry at all that other people/ students will say or think about my English writings (compositions/ essays/ paragraph).

17. If a teacher asked me to write an English composition/ paragraph, I would do my best to be excused from it.

18. I often find every opportunity to write English compositions/ essays/ paragraphs outside of the class.

19. When I write English compositions/essays/paragraphs, I usually find my body stiff and apprehensive.

20. I'm afraid that my English writings may be used as a sample for the class discussion.

21. I don't mind if all my English writings are rated/graded low.

22. Whenever if I get a chance to write. I will use English to write compositions/ essays/ paragraphs
Effect of Stress Perception of L1 on L2: 
A Case Study of Pakistani (Punjabi) Students

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\textbf{Abstract}

The present research aims at analyzing and observing Pakistani students of Punjabi origin who opt English language as a medium of learning. The researchers endeavor to observe stress perception of Punjabi (L1) speaking students of university level who seem to utilize same pattern on L2 (English) in their verbal communication. The stress pattern in pronunciation plays a vital role in determining the accent of a language. Therefore, variation in pronunciation not only creates the understanding problems but sometimes meaning also changes which create a language barrier between speaker and listener. This research paper is an investigation that how does mispronunciation change the stress pattern of the second language? How does mispronunciation lead to semantic errors/miscommunication? In the article, the action research method is employed where the data has been collected from classroom observations and student-teacher interactions. The students of graduation level from specific universities of Pakistan are chosen for data collection.

\textbf{Keywords: Stressperception, Effect, Punjabi language, L1, L2}
Introduction

Difference in language is a common phenomenon that leads to communication problem across the world (Seidlhofer, 2005). Different languages have their own set of rules and regulations along with their specific pronunciation patterns (Morley, 1991). Alphabets when composed together to form a word, carry their meaning as well as its verbal impact in it (Lukatela & Turvey, 1998). The language differences create language barriers when people of two different dialects and languages encounter each other (Abuarqoub, 2019). It has been observed that language barriers occur in such meetings where the translation is unavailable or costly (Buyayisqui, Bordoni & Garbossa, 2013). The natives try to pronounce and translate the target language through the rules and regulation of their mother tongue (Harbord, 1992). The situation becomes more critical when the speaker strictly adheres to the stress pattern of his/her mother/native language. According to Mahmood, et.al (2020), it is a postcolonial dilemma that non-native speakers try to imitate the techniques of the western nations in their verbal communication. But they cannot do so because of language differences and cultural barriers.

Stress pattern forms the pronunciation of any language (Kucukoglu, 2012). The learners and teachers adopt different methodology while learning the target language such as grammar translational method, direct method and audiovisual method (Jassim & Dzakiria, 2019; Grenfell & Harris, 1999). The scholars noticed and examined that the reflection of the mother tongue can be seen when the natives speak the target language (L2) (Al Hosni, 2014).

Pakistan is a multi-lingual society where different languages have been spoken across the country. Punjabi, Sindhi, Pashto and Balochi are major languages of the country (Medriano & De Vera, 2019; Rahman, 1998). The speakers of these languages are very enthusiastic to learn English language because it has become the language of science and technology (Foyewa, 2015). In the South Asian context another significant thing to be kept in mind is that here English language enjoys the status of the language of the elite class. Since it is taken as a status symbol, a massive number of people prefer to learn and enhance their expertise of English language (Haidar, 2017). Verbal communication through English language in non-native speakers is a matter of prestige
and serves as a symbol of a qualified person (Francis & Ryan, 1998). Therefore, all Punjabi, Pushto, Sindhi, Balochi and Urdu speaking go for learning English as the second language (Riaz, Kamal & Kamran, 2019). These speakers are not concerned with the grammatical rules and regulations of the L2. Their sole aim is to speak English well. Fluent accent and perfect pronunciation is the main focus of the non-native speakers. When they speak the target language they come up with different issues which vary from language to language (Baran-Łucarz, 2014). The speakers of these languages have different stress patterns. Some stress on first syllables whiles other stress on the second syllables (Nespor, Shukla & Mehler, 2011). The research aims at analyzing that when a native speaker of Punjabi origin targets L2 for verbal communication, then what type of communication problems can occur (Asif, Bashir & Zafar, 2018). Moreover, how it affects the meaning of the word as well. The speakers set the stress pattern as per the pattern of their mother tongue (Gilakjani, 2012).

Punjabi language is enjoying a prestigious status not only in Pakistan but other south Asian countries as well as a major part of Great Britain and USA (Abbas, Chohan, Ahmed & Kaleem, 2016). Punjabi has been spoken widely in Pakistan and it is mother tongue of forty-eight percent population of the country (census, 2001). The province of Punjab is considered the hub of Punjabi language. It is the language of Indian and Pakistani Punjab (Ayres, 2008). After partition the Punjab was divided into two parts. Panjabi language has been spoken from Dehli to Islamabad (Ayres, 2005). The standard dialect is Majhi dialect which is from Sheikhpura, Lahore, Gujranwala and Sialkot districts. Punjabi is written in Shahmukhi script. Previously Hindko and Saraiki have been included in Punjabi language (Kaur, Singh & Kaur, 2017). There are various varieties of Punjabi language spoken in Indo-Pak sub-continent. The different dialects of Punjabi language are intelligible with each other although there are differences in its vocabulary and pronunciation (Masica, 1993). There are numerous varieties of Punjabi that create a virtual continuum between Western and Eastern varieties of the language. People of Punjabi origin speak a creolized form of Punjabi language. This form clearly deviates from the set pattern of Indian and Pakistani Punjabi (Brass, 2003). Creolization refers to the process where a language is evolved with inserting elements of other languages spoken in that area (Versteegh, 1984). Punjabi language has three tones i.e high, mid
low. The tone of a language refers to its pitch pattern. It is one of the significant characteristics of the Punjabi language is that with a change in tone, it changes its meaning (Chohan & García, 2019).

Punjabi language belongs to Indo-Arian languages which has different stress pattern from other languages of the region (Ghai & Singh, 2013). There is division between long and short vowels sounds in Gurmukhi orthographical conventions. The centralized vowels are /ɪ ʊ/ while secondary vowels are /iː eː aː oː uː/. When Panjabi speakers communicate in second language they apply the stress pattern of their mother tongue (Nara, 2016). Which not only creates the problem of understand but sometimes the meaning of the words also change with the change in pronunciation (Derwing & Munro, 2005). The semantic change effect the context of the conversation.

**Literature Review**

According to Zimmermann (2004), pronunciation plays a vital role in language learning. Pronunciation is considered a skill in learning a language and is more important than vocabulary and grammar. Despite having so much importance, it has always been ignored in Pakistan, and no heed is given to pronunciation in the language learning process (Latu, 1994). Pronunciation focuses on the stress pattern of a language. Having a correct pronunciation is a necessary component of effective communication. On the other hand, mispronunciation is a hurdle in the path of effective communication. Stevenson (2003), defines mispronunciation as: “to articulate a sound or word incorrectly. Moreover, mispronunciation affects language learners’ communication (Wahab, 2019). Mispronunciation of words lowers the confidence level of the students (Gilakjani, 2011).

Pakistan is a trilingual country, where various languages are spoken and written at the same time. Some of the languages are Punjabi, Urdu, Sindhi, Balochi, Pushto, etc. Pakistani students encounter problems in pronouncing English words correctly, which results in mispronunciation (Wahab, 2019). Students who have Punjabi as their native language tend to make mistakes when pronouncing English words. Skuse (2020) maintains that when Korean L2 learners are involved in group discussions in their classrooms, they exhibit insufficient learning skills. He further argues that these leaning skills can be enhanced with the help of learning lessons.
Practically, English is the official language of Pakistan (Manan & David, 2014). There is a need to learn English for different purposes. There is a need to learn English for different purposes, so native Punjabi speakers also have to learn English to communicate effectively (Riaz, 2015). Raza (2008) states that English is spreading fast in Pakistan.

Punjabi is the mother tongue of 44% of Pakistan's population (Akram and Yasmeen, 2011). So, to study the ways Punjabis pronounce English words is deemed necessary. Punjabi students tend to pronounce the English words in a Punjabiized way because they have Punjabi as their native language that has a different stress pattern than English and that affects their pronunciation of English (Riaz, 2015).

Newman (1946), opines that “stress refers to playing emphasis on a specific sound or syllable and pronouncing it more loudly than other syllables in the same word”. There is a marked difference in the stress patterns of English and Punjabi languages. Both languages have different phonetic and phonological rules.

English is a compulsory subject in schools right from the first grade (Akram, 2007). Punjabi students encounter a lot of problems when they learn English as a second language because of the stress pattern of their first language (Punjabi), interferes and this results in them mispronouncing English words.

English has only five vowel letters for twenty-two vowel phonemes, which results in the Punjabi students mispronouncing the majority of English words. This results in the Punjabi students facing severe mispronunciation problems when they pronounce English words because Punjabi has only three vowel sounds (Noor, Gulzar & Javid, 2016). The way Punjabi speakers pronounce English shows that their native language (Punjabi) has a strong influence on their pronunciation (Riaz, 2015).

Learners of English as a second language unconsciously use the phonological rules of their mother tongue while using the target language. There might be similarities in the sounds of both languages but L1 and L2 have monophthongs, diphthongal and consonantal differences which later have an impact on the production of speech of the learners (Talaat, 2002). For instance, a diphthong is a glide from one vowel to the other (Roach, Roach, Dew & Rowlands, 1990). This can emerge as a problem for Punjabi speaking students who learn English as a second language. It is a fact that learners who
develop their articulators for a particular language at a very early stage find it difficult to learn a second language.

Several studies have been conducted on the mispronunciation of English words by English language learners. Habib (2012) conducted a study on the varying pronunciation among Pakistani speakers and concluded that the problematic sounds are that /r/, /w/, /v/ and /ə/ are the problematic sounds. Nadeem and Rehman (2013), in their research, concluded that speakers who do not have English as their L1 mispronounce English words because they transfer the phonological rules of their first language. Riaz (2015) did a study on the deviant pronunciation of 195 English words by uneducated Punjabi speakers. She observed that Punjabi speakers pronounce these words differently due to L1 interference. The study conducted by Hussain and Mahmood (2012) reveals that a lot of sounds are reversed by the Punjabi speakers and they also confuse /w/ and /v/ sounds. Similar results were found by Raza (2008) in his research. Riaz & Qadir (2012) research also reveals that the Punjabi language interferes and has an impact on Punjabi speakers' pronunciation of English words. Heselwood and Mc Chrystal's (2000) study results revealed that Punjabi speaking boys have a Punjabi accent when they speak English when compared with Punjabi speaking girls.

Researchers working on Second Language Acquisition conclude that the pronunciation of the English language among speakers of other languages depends on how strong the impact of their native language in learning the English language. To understand the patterns of pronouncing English words also carries great importance (Riaz 2015).

Numerous researches have been carried out on the phonetic features of Pakistani English. Khan (2012), conducted a study on the phonetic features of Pakistani English and his study revealed that Pakistani speakers pronounce /r/, and are unable to differentiate between /w/ and /v/. Punjabi students are unable to pronounce English words correctly due to the different stress patterns of Punjabi and English languages and also because of L1 interference due to varied stress patterns as well. Nadeem and Rehman (2013) think that L2 speakers can face stress problems due to the interference of their mother tongue.
Research Methodology

The research employs an action research method where classroom observation has been used as a tool to collect the data from the universities of Pakistan. Classroom observation is not only good to interact with students but to collect the data as well. There are different techniques and schemes which can be used in collecting data (Schwieter & Benati, 2019). The researcher here interacts with the students as a resource person as well as an observer and a participant. It seems difficult to adopt any scheme randomly but he ought to match with appropriate scheme to know the proceedings in the class. It is necessary to know the students and teachers’ interaction, their problems and their attitude towards the material. One of the famous schemes is COLT which is an abbreviation of Communicative Orientation of Language teaching (Li, 2007). This research is inspired by the communication orientation between teacher and student.

Population

Students of graduation level from The University of Lahore and The University of Education Lahore have been selected and observed for this specific research. The researcher selected forty Punjabi students from each university for this specific project.

Data Analysis

Stress is a key part of both speaking and listening activity in the stressed timed language (Dauer, 1983). Since English is a stressed time language therefore, L2 learners have to keep it in consideration while learning it. The speakers of every language have different accent and phonology pattern which affect the communication in the second language (Mennen, 2007). The said effect happens unconsciously. Same can be observed in the case of Punjabi with Punjabi students; they apply the stress pattern of their mother which create not only the understanding problem but also has a semantic effect.

Following table contains English words which were collected during class observation and the student-teacher interaction. Here the first column contains English words and the second column consists of the words mispronounced by L2 learners. Whereas in the third column it is mentioned whether the meaning is changed or not as a result of mispronunciation.
### Stress pattern

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Words</th>
<th>Mispronunciation of Punjabi Students</th>
<th>Semantic Errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Know</td>
<td>Now</td>
<td>Meaning Changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Said</td>
<td>Saaed</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Through</td>
<td>Throw</td>
<td>Meaning Changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 College</td>
<td>Colige</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 People</td>
<td>Piple</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 For</td>
<td>Far</td>
<td>Meaning Changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 That</td>
<td>Dat</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Town</td>
<td>Tone</td>
<td>Meaning Changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Colony</td>
<td>Clooni</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
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<tr>
<td>10 Company</td>
<td>Caumpany</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
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<tr>
<td>11 Blue</td>
<td>Bilu</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Caught</td>
<td>Caat</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Copy</td>
<td>Capy</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
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<td>14 Doctor</td>
<td>Dactor</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Form</td>
<td>Farm</td>
<td>Meaning Changed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Farm</td>
<td>Faram</td>
<td>Meaning not changed</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Word</td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>Watch</td>
<td>Waatch</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Top</td>
<td>Taap</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Wall</td>
<td>Waal</td>
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<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Bear</td>
<td>Bare</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>School</td>
<td>Eschool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Station</td>
<td>Tation</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Space</td>
<td>Pace</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Bottle</td>
<td>Botal</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>Pistol</td>
<td>Pistowl</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>Rifle</td>
<td>Rafle</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>Hotel</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>Wax</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>Course</td>
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<td>30</td>
<td>Where</td>
<td>Wear</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A careful analysis of the above-mentioned data collected from the two universities of Pakistan, shows that the chosen English words can be grouped into two categories. In one category meaning remains the same while in other meanings also change with a variation in pronunciation.
Change in pronunciation Due to L1 Interference

Following are the examples of English words spoken by the Punjabi students during verbal communication in class. The speakers pronounce the word “said” as “SAAED”, “people” is spoken as “PIPLE”, “that” is spoken as “DAT”, “colony” is pronounced “CLOONI”, “company” as “CAUMPANY”, blue is pronounced as “bili”, “caught” is pronounced “CAAT”, “copy” is spoken as “CAAPY”, “doctor” is pronounced as “DACTOR”, “farm” is spoken as “FARAM”, “watch” as “WAATCH”, “top” as “TAAP”, “bottle” as “BOTAL”, “college” as “CALLEGGE”, “pistol” as “PISTOWL”, “rifle” as “RAFLE” and etc.

Above mentioned words indicate a variation in stress perception of the L2 learners. The drawback of the changed pronunciation is that learners of L2 are not accepted and appreciated as a fluent speaker of English language.

Change in pronunciation and Meaning Due to L1 Interference

The research lays emphasis that a non-native speaker is involved in the interference of L1 in L2 during his verbal communication. It is basically the sound pattern and stress perception of L1 that the speakers utilize while speaking L2. For instance, the word “know” (L2) when spoken by a Punjabi student as “now”. It can be seen that in this example the word “know” is replaced by another word of English “now”. The two words carry quite different meanings from each other. The speaker here is following the stress pattern of his own Panjabi language unconsciously. He prolongs “know” and pronounces it as “NAAOW”. Here the student follows the structure and pattern that he is unconsciously familiar with because of being a native speaker. Other words of Punjabi that resemble the similar pronunciation pattern include Jaooo (go), Aooo, (come), khao (eat), and paoo (throw), etc. This indicates the students adopt a structure from his mother tongue and uses it in his daily conversation of Punjabi language. For such students learning a second language becomes hectic, as they remain unaware of the regulations that English lexical items carry.

The native Punjabi speaker replaces Know [nau] word with NAAOW [naaow]. The transcription of both “know” and “naaow” shows that the student utilizes the phonetic rules from his own language and therefore increases the stress pattern that glides from [n]
to[au] and therefore has only secondary stress. On the other hand, while analyzing the stress pattern it becomes obvious that stress increases from initial consonant to the triphthongs that even does not exist in the English language. A triphthong consists of a “vowel sound in which the tongue changes position to produce the sound of three vowels (Cambridge/triphthong, 2020). Therefore a triphthong is a combination of vowel sounds.

“There are three triphthongs that are generally agreed upon in American English: /aoʊ/ (“ah-oo-uh”), /aɪə/ (“ah-ih-uh”), and /jʊə/ (“ee-oo-uh”) (freedictionary/triphthong, 2020). This highlights the fact that Punjabi speakers not only change the word altogether but also create a new stress pattern that changes from initial consonant to the middle syllable. The selected example testifies that mother tongue L1 has strong impact upon phonemes of target language L2. Such students follow this pattern regularly and it is not easy to uproot this issue. In English pronunciation changes from phones to syllables and morphemes as a result change as well. In English each word follows its own fixed pattern whereas Punjabi speakers follow a rhythmic pattern to carries some general rules. This fact is obvious from examples similar to Punjabi words. Thus while teaching L2 the instructors should pay attention to these phonological differences of languages.

The other examples include the following words: through, town, form, bear, space, etc. All these words are examples of such English words which when pronounced by Punjabi speakers, change the sound as well as the meanings of the words. The word “through” is pronounced as “ThrOw”. Here the change in stress pattern has given birth to a new word and the speaker is unaware of this phenomenon. The word “town” [təʊn] is spoken as “tone” təʊn. Thus the phonetic transcription of both these word indicates that Punjabi speaker changes the word into a new word while speaking. In this case the speaker changes vowel sound into showa sound and coverts town into tone. These Punjabi speakers carry the pattern from their mother tongue. In this pattern these Punjabi speakers speak phone, lone, bone etc. thus by following the same pattern of other words the speaker also changes vowels in diphthongs from aʊn, aʊn. These examples highlight the strong role that vowel shift plays while speaking.

The case of [s] sound is very interesting for Punjabi speakers. While using [s] sound at the start of the word Punjabi speakers bring types of variations. In these one is when the word “space” is pronounced as “pace” where [s] has lost its voice. While
speaking space [speis] they say [peis]. It shows Punjabi speakers tend to avoid speaking [s]. Another similar word starting with [s], “station” is spoken in a similar pattern. Speakers drop the starting [s] and pronounce it as tation [teʃn].

The word “bear” sounds “BAAER”(Bare) and the word “space” is pronounced as “pace” where ‘S’ has lost its voice. Above mentioned words indicate the change in meaning due to change in pronunciation. The resource person during their interaction with students observed that Punjabi students made these mistakes unknowingly. Since the resource person was aware of the fact that learners stress perception of L1 is causing an interference in L2. The researchers emphasized that when L2 learners make such mistakes in front of a listener whose stress pattern as well as stress perception is according to the standard English language, can be misled. it can take the listener to a confused state of mind that what is actually meant by the speaker. If we take example of the word “town”, pronounced as “tone”, shows that the meaning of the word “town” is a built-up area which has defined boundaries, smaller than a city. Whereas the word “tone” refers to a vocal sound characterizing its pitch sound and power etc.

Similarly Punjabi speakers mispronounce other words where [s] occurs at the start that includes words like space, station and school. In these words, stress pattern falls on the second letter and initial [s] is pronounced with a very light sound. Phonetic transcription for these words would be space [speɪs]. Station [ˈsteɪʃn], school [skuːl] whereas the same work words after mispronunciation change completely. The researchers found the native Punjabi speakers speaking these words with following mispronunciation space [sapɛs], station [satɪʃn] school [skuːl]. This indicates the fact that mispronunciation leads Punjabi students to utter words in the manners that they unconsciously carry from their native language and therefore, these words change the meaning and pronunciation altogether.

**Conclusion**

The study aims to examine the ways that Punjabi speakers use while speaking the target language L2. The researchers found out that Punjabi speakers have the tendency to speak English word on the pattern of Punjabi expression that they are familiar with because of Punjabi being their mother tongue. Most of the problems that Punjabi speakers
appear to indicate through their speaking turn out to be of vowel pronunciation. Punjabi speakers carry vowel and stress patterns of Punjabi language and that is why the words appear to be totally different than the speakers intend to pronounce. One such example is pronunciation of know as now, that shows the words are not only mispronounced but also changed the meanings too. The researchers of this study suggest that such students should be taught the different set of vowels that both these languages carry and special attention needs to be paid to the pronunciation of these university students.

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https://www.thefreedictionary.com/Triphthongs.htm#:~:text=Very%20rarely%2C%20the%20nucleus%20of%2Doo%2Duh%2E2%80%9D)


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The Role of Social Media in Creating Social Awareness of COVID-19 Pandemic in Saudi Arabia: An Empirical Study

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he has examined a number of dissertations and theses. He is also both a Head and a member of many academic Committees at both the University and *Ministry* levels. With a keen interest in the intricacies of the literature of both Arabic and English, he tries in his research work to find a meeting point in both literatures, in the interest of scholars in this fertile area of research. Dr. Alfauzan has also published widely in journals of great fame and name some of which are Scopus-indexed.

**Abstract**

The world is facing serious medical emergency in the form of COVID-19, and World Health Organization (WHO) termed this viral disease as pandemic. The Covid-19 pandemic has spread across 188 countries, and around 8.4 million people have already contracted the virus, which has resulted in the death of more than 697,000 persons as of 4th August 2020; and 281,435 people of Saudi Arabia have already been tested positive while 3020 persons have died. In today’s world of technology and internet, nevertheless, the social media plays a vital role in the dissemination of information, making possible the interaction among large section, thus creating awareness among the public. Such a role has become particularly evident in the crisis-beset situation into which the pandemic has squeezed the entire world. Yet, research shows that the social media may be a tool of public misinformation. In this context, the present paper is an empirical study, which explores the role potentially played by the social media in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). The study uses a quantitative methodology to the analysis of the data, which were obtained through a questionnaire distributed among the students of the English Language at Qassim University. The results of the study show that, the social media have been very effective in creating awareness among the public in the KSA. The study, therefore, bears relevance to the ways the KSA authorities tackle abrupt challenges, in particular the ongoing crisis of the Covid-19 pandemic.

**Introduction**

Covid-19 is a highly contagious viral disease caused by Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2). The virus was first reported in November 2019 in Wuhan, the capital city of Hubei province of China. Initially covid-19 was confined to
China, but in January 2020 the virus spread to many countries so much so that the World Health Organization (WHO) declared Covid-19 a global pandemic on January 30, 2020. According to the Wikipedia, the Covid-19 has spread across 188 countries, and 8.4 million people have been reported to have contracted the virus, resulting in the death of more than 697,000 persons and counting as of 4th August 2020. In the KSA, 281,435 cases of Covid-19 have been reported, and 3020 persons have died and counting as per Wikipedia as of August 04, 2020. So far WHO and the medical fraternity has suggested only non-medical measures like wearing masks and social distancing to prevent the transmission of the virus. As a consequence, it was imperative that, awareness about Covid-19 was disseminated quickly to the public at large. In the present times, there are media available to disseminate information almost on instant basis like broadcasting and social media blogs such as WhatsApp, Facebook, Snapchat, Twitter, TikTok, and so on. The social media was considered an important medium for creating awareness among people even during the previous epidemic outbreaks like Zika and Ebola (Househ, 2016). Likewise, in the COVID-19 pandemic, people have used the social media to acquire information about various aspects of the disease, and also about their health (Li, et al., 2020). With the increasing popularity of the social media, these networks have become important tools of social relationships and information dissemination (Gu, Wang, and Yin, 2019). In the present time of the Covid-19 pandemic, the governments can use the social media to promote awareness among the public about the need to adhere to “social distancing” and “stay at home” (Kayes, et al., 2020). The social media can also be extremely useful in predicting the numbers, and identifying potentially high-risk locations; and, in this way, the governments can be in positions for the intervention (Qin, et al., 2020). The social media is a double-edged tool, however. It may have an adverse effect on society in the sense that, it may cause fear and panic among people (Nayar, et al., 2020). To illustrate this point, platforms such as Twitter, Instagram, and Facebook allow the dissemination of any kind of information, be it rumour or disinformation; and, thus, it can manipulate human behaviour (Burnap, et al., 2014; Zarocostas, 2020). Consequently, WHO took note of the severity and enormity of disinformation about Covid-19 on the social media, and suggested a new term “infodemic” (Zarocostas, 2020). Infodemic, as has been established now, negatively affects the psychology and demeanor
of individuals (Sharot and Sunstein, 2020). This is mainly because, the panic created by the social media can spread faster than the COVID (Depoux, et al., 2020). The present study, thereupon, is an endeavour to examine the role played by the social media in creating public awareness about COVID-19 in the context of the KSA. It is formulated and administered in the form of a case study on students of the English Language at Qassim University. In what follows, however, we try to understand what social media is in the present times, and how it is different from earlier means of communication such as the telephone and telegram.

English Language at Qassim University needs to be oriented on the role of Social Media in Creating Social Awareness of COVID-19 Pandemic in Saudi Arabia. Their communicative abilities may have cascading effects on the role of language for specific purposes which is culture-specific aspects of turn-taking, interaction and discourse (Almakrob & Al-Ahdal, 2020; Al-Ahdal, 2020; Alkhudiry & Al-Ahdal, 2020; Almansour & Al-Ahdal, 2020). Hence, this study needs to be performed.

Social Media in a Nutshell

In conventional terms, the social media brings people together without the barriers of caste, color, creed, religion, or nationality. But in the present times, to define the social media only with its ability to bring people together has been rejected by scholars. In contemporary terms, the social media is an application on internet that builds on the foundations of Web 2.0 technology, which allows users to create and exchange the content (Kaplan et al., 2010). Unlike Web 1.0 websites, which allowed people to only view the content, Web 2.0 websites are interactive platforms, where a virtual community can create and share content. Ventola (2014) suggested that, the definition of the social media is constantly evolving. The social media generally refers to the tools based on internet, which allow individuals and societies to communicate, to share and exchange information and images, and in some cases to interact with others in real time. Jonathan and Wildman (2015) reviewed the relevant literature, and identified the following four common features of the social media:

1. Social media are applications based on Web 2.0.
2. Content generated by users is the lifeline of the social media.
3. Social media companies design and maintain the platform, where users create their profiles specific to the platform.
4. Social media help in the creation of online community. Some of the popular social media sites are Facebook, WhatsApp, You Tube, and Twitter.

**Social Media in KSA**

The KSA is currently undergoing rapid social transformations due to wealth created by its oil, and the vision and commitment of the government. It has led to the adoption of technology by large sections of the Saudi society; and, today, technology is an indispensable part of the Saudi people. The interest of the Saudi people in the social media has grown manifold, and its impact on their daily life too has increased by leaps and bounds. According to the data published on the website of the Ministry of Communications and Information Technology, the number of users of the social media has doubled in the KSA during the recent past, and its number today is 18.3 million, which is 58% of the population of the country. Smartphone is the most used device to sign into the social media sites; and, on an average, a Saudi person spends 260 minutes per day on the media platforms using smart-phones. WhatsApp and Facebook are the most used social media platforms, 22% for WhatsApp and 21% in case of Facebook. Snapchat is another very popular platform for Saudis. The KSA is ranked the first among Arab countries, and the second in the world as far as the use of Snapchat is concerned. Facebook has 11 million users, and Twitter has 9 million users in the KSA. You tube, too, has gained popularity with 7 million users.

**Significance of the Study**

The social media has become an integral part of society world over and it is all the more true in case of the KSA. The statistics show that the social media users have doubled in the recent past in KSA. Saudi Arabia's Internet penetration is 93% as of January 2020. In January 2020, there are 25 million social media consumers in Saudi Arabia. Around April 2019 and January 2020, the number of social network users in Saudi Arabia rose by 2 million. In Saudi Arabia, social network coverage is 72 per cent in
January 2020. The chart below illustrates Saudis’ usage of different social networking sites.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social Media</th>
<th>Usage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Youtube</td>
<td>76%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whatsapp</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instagram</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facebook</td>
<td>62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twitter</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snapchat</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FB messenger</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tik Tok</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linkedin</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pintrest</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skype</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wechat</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vber</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Twitch</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tumblr</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The social media, by its very nature, is a quick and an effective way of communication. It is a great medium for the dissemination of information, and creating awareness; however, it is equally powerful in case of misinformation. It is rightly said that, information travels faster on the social media than the Covid-19 virus. The present study is to evaluate the role of the social media in creating awareness among the people of the KSA about the pandemic Covid-19. It assumes all the more significance as the only measures suggested by experts and WHO for its prevention are non-medical i.e. hand wash, mask and social distancing. The results of the study shall highlight the extent to which the social media has been useful in creating awareness about Covid-19. The results of the study are also likely to be of help to governments and authorities in better understanding the role of social media in dissemination of information in crisis situations like Covid-19.

**Research Objectives**

This proposed study attempts to address the dissemination of COVID-19 information with a comprehensive Twitter, Instagram, YouTube, Reddit and Gab data
analysis. We would examine the involvement and engagement in the COVID-19 subject and include a different evaluation on the global nature of the dialogue for each forum and its users. For example, in China during the massive community-wide quarantine it is particularly important to use social media wisely as social media provide an opportunity to communicate the reasons for quarantine, provide reassurance and practical advice to pre-empt rumours and panic. Digital technologies can overcome the social distancing constraints during mass quarantine, and provide mental health support resources and solidarity with those persons in a lock-down situation. A well-planned analysis of global online conversations could provide a rapid assessment of the spread and possible changes in public attitudes and behaviours (e.g. self-isolating, handwashing, accessing health care), awareness about the disease and its symptoms, and the impact of important decisions taken during the outbreak (e.g. quarantine measures, development of new vaccines, internationally coordinated responses) on public perceptions and attitudes.

**Research Questions**

COVID-19 has created a mammoth and unprecedented medical emergency at the global level, including the KSA. The present study is an attempt to examine the effectiveness of the social media in dissemination of information, and creating awareness about Covid-19 and also the perception of the people of the KSA about the social media. It specifically aims to seek answers to the following questions:

1. What are the popular social media platforms used by the people of the KSA during this period of COVID-19 Pandemic?
2. What is the level of awareness of the respondents on different aspects of COVID-19 Pandemic and its prevention?
3. How do the people of KSA perceive the social media?

**Research methodology**

We have used quantitative methodology for the analysis of data. Data was collected on the basis of a questionnaire on the essential aspects of the study through an online survey. The questionnaire was validated by language and communication experts. The students of English as a Foreign Language program at Qassim University were
randomly chosen for collection of data, and 15 responses were received. The students were assured that, the information provided by them shall be used only for the purpose of present study and its privacy shall be ensured.

**Review of Literature**

Lisa Singh et al. (2020) analyzed the sharing behavior of information and misinformation by the users on Twitter during Covid-19 for the period from 16th January, 2020 to 15th March, 2020. During this period the overall number of tweets were 2,792,513 out of which quotes were 456,878 and retweets were 18,168,161. It was found that, both the tweets and retweets volume increased as the pandemic unfolded, and it was expected. They observed that, the increase in volume of tweets was not the result of any single event rather the days of peak volume could be mapped to series of happenings. The analysis of data led them to make following observations. First, there is high correlation between COVID-19 cases and the volume of conversation about the disease on Twitter. Second, volume is much more from the countries, that have been hit hard by the COVID-19, suggesting that information sharing, and discussion are greatest among those who are impacted. Three, tweets from reliable health sources like WHO and CDC were shared less than was expected (14,485 original tweets and 0.4% of individuals did so). Besides, sources, which could be labeled as generators of misinformation, were also not shared in great numbers (only 11,654 original tweets). They found that, traffic of credible information was almost the same as of misinformation. Fourth, they studied ten common myths regarding COVID-19, and found that, those account for fraction of the content on twitter. Zhao et al. 2020 studied the role of the social media in general and of Sina Microblog in particular. Sina Microblog is one of the most used social media sites. The authors analysed the list of hot searches from 31st December, 2019 to 20th February, 2020 to point out the nature of public attention given to various aspects related to covid-19 pandemic. This study found that it the Sina microblog was of March help in disseminating information about the covid-19 pandemic and it also received good public attention on the blog. They observed that, the social media platforms are useful to measure public response health emergencies. The findings may be used by the government and health workers to address the concerns of the general public, and specific information
may also be used to target measures for prevention and control of epidemics like Covid-19. Merchant and Lurie argue that, the present-day social media has deep penetration, wide reach, and incredible speed. According to them, the optimal potential of the social media to support and help in the preparedness of emergencies like Covid-19 has not been well understood. They have outlined framework in which the social media can play an important and critical role in managing pandemics like Covid-19. Social media platforms should be used to direct the users to trusted sources of information and to counteract infodemic. Gottlieb and Dyer have analyzed the social media both from information and disinformation points of view during Covid 19 in the context of health providers. The social media is an effective tool for dissemination of information and its application. It also allows debate on real time basis like in case of controversial studies of remdesivir and hydroxychloroquine. The social media allows health experts to reach millions of people in no time. They quote examples of Dr Esther Choo, who has 113,000 followers, Dr Megan Ranney with 36,000 followers and Jeremy Faust also with 36,000 followers. The social media can help in identifying surges, which shall allow healthcare providers to take preventive measures in time. They also point out limitations and disinformation on the social media in the present context. The massive volume of information on the social media makes it difficult to distinguish between false and relevant information. Undisclosed conflict of interest by physician bloggers can particular be problematic.

Prince of Wales Hospital in Hong Kong developed an infographic on Airway management in the context of Covid-19. The infographic was disseminated on WeChat and Twitter. The dissemination was so effective and rapid that in 10 days infographic was translated into traditional Chinese comma German, French Italian Portuguese comma Turkish polish Serbian comma Parsi E, and Japanese (Chan et al., 2020)

The WHO gave a new word to the ongoing misinformation about COVID-19 on the social media as “infodemic” because of its huge impact. Corona virus has been termed as the first infodemic, because of spread of information and misinformation about it worldwide which is leading to fear, panic and anxiety among people (Hao K, Basu 2020). Muwahed (2020) claims that, in the present times of the social media the spread of anxiety about COVID-19 is faster than the virus and it results in panic among the people worldwide. Brewer (2020) points out broadcasting of lot of news and information about
COVID-19, has created panic and caused anxiety among people. Loads of information is causing damage to the mental health of the people. Similarly, Rothschild and Fischer (2020) stress upon the negative side of the social media in the sense that, during this period of COVID-19 more panic and fear has engulfed its users because of misinformation available on the social media. Emmott (2020) alleges that, according to a European Union document, Russia has launched a “significant disinformation campaign” about COVID-19 to create fear and panic among the people of Western countries. Hernandez (2020) points out that, the panic created by misinformation on the social media during this period of COVID-19 led to people going for buying spree of grocery and even toilet paper. Similarly, Dillon (2020) states that, the social media has no national barriers. Posts and images of panic buying in some countries during COVID-19 pandemic can influence the behavior of people of various other countries, which may lead to further spread of panic. The Star (2020), a newspaper, held the social media accountable for panic and fear during this time of corona disease. This realization led some social media companies to be vigilant, and proactively remove unwanted posts on their platform. Devlin (2020) points out that, how images and posts showing empty shops on the social media created panic among people related to food and other eatable shortages. Gold H (2020) warns that, inaccurate information circulating on social media platforms about the causes and spread of COVID-19 shall have an adverse impact on the health of the people and their mental health as well.

El-Terk (2020) argues that, the social media has made everyone an expert nowadays, because it allows everyone to post any message about any aspect of COVID-19, including its prevention and cure. Garrett (2020) blames the users of the social media for creating atmosphere of fear about COVID-19 as misinformation and panic-inducing information is posted and circulated by the users. Mian and Khan (2020) point out that, lots of fake news and misinformation has been posted, and circulated about COVID-19 on the social media like the origin of the virus in a lab.
Literature related to KSA/Arab world

Saggaf et al (2015) analyzed social media posts during two natural disasters in the KSA. A qualitative thematic analysis using concepts from public sphere, online public sphere and previous studies of social media was used, with 5000 threads were taken from Facebook, YouTube, Al Arabiya and Al-Siyasia. It was found that, the social media was useful in communicating the extent of the damage due to floods; discussing the causes and people responsible and even criticize the government. On the negative side, governments may take social media as unnecessary pressure on them and on the positive side the social media may be used to understand the emotional state of its masses, and to respond accordingly.

Askool (2012) investigated behavior and attitude of Saudis towards the use of the social media. People of Saudi Arabia are using social media extensively for interaction among friends, family members, and sometimes for business and work. The study concluded that, the social media is a useful tool to create relationships both for social and business purposes.

Alanzi and Al-Habib (2020) investigated the role of social media for the purpose of health care education. They found that, a large number of healthcare personnel in the KSA used social media for imparting education and that YouTube was the most preferred platform. The study concluded that, the social media has the potential to help in improving the healthcare education in the KSA.

Fatima Haouari et al (2020) analysed data from ArCOV-19 which is an Arabic Twitter dataset of COVID-19 that is available for the period from January 27, 2020 to March 31, 2020. It is the first twitter data which is publicly-available and covers COVID-19 pandemic. ArCOV-19 includes around 748,000 popular tweets. Their study found that, ArCOV-19 captured volume and frequency of country-specific tweets, which are directly related to the first case of COVID-19 reported in the Arab countries. They found that, news agencies were among the top tweeters, and their URLs were among the top shared ones.

The 10 most frequently used words belonged to two different categories. One, those directly related to Corona virus e.g. health and other, those words that are related to prayer like Allah / God. The data showed that, the word “Allah” was very frequently used.
in the beginning when the virus had started to spread, then, it declined with time only to again become frequent when the virus started spreading rampantly in the Arab world.
Sarah Alqurashi et al (2020) made an attempt to find super spreaders of information about COVID-19 on Arabic Twitter. They used dataset containing around 4,514,136 tweets for the period from 1st January, 2020 to 30th April, 2020. They found that, most of the super spreader accounts belonged to media / news agencies followed by accounts from ministries in the KSA.

Ibrahim et al (2020) examined the data of most frequent words posted on Twitter from March 22, 2020 to March 30, 2020. They concluded that, the knowledge of the dynamics behind social media is likely to be helpful in effective communication in the time of crisis like COVID-19, and also that governments and health departments can use it to better appreciate the psychology of the public, which shall help them to better manage the panic and crisis.

Alsudias et al (2020) analysed Arabic tweets to find out the most topics discussed among people during COVID-19, to identify and detect the rumors about COVID-19, and to predict their sources. According to their study, roughly 60% of the rumor-oriented tweets were falsely classified as posted by health professional, and there is a need to counter such fake tweets.

Dupoux et al. (2020) researched on the panic social network of the COVID-19 outbreak. They concluded that, because of the current crisis in COVID-19, they are calling for a system for real-time exchanges of information using data and observations from different social networking networks in several languages and the diaspora's climate. It will strengthen the ability of public health authorities and stakeholders to identify and appreciate the social patterns, that spread awareness and uncertainty on the coronavirus and the quickly evolving infection and prevention strategies, which reduces community stress and unnecessary weak activities.

Thus, Thelwall and Thelwall (2020) analyzed 3,038,026 English tweets on the COVID-19 from 10 to March 23 2020. It reflects on one element of the mainstream reaction: class inequalities. The results suggest that, people in families, socioeconomic disparities and community systems tweet more about the infection. In comparison, people talk more about sporting termination, the propagation of the epidemic worldwide and
international reactions. Females, therefore, appear to have an unfair aspect of the duty to protect the nation actively. Detailed reports will help to increase public consciousness and to identify the transmission of the virus.

In the background of the COVID-19 Vietnam Epidemic, La et al. (2020) studied financial, social media and science journalism responses in Vietnam. It provides many nations with valuable lessons in the war against the COVID-19 pandemic by promoting sincere collaboration between states, civil society and private citizens. The initial announcement of strides achieved in the government and media crisis, along with new research on the Vietnamese scientific community's latest virus, assisted reliable news sources. The case study offers useful guidance to other countries not only in the simultaneous battle against the COVID-19 pandemic but also on the general response to public health problems, emphasizing that policy, civil society and private people are working together actively and honestly.

Consequently, Gao et al. (2020) researched on the Chinese mental health problems and encounters of social networking in China during the COVI-19 outbreak. The findings suggest that, mental wellbeing problems are significantly impacted by SMEs during the OVID-19 epidemic. The Government must focus more on mental wellbeing problems, in particular depression and anxiety in the general population, and counter "infodemics" during public health emergencies. Allawi et al. studied the role of the social media to support health communication in a health crisis. They found that, Twitter was the dominant social medium tool in health communications and found the negative side of the social media as misinformation was spread during a health crisis. The impact of the social media in the lives of Saudi people has increased tremendously due to the large scale of digitization.

The participants

We know that social media has assumed a prominent place in the lives of people of Saudi Arabia and as per the latest official figures there are 18.3million users of social media in KSA. It is important to know what role social media has played in the present crisis of COVID-19 in creating awareness about it. The current study was undertaken with 60 first year undergraduate students of EFL program of Qassim University. The
median age of the group fell at 19.2 years, all respondents were male and electronic mode was used to gather the data.

**Analysis of Data and Discussion**

We know that the social media has assumed a prominent place in the lives of people in the KSA; and that as per the latest official figures, there are 18.3million users of social media in KSA. It is important to know what role the social media has played in the present crisis of COVID-19 in creating awareness about it. We asked the students of EFL program of Qassim University the following question:

From where did you learn about Covid 19? The respondents were asked to choose among the options: my parents, social media, and government propaganda.

![Fig. 01](image_url)

80% of the respondent students stated that, they learnt about Covid-19 from the social media, a small percentage of 13.3% learnt from their parents, and only 6.7% stated about Government propaganda. It is clear that, the social media is very popular among students in the KSA, and that the social media has played an important role in communication during Covid-19.

What kind of role has been played by the social media in creating awareness about Covid-19? To understand the kind of information provided by the social media we made an attempt to study the knowledge of students about the facts of Covid-19.

Students were asked the following questions:

- Are all age groups equally affected by Covid 19?
- How does the Covid 19 virus spread?
What is the incubation period for this virus?
Why has the disease been called a ‘pandemic’?
How can you prevent the spread of Covid 19?

Figures 02, 03, 04, 05 and 06 are the graphic representations of the above questions respectively.

FIG. 02

The level of awareness among the students as to Covid attacks people with low immunity was found to be very high i.e. 86.7% of the respondents. Similarly, as to the spread of the virus, 93.3% of the respondents answered it rightly.
Students were also asked about the incubation period of the virus, and their responses have been tabulated in Fig 04. Fig 05 is a graphic representation of the responses as to why the Covid-19 has been called Pandemic by the WHO. 73.3% of the respondent students know that, the virus has spread around the globe, and this is the reason that it has been declared as pandemic.

As to mask and social distancing are the measures required to prevent the spread of the virus has been perfectly displayed by the respondents. How do students rate the social media as far as reliability is concerned? And how prudently do they use the social media? To understand the students behaviour, the
following questions were asked:

Which source of information do you think is most reliable for information on Covid 19? (fig 07)
Did you verify the Covid 19 information you came across on the social media? (fig 08)

The social media is not only popular among the students in the KSA, but is also reliable. 53.3% of the respondents have rated the social media as reliable as opposed to Google, which seems to be rather unpopular. Though social media users are a large majority in the KSA, and students find it reliable; yet they seem to be circumspect in their usage of the social media. Fig 08 shows that, only 6.6% of the respondents forward the information on the social media blindly without verifying. In response to other questions, we found that, the majority of the students find WHO to be the most reliable source of information on Covid-19. Among the social media platforms, students find Twitter to be a better source of credible information than Facebook. The majority of the students would also like to participate in spreading awareness about the COVID-19.

Conclusion

COVID-19 has spread across 188 countries, and has rightly been called a pandemic. As of 4th August 2020, 281,435 cases of Covid-19 have already been reported resulting in the death of 3020 persons in the KSA. The social media is an important vehicle of communication today all over the world. The social media has become an indispensable part of the people in the KSA, and today 18.3million people are the users
of the social media. In addition, the social media has been very effective in the dissemination of information, and in creating awareness about COVID-19. 80% of the respondent students reported that, they learnt about COVID-19 through the social media as against 13.3% from parents, and 6.7% from government propaganda. The awareness promoted among respondent students about different aspects of COVID-19 like its transmission, its prevention, and so on was also found to be significantly good. Our study suggests that, the social media has played a positive role in creating awareness about COVID-19 among students. The findings of the study may be utilized by the authorities in better appreciating the importance of the social media in the lives of people in the KSA.

**Recommendations**

There is a dire need to counter the pandemic of the social media hysteria, as well as, to discuss the immediate need for improved public safety efforts in order to contain the epidemic. Throughout this context, it is essential to perform spatiotemporal discourse analysis, and to enable spatiotemporal contact and intervention strategies carried out by public health authorities to connect, or dissociate, them from the epidemiological situation. The reports, expectations, behaviors, and actions surrounding COVID-19 and monitoring mechanisms need to be quickly observed and reacted to. The implementation of the digital website and portal, that address reports and fears about the spread of coronavirus across the world in real-time, will encourage public health authorities and the related stakeholders to react immediately with a positive, engaging message in countering misinformation.

The distribution of knowledge will significantly affect people's actions and change the efficacy of government countermeasures. To this end, models for modelling the transmission of viruses aim to compensate for the collective reaction to public health initiatives and patterns of connectivity behind content use. Social media platforms like Youtube and Twitter provide direct access to unique content and can amplify rumours. Algorithms mediate and promote content creation and thereby, the distribution of data, taking into account consumer tastes and attitudes. This paradigm shift has significant consequences for the creation of collective expectations and the structuring of narratives; it affects policy-making, political discourse and public discussion, particularly in
contentious matters. In fact, online users tend to obtain information that adheres to their worldviews, ignore dissenting information and form polarized groups of shared accounts. Moreover, when polarization is intense, misinformation may proliferate rapidly. Some experiments have found that, false news and misleading data could circulate more quickly and broadly than truthful news. This influence may, therefore, be platform-specific. Indeed, the concept of fake news can be insufficient, since democratic discourse sometimes utilizes an inaccurate, or misleading, description of opposite news. This study has been significant in the sense that, it helped in analyzing the understanding of literate users of the social media about the present crisis of COVID 19 in terms of its deadly nature, prevention, and the steps taken by the kingdom. The results of this study are also likely to be useful for the authorities in knowing the difficulties, and the expectations of the people of the country.

**Limitations**

For any study to have widely applicable results, inclusion of large numbers with comparable representation of the genders is recommended. However, given the fact that student base can only be accesses remotely due to the pandemic, a relatively small sample of 60 could be zeroed in finally for inclusion as many students excused themselves from the exercise citing academic engagement as the reason. Moreover, for various reasons, only male students were contacted. Future studies should target a larger and more heterogenous base. Further, a long time was taken by the participants in reverting with the responses and there was no means to hurry them along. This is tackled well at times when contact classes are on and surveys may be carried out with greater ease on the campus.

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The Impact of Process Writing on the Language and Attitude of Pakistani English Learners

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**Abstract**

This paper discusses the cognitive and attitudinal impact of the process approach to writing as an answer to college English writing instruction problems in Pakistan. This paper investigated the effect of the process approach on students writing and anxiety. The participants in this research were first-year EFL students; a quasi-experimental method of the pretest-posttest control group was used. It took ten weeks for the quantitative testing procedures to be finished. By analyzing academic writings generated by students at the beginning and end of experimental procedures, data were obtained regarding the dimension of the writing output. The respondents ' Writing attitude has been collected using the structured anxiety check for authors. The covariance review was used to test the findings statistically. The research showed that the process approach to writing had a significant impact on writing performance and anxiety as a consequence of the longitudinal review. On the basis of this finding, it is recommended that the writing phase method be used for the documentation of EFL events.
Introduction

Written speech is a difficult language ability, for students. One reason for this difficulty is the fact that school writing activities are mainly oriented towards standardized characteristics. It is preferable to offer preference to the features of the material in the act of writing which intends to convey a message. By comparison, having bad error-related ratings just leads to frustration in learning for students (Bowcher & Zhang, 2020; Chang, 2020; Daclin et al, 2016). It would be linked to unsuccessful writing practices and missed communications in the center. Nevertheless, if written record evaluation is done as part of the drafting process, this issue may be overcome.

Given the shortcomings in these domains, the process approach characterizes not just the creativity of the learner and the act of learning, but also the comprehension of linguistic features and the specific group of conversation in which a given genre resides. A process approach, as the term implies, combines market concepts with genre theories. The interpretation not only draws on principles from genre strategies such as knowledge of context, intent to compose, certain characteristics of content, but also maintains part of process theory such as growth of skill and learner reaction. Teachers should provide in this method a situation for learners to identify intention and style of writing (a spoken or written text), field (special topic), and tenor (intended reader). Learners will use the correct writing skills with ample assistance to complete their text (Dikli, Jernifan & Bleyle, 2015). In brief, it gives learners chances to develop their unique abilities and enable them fully appreciate the characteristics of target genres (Dunsmuir et al, 2015).

Process approach to teaching English Language was promoted in opposition to the conventional product-oriented teaching method of learning, which was widely embraced which adopted by English teachers in their classroom teaching of English language, although debate exists sometimes among scholars as to whether which is more effective, process approach or product form (Yassin, Razak, & Maasum, 2019). The
debate exists primarily because the method approach to writing is not yet established and universally accepted, although some features for the methodology were discussed.

The approach to writing method considers all writing as a creative act requiring persistence and positive input. The teacher moves away from being someone who offers a writing topic to the students and presents the finished outcome for correction without any intervention in the learning phase. Vanessa Steele explains the process methodology as focusing mostly on the different activities in the classroom that help the production of language use; brainstorming, community conversation, rewriting. Haiyan and Rilong (2016) specifically state that the method approach represents the steps taken to create a piece of work, and the method writing allows for the likelihood that no text may be flawless, but that a writer may come closer to perfection by creating, updating, discussing and reworking repetitive versions of a paper. Li et al (2015) agrees that process writing evolved as a solution to the product approach by fulfilling the need to conform to the writing processes involved in writing in one's mother tongue, helping learners to express themselves better as persons.

**Writing Anxiety**

Anxiety is an emotional illness arising from the impotence felt in the predicted danger (Guo, Xu, & Liu, 2018). Jiang and Dewaele (2019) define writing anxiety as a type of anxiety linked to situations under which a person, despite having the requisite writing skills, has difficulty in the writing process. The appraisal of written material is one of the factors that triggers anxiety in writing (Yassin, & Razak, 2017; Lan et al, 2020). Writing anxiety may be conveyed internally as anger, rage and fear; or physically as numerous cramps when it is anticipated that a person should write (Lee, 2011). Rouka and Anastasiadou (2020) believe the writing consists of many components. This may be due to the complex nature of writing which contributes to anxiety through the writing process.

Alternatively, Tsunemoto and McDonough (2020) associate the writing of anxiety with the human instinct variants. Factors such as personality traits, peer expectations about their writing ability, teachers’ attitudes, student-teacher touch, classroom environment and examinations are among the triggers of writing discomfort (Karakaya &
Ülper, 2011). Abdel (2015) identified two types of anxiety in the relevant literature: anxiety whose negative effects hinder learning practices and anxiety through promoting learning. The following type of anxiety will be taught to some extent via the students' writing results. Citing Payant et al (2019) as well as Rezaei and Jafari (2014), Schroder, Moran and Moser (2018) note that the negative anxiety of writing leads to procrastination, fear, fatigue, loss of self-confidence and power, and disturbance of the process of thinking. Xiao and Wong (2014) found that reckless inspection of written material increases distrust of writing, and that this apprehension impacts students both cognitively and affectively, and through their motivation. Students with elevated anxiety scores have been found to exhibit decreased output levels usually in stress assessments (Hetthong & Teo, 2013; Woodrow, 2011). Hence, writing has been regarded as a challenging task among EFL students due to its complexity as a skill (Al-Ahdal, et al, 2017; Razak, Yassin, & Maasum, 2017; Alkhodimi, et al, 2019; Almakrob, & Al-Ahdal, 2020; Saeed, Al Ahdal, & Al Qunayeer, 2020).

Research Context and Gap

In the history of Pakistani colleges and universities, where exposure to English is typically restricted to four hours a week, students may not receive an English writing lesson. They're concerned about word usage, correct grammatical application, arrangement, and development of ideas while writing. In contrast, students have little knowledge of writing a paper that is contextually relevant and develop their creative writing skills. Unfortunately, the CET (College English Test) and College English curriculum requires that English instructors rely on grammatical laws, linguistic accuracy, and the final piece of student study rather than realistic language skills. Writing is a weak spot, due to low-level abilities, time limitations and limited motivation. To several Pakistani English teachers, teaching college English writing in Pakistan is a challenging challenge, as it requires not only good language skills among the teachers themselves, but also professional writing instruction.

A small number of studies have been conducted in Pakistan about the method writing approach. Studies by Han and Hyland (2015) suggested that this approach affects advancements in literature by intermediate-level students learning Pakistani as a foreign
language. Studies by Yang et al, 2015) found that process writing technique has a major impact on first year Turkish language teaching the students ' learning success and research attitudes. Evidence has found that language instruction of students ' negative attitudes to writing decreased in process learning by teacher appraisal, peer review, and self-evaluation (Liu & Ni, 2015; Li & Lin, 2016; Al-Ahdal, & Shariq, 2019).

**Objectives of the Study**

The challenges students face during learning exercises derive from their experiences during the teaching process. With the method to process composition, teacher-student engagement takes place through written development rehearsal. A more effective written product is then anticipated to emerge and performance will reduce anxiety in writing. The answers to the following questions discussed in the present study are expected to evaluate such hypotheses:
1. Does the process writing approach have a statistically significant effect on writing success?
2. Does the process writing approach have a statistically significant effect on writing anxiety?

**Methodology**

**Research Design, Sampling and Procedure**

The study method is a quasi-experimental system of the pretest-posttest control category. The explanation for the quasi-experimental study design is that random allocations were rendered to the participants in the experimental community and the control group (George et al, 2017). Both experiments concerning the dimensions of academic writing were carried out in the experimental community using the process writing technique, whereas the control group was using the conventional form. The researcher had applied all of the experimental protocols in this report. The study's respondents were the graduates of EFL who were pursuing language education at a Pakistani universities. The number of participants reached 74. Of these groups, 38 (24 women and 14 men) formed the research group while 36 students (25 women and 11 men) constituted the control group. Because at the beginning of the study the
Experimental and control groups had comparable levels of anxiety and success in writing, they were determined by ton.

Research Measures

Data was gathered on two instruments. This was the Literary Fear Review (1975), by Daly and Miller. The alpha-coefficient of Cronbach's updated scale was calculated to be 0.901. The reliability factor has been applied to graduates of high school. In a reliability check of the same scale for university students Cronbach's alpha coefficient was then calculated to be 0.938. For this study the Writing Apprehension Scale was then considered a valid and reliable indicator. The data collected for anxiety were analyzed using a statistical method. For a 5-point Likert scale of 26 items, the outcomes from the negative statements were reversed, and the combined performance for each category was calculated separately. Writing pain levels for the analysis and control groups were described in detail. Changes in community written anxiety was measured through theoretical methods. Writing Anxiety Measure's average ranking indicates discomfort at learning. Higher results in this method of greater writing anxiety are often helpful.

The second instrument of data collection was the students' study, which was required to compose scholarly papers in the sense of the participants. To evaluate the success level of the written language, at the beginning and end of the experimental protocols, participants were expected to write a theoretical paper on one of these topics. The themes were chosen from different areas, taking into consideration the unique differences between the participants. Moreover, only concepts were addressed, rather than comments limiting the essay text. None of these topics included "communication problems between people," "the effect of a life mission on quality of life" and "inappropriate urbanization." This subject was characterized by the analysis of academic writing in literature and expert opinion. The reason for this review was that in certain situations the issue to be dealt with in an academic article would be limited to the flawed argument. Two language specialists had analyzed the outputs. The parts of the organization segment included the inclusion of an introduction, body, and end; the usage in the presentation of a thesis statement; the definition of the topics to be covered in the thesis statement; the existence of subject sentences at the beginning of paragraphs
representing the issue to be addressed; and relation in the end of the thesis statement. The material components were the inclusion of a particular main concept in the essay; the reasons supporting the main idea, the lack of repetitive detail, the appropriateness of the narrative methodology for the subject, and a title representing the text. The subpoints for word collection were to prevent vague terms, improper usage of synonyms and slang for scholarly writing; use of a broad vocabulary; and successful use of terms for speech. The subpoints for the usage of language included the use of an analytical style; the establishment of logical and textual relations between sentences; the establishment of correct links between concepts by conjunctions; the use of successful communication tools such as exemplification, logical deduction, and comparison to study results; and the maintaining consistency in the text. The cumulative score given to the related paper according to such parameters was the average. The consensus rate between the assessments of the two professionals was 89 percent for the pretest, and 91 percent for the posttest.

**Procedures**

The experimental protocols took 10 weeks to finish. During the beginning of the study the Writing Apprehension Test was issued to the analysis and control classes. The test took about 30 minutes to finish. Instead, both classes were required to compose an article on education. Three topics were given for this reason, and the participants were told to select one and compose an essay. The required preparation for the experiments to be carried out for the experimental group was undertaken before the start of the experimental procedures. Some of the activities was to provide experimental group participants with knowledge regarding method writing strategies. Hence a guide was planned for the writing periods. The checklist was given in a more descriptive way, such that the writing method could be easily and reliably interpreted. Thus, in the checklist used by participants in the experimental study, the stages of preparing, translating and reviewing which shape the framework of the writing process were presented and analyzed in detail as brainstorming, organizing, drafting, editing, and proofreading. On this checklist, "Brainstorming" relates to the point of planning during which the subject is decided. Interrogative sentences showed the processes to be conducted at both of these
levels, and each question was given a rating varying from 1 to 5. For starters, questions such as "Are the theme measurements successfully explored with representatives of the group?" And "Are those people identified who should read the essay (a target audience)?" Appeared at the outset of the preparation stage as part of the brainstorming segment, a method used to decide the focus of writing. These parameters were used by audience leaders of the study group when reviewing submissions from their peers and their own. The checklist's purpose was to inform participants about what to do at what point, and how to analyze the essays of others as well as their own. Within the study group, experiments were carried out on individuals. Each party included four men. Group leaders agreed to draw up the subjects of papers, proposals and assumptions by debating them with each other, and then moved on to compose. The topics contained generic ideas that were established by brainstorming, and such topics were restricted to texts supporting a specific claim. The written texts were intended to illustrate essential features of scholarly writing such as an argument; an organisation with an outline, structure, and conclusion; and traditional usage of language. Participants had two weeks to complete the papers on particular subjects to be submitted. Some participants did, however, finish their essays sooner. Just a few participants claimed they did not make effective use of the time. The instructor directed the students through all the experimental techniques in the fields in which they needed guidance.

In the control group, lessons were performed usually in written language. Throughout the study phase, participants published one academic essay regularly. Throughout the writing cycle, the instructor and the students did not indulge extensively in conversation except for addressing the written questions. Evaluations were performed after the papers had been completed and input was then provided to the participants.

Participants in the control group were presented with an academic writing subject in each lecture, and were required to choose one of those topics and compose an essay. Particular emphasis has been paid to subjects containing a general heading and information defining the potential content of the essays. In this regard, papers on topics with identical traits were published by the control group and experimental group. The discrepancy in both classes was that the study group participants invented their own topics while the instructor had his potential topics supported by the control group participants.
The subjects included such issues as customs, alcohol, healthcare and politics. Participants were to compose a text about a related feature of the subject. For example, they will write on a particular feature of the topic of traditions (their significance, role, form, the new generation's attitude towards traditions, etc.). As in the experimental group, these texts were intended to use the traditional features of scholarly prose. Two independent evaluators evaluated them independently after the papers were finished, and input was provided to participants utilizing those assessments. The input included the general difficulties the papers had faced. During the study procedures the control group members published a scholarly dissertation every week. Throughout the writing cycle, the instructor and the students did not indulge extensively in conversation except for addressing the written questions. Evaluations were performed after the essays had been completed and input was then provided to the participants.

**Data Analysis**

Single factor covariance analysis (ANCOVA) was conducted to assess if differences in writing performance and anxiety existed within the intervention and control classes. Büyüköztürk (2011) concluded that, if a system with a pretest-posttest control group prioritizes the effect of an experimental technique, the most suitable statistical method is a single factor study of covariance in which the pretest is regulated as a covariate. Data were evaluated in the present study by a single-factor covariance review by monitoring the scores that participants had obtained in the pretests.

**Results**

For the first research query, data were analyzed by means of a single factor covariance analysis (ANCOVA) to decide if the pretest-posttest scores of the participants on their academic essays varied substantially by category. Accordingly, the mean performance of the experimental group participants was determined to be 77.37 while the control group participants had an average score of 71.25. When testing the pretest results, the adjusted mean score was determined for the experimental group as 76.89, and for the control group as 71.75. However, the consistency of variances with regard to the posttest scores of groups on written speech was tested using the Levene test, and variances were
found to be comparable (F=.00; p=.998>.05). Depending on these findings, the predictions of the covariance study have been fulfilled.

For the second research problem, data were analyzed using a single factor covariance analysis (ANCOVA) to decide whether the pretest-posttest scores of the participants on the Writing Apprehension Test varied significantly by category. The mean scores were measured as 64.37 for the experimental group, and 76.17 for the control group, according to pretest-posttest findings from the Writing Apprehension Test. The modified mean score was determined as 64.00 for the experimental group, and 76.56 for the control group, while the pretest scores were monitored. In addition, the consistency of variances on the posttest of anxiety scores of the groups was tested using the Levene test, and variances were found to be similar (F=.071; p=.791>.05). Such results suggest that many of the covariance research criteria have been fulfilled.

A single covariance factor study (ANCOVA) was performed to assess whether there was a significant disparity between the modified mean scores of the groups on the attitude scale. As a consequence of the study, it was reported that there was a statistically meaningful discrepancy between the mean anxiety scores of the experimental community and control community participants on the posttest modified according to the scores of pretest anxiety (F(1,73)=19.661; p=.000). The modified averages revealed a discrepancy for the community of studies (Xexperiment=64.37; Xcontrol=76.17). However, by evaluating the modified measures (Xexperiment=64.00; Xcontrol=76.56), the test group's mean value was found to be greater than the experimental group's. A raised degree of anxiety suggests a high score on Writing Apprehension Exam. Consequently, the method writing strategy had a important effect on the reduction of writing anxiety among participants.

Discussion

One of the findings taken from this work is that the process writing approach has had a favorable and statistically important impact on writing performance. Since the method writing methodology focused on the document creation phase, all of the basic aspects of writing (Nishino and Atkinson, 2015) were strongly studied in the experiments where this methodology was applied. The experiments have observed a significant
decrease in the probability of inadequate document output at the end of the writing cycle. Another explanation for the approach's success is that written texts are tested many times in the studies which apply this approach. Because assessments are performed by students themselves, their peers, and their professors, there are less mistakes in the messages. A research performed by Nordin (2017) showed that lessons from method learning decreased the pessimistic attitudes of students on teaching. This finding could arise from the evaluation and correction of errors as soon as they appear in the writing phase.

Several researchers in this research finished their assignments ahead of others. That may be due to inconsistencies between the groups. A research undertaken by Shin, CImasko and Yi (2020) showed various individuals were wasting varying quantities of time writing articles. In addition, a large amount of change was found during the testing phase in the written language use of participants in the study sample. The assumption that dialogue is the main aim throughout the method writing phase and the students feel able to express themselves in this learning style could have contributed to more complicated sentences being used. The process approach to writing was used in Ozkul and Ortactepe (2017) research, performed with university students from various fields of study studying English, in order to enable students to use complicated sentences.

The current work showed that the method writing strategy increased the performance of written speech at the participants. Qian et al (2019) research on university students also observed that method writing practices enhance the written speech of students in terms of unity, grammaticality, rhetorical systems and substance, knowledge meaning, and creativeness. In this context, the conclusions of Qian et al (2019) agree with the study's tests. The effectiveness of the process approach is also verified by another researchers (Irwin & Liu, 2019; Yu et al, 2019; Lou & Hyland, 2019; Han & Hyland, 2019).

The existing work also showed that the process approach to writing decreased anxiety in writing to a statistically significant degree. Wright and Larsen (2016) argued that writing contributes to anxiety. The main motivation to compose fear is the concept of being measured. The thought of discussing the mistakes that would be reported in the appraisal contributes to some stress for the pupil (Berninger et al, 2017; Bingham et al, 2017; Ebadi & Rahimi, 2018). Throughout method composition, however, mistakes are
reduced throughout the document creation cycle, and the amount of anxiety reduces. The students maintain a constructive outlook about learning in this way. Research by Fareed, Ashraf & Bilal (2016) also established that writing cycle shifts the negative attitudes of students about teaching. In addition, writing anxiety has been shown to decrease in a study conducted using portfolio methodology (Fattah, 2015; Al-Ahdal, 2020), which can be called an extended type of writing method.

Writing anxiety has several subdimensions, including physical pain, verbal terror, and avoidance patterns (Lim et al, 2016) reverence, prejudice, appraisal frustration, and expressing what one reads (Murphy, 2017). These subdimensions indicate that writing regarding fear may take multiple forms and have unique origins. The present work showed that the idea of being examined in general led to anxiety within the experimental population but also diminished considerably when the study procedures were preserved. Methodological methods were used to distinguish this finding. Further reason for the effectiveness of the process writing technique in minimizing writing pain may be the probability that during the study procedures a significant amount of time was expended on writing. Study also found that writing anxiety diminished as work time grew (Wollscheid, Sjaastad, & Tømte, 2016; Wright & Larsen, 2016).

The findings of this study analysis demonstrate the benefits of a written language studies approach to writing method. Students find it safer to compose assignments than other linguistic competencies. Therefore, the obstacles to successful development of writing skills should be clearly identified and different techniques should be used to eliminate them. In this respect, process approach to writing seems to be a beneficial tool. Reading fear is also a psychological disorder which inhibits research analysis.

**Conclusion**

The research was exploring the cognitive and linguistic impact of writing method approach. The findings of this research demonstrate the benefits of writing methods in studies in written language. Students interpret activities in writing more readily than other cultural competencies. Therefore, the barriers to successful development of writing skills should be clearly identified, and different techniques should be used to eliminate them. In this regard, machine writing seems like a helpful tool. Anxiety writing is also a
psychological disorder which inhibits research analysis. Provided that the process writing technique substantially decreases this anxiety, this approach is advised to minimize learning ambiguity.

Implications

In reaction to major college English writing instruction concerns in Pakistan, three suggestions on the technique strategy for writing instruction genre are being suggested as cantered. No particular teaching writing model is offered because of various teaching contexts in Pakistani universities, but suggestions are addressed in a number of relevant aspects. Implementation of the System method requires three stages. In the pre-, teachers will help students produce ideas by brainstorming, reading content, and group conversation. Depending on the pre-ideas received, students are allowed to make a first draft and share their ideas openly. After finishing the draft, students are encouraged to review their draft independently or in peer groups. Translating the writer-reader relationship at this level helps students to be able to judge their work from an audience viewpoint. Students should be ready for their final drafts with professor and the feedback from their peers. The teaching learning cycle should enable Pakistani students recognise the levels of writing processes and understand practical language usage in conveying information.

Recommendation

Since process approach to writing substantially reduces the anxiety, this method is suggested to minimize learning confusion. The writing process approach is also extremely effective in alleviating the dimension of scriptural anxiety associated with language skills. Nevertheless, this approach does not remove the uncertainty arising from the students' personality characteristics. Further work is required to explain the distinction. Lastly, the issue of whether the methodology of writing the procedure can alter anxiety, a psychological characteristic, should be retested by long-term studies. While accomplished this study's goals, it still has a range of intrinsic drawbacks and could be dependent on potential research. Second, the analysis is restricted only to the small sample range of universities, without taking into account the range and years the
universities were founded. The findings evaluated can provide a restricting influence on the variations study. Second, a basic sample interaction analysis method has been used, reducing minimal data and variable assumptions. To triangulate the results obtained, a hybrid analysis approach utilizing two or more approaches could be more accurate. Third, in order to figure out the workers' changing workplace environment and creative job behavior, prospective experiments are urged to reproduce or apply the research framework to other manufacturing industries. Third, the study's cross-sectional characteristic restricts the researchers in defining the definite causal inferences within the variables relationships. Accordingly, follow-up experiments should strengthen and have more clear findings.

References


An Investigation on Digital and Print Reading Attitudes: Samples from Filipino Preservice Teachers from a Non-metropolitan-based University

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Abstract

Much of formal learning is realized through reading. In the present context, there now exist versions of reading – the digital- and print-based. This descriptive-quantitative-correlational investigation purposed to determine the difference between attitudes toward reading across versions, and difference in the attitudes toward types of reading between males and females. Moreover, the study also aimed to determine a significant relationship between attitudes toward reading in varied platforms, and attitudes toward reading types and the socioeconomic status of the respondents. The study enlisted 308 preservice teachers with age range of 18-25 (mean age = 22.87, standard deviation = 2.22).
cross-sectional investigation employed the classic technique of data gathering – the use of a survey tool adopted from Eijansantos, Alieto, Dela Rama-Morgia, and Dela Rama-Ricohermoso (2020). The study revealed the following results: (1) there is significant difference in the attitudes toward reading versions with attitude toward print reading reported to be better by the respondents; (2) there is no significant difference in the attitudes toward reading types across gender (male and female); (3) there is significant relationship between the attitudes toward versions of reading and the respondents’ socioeconomic status with negative and linear relationship as regards attitude toward print reading and SES, and positive and linear relationship with respect to attitude toward digital reading and SES; and, (4) there is significant, positive and linear relationship between attitudes toward reading types. Discussions are provided herein.

**Keywords:** Attitude, Digital, Print, Reading, Digital Contents

**Introduction**

It could be supposed that much of formal learning is realized through reading; hence, Rogiers, Van Keer, and Merchie (2020:2) forwarded the idea that to make learners competent readers is an ‘important educational goal.’ This claim is founded on the understanding that reading is one of the basic skills of information literacy (Mizrachi, 2015). In fact, reading is considered as the cornerstone of education upon which learning is laid (Berninger, & Richards, 2002).

Previously, reading is only limited to printed materials. However, the dawning of digital technology has made it ‘not just a matter of books and paper’ (Martinez, & Lopez-Rio, 2015:105) as it has become possible to read without taking hold of a physical book, magazine or other sorts of printout. This version of reading is performed with digital contents aided by a digital device. Thus, it could be deduced that two types of reading now exist. The modern and new type identified as digital reading, and the classic and traditional one known as print-based reading.

With this as backdrop, determining the attitudes toward the versions of reading is an interesting research endeavor considering that attitude, as an affective factor, is associated with learning achievements (Chotitham, & Wongwanich, 2014) and the
development of the different skills in reading (Nootens, et al., 2019). Moreover, Chotitham, and Wongwanich (2014) pointed out that different research investigations have confirmed that reading attitude is the most significant factor affecting reading. Noticeably, attitude towards reading is a topic extensively investigated. Some of the recent research works on the topic include the studies of Yurdakal (2019) which investigated the relationship between the attitude toward reading and the perceptions of creative reading with a sample group consisting of 319 primary students; Ulu (2019) which explored the relationships between the attitudes toward reading and reading habit, metacognitive awareness of reading strategies and critical thinking among 165 preservice teachers; Hu, Wu, Curby, Wu, and Zhang (2018), as one of the objectives of their study, probed the relationship of attitude toward reading and literacy achievement among 567 Chinese kindergarten; Nootens, et al. (2019) which gauged the reading attitudes of 469 French-speaking pupils across transitional period; Yıldız, and Kızıltas (2018) which, as one of the objectives of the study, looked into the relationship between students’ attitude toward school and attitude toward reading; and Navarrete (2018) which, utilizing an experimental design, aimed to determine a difference in attitude toward reading after subjecting 37 low performing tertiary students in an Intertextual Reading Intervention (IRI) program.

However, no investigation was carried out to determine the difference in the attitudes toward print and electronic reading with the study of Eijansantos, et al. (2020) as one of the few exceptions. It is remarked that the study was with senior high school students as opposed to this current investigation conducted with preservice teachers as sample group. The choice of the respondents of the study is influenced by the claim of Yıldız, and Kızıltas (2018) that attitude and behaviour of teachers could be imitated by students. Similarly, Brooks (2007) maintained that when teachers are active and passionate readers their students are likely to display similar behavior. This is inferred to hold true as regards reading attitude. Therefore, the need of determining attitudes of preservice teachers who would eventually be enlisted, sooner or later, as regular faculty of academic institutions come to the fore. Along this line, it is a pressing concern to determine the attitudes of would-be teachers toward two types of reading as their attitude may potentially influence those of their future students.
Hence, this study aims to add to the limited collective body of knowledge on attitude toward versions of reading among preservice teachers. Moreover, the current investigation aimed to determine whether there is significant difference in the attitudes of the respondents with respect to types of reading, whether there exists a gender divide as regards the attitudes toward versions of reading. Additionally, the study also purposed to determine whether a significant relationship exists between attitudes toward reading types, and whether a significant relationship could be drawn between the attitudes of the respondents toward reading versions and their SES.

**Literature Review**

**On Reading**

Expressions such as ‘*a basic tool of learning*’ (Erdem, 2015:3983), ‘*a lifelong skill to be used both at school and throughout life*’ (Kuşçuoğlu, 2013:709), ‘*a lifelong skill for academic learning and success in school*’ (Banditvilai, 2020:46), ‘*a cornerstone for students’ success in the college life*’ (Rahmawati, Rosmalina, & Anggrain, 2020:90), ‘*an important language skill*’ (Kuşdemir & Bulut, 2018:97), ‘*a fundamental skill that is essential for successful education*’ (Boakye, 2017:158), and ‘*a gateway to every students to learn different subjects*’ (Barred, 2019:65) are associated with reading. These underpin, in an individualistic sense, the need for one to acquire and hone the skill as gaining the ability to read has become non-negotiable - because as language is ‘*a powerful tool for communication*’ (Devanadera & Alieto, 2019:513) and important in education (Abdon, et al., 2019; Alieto, 2018; Alieto, Devanadera, & Buslon, 2019; Perez & Alieto, 2018; Saavedra, 2020a; 2020b; Somblingo & Ricohermoso, 2019) so is reading in learning. Moreover, although writing is the most preferred means for formal communication (Rillo & Alieto, 2018) and the macro skill indexing proficiency in language use (Saavedra & Barredo, 2020), reading is an indispensable part of education – it (reading) is a receptive skill essential in the academic life of students (Tendero, 2019).

Reading activity is believed to commence when one starts schooling and continues for a lifetime (Erdem, 2015). It is a means of information and knowledge acquisition (Boakye, 2017). Addedly, it is a process that begins with perceiving visible symbols (Kuşdemir & Bulut, 2018), and concludes with comprehension (Tavakoli &
Hayati, 2011 in Buslon & Alieto, 2019; Kuşdemir & Bulut, 2018). Reading entails a throng of processes such as ‘word recognition, finding the main idea, understanding the details, recognizing the structure of the text and predicting the idea of the author, grasping the importance of the ideas in the text...’ (Kuşdemir & Bulut, 2018:12). Additional to the list are the processes like inferring meaning of unfamiliar words (Buslon & Alieto, 2019), employment of experience (Gatcho & Hajan, 2019), utilization of strategies like skimming, scanning, and prediction (Wallace, 2007 cited in Roomy & Alhawsawi, 2019). Deductively, reading is a complex task to perform (Chaudhry & Al-Adwan, 2019; Miller & Schwanenflugel, 2006).

On another note, St Clair-Thompson, Graham, and Marsham (2017) noted, as surveyed through the literature, that there is sparsity of reading among learners today. To put it in another way, students do not frequently read. Relative to this, Chaudhry and Al-Adwan (2019) reported that reading is not popular among students. This is supposed to be true among ESL and EFL readers who were reported to claim reading as a frustrating activity (Rahmawati, et al., 2020). Against this, it is imperative to identify the attitudes toward reading types of pre-service teachers who would soon likely be at the grassroots level of the educational system (Torres & Alieto, 2019a; Torres, 2019; Torres & Medriano, 2020), and would be influential especially with regard to their future students.

**On Digital Reading**

Electronic reading is a modern means of associating symbols, signs and letters with meaning performed through screened gadgets. This practice was not possible prior to the coming of technology which birthed modern-day devices such as but not limited to personal computers, laptops and smartphones. As technology use expands, computers have become a common resource in schools (Gil-Flores, Torres-Gordillo, & Perera-Rodriguez, 2012; Dundar & Akcayir, 2012), reading practice has been altered (Liu, 2012; Ramdarshan Bold & Wagstaff, 2017) and revolutionized (Benedetto, et al., 2014). Despite being a relatively new version of reading (Lim & Jung, 2019), Støle, Mangen, and Schwippert (2020) claimed that, in most cases, print reading has been replaced with digital reading. This is especially true in the context of educational settings as on-screen reading is steadily becoming a prevalent practice.
This is evidenced by the move of university libraries to shift from the use of print materials to electronic ones (Dundar & Akcayir, 2012), the steady climb in the percentage of people owning e-reading device (Rainie & Duggan, 2012 in Ramdarshan Bold & Wagstaff, 2017), and the obvious and consistent growth of digital contents (Chen & Chen, 2014). People who cannot access these electronic resources are boxed out from essential information and understanding (Naumann, 2017). Inevitably, digital reading is becoming a must-do practice. Liu (2012) observed that screen reading is turning into an everyday practice, and that learners are becoming proficient at it. Through inference, in this contemporary time, students are required to gain a skill previously not demanded – the ability to access electronic materials (Lim & Jhung, 2019). Digital reading then is the version that is associated with ICT knowledge and skill (Costa & Araújo, 2016). Lim, and Jhung (2019) claimed that attitude toward digital reading is influenced by ICT related variables such as attitude toward computer use and ICT ability.

Although both versions of reading share certain commonalities such as both involve cognitive processes like decoding and interpreting nuances of language (Lim & Jhung, 2019), digital reading has its share of unique features. Digital reading provides affordances not found in text-based reading (Sullivan & Puntambekar, 2015). One of which is that digital texts could be hyperlinked which facilitates navigation and organization of contents. It must be remarked along this line that such is not always a good thing. Carr (2010) claimed that this results in shallow reading. Similarly, Hahnel, Goldhammer, Kröhne, and Naumann (2017) explained that such happens because the non-linear presentation of information accessed through digital reading posts great cognitive demands impacting comprehension.

Evidently, there is growth in the number of electronic readers (e-readers). Preference for electronic-based reading is alluded to numerous reasons. One is it provides archiving convenience (Maden, 2018). The absence of physical manifestation of books, magazines or other printed materials takes away one worry readers need to concern themselves with – the need for a place for safe keeping. Storage of e-materials does not take up any physical space at home, school or elsewhere (Latini, Bråten, Anmarkrud, & Salmerón, 2019). Volumes of reading materials in electronic
form could be saved in one handy device. Another is the absence of paper cost because digital reading prevents the use of paper (Latini, et al., 2019) eventually leading to environmental benefit (Dundar & Akcayir, 2012). Paper is needed for printing, and it is sourced from trees; hence, when reading is performed using electronic gadgets, money and trees are saved. Additional is that digital reading performed with the use of internet access spares one from the need to travel to libraries or bookshops because wherever can become a reading spot, and ‘our personal library can travel with us anywhere’ (Martinez & Lopez-Rio, 2015:106). This means that the limitation imposed by print reading which requires one to go to places like libraries to access books is removed when reading is done electronically. With respect to this, Latini, Bråten, Anmarkrud, and Salmerón (2019) claimed that access to materials (the digital ones) is instantaneous. One more reason for the preference of digital reading relates with the digital contents which are easy to copy and share, and are updated frequently (Rowlands, Nicholas, Jamali, & Huntington, 2007).

Downsides of digital reading were also documented. Martinez, and Lopez-Rio (2015) pointed that when reading is done through the use of digital devices it is likely for one to be distracted. This is a reasonable claim as social networking applications (e.g. Facebook and Twitter) provide notification which might attract one to let go of reading and attend to the notice given by these applications. Another is that digital reading especially when under high levels of screen luminance is likely to increase eye fatigue (Benedetto, et al., 2014).

Indeed, benefits and detriments have been noted in the performance of digital reading. The practice may not be all good, but it is one that is noted to stay and be more prevalently practiced in the years to come. Therefore, it is essential that empirical studies such as this paper document the attitudes toward this technologically-driven approach in reading.

**On Print Reading**

The invention of the printing press in 1452 changed the course of human history. From then on, printed materials were exponentially produced as a source of information, communication and entertainment (Latini, Bråten, Anmarkrud, & Salmerón, 2019). However, in the 1980s the demise of print was claimed to take place in the coming years.
Indeed, it could not be denied that electronic gadgets are ubiquitous and are widely used both by young and old these days. However, researchers (e.g., Baron, Calixte, & Havewala, 2017; Chao & Chen, 2009; Kurata, Ishita, Miyata, & Minami, 2017) remain to find great preference for print-based reading. This is supported by the findings of Yalman (2015) among investigated preservice teachers. In the study, a little more than half of the respondents claimed to prefer reading printed books over e-books. Therefore, the prediction was both a miscalculation and a gross underestimation of the influence of print materials.

Researchers identified reasons for people sticking to the traditional type of reading. One of which is that in reading text one could make print apostils (marginalia) which aids memory and facilitate reflections (Ramdarshan Bold & Wagstaff, 2017). It must be noted that annotation could be performed electronically; however, its chirographic counterpart done on printed texts is found to be more multi-sensorial and meta-communicative (Fortunati & Vincent, 2014). Another is that print reading is performed linearly and sequentially (Walsh, Asha & Sprianger, 2007). As such, print-based reading allows more time for in-depth concentrated reading as compared to its digital version (Liu, 2012). Relative to this, Rideout, Foehr and Roberts (2010) disclosed that the tendency to be distracted is great when learners are performing e-reading as compared to reading print materials. Furthermore, print reading is found to be the preferred version when readers intend to understand technical and hard-to-grasp contents (Myberg & Wiber, 2015).

On Attitude toward Reading Versions

Variously, attitude has been defined. Relative to this there are numerous definitions of attitude (Somblingo & Alieto, 2019). Lim, and Jhung (2019:84) maintained that attitude relates to ‘how individuals feel about an activity and how they approach or avoid it.’ For Yıldız, and Kızıltas (2018:27), attitude is generally a ‘tendency, stance, reaction’. And, for Erwin (2001), attitude is a guide determining choice, action and behavior (Erwin, 2001). Therefore, it is important to understand and investigate the construct of attitude as it is a predictor of behavior.

Numerous investigations have documented varying and sometimes contradicting results accounting attitudes toward reading in print and electronic media. Conradi, Jang,
Bryant, Craft, and McKenna (2013) discussed that there is a prevalent preference for print when doing academic and leisure readings. This preference is taken to mean that positive attitude and inclination for the traditional approach to reading remain among people. In Wu, and Chen (2011), the same preference was found among students. The respondents claimed that if the reading materials are both available in print and electronic form they would prefer to have it in hardcopy. Contradictingly, Gunter (2012) claimed that students value electronic materials more than print ones even in cases where the reading content is available in both media. The author further claims that this points out to the little importance given to print. In a similar vein, Jang, and Henretty (2019:26) noted that ‘most of these negative statistics regarding reading engagement and enjoyment reflected only reading print texts, not digital texts’.

Therefore, the data provided by the literature is inconclusive. With this, this study realized not necessarily to debunk results of previous investigations and claims, but to contribute data taken from a unique contextualization, which would continuously augment essential understanding of the investigated variables.

**Gender and Socioeconomic Status in Attitude toward Reading Versions**

The variable gender is a variable most often juxtaposed in investigations across topics. Despite being a well-researched construct, authors remain to be in conflict as regards the use of the term. Toraman, and Özen (2019) explained that gender is not synonymous to sex as the former is a construct developed socially (Aydinoglu,2014 cited in Bacang,Rillo,& Alieto, 2019; Tannen,1990 in Torres,Pariña,Collantes,&Tan,2020) while the latter is a unchangeable biological characteristic (Toraman & Özen,2019; Lubaale,2020). However, studies have used the term gender to refer to the binary classification (e.g. Antonio,Probitchado,Ricohermoso,Saavedra,&de la Rama,2020; de la Rama,et al,2020; Devanadera & Alieto,2019; Nonte,Hartwich,&Willems,2018; Shahriza Abdul Karim,&Hasan,2007; Torres & Flores,2017). Thus, in this study, gender is operationalized to mean the classification of being a male and female.

Moreover, Nonte, et al. (2018) reported that, across countries, a consistent trend has been established in which females were found to significantly vary with males in terms of attitude toward reading – with females exhibiting the better attitude. This is true
both in recreational reading and academic reading (McKenna, Kear, & Ellsworth, 1995). In the study of Eijansantos et al. (2020), gender is found to have influence on attitude toward print reading with females manifesting better attitude; however, the same does not hold true with attitude toward digital reading as gender was found to have neutral effect.

Socioeconomic status, on another hand, as claimed by Cheng, and Wu (2017) is widely factored in research investigation in various fields even in previous years. This means that it is a concern and interest among scholars. One of the latest studies that investigated the influence of SES is the study of Horton-Ramos (2020). The investigation found that electronic reading habit is correlated with SES – the relationship is moderate, linear and positive. This means that as the SES of the respondents increases the better digital reading habit they have which is suspected to mean positive digital reading attitude.

Considering that both versions of reading entail financial requirements for the purchase of print materials and access to the internet, it is interesting to determine whether one’s SES impacts one’s attitudes toward two versions of reading.

**Research Questions**

This cross-sectional investigation on attitudes toward the types of reading among preservice teachers purposed to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference between the respondents’ attitude toward print reading and their attitude toward digital reading?
2. Is there a significant difference in the attitudes of the respondents toward types of reading across gender?
3. Is there a significant relationship between attitudes toward reading versions and the SES of the respondents?
4. Is there a significant relationship between the respondents’ attitude toward print reading and their attitude toward digital reading?
Methodology

Research Design

This empirical investigation employed a descriptive-quantitative-correlational design. Kothari (2004) explained quantitative design is an appropriate design to employ when the study intends to quantify a phenomenon or phenomena such as in the case of this study which purposed to measure the latent variable attitudes toward text and electronic readings. In addition, the study is classified as descriptive as it intends to simply report the attitudes of the respondents without the control and manipulation of variables involved in the study (Kothari, 2004). Addedly, Calderon (2006 in Alieto & Rillo, 2018) explained that descriptive research is the kind that purposes to gather, collect and tabulate data interpretation which should be both adequate and accurate as realized in this study with respect to the investigated variables. Additionally there was no establishment of control group and experiment groups as the study is non-experimental (Torres & Alieto, 2019b).

In addition, the study utilized the survey method as it is the one used in the attempt of determining status of the phenomena (Singh, 2006) - attitudes toward reading versions as in the case of this investigation. Toward this end, the study operated with a survey tool as an effective means data gathering approach involving large sample size (Dillman, Smith, & Christian, 2009).

Respondents of the study

The current investigation on the attitudes toward print and digital readings is realized with preservice teachers as the study group. Purposive sampling was employed in determining the respondents enlisted in this study. In total, 308 respondents enrolled in a state university based in a non-metropolitan city in the Philippines form part of the sampling frame of the research. The youngest of the respondents is aged 18 while the oldest reported to be 25 (Mean [M] – 22.87, Standard deviation [SD] - 2.28). Table 1 provides the characteristics of the respondents across demographics.
Table 1.0
Respondents’ gender distribution cross-tabulated with their socioeconomic status (SES)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Socioeconomic Status</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Middle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table presents the characteristics of the respondents with respect to gender and SES. It could be noticed that the sample size is greatly dominated by females constituting 70% of the total sampled population. This data noting the dominance of females in teacher education courses is similar to previous investigations conducted among preservice teachers like in Alieto (2019) in which from the 1080 surveyed preservice teachers, 68% of which are females. Another is the study of Somblingo, and Alieto (2019) among 1054 preservice teachers in which 76% or 802 are females. Additional is the work of Ricohermoso, Abequibel, and Alieto (2019) with 330 education students in which 76% are females. These data suggest that the teacher education course attracts more females than males. It is supposed that teaching, as a career choice, is more popular among females than it is among males in the Philippine context.

Moreover, in total, the distribution revealed that most of the respondents (52%) reported to be of average SES. Cross-referenced with gender, 51% of the females while 55% of the males belong to average middle SES. On another note, 31% of the females and 28% of the males claimed to be of low SES. This implies that students enrolling in a teacher education program come from middle and low SES; however, mostly are from average SES.

The Research Instrument

This study adopted the survey tool of Eijansantos, et al. (2020) named as Attitude toward Print and Digitized Reading Questionnaire (APDRQ). The said instrument was with a declared reliability of 0.811 and was originally used with senior high school students. The researchers evaluated the items in the questionnaire to determine
appropriateness of the tool with respect to the current objectives of the study and context, specifically the respondent choice of the investigation. In addition, the same instrument was pilot tested with 50 preservice teachers who did not take part in the investigation. The data from the pilot test was coded and analyzed using Cronbach’s alpha test. It yielded a reliability of 0.800. Even though there was a decrease in reliability, the instrument remains to be characterized as of ‘good’ reliability (George & Maller, 2003). Thus, the adoption of the research tool was made. Moreover, the instrument consists of 30 statements answerable with a four-point Likert scale ranging from (Agree to disagree/ Like me and not like me). The even rating scale was kept without modification to remove the inclination of participants to answer at the midpoint of the scale – known as the error of central tendency (Singh, 2006).

Out of the total 30 items, half of which intends to measure the attitude toward print while the remaining measures attitude toward digital reading. Moreover, the 15 items are subdivided into three aspects of attitude (affective or feeling, belief or cognitive, and behavior). The distribution of items are as follows: attitude toward print (affective [1, 7, 13, 19, and 24], belief [2, 8, 14, 20, and 26], behavior [3, 9, 15, 21, and 27]), and attitude toward digital reading (affective [4, 10, 16, 21, and 27], belief [5, 11, 17, 23 and 29], behavior [6, 12, 18, 24, and 30]). The original placement of the items were maintained in the development of the questionnaire as it subscribed to a mechanism of alternately placing the items in the questionnaire to minimize set bias when respondents answer the survey (Heppner & Heppner, 2004).

Data Collection Procedure

Respondents were first identified. Communication was conducted informing participants of the nature and objectives of the research. Emphasis on the idea that the study is voluntary and in no way non-participation would affect them negatively. In like manner, they were informed that there would be no reward or merit of any form be given to those who would participate. For a total of 400 questionnaires produced and distributed, only 315 were successfully collected and seven of which were ineligible for analysis as there were missed items or double entry; thus, only 308 were used for analysis in this study suggesting a 77% response rate.
Coding Procedure

This investigation on the attitudes toward reading types employed the following coding scheme to enable the analysis of the data: for the dichotomous variable gender, 1 is for male and 2 is for female; for the polychotomous variable socioeconomic status, 1 is for low, 2 is for middle and 3 is for high; for the responses in the survey tool, adoption of the coding procedure performed by Eijansantos, et al. (2020) was realized which was 1 for like me, 2 for somehow like me, 3 for somehow unlikely to be me, and 4 for not like me (for items in the feeling and behavior subsections) and 1 for disagree, 2 for somehow disagree, 3 for somehow agree, and 4 for agree (for items in the belief subsection).

Additionally, the adoption of the print and attitude scale was made to provide interpretation of the mean score. Table 2 presents the scale.

Table 2
Print and E-Reading Attitude Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Attitude toward Print Reading/E-Reading</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>Like me, Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>Somehow like me, Somehow agree, Somehow Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>Somehow unlikely to be me, Somehow disagree, Somehow Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>Not like me, Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statistical Treatments

In order to draw meaning from the raw data and to test the offered hypotheses of the study, the data were analyzed with appropriate statistical treatments. However, prior to the performance of statistical treatments, the data was first tested for normal distribution using the Shapiro-Wilk Test. The analysis disclosed that the p-values are greater than alpha = 0.05 and non significant which suggests that the data are normally distributed, and parametric statistics are appropriate for use (Singh,2006).

The following were the parametric statistical tools utilized in this current study:

To determine whether significant differences in the attitudes toward print and electronic readings of the preservice teachers exist, the statistical tool known as paired
sample t-test was employed. For the determination of significant difference in the attitudes of the respondents across reading versions across gender, the statistical tool known as t-test for independent sample was used. To determine the significant difference in the attitudes of the respondents across reading versions across socioeconomic status, the statistical tool known as one-way analysis of variance or one-way ANOVA was utilized. For the determination of significant relationship between the respondents’ attitude toward print reading and attitude toward digital reading, Pearson Product Moment Coefficient or Pearson $r$ was employed.

**Results and Discussion**

**Difference in Attitudes toward print and digital reading**

Responses in the questionnaire were grouped. Items for attitude toward print reading (AtPR) were collated according to the determined aspects and treated. The same holds true for the items determining attitude toward digital reading (AtDR). Moreover, the test of normality revealed that the p-value is 0.200 which is non-significant; thus, the statistical treatment used for analysis is the Paired Sample T-test. Table 3 shows the analysis.

Table 3
Difference: Respondents’ attitude toward print reading and attitude toward digital reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AtPR</td>
<td>2.331</td>
<td>0.420</td>
<td>Somehow Negative</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AtDR</td>
<td>2.063</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td>Somehow Negative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Significant at alpha = 0.0 (2-tailed), (Scale: 1.0 to 1.74 [Negative], 1.75 to 2.4 [Somehow Negative], 2.5 to 3.24 [Somehow Positive], 3.25 to 4.0 [Positive Attitude])

It could be gleaned from the table that the respondents manifest a ‘somehow negative’ attitude toward both reading versions. The said attitudes are gearing toward being negative. This, to an extent, mirrors that finding of St Clair-Thompson, et al. (2017) that learners today are not inclined to read – this is true in either type as found in this
study. In a similar vein, Rahmawati, et al. [2020] noted that ESL and EFL learners identify reading as a frustrating process making it less inviting which could be deduced to suggest a ‘negative’ attitude. Along this line, Shahriza Abdul Karim, and Hasan (2007) claimed that positive attitude leads to positive reading experience; however, it is maintained that the other direction is also true. In other words, a positive reading experience results in positive attitude toward reading. Thus, if students find reading a difficult and discouraging task, their attitude towards reading would be negatively shaped. Hence, Navarrete (2018) noted that there exists a great challenge among educators with respect to letting students learn to read and having them read to learn. This concern, the author further claims, is a global concern. This data lends support to the claim and signals the need to have this issue addressed.

Moreover, there is a significant difference between the respondents’ attitude toward print-based reading and attitude toward digital reading significant as the p-value (0.000) is less than alpha = 0.01; therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. As suggested by the mean score, the respondents’ AtPR is better than their AtDR (mean difference = 0.268). It is inferred that the respondents are more inclined to perform print reading (PR) over digital reading (DR).

The finding to an extent confirms the investigation of Yalman (2015) conducted among preservice teachers totalling to 543. In the study, it was descriptively determined who among the respondents prefer reading traditional printed texts over electronic books. It was noted that more than half prefer to read traditionally. This is similar to the findings and observations of researchers (Baron, et al., 2017; Chao & Chen, 2009; Kurata, et al., 2017) that print-based reading remains a prevalent practice in this digital age. This preference is taken to mean positivity toward print reading.

In Yalman (2015), the author probed the reason for the preference. It was found that the pre-service teachers lack knowledge about electronic materials such as the e-books. However, the context of the study makes the claim improbable to support this finding. It is argued that the preservice teachers in this study were born during the digital era as suggested by their age profile. This then proposes that this group belong to those who have good grasps of technology and digital contents.
Horton-Ramos (2020) afforded a more plausible explanation. In her study, she found that the SES of the respondents positively correlate with their e-reading habit. In other words, those who have high financial capacity are likely to develop their digital reading habit as compared to those with low financial status. Against this, it is reasoned that the financial cost entailed by the performance of digital reading contributes negatively to the attitude toward digital reading of the respondents; hence, the identified statistical difference.

Interestingly, authors like Latini, et al. (2019) explained that one benefit of electronic reading is that it saves cost for the purchase of print materials. However, the idea that digital reading does incur cost is not completely true. Although the researchers submit that there are contents available and free of access, there are contents that come with a prize. In addition, for one to have internet access, one needs to pay as internet connection in the context of the respondents of the study who are not afforded with free internet access.

**Difference: Attitude towards reading types across gender**

The test of normality for AtPR and gender (p-value = 0.311) and AtDR and gender (p-value = 0.211) provides that the data are normally distributed; hence, to determine difference in the AtPR and AtDR between the male and female respondents, independent sample t-test was used. Table 4 gives the analysis.

Table 4
Attitudes toward reading versions between male and female respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Dependent</th>
<th>Independent</th>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Desc.</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Interp.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AtPR</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2.382</td>
<td>0.421</td>
<td>SN</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2.316</td>
<td>0.420</td>
<td>SN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AtDR</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2.065</td>
<td>0.465</td>
<td>SN</td>
<td>0.987</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2.063</td>
<td>0.461</td>
<td>SN</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Scale: 1.0 to 1.74 [Negative {N}], 1.75 to 2.4 [Somehow Negative {SN}], 2.5 to 3.24 [Somehow Positive {SP}], 3.25 to 4.0 [Positive Attitude {PA}])
As noted from the table above, for the variable AtDR, the arithmetic mean between the male and female respondents varies with the males having better attitude as shown by the mean scores with a difference of 0.066. However, the difference noted is not statistically significant as suggested by the sig. value = 0.249 > than $\alpha = 0.05$. This means that the male and female respondents do not significantly differ in their attitudes toward print-based reading. It could be inferred that gender is not a factor influencing the AtPR. Hence, the formulated null hypothesis of this study is accepted.

This result of study counters the findings of previous studies like that of Mohd-Asraf, and Abdullah (2016), and Ubbes, Dillhoff, and Maldonado (2018) which confirmed that there is an emergent trend of females having better attitude than boys over reading. In addition, this particular finding rejects the finding of one of the latest research topics by Eijansantos et al. (2020). In the said investigation among Filipino senior high school students revealed that males significantly differ with females with respect to attitude toward print reading. The said study found that females are exhibiting better AtPR compared to males suggesting that there is gender difference as regards AtPR.

With respect to AtDR, the sig. value = 0.987 > $\alpha = 0.05$ suggests that, statistically, the female and male respondents do not differ in their AtDR. Along this line, it is claimed that gender is not a factor resulting variance in AtDR. Thus, the null hypothesis of the study for this question is accepted. This finding supports the result of the study of Eijansantos et al. (2020). In their study, although gender significantly influenced AtPR, it does not have the same significant effect with respect to AtDR. On another hand, the finding counters the claim of McKenna, Conradi, Lawrence, Jang, and Meyer (2012) which discussed that females were noted to be better at digital academic reading and are generally exhibiting better attitude as opposed to males.

The disclosed finding that regardless of versions and genders the respondents are showing an attitude characterized as ‘somehow negative’ is supposed to be due to two reasons. One relates to comprehension. Most of the reading tasks and activities are in English the second language. Because the act of reading in whatever form requires a good deal of proficiency in the said language, it is suspected that students with poor level of English proficiency are challenged with respect to comprehension which is why
Rahmawati, at al. (2020) maintained that reading in English is frustrating to ESL and EFL learners. It is further remarked that comprehension is the heart of reading. Continuous and engaged reading is performed by those who understand well what they read. Therefore, if comprehension is compromised brought about by any reason, reading presents before learners as a task far from being enjoyable. Another is that which associates with the characteristics of present day learners as pointed in the study of Eijansantos, et al. (2020). The authors posit that learners today prefer watching as a means of gaining information over reading. Relatedly, Eijansantos (2018) observed the high-volume use of social media of respondents for their postings which involves a great deal of viewing, too. There is a sound basis for this notion. Watching is more appealing than reading even with digital contents. This supposition provides interesting pedagogical implications which should be explored in future research works.

**Correlation : Attitude toward versions of reading and SES**

The test of normality for AtPR and SES (p-value = 0.221) and AtDR and SES (p-value = 0.300) provides that the data are normally distributed; hence, to determine the relationship between AtPR and SES, and AtDR and SES, the statistical treatment known as Pearson Product Moment Coefficient or Pearson r was utilized as statistical tool. Table 5 presents the analysis.

Table 5
Correlation : Respondents’ attitude toward reading types and their SES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Interp.</th>
<th>r-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AtPR</td>
<td>Socioeconomic</td>
<td>0.004**</td>
<td>-0.165</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AtDR</td>
<td>Status</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>0.249</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant at alpha = 0.01 (2-tailed)**

As observed from the table, with respect to AtPR and SES, the p-value (0.004) is less than \( \alpha = 0.01 \) which implies that there is a significant relationship between the treated variables. Moreover, the relationship’s strength of association is small and the
The relationship is negative as inferred from the r-value (-0.165). This means that the lower the SES of the respondents the positive their attitude toward print reading. It implies that those with high socioeconomic status manifest ‘lesser’ attitude toward print in comparison to those with low SES. It could be further implied that learners of high financial capacity do not prefer reading in print as opposed to those who reported to have low or average SES. With respect to AtDR and SES, the p-value of 0.000 is less than alpha = 0.01 which means that there is a significant correlation between variables. Additionally, the association is small and positive. Therefore, it means that as SES increases the AtDR also increases. Thus, respondents of high socioeconomic status have positive attitude as compared to those with low SES. Conversely, respondents with low SES have negative AtDR. As a result, it could be deduced that SES is a factor influencing AtDR. Hence, the stipulated null hypothesis of the study is rejected.

From these results, it could be implied that those with stable financial status prefer digital reading while those with lower financial capacity prefer print reading. These findings support the conclusion of Horton-Ramos (2020) that those with high SES are the ones likely to read electronically and eventually develop e-reading habits. The same author supposed that this is so because online reading requires two essential things prior to the act – one is a digital device capable of accessing the Internet and perform online search; second is the need to have mobile data to enable access to the internet. These two do not come for free. In fact, it is pointed out that the device needed to satisfactorily perform online access is expensive. The same also holds true as regards the amount needed to be spent to gain internet access. The financial demand of DR is supposed to discourage those with low SES. This also explains the positive attitude of those with low SES toward print-based reading.

Further, it is suspected that those with high SES appreciates the ease of digital reading as previously discussed in this paper. Because they could afford, the ease of doing electronic reading is inviting and appealing for them while the struggles of keeping physical reading materials appear troublesome for them.
Correlation : Attitude toward Print Reading and Attitude toward Digital Reading

To determine the relationship between AtPR and AtDR, the statistical treatment known as Pearson r was utilized. Table 6 gives the analysis.

Table 6
Significant relationship between attitudes toward reading versions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Interp.</th>
<th>r-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AtPR</td>
<td>AtDR</td>
<td>0.000**</td>
<td>Significant 0.249</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant at alpha = 0.01 (2-tailed)

As seen from the above table, the p-value of 0.000 is less than alpha equals 0.01. This means that there is a correlation between the respondents’ AtPR and AtDR. The relationship is positive and linear; however, the strength of association is small. This means that the respondents with positive attitude toward text-based reading are the ones with positive attitude toward digital reading; conversely, those with negative attitude toward print reading are the ones with negative attitude toward digital reading. Therefore, AtPR and AtDR correlate with each other.

This finding counters the claim of Foasberg (2014). The author found that learners who read print materials have a dislike for reading electronic counterparts. In addition, this result also contradicts the report of Kretzschmar, et al. (2013) that there is an exclusive platform chosen by readers. In the study, it was claimed that those who read in print do not read digital contents. However, in this study, it could be deduced that those who read in print are likely to read digitally. And, those who do not like reading in print are the ones less likely to read digital contents.

Supporting this result is the study of Loh, and Sun (2019) which found that, contrary to the popular belief, people who are engrossed with digital reading avoid print reading. In their study, it was revealed that people who read print also read digital contents. This suggests the idea that when one finds pleasure and need to read one engages in reading regardless of the media. Similarly, the study corroborates with the claim of Eijansantos, et al. (2020). In the study the authors conducted, it was found that
the two same variables are related with each other. Meaning, there is an association between AtPR and AtDR. This result proves that such relationship existing between studied variables is not only true in the case of basic education students, but also among students of higher education.

Conclusion

Drawing from the results of the study, the following conclusions are afforded:
The most astounding is that attitudes toward reading versions significantly vary with attitude toward traditional reading better than the modern and technologically driven type. Equally astounding is that respondents’ SES influence both attitudes with different relationship directions (negative for print reading, and positive for digital reading). Another interesting thing to note is that there is a significant association between investigated attitudes suggesting that one attitude predicts the other. Less interesting, yet intriguing as it refutes existing trends favoring females over males, is that gender has neutral influence on both attitudes.

Implications

Teachers—pre-service and in-service alike—form an integral component in the educational environment and process; thus, what they know and the habits they possess are relevant to the kinds of learners and citizens honed and produced. In this study, the more profound concern is slightly skewed toward the variation in the attitudinal preference of reading versions but tremendously concern the negative attitude toward the act and/or habit of reading. It is duly noted that on the account that the respondents’ attitudes towards reading is quite negative, their habit and preference to carry out the act of reading are most prospectively on the negative sphere also. Hence, owing to this finding, the education sector ought to address this issue in ways it may have not ever done before as reading is an imponderable part and parcel of teachers’ continuing education and the students’ learning furtherance.

Moreover, as teachers prepare their schoolroom curriculum, it is imperative for them to recognize their students’ reading interests and preferences. Society is moving into an electronic age and students will be expected to be able to read and comprehend from
various mediums of text. This analysis can provide teachers with information about their students’ attitude with respect to types of reading. When teachers have this information, they can structure class lessons and activities with the medium students prefer to help them gain a more positive attitude toward reading overall. For example, in a classroom with most students who prefer to read from an e-reader, the teacher could plan lessons that allow students to complete their reading from a digital text instead of a print text. Furthermore, lessons can be designed to increase attitudes towards reading other mediums of text. For example, students who prefer reading from digital text can complete some reading tasks from the device and the teacher can make connections to Internet reading and/or print reading based on the e-reader. This will help students become engaged with multiple mediums of text. The same goes to the group of learners with respect to gender and their SES.

As far as SES is concerned, principals and other educational leaders need to make a lot of important decisions about where to apportion funds and what materials to procure and to help increase students’ knowledge. Allocation of monetary or technological provision and assistance to teachers is helpful and necessary in that a better SES correlates the development of better e-reading habit; Specifically, the technologic provision is for the availability of cutting-edge gadgets to be utilizable in the reading enterprise, while the monetary assistance is for the consistency of internet connectivity which is indispensable in prolific digital reading. Likewise, the suggested provision will in a way address the concern in the preceding paragraph that is the negative attitude towards reading needs addressing and attention. Moreover, this will attempt to strike a balance among those whose reading attitude is positive for print reading as they can likewise cultivate a positive attitude towards reading digitized materials.

The concern of reading among pre-service teachers may not be deemed significant and be regarded as irrelevant presently, but these teachers will most likely land a pedagogically-related work and their impact, positive or otherwise, will vivify in the generation of learners yet to come. As far as this scholarly investigation is concerned, the trend seems to be treading the path of the intensification of negative attitudes towards reading. If issues unearthed in this study linger in deaf ears and foster inaction among the authorities of the education sector and the members of the academe, more adverse effects
may manifest which will eventually toughen and become more taxing to address much less eradicate.

References


Difficulties of Pre-Service Teachers in Oral Communication Skills

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Abstract
One of the foremost marks of the 21st Century is the force of globalization that has driven nations to interact more closely with each other. Countries have integrated their cultures, economies, markets, political systems and technologies through communication. So important is the role of communication that Washington et al. (2012) attributes the failure of some international ventures to 3 factors: lack of intercultural skills and competence; ineffective global communication skills; and failure to practice business negotiations etiquette.
With this, the emergence of English as a global language has considerable impact on policies and practices in the Asian-Pacific Region like the Mainland China, Hong Kong, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Taiwan and Vietnam (Nunan, 2003). Regardless of the importance of English for its functional and practical purposes, many Filipinos still consider learning and mastering it challenging due to certain psychological and social factors (Berowa, 2016).

This study aimed to determine the difficulties of pre-service teachers enrolled in Isabela State University. Identifying the status of said students was essential in developing a training program that will address the students’ needs and that will prepare them for their future careers as teachers. A semi-structured interview was used to gather data. From said interview, it was determined that the pre-service teachers had difficulties in the four parameters of oral communication. Further inquiry revealed that these difficulties were attributed to the respondents’ hesitance, attitude and motivation in joining oral communication tasks in the classroom.

**Keywords**: difficulties, oral communication, oral communication skills, pre-service teachers, training program

**Introduction**

The significance of English as a medium of communication cannot be discounted especially in the 21st Century when globalization and internationalization has required a different skill set from the workforce. This has spurred educational institutions to rethink their curriculum and their teaching practices.

As Stronge et al. (2015) explained, the function of the 21st Century teacher lies in the following areas: planning for 21st Century careers, instruction for various styles of learning, and technology design for learning. In order for the teacher to successfully comply with these demands, teaching and management skills need to be developed fully. While the role of the teacher might have evolved as dictated by trends in education, their significance in shaping learners is still as high as ever.

The 21st Century education may already be mostly technology-driven but the importance of oral communication skills is still essential. Teaching is still an interpersonal
relationship which affects student learning and motivation (Frymier & Houser, 2000); therefore, the effectiveness of teachers is indicated by how well they communicate: to have presence in the classroom, to motivate students, and to facilitate learning (Duta et al., 2014).

Corpuz and Peralta (2018), Wardani (2017), Mousena and Sidiropoulo (2017) and Angeles (2012) highlighted the significance of the teachers’ communication skills in influencing learners’ academic performance and achievement. Communicative competence however is a complex notion which involves the interplay of many factors in order for it to be deemed effective. Mcroskey and Mcroskey (1988) describe communicative competence as an adequate ability to provide information. This definition fits right in the educational context. After all, language is an all-encompassing presence in pedagogical practice. Everything that a teacher does, from establishing the climate of the classroom to communicating concepts to learners, relies much on oral communication and interpersonal skill.

According to Babonea and Munteanu (2012), a positive and professional interpersonal relationship in the classroom is achieved through the utilization of verbal, para-verbal, and non-verbal communication. Verbal communication is the use of sounds of a language in transmitting messages. Through this type of communication, people involved influenced with and get influenced with something that is particularly useful in the classroom. Para-verbal communication; on the other hand, is composed of the following elements: intonation, volume, intensity, and tone of voice as well as speech rate.

While it may seem minor, the voice quality of the teacher has a major bearing in affecting the classroom atmosphere, and ultimately, the learning process therein. Non-verbal communication is generally characterized in the physical appearance of the speaker such as in facial expressions. The facial expression of a teacher is also important as students tend to watch their teacher for nuances that might indicate his/her feelings towards what is transpiring in the classroom.

Likewise, Bower et al. (2013) stressed that vocal, visual, and verbal elements of communication as having the most influence in the creation of meaning. Auditory and visual cues from the teacher were considered as the stimuli that would either enhance or
detract the students during the learning process. Since this is the case, the study concluded that verbal and non-verbal messages from the teacher were influential in classroom management. They identified and compared the Modes of Communication Model and the Constructed Impression Model on 164 pre-service teachers as they presented lessons in the classroom. The Modes of Communication Model considers voice, body language, words, and the alignment of these elements with each other.

On the other hand, the Constructed Impression Model focused on confidence, clarity, engagement, and appropriateness during the communication act. In the said study, the researchers were able to determine that all the elements in both models had a significant contribution to the communication performance of the pre-service teachers.

Despite the obvious importance of oral communication skills for the effectiveness of teachers, the skill levels of most pre-service teachers are still at a low. For an instance, in the study of Hunt et al. (2010), it was mentioned that one of the major problems of teacher education in the United States was the criticism that pre-service teachers were not receiving ample training in oral communication. In another study by Vold (2017), results indicated that there was a discrepancy between curricular intentions and classroom realities. Hence, a more in-depth development of pre-service teachers’ oral communication skills and cultural knowledge was highly recommended.

This idea may come as no surprise as speaking is believed to be one of the problematic areas of learning a language especially in the ESL and EFL contexts. Gunawan and Humaira (2018) for an instance were able to determine that EFL students at an education and teaching institute in Indonesia have low competence in the English language especially in speaking. Notably, pre-service teachers themselves are aware of their deficiency (Meera et al., 2014) and they consider effective speaking skills as the most difficult for them to acquire (Dincer & Yesilyurt, 2013). It is not surprising then that pre-service teachers do not speak English as much as they should (Gomez, 2017; Vizconde, 2006).

Even other stakeholders, such as the mentors for said pre-service teachers, acknowledge the same point of view. Ortega and Fuentes' (2015) study, while underlining the impact of communication competence, revealed that instructors in the University of
Granada admitted that classes and training provided for pre-service teachers were lacking; hence, their communicative skills are not as effective as they should be.

Moreover, Catalano and Catalano (2015) specified some difficulties that pre-service teachers experience with regards to communicative competence. These difficulties include stammering and difficulties in expressing one's self, especially in nervousness; difficulty in explaining concepts, and maintaining free communication without written support. In Fallah’s study, university students who are major in English argued that shyness, motivation, and lack of self-confidence as the factors that hindered their communicative competence. Besides, individual differences also play a role in hindering communicative competence.

For the local studies, Abao (2013) was also able to observe that pre-service teachers from state universities and colleges still lack the proficiency needed to properly teach students in the high school level.

This often affects the eligibility of these pre-service teachers after graduation. Leyaley (2015), in assessing the employability of teacher education graduates from a state college, discovered that the respondents showed average skill in oral communication, but additional training was recommended to further improve their chances for employability. On a similar note, Marasigan (2018) who, in predicting the internship success of pre-service teachers, suggested that there are three aspects that pre-service teachers need to be good at in order to do well in the field: conceptual, technical and interpersonal. Therefore, he also suggested for stricter English-speaking policies in colleges to hone pre-service teachers’ interpersonal speaking skills in the language.

While these studies have identified the fact that oral communication skills is a problem area for many schools offering teacher education courses, a majority of them did not offer concrete interventions for the said problem. With the present study, the researcher aims to address this deficiency.

The common problem of students lies mainly on two points: poor oral communication skills, which is rooted in reticence or language apprehension due to non-exercise of their oral abilities, as well as the lack of teacher's motivational strategies to let students practice their communicative skills.
In many instances, the researcher has observed a certain peculiarity in some students: many of them do well in expressing themselves in written activities but are reluctant to do the same orally. This issue is not an isolated case. In Clarvie et al.'s (2013) study, for example, the poor communication proficiency of Malaysian students was characterized as a national problem. Similarly, Kishore (2017) stressed that undergraduate students have also been observed to have poor oral communication skills in both their native language and in English. The same problem has also been seen in Vietnam university students, as reported by Hieu (2011) and Assemayni (2015) in Ghana.

In this regard, the researcher aims to address this issue by identifying the oral communication problems and difficulties of future teachers. Identifying the status of the said students from the College of Education in Isabela State University in terms of oral communication will enable the researcher, who is also a teacher herself, to develop a training program that will help her and other faculty members to prepare students for their future careers by empowering them in oral communication skills.

This program is in response to the fact that the university has yet to specify an institutional requirement for English proficiency, particularly in oral communication. While the College of Education conducts interviews with student applicants who enroll for freshman year, the assessment done at those times is more or less informal by nature. Other than that, there is no existing measuring tool or program that addresses the assessment and improvement of oral competencies of students in the institute. Addressing the issue of oral communication skills in English would be beneficial not only to the institute but also to the university as ISU aims to make their students as globally competent as possible.

Also, based on the personal observation of the researcher on the oral communication skills of the College of Education pre-service teachers, many of them still need improvement in oral communication even when they are already in their practice teaching. In observations and monitoring, the researcher was able to detect that many of the pre-service teachers still had difficulty in oral communication. This difficulty was particularly obvious, especially on the aspect of their fluency and spontaneity in using the language as they conducted their classes. Many of them would still use the mother tongue.
or give vaguely-phrased instructions to the students, thus compromising the flow of activities. There were also instances when the students themselves would correct their practice teacher when they commit grammatical errors. This reality is particularly problematic since the teacher is supposed to be the model of the students in using the language.

The aforementioned studies highly suggest that educational institutions should double their efforts in improving oral communication instruction since it is an essential skill needed in the 21st Century. With this being said, the researcher’s rationale on conducting the study is justified as the aforementioned literature proves that instruction for oral communication is important.

After the researcher went through the literature and noted of her observations, she decided to cover all the four parameters: grammatical range and accuracy, pronunciation, lexical resource, and fluency and coherence based on the oral communication competencies standardized by IELTS. Measuring the four IELTS competencies for the education students is the most comprehensive and most applicable tool for the assessment she aims to accomplish in her study.

With this, the following objectives were formulated:

1) To determine the difficulties and challenges encountered by pre-service teachers in oral communication; and

2) To develop an enhancement program that may be proposed as a solution to the challenges and difficulties faced by the respondents.

**Methodology**

**Participants**

The participants were pre-service teachers who are enrolled in the four campuses of the College of Education in Isabela State University system. They were freshmen enrolled in the two programs Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEED) and Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSE) in the above-mentioned college.

The study used purposive sampling to extract 50 participants since the inclusion criteria were specific on who should be included in the study. Below is the table of participants for the test on the oral proficiency level:
Table 1. Participants of the Study for the IELTS Speaking Test and the Interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Campus Name</th>
<th>Number of participants</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Campus 1</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus 2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>32.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus 3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Campus 4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>50</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.00</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 presents the number of participants involved in the study across the four chosen campuses of Isabela State University for the IELTS Speaking Test and focuses group discussion. As seen in the data, there are 18 (36.00%) from campus 1, 16 (32.00%) from campus 2, 13 (26.00%) from campus 3, and 3 (6.00%) from campus 4 respectively.

**Instrument**

To extract the problems and difficulties of the pre-service teacher, an interview was done. An interview guide was utilized so the participants could verbalize their thoughts. In addition, observation notes and or memo notes were written to record the nonverbal behavior and expression of students during the FGD.

**Procedure**

Prior to the actual gathering of data, instrument developed require reliability and validation processes. Having established the reliability and validity of the instrument, benchmarking of the different locales to consider is very important to have equal representation of the population under study. After identifying the campuses in the university to gather the data, necessary permits were secured to expedite the data gathering process. Moreover, consents of the pre-service teachers and parents were also secured to establish valid and reliable data.

The recorded interview underwent Qualitative Content Analysis. The researcher transcribed all the difficulties in verbatim and translated them. The translation was checked and validated by a Filipino professor who is also a Filipino language expert.
Ethical approval to conduct the study was taken from the Ethics Research Committee (ERC) of St. Paul University Philippines. In addition, the researcher also requested a letter of recommendation from the University President of St. Paul University Philippines and the University President of Isabela State University, together with the two directors of academic and related affairs of the mentioned university prior to the signing of the informed consent by the participants of the study. The participants were informed in writing about the purpose of the study, its risks and benefits, and the research process that would be used to collect data. Participants were also given information regarding the approval of the interview questions by the research committee and appropriate experts in the field.

In that same letter, and in the consent to participate form, confidentiality of any datum provided was guaranteed, and the anonymity of the participant and any participant who might be identified in the course of the interviews were assured. The consent to participate form also informed the participants that the interviews would be recorded, and that occasional handwritten notes would be taken during the interviews.

Furthermore, the consent form described the means by which anonymity and confidentiality in relation to the processing, use, storage, and publication of data associated with the study would be protected. As well, the consent procedure was given to inform the participants that the results of the study might be published.

At the time, they were also directed about the interview, and prior to its initiation, the consent to participate form was explained to the participants. Participants were then asked to read the content of the consent to participate form carefully before signing it.

During the interview of the participants, it is very important to observe proper ethics in conducting FGD to ensure proper ethical procedure. Before the conduct of the interview, informed consent was secured, and the researcher oriented the participants regarding the goals and purposes of the study. The researcher should also explained that participation in the interview requires no remuneration on the part of the participants. It was also noted that the participants could withdraw from the interview anytime.

The interview was conducted at a time and place convenient to each participant. It is to ensure that their learning and classes would not be disrupted just for the conduct of the study.
Analysis

The qualitative content analysis framework was developed by Bengtsson (2016). It has four stages: 1) decontextualization, 2) recontextualization, 3) categorization, and 4) compilation.

Under the process of decontextualization, the researcher identifies all the meaningful units from the manifested surface structure or what has been said by the participants. Secondly, the researcher decontextualizes the including and excluding what is essential from the meaningful units. Next is the process of categorization wherein the researcher coded the units into more narrowed concepts leading it to the last stage, which is compilation. In categorization, the researcher arrived at a final grouping of the ideas, which she called themes and arrived with the final groupings of difficulties.

The results became the basis of the development of the training program that will later on, be proposed in the college.

Results and Discussions

Table 1. Difficulties and Challenges Encountered by Pre-Service Teachers in terms of Grammatical Range and Accuracy

1. Correct Usage
   1.1. Verb
      1.1.1. Types and Functions
      1.1.2. Tense
      1.1.3. Voice
      1.1.4. Participles
      1.1.5. Number
      1.1.6. SVA
   1.2. Pronoun
   1.3. Preposition
   1.4. Conjunction
   1.5. Adverb

2. Sentence Construction
2.1. Types of Sentence
2.2. Sentence Pattern

Table 1 shows the difficulties of the participants in terms of grammatical range and accuracy. It can be seen from the table that there are two major difficulties mentioned by the participants during the interview. One is on correct usage and sentence construction. The table also shows the difficulties on the different parts of speech and subject-verb agreement. Most of the students mentioned that among the topics in grammar, verbs, and how to construct a sentence properly is the most difficult for them.

The aforementioned findings conform with various studies that have already indicated almost similar problem areas, and a majority of them also cited language transfer as a contributing factor to said problem areas. Rhalmi (2016) for an instance believes that most difficulties of ELS learners are due to the negative interference of the mother tongue and also cultural differences. To put it simply, learners tend to apply their L1 linguistic knowledge even when they speak in L2. Many L2 learners resort to language transfer because they lack the linguistic proficiency to communicate in different situations. They fail to realize that there are differences between the pragmatic norms and knowledge of L1 and L2.

It is implied that the instruction needed by the respondents should focus on the individual units of the English language as well as subject-verb agreement and sentence structuring. Studies aforementioned also recommended this measure, along with the suggestion of providing more opportunities for learners to speak the target language in real-life settings. These opportunities can be provided and supervised through a comprehensive and strategic intervention program.

Table 2. Difficulties and Challenges Encountered by Pre-Service Teachers in terms of Lexical Resource

| 1. | Limited Vocabulary/Unfamiliar words |
| 2. | Diction/proper choice of words |
| 3. | Lexical Relations (anonymy & synonymy) |
Table 2 displays the difficulties and challenges encountered by the participants in terms of lexical resource. The participants mentioned three problems on lexical resource which are on lexical relations, limited vocabulary or unfamiliar words and diction or proper choice of words. Among the three problems mentioned, limited vocabulary and unfamiliar words ranked first, next is the diction or proper choice of words followed by lexical relations.

Lexical resource is necessary in communication since it provides speakers with the repertoire of words they need to communicate meaning effectively. Furthermore, Sedita (2005) also argues that word knowledge is significantly linked to academic success since it equates to the ability of students to understand new ideas and concepts more quickly. In contrast, if speakers lack lexical resource then they will only be able to convey little and thus limit their communicative competence in general.

In the study of Inami and Koizumi (2013), wherein they examined the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and speaking proficiency, they discovered that vocabulary played a central role in speaking proficiency.

Constant exposure to the target language is a key in developing lexical resource. Since this is the case, the results of the study imply the possibility that the respondents may lack exposure and opportunities in L2. Rasouli and Jafari (2016) reiterate the point that reading contributes significantly in expanding lexical resource hence it is highly recommended that ESL learners also engage in reading activities in their target language. Aside from reading, exposure to other resources or materials may also benefit the learners in expanding their vocabulary.

Table 3. Difficulties and Challenges Encountered by Pre-Service Teachers in terms of Pronunciation

| 1. Stress |
| 2. Articulation |
| 3. Intonation |
Table 3 presents the difficulties and challenges of the participants in terms of pronunciation. As seen in the table, there are three major difficulties encountered by the participants in the area of pronunciation. Stress ranked first, followed by articulation, then intonation.

Generally, it has been observed that ESL and EFL learners are most likely to have difficulties in acquiring the proper pronunciation of the target language. In fact, Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011) even postulated that achieving the native-like accent will be more difficult as the learner gets older. This is rooted in the Critical Period Hypothesis which suggests that a learner must begin studying language in order to develop a native-like pronunciation. In the same study, they also explained that studying pronunciation is affected by various factors such as accent, stress, intonation and rhythm, motivation and exposure, attitude, instruction, age, personality and mother tongue influence.

The utilization of English as a lingua franca has led to the development of its varieties. Hence, the Philippines have also been recognized for having its own variety. And while it does resemble American English in most respects, Oxford University Press (2019) specified that Philippine English does not have the same stress patterning as its American counterpart. Specifically, American English is a stress-timed language whereas Philippine English is syllable-timed; hence pronunciation is affected. This idea reflects the difficulties cited by the respondents regarding their difficulties in the proper stress of words in the target language.

Also in the study of Trif (2013), in assessing pre-service teachers’ perceptions on communication, was able to discover that teachers need to be dedicated and involved message delivery, emphasis is on ideas though stress and intonation.

Another problem identified is on articulation. Passy (2010) cited the work of speech pathologist Sofia Balfe and said that though the language skills of ESL students show improvement over time, their articulation skills may not progress just as much. The same phenomenon can be perceived in the results of this study.

The participants also talked about intonation. Intonation is indicative and contributory to meaning hence it is an important part in pronunciation. According to Rusadze and Kipiane (2015), common problems of ESL learners are due to not raising the pitch correctly and using the wrong pitch. In particular, their study found that ESL
learners have more difficulty when it comes to imitating the rising intonation such as in yes/no questions and in question tags.

The discussion above is indicative of what Gilakjani (2011) believed that teaching pronunciation is not a priority for many English language classrooms. This result is perhaps due to the fact that many English classrooms seem to focus more on the grammar learning of students. However, it cannot be discounted that speaking is still the foremost communicative avenue and pronunciation plays a major role in making one’s self understood in a target language.

With this, studies by Gilakjani (2011), Rusadze and Kipiane (2015) highlight the role of the teacher in promoting correct pronunciation among learners. While it is already established that a majority of ESL learners will probably never achieve native-like pronunciation, Rusadze and Kipiane (2015)say that the goal of the ESL instruction on this particular area should be more realistic. And for that, the most realistic outcome ESL teachers can hope to achieve is intelligibility.

**Table 4. Difficulties and Challenges Encountered by the Pre-Service Teachers in terms of Fluency and Coherence**

1. Oral Communication difficulty
2. Lack of Self-confidence
3. L1 influences L2 Production

Table 4 presents the difficulties and challenges encountered by the participants in terms of fluency and coherence. As seen in the table among the 3 mentioned difficulties on fluency and coherence. Oral communication difficulty ranked first, followed by lack of self-confidence, and then L1 influences L2 Production ranked the least.

Communicative language teaching capitalizes in promoting the learning of a target language; hence, it aims to develop the ability of the speakers to communicate well. Two of the concepts necessary for communicative competence are fluency and coherence. According to Yang (2014); however, there are still many instances that fluency and coherence are not promoted in the ESL and EFL classroom.
He argues that this is largely due to the traditional teaching patterns and ideas that are still widely used in L2 classrooms. This problem cannot be avoided since curriculums all around the world are still exam-driven. In the language classroom, this result automatically indicates that form is prioritized over meaning.

As Derakhshan and Karimi (2015) postulated in their study, the first language of a speaker impacts how he/she learns and even speaks a target language. The learners tend to resort to old language habits in using the L2. This would include the transfer of meaning, forms, and even culture. Nonetheless, as additional statements of the respondents indicate, another factor that contributes to their fluency and coherence difficulties may not only be due to language transfer but also to lack of self-confidence.

Liu and Hwang (2010) argue that anxiety and motivation are two important affective variables that impact language learning especially in ESL and EFL. In the said study, the respondents displayed more anxiety in instances when they were required to speak the target language. Further investigation indicated that this is due not necessarily to poor communicative competence but more on issues of self-esteem and attitude.

This implies that the ESL teacher must practice mindfulness in instruction to avoid sacrificing meaning over form, which leads to neglect of fluency and coherence development among students. Furthermore, the teacher should also be knowledgeable about language transfer to limit its impact to language learning. Alleviating the anxiety of students in speaking L2 will also be beneficial since the results of the study had shown that there is also an affective aspect in the language learning of the respondents.

**Table 12. Summary of all the Difficulties and Challenges Encountered by the participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Grammatical Range and Accuracy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Correct Usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.1. Types and Functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.2. Tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.3. Voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1.4. Participles</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 12 presents the summary of all the difficulties and challenges encountered by the Pre-Service Teachers. Among the four IELTS parameters, grammatical range and accuracy ranked first, followed by fluency and coherence, third is lexical resource and minimal difficulties mentioned on pronunciation.

The results indicate that grammatical range and accuracy and lexical resource tend to affect the oral proficiency of students and hamper them from expressing their thoughts into words. Minimal lexical resource has always been perceived as detrimental in oral communication. On the other hand, grammar also holds importance because it sets the
standards for coherence in using a language. It is a key concept in ensuring effective communication (Praise & Meenakshi, 2014).

Kapelke-Dale (2018) explains that when grammatical range and accuracy are evaluated, it is not only the avoidance of grammatical mistakes that is looked into. Instead, the ability to demonstrate mastery in using appropriate complex sentence structures, verb tenses and other advanced grammatical features is considered.

According to Khan et al. (2018), vocabulary also plays a significant role in oral communication. In their study, they explored the problems Saudi EFL students face with regards to their lack of vocabulary and how this affected their speaking proficiency. The researchers found out that lack of vocabulary is one of the primary reasons for the students’ difficulty in speaking English.

Conclusion

Based on the findings of this study, it can be inferred that the pre-service teachers have partial or limited command of the English language. Although they can handle basic communication however many mistakes can still be observed.

Furthermore, the respondents’ difficulty in grammar has significantly affected their oral proficiency that hinders them from expressing themselves orally not only in the classroom. Thus, knowledge of grammar is a key concept in ensuring effective communication. Moreover, their limited skill in oral communication can be attributed to their hesitance, attitude, and motivation in taking part in oral communication tasks in the classroom.

Pedagogical Implication

It can be said that English language instruction, particularly oral communication development, needs to be improved for pre-service teachers especially since this is a crucial skill that can either make or break their performance in their future careers. The results of the study is reflective of the common problems faced by ESL and EFL learners all over the world but it is something that can be remedied through the commitment and the efforts of the stakeholders involved. Hence, the development and conduct of a training program that can address the issues of students is justifiable.
Recommendations

It is recommended that instructors and professors, especially in ESL, may be more mindful in teaching the different areas of the language. For an instance, they should give more time to issues of pronunciation as it has been observed and even cited in other studies that it is an area that most ESL teachers tend to neglect. It is important for ESL teachers to note that not one area in ESL is more important than another. Instead, these skills should be viewed as equally essential in developing communicative competence as a whole.

Having identified the problem areas of the students in the system, it is recommended that the administrators may consider the approval and conduct of developmental training program to address the difficulties of the students and ensure a better performance for the future graduates especially in terms of oral communication.

It is also recommended that the students participate actively in the proposed developmental training program so that they could prepare for their future line of work which requires and expects effective communication skills. Also, it is recommended that they would be more assertive in identifying their difficulties and informing their instructors about these so that their instructors could provide them support in addressing these.

Future studies focusing on each of the following areas of oral communication: grammatical range and accuracy, lexical resource, pronunciation and fluency and coherence are also recommended. In doing so, researchers will be able to explore the needs and difficulties of students in more detail and thus provide them more alternatives for improving student performance in oral communication.

Some of the transcribed and translated transcripts during the interview
P-participant number
UT-utterance number

1. “It’s hard to recognize subject and predicate.” P3, UT22
2. “I really don’t know the subject-verb agreement, especially if you will apply it in a sentence.” P3, UT97
3. “Although I know the use of past and present tense, there are instances when I get confused in converting the tenses.” P1, UT67
4. “I don’t know if I am going to use the past and present tense.” P15, UT213
5. “I cannot identify the present tense and past participle properly.” P13, UT91
6. “Active and passive voices are hard to understand. They are taught but my answers in our activity do not match the correct answer.” P2, UT11
7. “I am really confused with active and passive voice.” P2, UT15
8. “I cannot connect the things I want to say because I don’t know how to use conjunctions.” P13, UT74
9. “I forgot the use of preposition. I also interchange them.” P6, UT181, 182
10. “I don’t know the sentence construction especially the type of sentences to make.” P6, UT100
11. “Sentence pattern is hard because there are sentences with different constructions.” P8, UT106
12. “It is hard to think of synonyms for a word.” P18, UT115
13. “Honestly speaking, I am not very aware with the antonyms and synonyms.” P13, UT119
14. “There are so many unfamiliar and highfalutin words that I do not know, and I still need to check them in the dictionary.” P11, UT136
15. “There is a word that I don’t know the meaning, and I still need to check the dictionary, Ma’am, like the word rendezvous.” P11, UT83
16. “It is difficult to think about the proper word to use in constructing a sentence. I cannot understand the context of the word in a sentence.” P10, UT104, 111
17. “I cannot pronounce the words well because there are words wherein the stress is on first or second syllable.” P12, UT112
18. “I also have difficulty in pronunciation, Ma’am, like for example, the word little Ma’am, all I know is, it is pronounced as litil only to find out when I was in college that it was lil.” P1, UT8
19. “Sometimes, the teachers have different pronunciation styles.” P3, UT25
20. “There is a teacher who pronounced the word pronunciation as proNAWNciation, then my other teacher pronounced it as pronunciation. So, I don’t know which one is correct.” P3, UT26
21. “There are so many rules in intonation pattern.” P19, UT162
22. “It’s hard to speak in English when it’s impromptu and when you are not ready.” P11, UT64
23. “I think Ma’am it’s difficult for me to become fluent because I am not as perfect as the native speaker.” P7, UT54
24. "When I recite, I blank out, and all my ideas are gone." P17, UT154
25. "I can speak in public, but sometimes I am not confident because I am not sure of my answer.” P2, UT9
26. “I stutter when I speak.” P20, UT12
27. I am not perfect in using the language that is why I am not that fluent.” P7, UT56
28. “My problem is how to pick the right word or the proper term Ma’am.” P10, UT102
29. “I cannot find a word that I can substitute with the word I have already used.” P16, UT164
30. "Intonation pattern is really a confusing thing, Ma'am." P15, UT132

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Linguistic mobility as representative of Class Configuration:
COVID-induced changes

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Abstract

The current study evaluates the effectiveness of linguistic mobility in times of crises, with increased access to useful information as in the case of the present Covid pandemic that has hit the entire world. In the recent years, a new linguistic class has arisen in Saudi Arabia, a class of proficient users of English who are more like L2 users than foreign users. This class prefers English for its social media interactions, and our hypothesis is that they have access to better, more diverse and meaningful information on social media. The study telephonically interviewed 105 male students at Qassim University to compare the crisis-readiness and access to information between two types of respondents, English users and non-English users. Findings clearly established that, the English users had better access to quality information on the pandemic before and after its declaration as one by the WHO. These findings are meaningful to policy makers, administrators, social scientists, and academics alike whose joint concern is to turn out well equipped citizens who can be leaders in times of crises.

Introduction

The new age of globalisation has successfully ushered in an era of intercultural communication and transnational movement of information. Indeed, this is a boon in times such as ours when information itself is a precious resource, sometimes a lifesaver. Nevertheless, a deep relationship exists between language and the immediate environment, as convincingly pointed out by Moyer (2018) that social structures of power are decided by the role that language plays. Language practices, as enacted by social players, are a key to social configurations, and a deciding factor in socio-economic equations locally and globally. In KSA, English, the world’s preferred international language of communication, is taught in educational institutions as a foreign language, though the level varies depending on extraneous factors. Even so, unwittingly, a class of
Saudis has emerged over the last decade or so for whom English is almost like a second language, its use covering their professional and personal domains (Alkhudiry, Al-Ahdal, & Alkhudiry, 2020; Almakrob, & Al-Ahdal, 2020). One reason for this is the kind of freedom, and access one attains to unlimited information given one’s facility in the language. It was this specialized access to information that acted as an agent of forewarning to the danger that loomed over the Saudi people in the wake of the COVID threat. Random interviews disclosed that the usage of Twitter alone recorded a rise of 57% over a period of thirty days spanning the month of March 2020, with users spending an upwards of three hours on various social media platforms, raising the awareness of people and administration in the state, one outcome of which was the immediate suspension of all visas for visits to Mecca and Medina, which effectively curbed a potential health disaster, and the imposition of social distancing directives that is hoped to have further reduced the impact of the virus. This was as early as the first week of March 2020.

**Research Problem**

Information in the world today circumnavigates the globe within seconds, thanks to the vast internet reach, and more to the social media networks. Despite the highly polarised distrust and tensions between many countries in the world, the spread of the coronavirus disease in 2019 was contained in many countries as a result of the impact of information dissemination. One deciding factor in this has been the knowledge of English in the form of the earliest of reports that poured in from all over the continents. However, given the fact that, only a certain linguistic class in the country had the means to access, comprehend, and effectively utilize this information, the impact was still limited in KSA as evidenced form the previous linguistic investigations (Al-Ahdal & Alkhalaf, 2020; Al-Ahdal, 2020; Alkhudiry, Al-Ahdal, & Alkhudiry, 2020). Yet, studies that could gauge the nature and extent of this linguistic ability, and the penetration of the information in the background of that ability with the larger quite often aim to help the administration make changes in the language policy and thereby may benefit the masses, are lacking. In this context, Sample, Justice and Darraj (2018) warn that, one area of linguistics and language research is social media, which has practically overtaken all communication in
the currently pandemic-hit world, and the ability to distinguish fake news (FN) from genuine ones is what decides the security and life of a nation, and as such, the role of language use and proficiency is central. Since there are few studies conducted in the Saudi context regarding effectiveness of linguistic mobility in times of crises, with increased access to useful information as in the case of the present COVID 19 pandemic that has hit the entire world. In the recent years, a new linguistic class has arisen in Saudi Arabia, a class of proficient users of English who are more like L2 users than foreign users. This will fill the knowledge gap on what skills do the Saudi teachers possess to implement language lessons in e-learning in their college classrooms.

**Significance of the Study**

English is being increasingly seen as the lingua franca of the world, and internet and mobile connectivity are the lifelines of human contemporary existence (Almansour & Al-Ahdal, 2020; Magulod, 2018; Saeed et al, 2020). Given the universality of these facts, it becomes necessary to evaluate the role of this language in critical times as well as in terms relevant to nations that do not have the most sophisticated press communication tools, or that require more effective but "controlled openness" in the field of the disease, and therefore in people more susceptible during the epidemic because of lack of knowledge. These communication tools will strengthen attempts to educate the public, and make them more informed citizens can take independent actions with minimal state, or public health, intervention. The key factor for a positive effect is the importance that is put on the sharing of relevant knowledge to encourage 'learning' and the role of the customer in the now more dynamic health education climate (comparing to the messaging in the past on public health). Multilingualism and socio-cultural awareness alone can counter widespread hysteria with knowledge.

**Research Questions**

Language research embedded in KSA has so far not drawn attention to the usefulness of English as a language that not only connects KSA to the world but also, as one that facilitates a massive cache of information in times where the relay of it can translate to saving of hundreds or thousands of lives. The case of COVID 19 outbreak is
one such illustrative example. It goes without saying that, it was solely the ability of Saudis (though it cannot be said of the entire populace) to access and rightly interpret the true threat of the virus that led to nationwide steps for its containment in early stages of onset in KSA. Accordingly, the study tries to answer the following questions:

1. What is the role of linguistic mobility vis-à-vis English proficiency of the Saudi people in detecting early warning signs via the social media?
2. How does the linguistic mobility between Arabic and English translate to where communicative payload is concerned on a global scale?
3. What are the reflections of class configuration to be found in linguistically-empowered Saudis, who are as proficient in English as they are in their mother tongue?
4. Is it in the national interest to promote the English communication skills of the Saudi people, and how is this derived from the early warnings as interpreted through international media channels?

**Research Objectives**

Language, communication, and information dissemination are indivisible parts of the social milieu, and in the present knowledge society, they have come to play an even more significant role, connecting people across continents. In this sense, language is also the medium of connectivity, and it can make the difference between life and death in certain special circumstances such as natural disasters where forewarnings drastically reduce the numbers of casualties, and in pandemics like Covid 19 whose spread could be stemmed in countries where people were better informed. This study has as its objective an analysis of the people’s linguistic competence in educating and cautioning them against the Corona pandemic.

**Review of Literature**

Garrett (2020) has rightly and succinctly conveyed the place of language in times of crisis in a study named COVID-19: The medium is the message. Perhaps no recent study so far has captured the essence of the matter, as this study discusses in the same breath of information and misinformation, misinformation that need not always be malevolent, but can be devastating. Garrett also addresses the role of social media
platforms in producing as much science-led counter narratives as the hysterical, panic causing, scientifically warped loads of information available on these media websites. Schroeder (2018) points out that, where collective action is required, communications research finds itself focused on linguistic mobility as being a factor of class identification. Gonzales, Gere and Silver (2018) cite Monberg, who holds that it is important to analyse individuals experiences and communication within their communities when the language output under the lens is cultural-rhetorical.

Digital media have been responsible for some of the most wide-ranging changes in society, as has been evident in the case of COVID 19 threat to humanity. Jiang (2016) quotes Mershon (2012), who says that, the role of social media language is profound, especially given the inroads it has amongst the young populations.

The COVID-19 Social network infodemic research by Cinelli (2020) sponsored the social networking platform with COVID-19 gossip amplification feature. They acknowledged that, understanding of social dynamics driving knowledge usage, and social networking may be a significant challenge, for it will help us create more effective models of communication that promote social activity, and incorporate better solutions for our interaction during times of crisis.

Dupoux and others (2030) researched the panic social network of the COVID-19 outbreak, and concluded that, in view of the current crisis in COVID-19, we are calling for a system for real-time exchanges of information using data and observations across different social networking networks in several languages and in the diaspora's climate. This will strengthen the ability of public health authorities and stakeholders to identify, and appreciate the social patterns that spread awareness and uncertainty on the coronavirus and the quickly evolving infection and prevention strategies, which lowers community stress and minimize weak and unnecessary activities.

In the background to the COVID-19 Vietnam Epidemic, La et al. (2020) studied financial, social media, and science journalism responses in Vietnam. It provides many nations with valuable guidance in the war against the COVID-19 pandemic by promoting sincere collaboration between states, civil society, and private citizens. The initial announcement of strides achieved in the government and media crisis, along with new research on the Vietnamese scientific community's latest virus, assisted reliable news
sources. The case study offers useful guidance to other countries not only in the simultaneous battle against the COVID-19 pandemic, but also on the general response to public health problems, emphasizing that policy, civil society and private people are working together actively and honestly.

Gao et al. (2020) researched Chinese mental health problems and encounters of social networking in China during the OVID-19 outbreak. The findings suggest that mental wellbeing problems are greatly impacted by SMEs during the OVID-19 epidemic. The Government must focus more on mental well- problems, particularly depression and anxiety in the general population and counter "infodemics" during public health emergencies.

**Methodology**

Linguistic mobility plays a significant role in the mechanism of class configuration. As such, Saudi Arabia is a class-less society in the strict sense of the term; Islam debunks discrimination between human beings on any basis whatsoever. This study, however, concerned itself with the linguistic class created in a country where much prestige is placed on knowing a foreign language, one which is an obvious choice as the international language of communication, i.e. English, and the prominent role it played in spreading timely awareness about the COVID outbreak in another part of the world. The study was both qualitative and quantitative in nature, as direct interview data was collected and later used to quantify the results. We telephonically interviewed two sets of adults, one who are well entrenched in the use of English, and have sufficient access to English based sources of information across the globe, prominently the social media, this group was named ‘EG’ for English Group. The other group, with sketchy or no knowledge of English but comparable access to the social media was code named ‘NEG’ for non-English Group. The study was planned to be a comparative investigation to gauge the role of linguistic ability in early warning systems of pandemics. Accordingly, two sets of interview questions were designed and validated by a team of three social scientists. Post validation, eight questions each were retained to administer one each to English proficient and Non-English proficient users of social media. A convenience sample was isolated from among the student database available at Qassim University.
English proficiency level is recorded as part of the admission process and this information came in useful in requesting for telephonic interviews. Given a reasonable population sample of one hundred and five male respondents (fifty-two fully proficient users of English and fifty-three Arabic users of the social media platforms), the telephonic interview took more than three weeks from setting up an appointment to the actual interview. The median age of the respondents was 22.4 years. With due permission of the respondent in each case, the interview was recorded on the mobile device itself. These were transcribed for ease of use and analysis. The following questions were broadly used for the interviews:

Interview of English proficient social media users or EG

1. Which of the social media platforms would you say you used regularly?
2. On an average, before the lockdown, what was the number of minutes or hours you spent on checking information on your favorite social medium?
3. In general, what was the nature of information you exchanged on the social media before the pandemic broke out?
4. Do you mostly forward received information or messages, or write your own posts?
5. After the lockdown was imposed, what was the nature of change in your social media usage?
6. How would you describe the use of social media as an early warning system of Covid 19 outbreak?
7. How does your English proficiency figure in your social media usage?
8. How does your English proficiency correlate with your receipt of information on Covid 19 after it was declared a pandemic?

Interview of non-English users of social media or NEG

1. Which of the social media platforms would you say you used regularly?
2. Which is the dominant language that you are proficient in?
3. Do you solely use this language for social media interactions also?
4. How much information did you receive via the social media of the fear of a pandemic (Covid 19) before it was declared by WHO?
5. Do you think that you would have received early warning if you had access to social media posts in English?
6. After the lockdown started, did you venture to gather information on the pandemic through your friends or relatives who had access to information in English?
7. As compared to a person who knows English, how would you rate your ability to acquire useful information on crisis situations like the outbreak of Covid 19?
8. Since the lockdown started, have you welcomed social media posts in English?

On an average, each interview lasted about twenty minutes, and the task of transcription was done electronically.

**Data Analysis and Results**

The interview responses demonstrate large differences in the use of social media based upon the linguistic competence of the respondents.

Responses of the EG

1. Which of the social media platforms would you say you used regularly?

Figure 1

![Figure 1](image)

Figure 1 shows that, Twitter and other social media platforms such as Snapchat are highly popular with the respondents. Out of 52 participants, 44 reported extensive usage of these for their social interaction activity. However, this finding is contrary to other available data, which claims that the most popular platform in Saudi Arabia is Facebook.

2. On an average, before the lockdown, what was the number of minutes or hours you spent on checking information on your favourite social medium?
It is notable in Figure 2 that, the young people of the country are wont to spend a great amount of time on these social media apps, and that no respondent spent less than half an hour on these sites before the lockdown and a considerable proportion (14.3%) spent up to four hours on these, that is the time when they were leading their regular academic and personal lives. This supports the belief that, the social media has made deep inroads amongst the young Saudis, and that its true potential as a vehicle of information dissemination needs to be exploited.

3. In general, what was the nature of information you exchanged on the social media before the pandemic broke out?

The bulk of information exchanged by the respondents on the social media consisted of sports, competitions, and entertainment, which serve recreational purposes, not academic ones. It may be observed that, they were still not using the social media to update themselves with news of the general nature from around the world.
4. Do you mostly forward received information or messages, or write your own posts?

![Figure 4](image1)

As per responses to question 4 depicted in figure 4, 71.4% of the EG were using the social media to pass information they received, and not original messages. This is an important finding in the context of the social media usage as an information dissemination tool, its efficacy is self-explanatory.

5. After the lockdown was imposed, what was the nature of change in your social media usage?

![Figure 5](image2)

Respondents in the EG reported change in the social media usage patterns after the lockdowns were imposed. Most significantly, 42.9% reported adding diversity to the platforms they used, that is, they adopted platforms other than those they were already using, and another 28.6% reported a hike in the usage...
time. In other words, the overall presence of social media in their lives moved northwards. On further questioning, at least 23 of the respondents reported that, they increased their social media usage as they found the available information quite useful and more wholesome than that available on non-English platforms.

6. How would you describe the use of the social media as an early warning system of Covid 19 outbreak?

Figure 6

Item 6 of the EG interview was of central importance to this study, it concerned the use of English language posts on the social media as early warning systems of the Covid 19 outbreak. It is notable that, practically all the respondents vehemently supported the role of these platforms in spreading early awareness about the pandemic.

7. How does your English proficiency figure in your social media usage?

Figure 7

The previous finding is corroborated by responses to question 7 which elicited information on the respondents’ English language proficiency and their access to updated
information. A very high majority of 71.4% reported that, the amount of information available to them in English was remarkably high while another 28.6% reported that, these social media news in English also offered them diversity of information.

8. How does your English proficiency correlate with your reception of information on Covid 19 after it was declared a pandemic?

![Figure 8]

When asked how their English proficiency helped in information gain once the pandemic was declared, a large section of the respondents, ie 42.9% reported that, their social media presence and interactions in English increased their information intake after the pandemic was declared. This can be interpreted to imply that, the English users not only gained more information before the pandemic hit, but also afterwards.

Responses of the NEG

1. Which of the social media platforms would you say you used regularly?

![Figure i]
It is a remarkable finding that, whereas the EG respondents used, the NEG group used Twitter and Facebook equally, the common denominator continues to be Twitter.

2. Which is the dominant language that you are proficient in?

Figure ii

As can be seen from Figure ii, the NEG solely used Arabic for their social media interactions. Facebook, as we know, is favoured by users more as a platform of personal information sharing, and this may also explain why as many as half the NEG respondents, being mainly Arabic users reported it as their favoured social media platform.

3. Do you solely use this language for social media interactions also?
When asked if the NEG respondents used Arabic (as reported by them to be the language of use on the social media), solely for the purpose, the responses were unanimously in the affirmative: 66.7% reported Arabic to be the predominantly used language, 16.7% each used it solely for the purpose. This feedback clearly established the linguistic choice of the NEG respondents as being Arabic.

4. How much information did you receive via the social media of the fear of a pandemic (Covid 19) before it was declared by WHO?

A sizeable section of the NEG, that is, 16.7% reported that they received little or no information about a pandemic approaching before this was made public by WHO. However, 83.3% reported that they received substantial information about it.

5. Do you think that you would have received early warning if you had access to social media posts in English?
The responses of the NEG to question 5 showed their evaluation that the Arabic language information on Covid 19 doing the rounds on social media was not substantial, and that if they had access, or means, to use information from English language posts, they would have received early warning signs. This finding, however, is in sharp conflict with responses to the immediately preceding question to which more than 80% responded by reporting that they were well-informed about the pandemic, albeit via the Arabic language information on the social media.

6. After the lockdown started, did you venture to gather information on the pandemic through your friends or relatives who had access to information in English?

However, figure vi clearly indicates that, even the NEG perceived more rigorous and in-depth access to information in English on social media, as they unanimously reported that they approached their English user counterparts, family members or friends to gain information once the pandemic was declared. This finding indicates that, in the perception
of the NEG respondents, more diverse information is available to the English users on social media.

7. As compared to a person who knows English, how would you rate your ability to acquire useful information on crisis situations like the outbreak of Covid 19?

Figure vii

When asked to self-assess their ability to access useful information on crisis-fraught situations in comparison to their English user counterparts, as many as 66.7% of the NEG respondents placed their ability in the ‘mediocre’ bracket.

8. Since the lockdown started, have you welcomed social media posts in English?

Figure viii

Aspirations of the NEG respondents are demonstrated in response to question 8: Since the lockdowns were imposed, these users have ventured to check out the information on social media, which is in English.
Conclusion

The study concludes that, linguistic competence, especially in English, was certainly a big contributor in spreading timely awareness amongst a large section of the Saudi populace. This class caught the winds of the pandemic much earlier than the non-English proficient section and the worldwide news that they had access to help them brace up for the times to come. Not only were they well-informed, they were also well-prepared for what was to unfold in the following months. The non-English users of social media, however, are aware of the disadvantaged position at which their linguistic competence places them, and they aspire to acquire such skills, which can open the doors of the richer, more vibrant, and diverse English diaspora on social media.

Recommendations

By all estimates, it will not be an exaggeration to say that mankind’s troubles will be far from over even when we surpass the current pandemic. As pointed by thinkers, politicians, academicians and general public, a new world will emerge after this calamity tides over. It is therefore, imperative to prepare our young people to be equipped to not only be warned early but also, to tackle any similar situation to the best of their ability. The current study clearly established the role of English as an international language in sending out early signals of trouble approaching. Seeing this, greater vigour must be pumped into empowering the public with the best possible communicative ability in this language. Learning of English, which has been so far a matter of choice should be more rigorously taken up not only with the student community but also, the general population. Popular media, whether social or state owned, can be roped in for short, interesting and catchy English learning programs. Student community may be enrolled under a each-one-teach-one program to help out others become English users.

Limitations

Though a reasonable sample was picked up for the study, it consisted strictly of university students. Future studies need to expand the base of the sample and also take into account the views of the general public.
Acknowledgements

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References


Saudi EFL Learning and Assessment in Times of Covid-19:
Crisis and Beyond

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Abstract

Learning has experienced a shift in these modern periods of a global pandemic, and the measurement would still require a lot of innovation and intervention. In pandemic times, the face of higher education will never be what it used to be; everything is subject to change. This paper analysed the state of online learning and assessment with the use of a mixed-method research design to survey professors at Saudi Electronic University and Qassim University. Results showed that, the university is female-dominated, and that teachers are relatively young in the service with reasonable teaching positions. Most of the faculty members perceived themselves to have an intermediate computer competency level on online learning assessment. Most of the respondents sometimes employ online quizzes, forum post, evaluation, and review; and they always use exit tasks as online assessment techniques. The following were the problems they encounter with the use of online learning assessment: Cheating is quicker online and more challenging to detect; output and performance may be more difficult to perform electronically (reports and demonstrations). Online students require a more organized framework – more support to keep on schedule and present.

Keywords: Online learning assessment, COVID 19, Product and Performance-Based Assessment, Modality
Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic that has devastated the globe has, indeed, rocked the world's educational infrastructure, giving higher-level organizations both incentives and obstacles. In and around the world, higher education institutions (HEIs) proactively react to the damage caused by the pandemic. COVID-19 culminated in the country's school closing. As a result, education, in general, has evolved dramatically, and moved on to electronic learning, whereby instruction is mostly conducted on interactive platforms (Abbasi et al., 2020; Acharya et al., 2020; Bao, 2020; Demuyakor, 2020; Nabukeera, 2020; Reyes, De Vera, & Medriano, 2018; Skulmowski & Rey, 2020).

In the wake of the pandemic, the world has opened up a whole new space for teaching and learning. Here is online learning modality! It encompasses all traditional school settings, and strengthens the way we educate our offspring. Students should decide what they want, how they want it, what they expect, and particularly what they have learned. They will know what they want. The student now has the job, playing his/her share in the learning enterprise. The student must be self-disciplined, inspired, and learned, nonetheless. Thus, educators at all rates have recognized the issue of measuring student success as an instructional tool in an online course, utilizing emerging technology. Although online teaching and learning will increase quality, accessibility, and flexibility for both students and instructors, it is necessary to note that this technology must be utilized in order to facilitate and support teaching. Why do we know that we have electronic instruction as teachers comply with certain standards, particularly in this COVID-19 Pandemic?

As teachers speak about instructional methodologies that facilitate online instruction, they will rely on their assessment methods (Atmowardoyo, Ja'faruddin, & Khaerati, 2017; Cinganotto, 2019; Jerez, Balioian & Zurita, 2017; Malach, & Švrčinová, 2018; Widhanarto, Sukirman, Chotimah, & Indrianingsih, 2019). The ability to read electronically brings additional aspects to the evaluation, nevertheless. In other words, online evaluation is more than mere formal preparation and review. Virtual coaches may change their appraisal approaches to include useful guidance, consistency, and performance efficiency, especially in terms of certain key teaching concepts. Online testing may be used to assess the success of qualified graduates. The measurement device
can be used as a tool, because other variables were calculated. So, since it would be impossible to calculate the sum of learning, learning will not occur. The hope is that, when online teachers develop their methods, students know more.

Notwithstanding developments in information technology and proliferation of digital apps in recent years, which have paved the way for international online education, research on electronic education are still limited. The awareness about how faculty view online classes is also minimal, and published literature on the faculty presentation about online education in the local context is scant and limited, too. The development of online education by many HEIs is still ongoing in Saudi Arabia.

**Importance and Justifications of the Study**

Assessing student progress is essential, as it is a resource to help teachers appreciate what students are thinking and what they are achieving in the classroom. Teachers have a critical function to play in assessing student success. The current study is hopeful of providing valuable knowledge to instructional administrators, financing authorities, academics, and learners so as to fill the holes that remain, and enhance the efficiency of established variables. In the context of university level, this study will provide the following practical significance: (1) Results will serve as input for the universities to develop online learning assessment competencies of teachers; (2) it will also strengthen the process of 21st-century learning assessment of the universities to deal with the e-learning modality; and finally, hopes to provide; and (3) input for teachers' development plan to grapple with the technological divide. Put differently, the issue of the outbreak of COVID-19 is a prime concern for the government, economists, educationalists, and the common public due to the reason that, it affects their lives, particularly in the form of lockdown and risk of being infected with the virus. The educational sector is deeply affected by the epidemic, as they have to cease normal functioning, and start providing education virtually. In this concern, the teachers are compelled to face issues in the delivering of training to the students. This research would have the following functional significance in the sense of the university stage. The findings will enable universities to improve teacher's online learning evaluation skills. It should, therefore, improve the universities' curriculum assessment cycle of the 21st
century to address the system of e-learning; and eventually, it aims to do so. In response to the development program for teachers to tackle the technical divide, this study has various inferences in both practical and theoretical aspects. On practical counts, it provides strategies to follow in the time of crisis in order to overcome the issue; with the result that, the policymakers and the administration of the school will be able to perform necessary preparation when the need arises. On a theoretical count, it provides direction to the future researchers in crisis management to conduct extensive research on a related topic.

**Project Objectives**

Online learning is providing the most significant respite to vast numbers of learners across the globe today. Certainly, social isolation and distancing from peers is a stressful proposition for young people though technology, to some extent, is helping bridge the chasm. In the KSA context, regular schedules of classes have not been disturbed from the very beginning of the lockdown; simply because, universities have smoothly shifted to online alternatives. However, with time, assessment, as a measure both of learning, and the efficacy of the new pedagogy, has remained a nagging question. Thereupon, this study has, as its core objective, the creation of a reliable and sustainable assessment battery that serves the multiple purposes of university-level EFL courses.

That is to say, the study addresses the following research questions:

- **Research Question 1.** How far is the online learning assessment utilizable by teachers?
- **Research Question 2.** Where do teachers and students encounter problems with the use of online learning?
- **Research Question 3.** What recommendations can be implemented to address the identified weaknesses of teachers on online learning assessment?

**Online Learning and Teaching**

The use of online learning becomes an instant mode of learning with the onslaught of COVID-19 Pandemic. Hence, online assessment becomes an important concern for educators at present. Miller (2020) rightly states that, the challenge is, now, for the teachers to find ways to assess their students' learning. Miller proposes synchronous
online sessions to undertake a formative assessment of learning, and recommends attaching weight to learners' opinion on what works, and what does not in the case of an online evaluation. Papadopoulou (2019) pertinently points out that, having the right learning objectives at the very beginning of the learning process is a prerequisite for selecting the correct assessment activities. She concludes her study by cautioning against the end-of-the-course- one-time exam when online learning is the pedagogy, and advises for ongoing and not episodic assessment. Lieberman (2018), however, questions the very idea of 'good assessment', and warns teachers to be wary of such blanket terms.

Research confirms that, teachers who teach in online instruction are more positive than those who do not, highlighting many motivational and disincentive factors that may affect the ability to teach online (Fauzi&Khusuma, 2020; Stone, & Springer, 2019; Wolla, 2017). To properly answer their questions, the faculty's opinions on online education must be recognized in their own right. The faculty 's opinion would include modern training innovations, and this would eventually add to the improvement of academic institutions' learning processes.

Use of Online Learning Assessment

Numerous scholars have reported studies on the use of online learning assessment. Xu and Mehenthiran (2016) identified the factors influencing the online learning assessment satisfaction of students. The findings suggest that, the overall satisfaction of students with online learning is greatly influenced by the way the course is structured, and the material sequenced; by how students can effectively fulfil tasks; and by how the LMS can be used to interact with information. As is well-established by now, there are several differences in terms of methods, emphasis, and technical benefits, as well as the difficulties between face-to-face and online appraisal practices. The traditional face-to-face assessment focuses on maintaining and applying specific knowledge in limited contexts, usually measured by means of quizzes, tests, exams, and academic projects and assignments. Alternative forms of assessment, nevertheless, are now widely accessible to promote higher-order reasoning and instructional goals.

Similarly, Chen, Bastedo and Howard (2018) explored the active online learning assessment design for students. The students' experiences of learning and satisfaction are
related to their understanding of the efficacy of such design elements as incorporated effective learning practices, immersive interaction approaches, and rigorous assessment processes. The perception of evaluation design effectiveness has, in particular, been strongly related to student self-perception of learning, and satisfaction of students with, all sub-populations. The results showed educators and instructional planners on how to develop STEM courses that are efficient, accessible, and successful online. Student survey results were found to support universal learning design, and thus online STEM teachers are highly urged to use concepts in course design, helping not only impaired students but also all students with no exception in this case.

Consequently, Usher and Barak (2018) employed peer-assessment as a method of online learning, and the results showed that, more input was received by participants who offered to review more proposals than their peers. The on-campus students, though, received stronger reviews and were more associated with the grades awarded by the teaching aids online. In a like manner, Colthorpe et al. (2018) assessed the implementation of online meta-learning assessment tasks for science students. Meta-learning activities will enable students to become more autonomous and active by informing their learning style, allowing them to focus on their research, thus enhancing success and facilitating the creation of lifelong learning skills. To elaborate on this point, Al-Hattami (2020) studied the implementation of online assessment during the COVID 19 Pandemic in Saudi Arabia universities. The findings indicate that, most teachers and students have agreed that online training to avoid coronavirus outbreak should proceed regardless of the difficulties involved. The face-to-face approach should, nevertheless, not be substituted. Teachers also used many strategies for formative and summative assessments that most students encounter. Using multiple technology tools and curriculum assessment programs, teachers may provide practical feedback, encourage students to participate, and improve learning through enhanced performance and achievement. As the study shows, there were no significant gaps in teachers and students' answers, and e-assessment and online training could be used very efficiently. Undoubtedly, online learning assessment, when properly implemented, helps students attain the desired learning outcomes (Beckman, Lam, & Khare, 2017; Liu, Liang, & Li, 2017; Broadbent, 2017; Romero-Hall & Vicentini, 2017; Andalecio et al., 2020).
Online Assessment and English as Foreign Language

The effectiveness of language assessment through interactive platforms, or e-learning, has been previously investigated (Bradac, & Walek, 2017; Coryell, & Chlup, 2007; Nedeva& Dimova, 2010; Yulia, Husin, & Anuar, 2019), showing its advantages and disadvantages. It is not surprising that, embedding innovations in schooling and learning is a common practice in the classroom. In classrooms, however, effective evaluation of students using technical instruments is not strong enough, particularly in language classrooms (Waluyo, 2020; Hirata& Hirata, 2020). In the context of the Arab world, the effect of an online assessment of Iranian EFL students to their writing skill has been postulated by Mohamadi (2018). Participants completed three assessment tasks in writing using their pre-test / post-test time series design. The findings demonstrated that, the use of data and online resources combined with accurate online assessment methods is a good form of studying.

On account of the paucity of studies conducted in the Saudi context about online learning assessment, it becomes a pressing concern of the researcher to further explore the context of online learning amidst COVID-19 Pandemic. It follows, then, that the effectiveness of e-learning assessment in Saudi EFL Classrooms must be investigated to provide actual implications of the study to Saudi Universities. This will fill the knowledge gap in the existing literature relating to the kind of skills the Saudi teachers possess to implement e-learning in their college classrooms. Therefore, this study will include the implementation of online learning and assessment in Saudi Electronic University and Qassim University, which will serve as a benchmark of success in COVID-19 pandemic.

Methodology

This study centres its investigation on the use of e-learning assessment in Saudi EFL classrooms by using a mixed-method of descriptive quantitative and qualitative designs. This type of design is described by Schoonenboom and Johnson (2017) as a way of combining qualitative and quantitative data which, in turn, strengthens the study's findings because of its depth, breadth of corroboration, and rigour of analysis. The present study drew on participants from two universities: Saudi Electronic University and Qassim University. The study adopted the following five methods of assessment in both the
universities, and to statistically compare the results from (1) Online quizzes; (2) Forum posts; (3) Peer evaluation and review; and (4) Exit tasks. Apart from assessing the learning outcomes, these activities are also likely to help the learners feel connected with their peers in real-time, self-assess learning; and place their success against their peers. These assessments were, then, followed up with a quantitative data gathering in the form of questionnaires that were administered to ten (10) participants across the two universities so as to evaluate their experiences, and identify the weaknesses in the assessment approaches, if any. To complement the quantitative data, interviews were conducted with ten faculty members. Notably, anchored on the ethical research considerations, personal information and details given by the participants were confidentially treated. In addition, it must be noted that, prior to the identification and selection of participants, a written request was sent to, and approved by, the concerned authorities. The respondents also filled out data privacy agreement form.

The Table 1 and Figure 1 show the profile of respondents that, the majority of the respondents were female (64%), in younger age (52%), doctorate (48%), and masters' degree holders (46%). Most of them have 11 years and over (42%), with 6-10 years (425) years of service. Most of them are assistant and associate professors (46%). The data shows that, the university is female-dominated, and that teachers are relatively young in the service with reasonable teaching positions.

Table 1. Demographic, Work-related Profile and General Internet Patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profile</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Older (38-57)</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Younger (22-39)</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Attainment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate Degree</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master &quot;s Degree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Bachelor "s Degree 3 6
Years in Teaching
11 years and above 21 42
6-10 years 21 42
1-5 years 8 16
Academic Rank 0
Professor 15 30
Assistant or Associate Professor 23 46
Instructor 12 24

Figure 1. Demographic, Work-related Profile and General Internet Patterns

As to the perceived competency level of teachers in online learning assessment, as shown in Table 1, most of the faculty members perceived themselves to have an intermediate computer competency level on online learning assessment. This implies that, the teachers are capable of using computers in their online learning assessments. A closer look at the table shows that, there were ten beginners (20%), and 17 experts (34%) while the majority of them are intermediate (46%).

Table 2. Perceived competency
Perceived Computer Competency Level on Online Learning Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expert</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intermediate</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginner</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Perceived competency

The finding means that, out of the fifty respondents, the majority of them perceived themselves as medium on the use of ICT. This finding supports the previously reported result that, most teachers may not embrace the ICT curriculum, since they lack ICT skills. Is this the key explanation for the reduced degree of instructor ICT usage (Alt, 2018; Claro et al, 2018; Siddiq, Scherer, &Tondeur, 2016)? According to Ifinedo, Rikala and Hamalainen (2020), teachers are motivated in their classrooms by several reasons to use computer technology. Such considerations include instruction on information technology, machine self-efficiency, Utilization of personal computer technologies, optimistic instructor values, and computer technology behaviours, as well as exposure to computer technology career growth and expertise and practice. They are all essential reasons, which inspire an instructor to utilize digital technologies. However, it is not effective to use computer technology on its own in the classroom unless the teacher has
a theory to model with. Therefore, a paradigm shift needed to maximize the potential of ICT in teachers and the competent authority responsible for preparing teachers to keep abreast of the rapid developments and advances in ICT. Then, we need to define the scope of existing teachers' ICT competencies in order to train teachers to utilize technology more efficiently than is customary done. In other words, what needs addressing is how teachers view their own ICT competences.

Results and Discussion

Research Question 1. How far is the online learning assessment utilizable by teachers?

Table 3. The extent of utilization of the online assessment techniques

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Computer Competency</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conducting online quizzes</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting forum post</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting evaluation and review</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting exit tasks</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3. The extent of Utilization of the online assessment techniques
As to the extent of utilization of the online learning assessment techniques, the majority of the respondents sometimes employ online quizzes, forum post, evaluation and review, and they always use exit tasks. The result of the study means that, the teachers are moderately employing online assessment techniques in their online learning courses. Hence, there is a need for further enhancement of their knowledge, skills, and attitudes towards technology assessment. The moderate mindset of the teachers may, therefore, be induced by the reality that, while teacher's problems tend to involve, but are not restricted to, electronic teaching and learning to depersonalize training and the propagation of intellectual dishonesty, faculty has less choice than they are expected to follow in the new standard. A research analysis found that the faculty raised reservations about the performance and the requirement for the professional assistance of teachers in online classes which are in line with previous findings (Almerich et al, 2016; Moreira-Fontán et al, 2019). Accordingly, recent studies have shown that the faculty has negative perceptions of online learning, rather than technological use, and most faculty consider online learning pessimistically (Alanazy, 2018; Beach, 2017; Hung, 2016; Prior et al, 2016). Even a limited number of teachers did not want to substitute e-learning with traditional forms of teaching (Wasserman & Migdal, 2019). Also, in another report, technical challenges were found frequently included hurdles to systemic, institutional, planning and growth, and challenges to cost/benefit analysis. The findings of this study indicate that, problems and challenges of online education need to be tackled, and online courses carefully planned and managed. Unwanted electronic learning values can be updated or revamped to boost the faculty's online teaching expectations and to reduce their aversion to online learning. However, the feeling of teachers' participation in online courses is often related to social and educational presence. Such aspects function greatly in face-to-face training, but are not appropriate for online learning (Martin, Budhrani, Kumar, & Ritzhaupt, 2019).
Research Question 4. What assessment options are at the disposal of teachers in Saudi universities?

Table 4. Extent of Utilization of the Online Assessment Techniques

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Options Used</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reaction Paper</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-portfolio</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blogs</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online report presentation</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research and synthesis papers</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online quiz</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team projects</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective journals</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chatroom participation</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4. Extent of Utilization of the online assessment techniques

Result in table 4, shows that, team projects ranked first as the commonly used online assessment techniques, and that are followed by reaction paper, reflective journals, chatroom participation, online report presentation as top five. The bottom assessment techniques used are online quiz, research, and synthesis papers, blogs, and e-portfolios. The results conveyed that, most of the teachers are still employing the traditional form of
assessment while they also lay equal importance on the different online assessment techniques. In the meantime, the reluctance in the faculty to pursue online education may also be attributed to the fact that, although the majority have had a very secure internet connection, only a few faculties in this sample have had a rather stable connection. Internet access remains a problem even for college students and teachers (Kahraman & Yilmaz, 2018; Nikolopoulou & Gialamas, 2016; Shin & Lwin, 2017; Power, Musgrove, & Nichols, 2020). When teachers talk about teaching methodologies that use online learning as a distribution tool, they have to concentrate on their assessment approaches. The opportunity to learn online gives the assessment new considerations; possibly because, online evaluation is more than just academic training and review. In view of certain fundamental evaluation concepts, online trainers should change their assessment practices to include valuable input, transparency, and demonstration consistency. Online research may be used as a means of assessing professional student performance. The system of measuring should be used as a tool, because many factors have to be measured, and also because the amount of learning may be challenging to measure, learning does not happen. The idea is that as online instructors refine their approaches, the students would learn more. Shifting classes from the classroom into an electronic world radically changes human engagement, collaboration, learning paradigms, and assessment strategies. Throughout the course material, the professor must have intellectual expertise before designing an effective evaluation method. Because of the fact that the implementation process has evolved, instructors will now adjust the forms they show the importance of teaching and learning.

**Research Question 2. Where do teachers and students encounter problems with the use of online learning assessment?**

Based on the interviews held with the teachers, the following were the problems they encounter with the use of online learning assessment: (1) Cheating is quicker online and more challenging to detect; (2) Output and performance may be more difficult to perform electronically (reports and demonstrations); and (3) Online students require more organized framework – more support to keep on schedule and perform.
Cheating is quicker online and more challenging to detect

Professor X confirmed that, through online learning, "assessment is prone to cheating since we cannot monitor authentically the performance and products of the students." In a like manner, another one commented, "we are also worried about the credibility of online assessment, since the risk of cheating among students cannot be avoided." While it is not clear if online students are actually cheating more than face-to-face ones (Moten et al, 2013), it is, indeed, more difficult to check who is being tested online, and how it is being held. In a study of Miller and Young-Jones (2012), they assessed the academic integrity of online classes in comparison to face-to-face learning interaction, they found out that, students felt it was better to cheat online than in face-to-face classes. They consider that, deception happens for students attending online and face-to-face lessons most frequently in online classes. Students, who take online lessons, were even less inclined to cheat than students who only took classes face to face. Nevertheless, the correlation between age and online classes and cheating clarified the contradictory results. There were no age gaps in the actions of cheating.

Output and performance may be more difficult to perform electronically (reports and demonstrations)

Another problem that emerged on the online learning assessment is the output and performance that may be difficult to perform online. Professor B confirmed "while it's true that having students in a classroom online will improve their communication skills and encourage them to understand. Students may not be willing to arrange their reports electronically, though, so that their professors and fellow students can access and receive input." In a like manner, another teacher stressed that, "we are challenged to check the outputs since we cannot give the assessment feedback to the students directly." Professor C stated “in online assessment, process-product performance of students is not easily evaluated." Edmondson (2008) presented the pedagogical challenges of online assessment, concluding that online assessment becomes difficult, since points for improvement is not being given along the process. As Barrot (2016) noted, poor internet connection is a challenge for online learning since, students have showed annoyance due to interruptions.
Online students require more organized framework – more support to keep on schedule and perform

Online learning requires more planning and technological support to conduct on the part of the students. As one respondent commented, "The arrangement that actually exists, for example, when students and teachers meet at the same time on the whiteboard or overhear classmates in a row debating an upcoming task, does not simply go in an online course." In much the same way, another one recounted that, "another challenge I faced as student was typing and recording our research. For example, one student felt that typing the articles he originally wrote, including a reflection essay, an inscription paper or an exit paper, was a burden." Furthermore, most of these students found out that, since they were not comfortable enough, they were unable to post their research publicly, because they dreaded to be judged for their work. In these situations, there is a need on the part of teachers to plan carefully the schedule and platform of the online course. Studies showed that, there are further challenges involved in implementing assessment in online learning, where results suggest that, e-assessment has beneficial impacts on student learning performance. Nevertheless, numerous concerns and guidelines for future adoption have been articulated, and put forward (Al-Ahdal, 2020; Prior, 2003; Sulisworo, Rahayu, & Akhsan, 2016; Toker & Baturay, 2019).

Research Question 3. What recommendations can be implemented to address the identified weaknesses of teachers in online learning assessment?

Results of the qualitative data showed that there are recommendations that need to be implemented so as to address the identified weaknesses in online learning assessment. On the problem encountered by cheating on online assessment, the respondents suggested to implement timed/open-book tests. As one professor said, "the growing exam is an electronic open-book examination, and it reduces the period that students will take the exam to reduce reading while they learn, and they can address the questions in the allotted time." Similarly, one respondent suggested to shuffle the questions: "when we give assessment questions to students, we need to shuffle or randomize so that students may not be given the same question given to the other". Moreover, another respondent suggested that, the use of plagiarism software can help teachers assess properly what the students can do while another teacher noted that "students may avoid plagiarism by
running their assessments via a for-fee plagiarism identification tool such as SafeAssign or Turnitin. At least, a conversation can begin about how to quote sources correctly. "Lastly, teachers should be encouraged to do performance and product-based assessment, as one respondent believes: "Tasks needing students to compose, talk or attend are easier to counterfeit — particularly when they appear frequently during the course." Consequently, the problem with the online learning assessment may consist largely in the fact that the output and performance may be difficult to perform online. In this connection, one respondent suggested the use free hardware and software, such as webcams and microphones, which are quite cheap, and despite simple step-by-step guidance students can use free software to log and deliver lectures. Ultimately, the respondents suggested that low stakes assessments often allow students to determine how well they understand the subject. Dividing large tasks into smaller groups is time-intensive, as students are required to interpret their own study. Furthermore, the benefits of being able to measure, and direct students' understanding often warrant consideration. The students' understanding can be measured, and analyzed as quickly as possible.

Conclusion

This study assessed the status of e-learning assessment in Saudi EFL Classrooms in two Saudi universities. It employed a mixed study research design to sampled faculty members of a Saudi Arabia university. Results showed that, the university is female-dominated, and that teachers are relatively young in the service with reasonable teaching positions. Most of the faculty members perceived themselves to have an intermediate computer competency level on online learning assessment. Most of the respondents sometimes employ online quizzes, forum post, evaluation and review, and they always use exit tasks as online assessment techniques. The following were the problems they encounter with the use of online learning assessment: Cheating is quicker online and more challenging to detect, output and performance may be more difficult to perform electronically (reports and demonstrations). Online students require more organized framework – more support to keep on schedule and perform.
Implications to Practice and Limitations of the Study

Based on the conclusion stated above, this study presents implications to practice. A successful online language instructor will consider ways to show that, student learning has occurred. As the discussion has amply demonstrated, nevertheless, one method of evaluation alone would not be enough to quantify any of the goals, or the expected results. In order for the online evaluation to be successful, teachers must extend the measurement methods utilized in the instructional implementation of the online course. If education is heading towards outcome-based evaluation, online schooling is an outstanding medium for the calculation of student learning performance, and for the implementation of expertise as well. The evaluation methods used in standard classes will typically be adjusted to match the complexity and pedagogy of online courses. Online also extended the range of appraisal methods, all of which are more conventional in nature. As an important implication to practice, there is a need to intensify the technology capability of Saudi teachers to effectively integrate the use of online assessment in teaching. The use of computer technology assessment by teachers can be influenced by the teacher development in computer technology integration. A lack of classroom training, yet, is one of teachers' main obstacles when utilizing computer technology. There are drawbacks to this report, however. The mixed method data collection prohibits the analysis of shifts in staff experience over time. The comparatively low sample size, therefore, limits the generality of the analysis. Caution is warranted when using the findings of the research. Yet, the findings of this study should be seen as delivering valuable guidelines in shaping the school's curriculum strategies during the changeover to the current educational standard.

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Questionnaire

I. Personal Profile

Name: ____________________________ (optional)

Sex: ___ Male  ___ Female

Age: _____ younger (22-39)  ________ older (38-57)

Educational Attainment:

_____ Bachelor’s Degree
_____ Master’s Degree
_____ Doctorate Degree

Years of Teaching:

_____ 1-5 years
_____ 6-10 years
_____ 11 years and above

Academic Rank:

• Instructor( Demonstrator/ Teaching Assistant)
• Assistant Professor
• Associate Professor
• Professor

What is your perceived competency level on online learning assessment? (please check)
II. Online Learning Assessment Survey

(1) What is the extent of online learning assessment techniques you employed??
(please encircle your answer)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived Computer Competency on</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conducting online quizzes</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting forum post</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting evaluation and review</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conducting exit tasks</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) What is your extent of utilization of the online learning assessment techniques?
(please check)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assessment Options Used</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reaction Paper</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E-portfolio</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blogs</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online report presentation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research and synthesis papers</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Online quiz</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Team projects</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reflective journals</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chatroom participation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
III. Interview Questions

1. What are the problems you encountered with the use of online learning assessment? Please give us some specific situation.

________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

2. Based on your current experiences, what recommendations can be implemented to address the identified weaknesses of teachers on online learning assessment?

________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________

Thank you!
The Application of Literary Text in Language Classroom:  
A Pedagogical Stylistics Perspective

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**Abstract**

The present article focuses on the effectiveness of pedagogical stylistics in language teaching courses. Researchers claim that the use of literature in language teaching enhances and develops their understanding of the use of target language and also enriches their knowledge about cultural awareness. The present article aims to find out if there is any possibility to produce stylistically-designed activities from literary texts and can ELT teachers make use of those stylistically-designed activities as examples to be utilized in their language teaching courses. The population of this study is aspirants who seek to cultivate language skills and hone linguistic proficiency and for this purpose, British Education and Teaching System (BETS), Lahore provides population for this study during a 3-month course taught from December 2019 to February 2020. The
effective use of literature-based activities in regard to English language classroom welcomes the implementation of pedagogical stylistics which makes the teachers more proficient and enriches student teachers’ language and cultural understanding. The results indicated that the student and teachers’ motivation was increased due to the use of the pedagogical stylistic approach.

**Keywords:** Pedagogical stylistics, English Language, Language and cultural awareness

**Background of the Study**

The present research demonstrates how stylistic techniques can improve and enrich both literature and language teaching courses. Pedagogical stylistics approach checks the literary language activities to inspire and encourage learners’ to develop their understanding and awareness of relationship between literature and language. For those teachers who are engaged in ELT and utilize material from literature in their classrooms, they may find various helping books on style (Weber, 1996; Wales, 1989) which offer a rich source of practical illustrations on form, genre, and style under the learner-centered teaching practice without ignoring the historical and social and historical of the literature (Carter & McRae, 1996; Cook, 1994; Fowler, 1996; Kramsch, 1993; Medriano & De Vera, 2019; Simpson, 1993; Short, 1996; Toolan, 1998; Widdowson, 1975). Narrative and reading response theorists (Britton, 1990; Bruner, 1986; Rosenblatt, 1995, 1978; Scholes, 1989) do claim, and research confirms (Langer, 1995; Short, 1996; Wells, 1990) that literary texts must have the potential to generate quality discussion which reflect and explore intertextual connections.

Besides explaining the theoretical framework about stylistics and stylistic strategies, the research will also highlight and present sample activities based on stylistic strategies which can be used by English language teachers. They aspire to use these stylistically based activities in their language and literature courses. The designed and planned material in this research is on “God be Praised”, a masterpiece short story, written by Ahmad Nadeem Qasmi. The fact is that “using literature in the language classroom has been of recent interest to a number of language teachers all over the world, leading to the publication of many books and articles on the subject”(Tasneen, 2010 ; p.1).
Stylistic analysis assists students in understanding how lexical and grammatical items function in literary texts. The students can be able to develop their cultural awareness and communicative competence by knowing the vocabulary, grammar and rhetorical concept of literary texts. The performance of students is enhanced through the stylistic based study of literary and non-literary texts in language and literature classes. Furthermore, the application of stylistic based analysis helps the students to perform confidentially with increased motivation. Al Alami (2012: p. 30) sums up the pedagogical techniques to the literary texts as;

a) Literary texts should appeal to the students’ interests, concerns and age.
b) The teaching of literature in an EFL context should aim to elicit the students’ responses to the text and to guide them to personal discovery.
c) Literary texts should be approached as a resource and a fruitful opportunity for students’ education and their personal growth.
d) Literature in the language classroom should be explored in the light of learner-centred pedagogy, and as such, teaching should focus on students’ communicative needs.
e) This global perspective of learner-centredness on language teaching is implemented through the learner-centred curriculum, which is expressed by the view that language education should aim to establish the conditions for autonomous learning.
f) A new role and responsibilities for the teacher should be established. The teacher is not anymore the unquestionable authority in the language classroom.
g) Regarding the implementation of this approach in the language classroom, this is attained through a language-based classroom practice where literary texts are explored as a resource for literary and linguistic development.
h) The exploration of texts comes closer to the students’ personal experiences and to what relates to their life through teaching techniques and practices and is divided into pre-reading, while reading, and after-reading activities.
Use of Short Stories in English Language Teaching

Short stories can be effective in developing Language awareness. A short story has sublime pedagogical values. The teacher can develop student's understanding the language of literature. This can only be possible by using stylistic techniques by discussing the important respect of the short story. The Language learners get an ample opportunity for emotional interaction with the text and involve themselves personally. Short stories bear common theme and the learners get enough motivation to show their response towards human experience. The language teachers are required to select short story carefully taking into account the linguistic and conceptual level of the students.

Exploiting Short Stories for Language Learning Since “the universe of short fiction the two mirrors and lights up human lives” it draws in prompt attention of students (Sage, 1987). Murdoch (2002) contended that "short stories can, whenever chose and misused properly, give quality content substance which will incredibly improve ELT courses for students. Kilpatrik et al (1994) believe that “through the intensity of creative mind we become vicarious members in the story. We truly 'distinguish' ourselves with our preferred characters, and accordingly their activities become our activities”. Oster (1989) contended that short story is a ground-breaking and spurring factor for showing four abilities, for instance, educator oral perusing, pretend, authorization of characters, sensational introduction, understanding, and conversation can lead the students upgrading their language. As per Collie and Slater (1991), short stories are advantageous in light of; a) its short length; b) its lucidity and straightforwardness; c) its various tastes and interests; d) its huge and changed subjects. As per Pardede’s (2011), an incredible number of English language coaches discovered short stories as intriguing to be utilized both as writings for singular delight and as a model for language study halls. Spack (1985) recommended that the language instructor should choose short stories which can be intriguing for students. As indicated by McKay (2001) and Rivers (1968), if an abstract book is applicable to their background and premiums, students do peruse and appreciate it. Morgan and Rinvolucri (1983) gave scope of study hall activities and in excess of 70 storylines ('skeletons') for students.
Aims of the Study

The investigation targets highlighting the strategies and stylistic-designed activities in the language classroom to empower them to break the ice and build confidence and remove reluctance. It likewise provides aplomb to language teachers to accommodate text-based activities for a better understanding of language in context and polish learners’ linguistic competence.

Research Questions

Following research questions are meant to be explored by this study:

1) Does the utilization of literature-based activities in language teaching hone learners’ language competence?
2) Do literature-based activities build a conducive environment in the language classroom where learners can sharpen their communicative competence?
3) Do literature-based activities help in developing linguistic skills of learners and facilitate their comprehension of language materials?

Limitations of the Study

The study is constrained to students at British Education and Training System, Lahore enrolled in Spoken English Class during the academic session 2019-2020. Forty Students were of mixed abilities and from diverse backgrounds which were chosen to be the participants of the current examination.

Literature Review

For the last two decades, the role of literary text has a necessary component for teaching languages classes has been increasing. Collie and Slater (1987) advocated the idea of applying literary text in ELT classroom, as it gives valuable authentic reading material. The historic division between literature and language which Short (1996) called a ‘border dispute over territory’, paved the way for teaching of language and literature as two ‘disconnected pedagogic practices’ (Carter and McRae, 1996).

It spurs the understudies to include actually and specialists to know local just as unfamiliar culture. "In sixties and seventies in truth there was an unmistakable response
against the utilization of any artistic English whatsoever in the classroom, however the pendulum has swung the other way advocates presentation of writing as a solid instrument for training dialects structure, culture and lexicology. A considerable lot of the language specialists are of the view that the utilization of short stories in ELT training courses has its own phonetic significance.

Lucas (1990) classifies texts into artistic and functional types and according to his point of view, artistic texts include novels, short stories, essays, poems and plays and functional texts consist of other than the artistic as shown in Figure-1 below: Functional text comprises six categories:

1) Casual texts include newspapers, magazines and non-fiction
2) Personal texts include letters and diaries.
3) Transactional texts include business letters, legal documents and reports.
4) Reference texts include dictionaries, catalogues, directories and inventories.

5) Pedagogical texts include textbooks and encyclopaedias.
6) Academic texts include research papers, theses, specialist books and journals.

Integrated Approach according to Divsar and Tahriri (2009) means literature as content or culture, literature as personal growth and language-based are three models for teaching literature. The researchers focused on three considerations: linguistic considerations, cultural considerations and communicative considerations as a prerequisite for teaching literature. Following are the three phases for teaching literature:

1. The Preliminary Phase: This is language-based activities for developing comprehension.
2. The Content-cultural Phase: This makes learners know cultural aspects in the text.
3. The Synthesis Phase: This leads learners to evaluate the text and express their understanding.

**Why a short story is the most suitable tool?**

Since the very beginning of civilization stories are told and read. People read short story for various purposes. —Old tradition, culture, and wisdom of humanity can be understood and develop through this genre of literature. The unique pattern and narrative elements entertain and instruct the people. EA Poe’s definition of short stories provides the answer why a short story is the most appropriate literary genre to be applied in ELT courses. He defines short stories “as a narrative that can be read at one city of from one-half hour to two hours and is limited to certain unique or single effect to which every detail in subordinate” (in Abrams, 1970: p. 158). Generally a short story has a single plot and brief description of setting and aims to provide a single effect, which is easily followed by the language learners. Further a short develops the inner monologue in the learners. While reading the short story, the learners develop a sort of emotional attachment with some of the characters. They try to discuss about the story and anticipate the possible conclusion of happenings in the story. In this way short stories enhance and enrich their linguistic skills and cultural awareness.

**How to choose the suitable text?**

The selection of appropriate text is very important in teaching English to ELT learners. Literary texts must be selected very carefully, otherwise the students will not comprehend the texts and their response will be passive. The students do not show positive response to linguistically difficult texts as they reduce student's motivation. Further, the difficulty in comprehending the texts makes the text interesting for a long time. The subject matter, topics and themes of the chosen texts must be desirous and made students to connect the theme of these texts to their own personal lives. In the selection of literary texts, poetry, short stories and short one-act plays are more appropriate and suggestive to novels because the language of the novels is not easy and requires much time to analyze. Keeping in view the level of students; the language of the selected texts
should be understandable and appropriate. The lexical and syntactic choices in non-contemporary texts are difficult to grab the meanings. Therefore, it is wise to select the most appropriate and contemporary texts which possess everyday common language and idiomatic expressions. The contemporary ideas are comprehensible for even a cursory reader.

Amalgamation of pedagogically-oriented stylistic activities in language classes

The main purpose of the study is the implementation of stylistics to the teaching of language and literature. Numerous methods and strategies are used to develop pedagogically oriented stylistic activities for the purpose of teaching them the language of the literary texts and to enrich their overall language insight and in-depth understanding about it. Mick Short is of the view;

Over the last few years there has been a resurgence of interest in the use of literature in language teaching . . . Stylistic analysis has been of particular concern to the foreign-language learner as it has been seen as a device by which the understanding of relatively complex texts can be achieved. This, coupled with a general interest in English literature, has led to the stylistic approach becoming more and more popular in the EFL context. (Short, 1989: 6)

So, it has become a norm to utilize literary texts to teach language in the sphere of language teachers and learners. Pedagogically designed stylistic largely depends on explanatory skills like cloze procedure covers paraphrasing, summarizing and rewriting (Carter & Long, 1987). In reality, the pedagogically designed stylistics connects to rationalize learners for the utilization and analysis of language while teaching literary texts. The main focus of this approach is to equip the students and make them more aware about the various sentence structures and uses of English. The use of their activities approaches while teaching language classes will be of great importance. It can also be helpful in improving students' aesthetic experience and poetic understanding.

Hall (2014) exhibits that academic stylistics fundamentally begins when Widdowson distributes his book *Stylistics and the Teaching of Literature* (1975) trailed via Carter, Short and others in the start of 1980s (p. 244). Hall (2014) continues to plot
the distinction in purposes of perspectives among Widdowson and Carter. As per the previous, a scholarly work is a one of a kind type of language varies from the day by day language. Widdowson accepts that singular readers are the key factors during the time spent understanding.

Clark (2007) structures talks and workshops for about a month to help understudies in their work. She sorts out a module of two sections: in the initial segment, the understudies are acquainted with various complex strategies through week by week talks, courses, and workshops. At that point, the understudies are solicited to apply each from the complex viewpoints that are referenced above in the examination of the two books. Along these lines, the understudies are instructed the various angles procured for their investigation inside the setting of their application to a specific type of fiction (p.63). Carter (2010) prominently comments that instructive stylistics doesn’t target forcing a fixed furthermore, ignorant translation of a solitary book, but instead accentuating the need that urges readers to have the opportunity in utilizing their all-encompassing information to break down a specific scholarly work. He likewise determines that there is no ‘all inclusive’ technique to decipher a book. Truth be told, readers ought not act in a latent way; they ought to enhance importance through their own social and semantic encounters (p. 117).

Research Methodology
Design of the Study
This study endeavored to explore the benefits of using literature based activities in language teaching classroom and investigated whether inclusion of literature in language teaching enhance language development of learners. This study applies descriptive research method which describes a situation using the collected data without determining cause and effect. Questions were written and clear to understand. Participants answered the questions and their responses were described.

Participants
This study was conducted by engaging students from British Education and Teaching System (BETS), Lahore (N=75). The students utilized literature-based activities
to develop their linguistic competence and performance were the population of the study. Exercises from literary text were designed to check the validity of the approach.

**Research Method**

Text based activities is a new approach which encourages using fiction and poetry in English language classroom. This method can easily be applied in classroom as this is known as low technology approach. Words and their appropriate usage of literary text is the key point on a page to be talked about and interpreted. In this paper, the literary text is used for explaining and understanding, as well as stimulating readers for practicing the language skills. In this case, the literary text as the object of analysis is the short story “God be Praised” by Ahmad Nadeem Qasmi. This text is utilized to generate literature based activities analyzed for its use in English language classroom. The analysis is emphasized on the linguistic inputs that readers/students receive, such as the structure of sentences, vocabulary and the use of the literature based activities work for practicing four language skills. This method of analysis is applied for this literary work, though it is not key point to apply all of the four language skills at the same time.

**Analysis of Pedagogically Designed Stylistic Activities**

Pedagogically designed Activities should be carefully planned while teaching language classes. These activities are mainly divided into three categories; before reading, during reading and after reading activities. The background knowledge and prior understanding of the themes in the short story are the main components in pre-reading activities. At the very first stage in pedagogical stylistic analysis before reading activities is to give a brief description of the short story.

**Before-reading Activities**

While giving an introduction to the short story we can narrate a very brief description of the story. The blow given gist is an example of before reading activity. “God be Praised” by Ahmad Nadeem Qasmi is a well known short story about a village Maulvi who undergoes many ups and downs in the later part of his life. Before his marriage, he was leading a pleasant and placid life. How life changes with the passage of
time can be well understood after reading this story. We may raise some questions to arise their interest enhance their knowledge and learning skills through the background knowledge and prior understanding of the story. This will also help students to develop a relationship with the main idea. For instance, we may ask the learners to ponder about the same character and problems in their society. What are their general views regarding these traditions? Through the brief introduction to the short story we can instigate students' background information and asking them to give a speech about these questions. This will help students to enhance their speaking skills. Aydinoglu states: “pre-reading activities focus to activate their prior knowledge, to help them make predictions, to arouse their curiosity, to enhance their motivation and introduce some lexical items and grammatical structures if necessary” (Aydinoglu 2012, p.3).

**During-reading Activities**

In this part, the collectively reads the literary texts for better understanding and comprehension. Furthermore, in this section, the teacher raises several questions to analyze and assess if they have grabbed the meanings of text or not. Reading activities aim to help students comprehend the text, get the meaning and practice the lexical items in the text, and study the literary features of the Text. In addition, we give students’ paragraph one of the short stories and ask them to paraphrase it. This act of paraphrasing the text activates students’ passive vocabulary and ameliorates their speaking skills. Another important activity to develop their understanding and comprehension of the literary text is to match words with their meanings. This will enable the students to comprehend the text easily with the help of meanings.

**After-reading Activities**

The Main focus of these activities is to develop writing, speaking and understanding of language skills. After reading portion is also known as a "Production Stage as it asks learners to produce by using the language items practised in the previous stage." (Aydinoglu 2012; p. 3). Here are given some of the most significant pedagogically-designed stylistic Activities.
After the complete and thorough reading of the short story, we gave the students a few close tests which are grammatically and syntactically rich enough to enhance their pragmatic ability. These tests enable the students to enhance their general understanding about Language and lexicology. Paul Simpson expresses that close tests; attempt to impart knowledge about which lexical items are appropriate to which grammatical context, this, of all its applications, is the one that comes closest to getting students to fill in the ‘right’ term for the structural slot. To this extent, cloze test is able to shed a great deal of light on the concept of the lexical set. A lexical set is a bundle of semantically compatible items which are closely linked to a specific topic or register. Although synonyms (and near-synonyms) are obvious candidates for inclusion in lexical sets, the concept extends much more widely to encompass clusters of key words which correlate generally with a particular field of discourse. (Simpson, 2003; p.85)

The application of cloze procedure in ELT class makes students understand and anticipate lexical choices used in the literary text. “Literature introduces the language in a meaningful manner by providing the building blocks and structures – the vocabulary, the semantics and syntax necessary for the learner’s self-expression and communication with others. It enables children to find and express meaning through words” (Basiga, 2009; p. 25). Their language understanding and the knowledge of vocabulary increase when the students find the correct lexical collocation in cloze tests procedure. As Simpson states:

Most importantly for our present purposes, there is the stylistic application of cloze procedure. In this context, cloze is a productive way of exploring the territory between what we expect to see in a text and what a writer does in a text. It also creates a new focus for interpretation, because it commits students to providing a partial analysis of the text in advance of actually seeing the complete version. In stylistic applications, cloze is most certainly not used as a test of language skills. On the contrary, it simply asks informants for their
intuitions about a text—intuitions which can’t realistically be considered ‘right’ or ‘wrong’. (Simpson, 2003: p. 86)

The grammatical knowledge of the students can be enhanced by giving the cloze test activity from a grammatically and syntactically rich part of the literary text. Read the below given cloze test carefully and put the appropriate word in the blanks from the word bank.

**Order, ablutions, turquoise, worshippers, devotees, sermon, thud, silver rings, bulging, cotton bag.**

Maulvi Abdul had slightly ........ eyes on his fingers her wore..........with large ........stones. These rings came off his fingers five times a day before .......... And yet no change was ever observed in the ..............in which they were worn. Every Eid, after his............whenever the ...............containing the 150 to 200 rupees collected from the .................happened to fall with a .................. he distributed 40 to 50 rupees in the presence of ...............among the needy and the poor of the village.

Another significant tool used in language teaching is MCQs technique and the main focus of this activity is to highlight the key features of the concept given in the short story. Simpson advocates that;

Multiple choice text is of particular benefit when there is an abundance of available paradigmatic entries for a given slot. It closes down the range of interpretative possibilities, allowing attention to be centered on the specific aspects of the lexicon which are the focus of study. Like cloze test, multiple-choice text can be used to investigate virtually all of the topics in lexical semantics introduced in the course. Not only is it a handy tool for investigating synonymy, collocation and lexical specificity, it is also a useful apparatus for exploring the relationship between lexis and register. In this latter application, groups of semantically related terms can be drawn up for each structural slot along the chain. (Simpson, 2003: p.93)

The students try to probe the most suitable answer after thinking about the close connection between the item and the given choices. This technique increases students'
knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. The writer's choice and selection of suggestive words in the literary text is revealed through MCQs questions.

The following is a very appropriate example of well-designed MCQs questions

Why did Chaudhry Fatehdad reprimand Maulvi Abdul?

a) For saying long prayers.
b) For making mistakes in the prayers.
c) For ignoring his prayers.
d) For begging.

• Keeping yourself in place of the central character Maulvi Abul in the story, write down a letter to your uncle who is in abroad highlighting the ceremonies performed in marriages in rural Punjab, Pakistan.

• Write down a number of adjectives to elaborate these ceremonies you have experienced. Then try to read your letter along with correct pronunciation in front of the class.

• Highlight the circumstances faced by the central character and his firm faith in Allah. Then convert your thoughts into stage play and perform before your class fellows.

• Another significant tool to teach language is matching words given in the columns which focus the development of lexical knowledge of the learners.

Matching the words is also very important to develop cognitive skills and abilities of the students. In the activity, the students are required to link the words and sentences given in the first column to the words in the second. If the learner has most of the answers correct, he knows the last one left automatically be right. These types of activities help the students to develop their vocabulary and cognitive abilities. The below given well planned activity of matching columns is the best example of pedagogically-oriented analysis.
Match the appropriate option given in the column A and B.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I consider it a good</td>
<td>Intense and prolonged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seeing those dainty</td>
<td>Yard sticks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maulvi’s prayers became</td>
<td>Omen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shamim Ahmad picked up his</td>
<td>Tears</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is sin to lose</td>
<td>Amulet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maulvi Abdul had a special</td>
<td>Faith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abul sighed and wiped the</td>
<td>Feet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

Pedagogically designed activities mentioned above, give the desirable and suggestive tools for the purpose of finding the author's stylistic techniques in the production and fabrication of literary text. Awareness about literary texts enriches the sensibility of the reader to the effect of linguistically designed patterns and the use of these patterns in context and creative ability in writing enable the learners by assisting them to become an expert and manipulate the language. Through these activities, the students develop their understanding of the literary text and probe their own reactions to the story. As Zyngier points out "literary awareness aims at sensitizing students to stylistic devices in a literary text so as to enable them to build justifiable and more objective textual interpretations" (Zyngier, 1994, p.298) students analyze the textual language by retrospective reading which makes the students understand and interpret the literary text more easily and deeply. The last activity in which the students deal the literary text linguistically makes them to enrich their writing skills. So, the use of pedagogical stylistic analysis is helpful in boosting students-teachers’ motivation. Further, it develops the sense among the students about how culture and language are depicted in these activities. Pedagogically designed activities can be designed from literary texts which are helpful for ELT teachers. They can utilize these activities while teaching literature and language courses.
Recommendations

On the basis of the above observations after conducting the research, following considerations are significant to teach students with literary material.

- There is also an invitation for the syllabus developers and the minister of higher education to incorporate stylistics as one of the subjects in undergraduate studies.
- For researchers to conduct similar research on other genres such as short stories.
- Arranging workshops to train both linguistics and literature teachers and expose them to the major concepts of stylistics.
- Another research can be conducted for the fourth year Iraqi students as part of their teaching practice to examine their ability in teaching poems stylistically. Also, to train them on how to teach poems to students using pedagogical stylistics.
- English language and literature teachers are invited to work together to help students to reach a better comprehension of the literary language.

References


It's a (Wo)Man’s World: A Critical Discourse Analysis of Female and Male Relationship Dynamics

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At 28 and currently in the middle of a pandemic, she is exhausted and imagines just being on the beach sipping piña colada.

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**Abstract**

Power relations and struggles are visible and are a main staple in almost all aspects of life, whether consciously or unconsciously. Gender, as a social concept, is no stranger to this as language has been used and exploited to assert dominance of one group over the others.

This study explores the power relations between genders as they are manifested in discourse. In doing so, language is conceptualized as a form of social practice by which discourse determines social structures and, as a consequence, affects society either through the reproduction of such social structures or the transformation thereof (Fairclough, 2015). Gender, in its present conceptualization and acceptation, is thus viewed as a by-product of various power struggles manifested in various discourse practices. It is therefore aimed by this study to understand these existing power relations and struggles and give light to the ideological processes with respect to gender that effected the institutionalization of the status quo as it exists presently. To do this, the researchers gathered three (3) male and three (3) female participants and placed them in a setting otherwise known as a Focused Group Discussion (FGD). Transcripts were coded for linguistic features and patterns that signal the power relations in relation to gender. To engage this topic, this study poses the main question: “How are power relations respecting gender manifested in language?”

This study used Fairclough’s CDA to examine the power relations of gender as it is manifested in language. The employment of Fairclough’s CDA entailed a three-level
analysis of the discourse. The study looked into specific details in the text to address the main question posed in the study. The findings of this study yielded interesting results regarding power relations in gender as it is manifested in language. The text itself has yielded unequal power relations between gender. In terms of discursive contributions, the balance was already tilted in favor of the male gender as the male participants in the FGD provided more narratives and representations than their female counterparts. These unequal power relations were further revealed by the linguistic features and patterns that were examined in the text.

**Keywords:** critical discourse analysis, gendered language, sociolinguistics

**Introduction**

Language and gender has been in the interest and subject of educated inquiries by experts and theorists for several years. This interest has since spawned several studies inquiring into the nature of gender as it is manifested in language (e.g., Lackoff 1990, Mulac 1989, Tannen 1990). Many researchers make a distinction between “sex” and “gender.” While “sex” refers to the innate and biological aspect, “gender” refers to the roles assigned to an individual, implying a social aspect (Eckert and McConnell-Ginet, 2003; Sunderland, 2006). This view on gender implies an underlying socio-political conceptualization and structuring. Thus, the very concept of gender has the underpinnings of power and power relations, and has long been the subject of various struggles throughout the history of the human race.

Language, as a social dimension of human interaction, is a primary domain of ideology and serves as being both a site of, and a stake in, struggles of power (Fairclough, 2015). In other words, language is the evidence of existing power relations and, at the same time, is used as a weapon to assert power and dominance. Simply put, language is a manifestation of social behavior that establishes the connection between language and society (ibid). Power relations and struggles are visible and are a main staple in almost all aspects of life, whether consciously or unconsciously. Gender, as a social concept, is no stranger to this as language has been used and exploited to assert dominance of one group over the others. Within any given relationship, we are, and have always been, pre-
situates as female and male as well as being positioned within some power relations (Radtke, et. al, 1994).

Moreover, Lakoff’s (1975) seminal paper in the field, though based mainly on observations of language, discussed the differences between women and men’s language, seeing them as differences, not abnormalities. Tannen (1990, 1994, 1995), studied the impact of socialization on women and men and described stereotypical feminine and masculine communication patterns. Her framework of female/male communication indicates that females are generally socialized to feel a primary need for connection while males are generally socialized to feel a need for status. To meet their need for connection, females create intimacy with others, while males meet their need for status by establishing distance or independence from others.

In the studies mentioned, it can be seen that gender norms is a reflection of how our society sees the differences of roles in these genders. Children learn to behave differently from the other sex via the stereotypes they observe, create and reflect in their groups (Spolsky, 1998). This could also be seen in how we use our language to suit our gender roles. Reinterpretations of gender-differentiated language fall into one of two approaches, which reflect contrasting views of women in society.

Language shapes the way we see (and respond to) the world, and the models presented by experts and theorists influence our understanding of our own and other’s communication (McHugh & Hambaugh, 2010). As Fairclough (2001) affirmed in his book, social relations and identities are achieved simply through the “recurrence of ordinary familiar ways of behaving,” which takes these relations and power differences for granted.

**Statement of the Problem**

In order to arrive at a conclusion, the study poses the following corollary questions:

1. What are the prominent linguistic features and patterns that signal the power relations between male and female in discourse?
2. What do these linguistic features and patterns signify regarding the existing power relations between male and female in discourse and what are the implications thereof?

3. What do these implications reveal about the existing social structure with respect to gender?

Research Methodology

Research Design
The study employs both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Primarily, this study is qualitative and this is manifested in the analysis and examination of the utterances (as well as behavior) of the participants during the proceedings of the FGD. The linguistic features and patterns of these utterances, particularly the interactional conventions used by the participants therein, served as the subject of analysis and as a trajectory point in relating these to the discursive structure (i.e. discourse type) as well as the greater and larger social structures. The intent of qualitative research is to understand a particular social situation, event, role, group, or interaction (LKocke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 1987; Creswell, 2014). It is largely an investigative process where the researcher gradually makes sense of a social phenomenon by contrasting, comparing, replicating cataloguing and classifying the object of study (Miles & Huberman, 1984; Creswell, 2014). Marshall and Rossman (1989) suggest that this entails immersion in the everyday life of the setting chosen for the study; the researcher enters the information world and through ongoing interaction, seeks the informants’ perspectives and meanings (Creswell, 2014). In the process of analysis, the establishment of certain linguistic patterns necessitated the employment of quantitative research methods. This was done in order to lend objective basis to the qualitative data thereby serving as a link between learned speculation and objective fact. Furthermore, gender theory investigates the social organization of sexual differences, constructed and inherent. Gender is ascribed normative aspect, focused around the human concept of sex, a biological, physical division that extends to a broad social construction informing, shaping, limiting ways of being both masculine and feminine (Gahrouei, 2012). Through this process, a better sense
of the qualitative data emerges through the aid of numerical data which in turn serve to underscore important features and patterns and help bring about prominence thereto.

**Participants of the Study**

The conversation involved three men and three women, two of which are romantically linked to each other. The first pair are married, the other one are in a dating relationship. The last two participants are also married but not to each other. Each of them has a spouse who was not present during the FGD proceedings. For purposes of ethical considerations, the real names of the participants were kept in confidence. Coded names were instead assigned to each of them to maintain their anonymity.

**Data Gathering Procedure**

To obtain the data, a Focus Group Discussion (FGD) was employed. As a method of qualitative research data collection, a focus group is an interview on a topic with a group of people who have knowledge of the topic (Krueger, 2008; Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2006; Merriam, 2009). Since the data obtained from a focus group is socially constructed within the interaction of the group, a constructivist perspective underlies this data collection procedure (Merriam, 2009). Through a CDA, a social analysis of its embedded ideologies, attitudes, values, power relationships and orientations can be exposed. The researchers may also be able to clarify if language is being used to create bias, cause a stereotype, create disadvantage, construct a barrier, marginalize, or uphold the status quo. They were able to identify the ideologies and power relations in, in addition to the specific portrayals of power therein (Fitzgibbon, 2013).

In order to investigate language and the underlying power relations of gender, the discussions during the proceedings of the FGD were recorded, transcribed, translated, and correspondingly analyzed to provide data from which the aforementioned topic of inquiry could be discussed. During the proceedings, an observation was also done so as to determine the different linguistic features in their speech. Rugg & Petre (2007) stated that direct observation requires researchers to observe something directly, such as watching how people behave. In this study, the researchers observed the participants who are engaged in the discussion and, correspondingly, notes were taken as to their inputs and
their behavior during the delivery thereof. The rationale of using this approach is derived from its ability to show vividly certain factors without the filtering effects of language.

Data Analysis

The gathered data were from the recording of the FGD proceedings and were transcribed, labeled, counted, tabulated, and analyzed accordingly. The significant linguistic features and patterns derived from the data were subject to analysis using Fairclough’s CDA. On the level of description, the linguistic features and patterns focused upon in the course of analysis are the interactional conventions used by the participants during the proceedings of the FGD. While Fairclough only offers samples of these, the researchers deemed it best to formulate a matrix that account for those that were prominent and derivable from the data itself. In doing so, the researchers examined classifications used by previous theorists and experts (including Fairclough himself) and synthesized them to come up with their own classifications. However, those that could not be synthesized were nevertheless adopted and included so as to complete the matrix.

The text (i.e. transcription) were examined. The discursive contributions of the participants were counted to determine which of them provided the most number of dialogue during the proceedings. Thereafter, each of the utterances of the participants were labeled based on the interactional conventions used by them therein. These were later collected, organized per classifications, and counted accordingly. The meanings derived from the utterance in relation to the interactional conventions used were analyzed and examined in order to derive prominent patterns.

On the level of interpretation, the discourse type of an FGD was put into consideration. It was recognized that in this particular discourse type, the position of power lies with the researchers as facilitators of the topics and sequencing of the matters in the proceeding. Power in this case was analyzed not on the basis of the relation of the researchers with the participants in an FGD setting, but on the relations of the participants with respect to each other, particularly on the roles they play in relation to one another, their manner of interaction with each other, and the quality of the utterances they disclose during the proceedings (hence, information). Nevertheless, their attitude as well as the quality of their interaction with the female researchers were noted to determine variations
in power relations respecting gender. Primacy, however, still fell on their interactions as participants.

Findings of The Study
Description and Interpretation
Discursive Contributions: A Preliminary View of Power Relations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Number of Discursive Contributions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>1. AR</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>2. CG</td>
<td>141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3. GR</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1. AKM</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>2. SB</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3. DG</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>224</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Number of Discursive Contributions of each participants

The table above showcases a striking difference between the discursive contributions of the male and female participants. During the course of the FGD proceedings, the male participants dominated the discussion with a total of two hundred sixty-seven (267) utterances as opposed to the female participant’s two hundred and twenty-four (224) utterances. This, by itself, is ideologically significant without having to look into the quality of each of those utterances. The mere fact that the male participants dominated the discussion with more discursive contribution already highlights the unequal balance of power between the genders. This implies that the male participants had more opportunity to shape, produce, and reproduce representations regarding themselves, their relations with their partners, and the social roles they play in the discourse. In the same manner, this dominance also highlights the male participants advantage in controlling the narrative of the proceedings, including the direction in which certain discursive premises and topics may lead, and correspondingly, in establishing a
more dominant stance in their respective subjective positioning with respect to the discourse at hand.

The individual discursive contributions of the male and female participants is likewise revealing of power relations between genders. Two (2) of out three (3) male participants dominated over the female participants with respect to their discursive contributions. The relative silence of GR during the FGD proceedings is indicative that relations of power is never homogenous. Fairclough (2015) has argued that power can be won, held, and lost in social struggles and discourse is the site in which these are exercised and enacted. In GR’s case, his relative silence might be indicative of affirmation and submission to the more dominant participants in the discourse, or a noncommittal stance against them. In either case, the inevitable conclusion is that he has placed himself in a subservient and dominated position despite his being a male participant. The relative silence of the other female participants is likewise the same as that of GR. This non-homogenous distribution of power highlights existing power struggles unwittingly partaken by the participants.

**Interactional Conventions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Interruption</th>
<th>Discursive Maneuvering</th>
<th>Coherent Humor</th>
<th>Discursive Affirmation</th>
<th>Discursive Hijacking</th>
<th>Formulation</th>
<th>Enforcing Explicitness</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. AP</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. CG</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>130</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. GR</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>228</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. The interactional conventions performed by the male participants during the FGD proceedings
Among the interactional conventions performed by the male participants, what emerges as the most prominent is discursive affirmation with one hundred and three (103) instances, followed by discursive hijacking with fifty-one (51) instances, then by discursive maneuvering with twenty-seven (27) instances, then by formulation with twenty-three (23) instances, then by enforcing explicitness with eleven (11) instances, then lastly by interruption with four (4) instances.

**Discursive Affirmation**

This interactional convention was the most utilized by the male participants. Through this convention, the male participants signaled their agreement with the premises or logical value of the previous utterances of their co-participants. It was observed that the male participants signaled their agreement with the premises made by their fellow male participants than with the female participants. These agreements were mostly related to representations of men, or to assumptions about the male gender, whether these be by way of association, by reinforcement, or by contrast. Consider the following excerpt:

(134) AP: merong, merong, meron kang mga kagrupo na..merong mga friends na babae
na (there are... there, there are groups of friends that... there are friends who are girls that)
(135) CG: game
(136) GR: kaya kang sakyan, na comfortable.. for example si ano, si Ima, pag siya ang nandiyan...(those who can deal with you, who are comfortable to be with, for example, Ima. If she is there)
(137) CG: oo yun (yes, that girl)
(138) GR: na kahit babae dire-diretso na kahit ano (even if she’s a female, we’ll just talk about anything)
(139) AP: oo (yes)
(140) CG: one of the boys
(141) AP: meron yung ibang babae na kasi tantiyado mo na kung ano eh (there are those
girls that you know their capacity to handle) 30

(142) CG: sino yung makakaintindi (who can understand)

(143) AP: kabisado niyo na yung kaya niyong pag-usapan, mga ganitong bagay parang ganun, kaya niyo nang makipagbiruan na yung, yung halimbawa, yung sexual na, sexual na ... (you now very well the topics that you can talk about, things like that, you can joke around about anything, for example, sexual topics)

Excerpts (134) to (143) are utterances made by all the male participants in agreement with each other. The premise of these utterances all relate to men’s restraint at being open and liberal on matters of lewd content with respect to the opposite sex. The unison with which the male participants pursued this line of thinking highlights their ability to function as a single unit thereby reinforcing the premise of their utterances as somewhat representative of their gender. Furthermore, this singularity also underscores a sort of ‘rite of passage’ before one (i.e. a female) can enter to and be considered as “one of the boys” (140) as if it were some sort of privilege. This highlights a sense of belongingness to a particular group, and underscores the systemic urge at establishing dichotomies. Moreover, members of the female gender who can be estimated and assessed by men on matters of sexual content are viewed favorably and those who cannot are inversely viewed with suspicion and distance. The necessity for estimation and assessment as a prerequisite for acceptance likewise gives men an apparatus for domination with which the women can be marginalized into submission. Sex is therefore viewed in this instance as a tool for power over which men seemingly have absolute control. This is further demonstrated by the subsequent utterances by women during the proceedings, including one of the researchers. Consider the following:

(149) CG: ito hindi eh (for her it’s not like that)

(150) AP: game

(151) SB: di ba? di ba? (isn’t it? isn’t it?)

(152) K: sabihin ko latta kay J (I still would tell J)

(153) SB: o si K walang preno kasi ang bibig kasi niyan eh (hey, K would just tell whatever she wants to say)
Notice in (151) and (153) how a female participant affirms the logical premise of the male participants and how she reproduces and reinforces the same by calling out one of the researchers on the matter.

Another interesting example is found in excerpts (42) to (45) on the matter of male gossip:

(42) CG: kung sino ang wala yun ang pag-uusapan (the one being talked about is the one who is not around)
(43) AR: pero most of the time ano, ah, in terms, ah, halimbawa, kung ano yung common sa kanila, sa amin halimbawa, taga isu kami, pag nag-iinuman, more on issues din (for example, whatever is common among them: for us, we are from ISU, whenever we drink, more on issues)
(44) GR: current issues din (too)
(45) CG: iba-iba, chismis tungkol sa (it differs, gossip about)

As opposed to agreement to a common perception, the male participants in the excerpts above demonstrates unison on the non-homogeneity of the content of their gossips—dispelling as a matter of consequence a perceived assumption about them that is representative of their gender. It is interesting to note that this was brought about due to a jocular assumption brought about by one of the female participants and researchers. Take note of utterances (38) and (39) with respect to (36):

(36) K: favorite topic of conversation, kung lalake rin ang kausap niyo, ano usually yung topic (if you talk among the male, what is your usual topic?)
(37) CG: topic?
(38) AM: yung friend nila na wala (the friend who is not there)
(39) SB: yung absent haha (the absent one)
(40) G: pag tayo-tayo lang...I invoke my right to remain silent, hahaha (if we talk among ourselves...)

414
The discursive affirmation in (44) and (45) above came as a response to a discursive hijacking by one of the male participants in (43) with respect to the female assumption of men in relation to the latter’s gossip content. This is indicative of the male participant’s tendency to resist representations of them created by their female counterparts. Discursive affirmation therefore was utilized in this instance as an indirect tool for resistance by way of reinforcement of the male narrative as opposed to that of a female narrative in creating representations of men. This once again highlights the male participant’s tendency to function as a single unit thereby contributing to the success of their shaping the discourse in their favor.

Yet another interesting highlight of discursive affirmation utilized by men is with respect to their female participants, that is, the instances in which they signal their agreement with the female narrative. In the same set of excerpts above, consider (42) of the male participant CG with respect to the women in (38) and (39). The initial agreement with the female gender comes from a recognition of a supposed universal truth about the nature of human socialization, that is, the attention given to the absent friend or individual when it comes to gossiping, while this will eventually be abandoned by CG in his later utterances, his initial agreement is by itself ideologically significant as it signals a possibility of creating concord with the female participants without regard to their gender when not egged on or influenced by domineering figures in the same gender group.

Another interesting matter on discursive affirmation used by the male participants still relates to their signaling agreement with the opposite gender. Consider the following excerpt:

(161) K: ah wait, handling arguments. sa pag-aaway naman (Ah, wait, how about in handling arguments, in having conflicts) 24
(162) AP: sino’ng kaaway namin (who is our opponent)
(163) AMTP: sino’ng unang nang-aaway (who starts the argument)
(164) K: pag partner ang kaaway (when srguing with a partner)
(165) AKM: hindi kami nag-aaway (we don’t fight)
(166) AM: as in???
(167) AP: wala pa (none yet)
(168) SB: ngayon pa lang pag-uwi niyo hahaha (you’ll fight when you get home tonight, hahah)
(169) AP: subukan nga natin (let’s give it a try)
(170) K: kasi gusto nila after ng away eh (because they want that after they fight)
(171) AMTP: paano niyo nagagawang hindi mag-away (how do you manage not to have misunderstandings)
(172) AKM: basta pagnaitinis ako tumatalikod lang ako, pag mga 30 minutes ko na siyang hindi kinakausap eh galit ako (whenever I get irritated I just turn my back on him, after minutes of not talking to him, I am surely mad at him)
(173) AMTP: eh ikaw paano ka magalit (how about you, how do you get angry)
(174) K: tapos ikaw magsosorry ka, ganun (then you would say sorry)
(175) AP: wala, hindi rin ako nagsosorry pero pagka... mapapansin naman eh,
mapapansin naman niya (no, I still wouldn’t say sorry but... it can be noticed, she would notice)

Take note of utterances (165) and (167) above. While it is AKM, as the female partner of AP, who denies having been in any argument with the latter, it is the latter that confirms the claims of his girlfriend when bombarded by a reaction of disbelief (166). This is significant because it underscores once again the dominant male position in their relational dynamic since it is AP, the male half of the relationship, who lends credibility to the female half’s assertion of not having any argument. This credibility is reinforced when AP jocularly calls the somewhat challenge by SB in (169), a female participant, with respect to the said claim. By assenting to the implied challenge, AP asserts his confirmatory power and confronts the female challenger as a way to demonstrate this power.
Male affirmation of female utterance through discursive affirmation is also interesting in the following instance:

(176) AMTP: ah so pakiramdaman (ah, so you’ll just sense it)
(177) AP: oo pakiramdaman, di siya nagsasalita, “ay galit ka?” tapos ako naman mang-
aasar ako nang mang-aasar hanggang sa tumawa siya (yes, I get to sense her feelings, when she remains silent, I ask her, “are you mad?” then I will annoy her until she laughs)

(178) AM: ay bwisit (annoying)

Take note of (176) and (177) with respect to (175) in the previous excerpt. The discursive affirmation of the male participant with respect to a female utterance comes when the said utterance conforms with the male narrative as established in (175). This underscores the subjugated position of the female gender with respect to the male gender as the former only receives a semblance of validation when it is in conformity with the previously established male narrative.

Discursive Affirmation is likewise utilized by the male participants as a secondary tool to objectify women through the male gaze. Consider the following example:

(78) AP: ako bihira, bihira (me sometimes, sometimes)
(79) CG: kami ni Arno nad ang lagi naming pinag-uusapan, volleyball. kung sino ang crush

naming na college player, hahaha (For AP and I, we often talk about volleyball. We talked about our crushes who are college athletes, hahaha).

(80) AP: kung sino’ng magandang ano (whoever is beautiful)
(81) CG: kung sino’ng magandang player, yung graduate ng cdc (whoever is the beautiful player, the one who graduated from CDC)

Utterance (79) above is a discursive hijacking that instigates the ideological premise that involves the objectification of women. Discursive affirmation, as seen in (80) and (81), is a tool that reproduces this ideological premise and the assent given to it by the same members of the male gender group allows for it to be normalized as acceptable behavior. This is further evidenced by the humor that accompanied these
utterances. The singularity of the thought behind it, as well as the way it is normalized by way of humor, ensures the subservient positioning of women—leading to their objectification solely for the purpose of male consumption.

Other instances of male agreement to female talk by way of discursive affirmation are too insignificant to warrant discussion. These instances relate only to trifling domestic affairs all of which indicate a harmonious domestic relationship.

**Discursive Hijacking**

This is an interactional convention that is antithetical to the previous convention discussed. In the FGD proceedings, this convention was utilized by the male participants to directly resist the female narrative of creating representations of men. This is exemplified by (43) in the previous discussion above with respect to resisting female assumptions of men with respect to the latter’s gossiping. The following excerpt reinforces this. Thus:

(26) K: sino ‘ng nambubully? (who bullies)
(27) C: babae (female)
(28) S: hindi din (I don’t think so)
(29) K: so yung asawa mo ang nambubuly sa iyo (so you’re husband is the one bullying you)
(30) G: babae (female)
(31) C: di ako marunong mambully (I do not know how to bully)
(32) G: mutual, the feeling is mutual

When accused of a propensity towards violence [as in (26) above], the male participant in (31) is quick to deny this and dispels possible negative representations that may be associated with him. This is likewise true in the following excerpts, particularly in (121) below, as negative representations are dispelled by way of denial:

(118) GR: May napag-usapan rin kami na ano (But we talk about…)
(119) CG: kiss and tell, ganon? (like, kiss and tell?)
(120) AP: na kung ano ang ginawa mo sa babae na ito ganun (what we have done to this

woman, like that?)
Interestingly, discursive hijacking also serves as a primary tool for the objectification of women through the male gaze as demonstrated in (79) above. The premise rests not so much on the enthusiasm for the volleyball sport but for the female composition of players therein. As a prime resource of female subjugation in this instance, the male participants wrest control of the communicative exchange (as if it were some biochemical imperative of which they have no control of) and direct it towards a trajectory that would satisfy their baser and primal urges leading as a consequence to the objectification of the female specimen as if she exists solely for their consumption.

Another interesting instance of discourse hijacking relates to its being utilized by the male participants with respect to their fellow male participants. Consider the following:

(24) CG: tahimik na ako ngayon (I am quiet now)

(25) GR: Pinatahimik na, hahaha (he was silenced)

Consider in (25) above where the male participant humorously expresses opposition to the premise of a fellow male participant. In this instance, what is implied in the humor by way of this interactional convention is a hypothetical scenario involving men being humiliated by their fellow male species by reason of their supposed subjugation by the female species. It is used as a humorous device rendered at the expense of women since the act of being subjugated by them implies humiliation and despair for the male species.

Yet another interesting instance of this convention is when it is being utilized to hijack the discursive narrative from the female participant. Consider the following:

(309) D: babae ka kasi sabi niya (you are a woman, she tells me)

(310) C: hindi mo alam yung pakiramdam ng ano. yun, risk taker, parang ganon, pagdating sa sa risk. babae ka kasi hindi ka risk taker. (you don’t know the feeling, like being a risk taker, or when it comes to risks. Women are usually not risk takers)

Utterance (309) is a recollection by the wife of a past experience with her husband and which involves a misogynistic remark toward her by such husband. The discursive
hijacking was resorted to as an attempt to dispel any negative representation that might be associated with the male participant. However, the misogyny remains apparent despite the desperate and futile attempt at ratiocinating the remark by the male participant.

The pattern of employing this interactional convention as a discursive strategy to deflect negative representations is consistently used by the male participants—all of which are directed at saving face, or their honor, or their perception of it, whether it appears to be true or otherwise for third parties.

**Discursive Maneuvering**

This was utilized by the male participants to seize control of the flow of conversation, particularly the sequence of topics by imposing their own subjects of interest. In the proceedings, this interactional convention was used by the male participants as a sort of release for preoccupations derived from what appears to be a sense of insecurity with respect to the self. Consider the following excerpts:

(149) CG: *ito hindi eh (for her it’s not like that)*
(150) AP: *game*
(151) SB: *di ba? di ba? (isn’t it? isn’t it?)*
(152) K: *sabihin ko latta kay jessa (I still would tell jessa)*
(153) SB: *o si krisha walang preno kasi ang bibig kasi niyan eh (hey, Krisha would just tell whatever she wants to say)*
(154) K: *halla hindi ako kasama ah,… (hey, I am not part of this)*
(155) CG: *ayun nga, yun din siguro ang isa sa napapansin nila sa akin sa, sa kwan, sa school namin. na pag magsalita ako “ikaw, ang tagal-tagal mo” ganun. ganun ako eh, parang kwan, kasi parang “bat di mo pa kasi binuksan yung pinto?” yung parang kwan lang, na parang yung medyo sensitive sila kasi. eh ako eh yun talaga ang pinapakita ko kahit kanino eh yun talaga ako eh (Yes, that’s it. One of the things they noticed with me especially in school is that when I speak, like “you, you were so slow” like that (referring to his impolite pitch) like that. Because that is me. They felt I was*
discourteous because they are sensitive. For me, I show my true colors. I don’t pretend to be someone I am not.)

Take note of (155) with respect to the first five utterances (i.e. 149 to 154). Notice the unrelated premises contained in the first five sentences. The degree of vigor with which the male participant provides an elongated exegesis, not to mention the excessive use of personal pronouns, somewhat leads one to suspect of an underlying sense of insecurity that the male participant has over his representation to others. This is somewhat indicative of a very fragile male ego and resort to domination by way of this convention becomes defense mechanism. Interestingly, this remains consistent and manifest in the following excerpt:

(315) CG: for example, sa business, yung pinasok kong business, “eh ganito…” isss,

supportahan mo na lang ako, sabi ko hangga’t hindi illegal, mga tipong, mga ganon (for example, in business, the business I started, “like this” isss, just support me, I said, as long as it is not illegal, things like that)

(316) DG: kasi gusto niya yung parang hanggang hindi pa tapos yung isa, ah, meron na

naman siyang bagong patutunguhan (because what he wanted was, even though the first one is not yet finished, there’s another one he wanted to pursue)

(317) CG: oo (yes)

(318) DG: dun lang… isa yun sa mga pagkakaiba naming ng pananaw (that’s it, that is one of the things we differ in views)

(319) CG: pagdating kasi sa mga ganung bagay, multitasking ako. multitasker. multisasking. kaya ko mag-multitasking (when it comes to these things, I multitask. Multitasker. Multitasking. I know how to multitask)

(320) DG: sabi ko naman hindi kasi ako mutitasker (but for me, I told him I am not a multitasker)
(321) CG: hindi ako multitasker pagdating sa ganito pero pagdating sa ibang bagay na sa

ving ko kaya ko namang pagsabayin, for example, kaya kong pagsabayin ang

pagtuturo, kaya kong pagsabayin angpag-aaral, kaya kong pagsabayin ang

pagnenegosyo, yung mga ganung bagay. pero yung at, at that moment lang,

kunwari ganito, kumakain tapos kakausapin mo ako, nagbubuffer, yung mga

ganun. Pero may mga ibang bagay na kaya kong pagsaba-sabayin.

I’ve done that

before. (I am not a multitasker when it comes to this but for other things, I think I can do them simultaneously. for example, I can study and teach and do business at the same time. But when we refer to a specific moment, say for example, I am eating then you will speak to me, I tend to buffer. But there are things that I can do at the same time. I’ve done that before.)

Although (321) bears logical relation with the immediately preceding utterance of his wife, notice the same degree of vigor with which the male participant therein exerts so as to create representations of himself in an attempt to redeem the same through the demonstration of what is self-perceived as an extraordinary feat. The discursive maneuvering was done to take control of the narrative and use it favorably so as to manufacture a positive representation of the self.

**Formulation**

This is an interactional convention used by the male participants to supplement their previous statements so as to lend more meaning to them. Interestingly, in the proceedings, formulation was resorted to in a way that is akin to, if not completely similar to discursive maneuvering. Consider the following and relate it to (155) in the excerpt previously provided:
(157) CG: oo, tapos yung kukuha ng pagkain sa table, nagbubukas ng table na may kape, mga ganun (Yes, then I often get food on other’s table or open their tables without asking permission, like that)
(158) AMTP: very isu talaga haha (That is really a habit you got at ISU)
(159) CG: parang “hindi ka man lang magpaalam”, “hindi nagpaalam ako, sa table, or magpaalam ka pag, “oy lumaha ako diyan” (they say, you did not even ask permission. But I did, I asked permission from the table, or I say I was about to ask permission. Or I just say, ‘hey! I got something from your table!”
(160) AMTP: dinala niya yung culture dun (he brought the culture there)

hahaha

Notice (157) and (159) above. The defensive tone with which the male participant laced his narrative is indicative of a sense of insecurity. Formulation was resorted to in order to provide clarification and reinforce attempts at redeeming a self-representation—one that is akin to a defense interposed against a criminal accusation in the presence of an idealized subject. The success of this discursive strategy is manifested in (160) when one of the researchers acknowledged the transcultural phenomenon that transpired in the male participant’s behavior.

Another way by which this convention was used is demonstrated in the following excerpt.

(200) AP: magsesend ng nude (he will send a nude)
(201) AKM: magcam to cam sila...haha...kindly take off your clothes (they will have a videochat... take off your clothes. Hahaha)
(202) AP: selfie nude
(203) CG: hindi nga cam-to-cam na cam eh, hindi c-a eh, c-u-m, c-u-m (not cam-to-cam spelled as c-a-m, but c-u-m)
(204) K: ang dugyot (that’s gross!) 41

hahaha
(205) AMTP: yan na nga ba eh (That’s what I’m saying.) 21
(206) CG: hindi biro lang (No, I’m just kidding)
Notice in utterances (200) and (202) with the preoccupation with nudity and implied sexual undertones and how this is somewhat justified in (207) and (210) by the male participant. The somewhat preoccupation with sex underscores an underlying fetishism—a sort of obsession for a sexual narrative and how it should be a badge of honor to have it as a subject of conversation within an exclusive group.

**Enforcing Explicitness**

This interactional convention was used by the male participants to elicit clarification either from the researchers or from co-participants. With respect to the researchers, this was employed in order to make contributions more relevant, thus indicating a degree of caution prior to giving an answer and is therefore symptomatic of a commitment to engage in the proceedings. With respect to co-participants, there was nothing significant with respect to gendered power relations arose from the data so as to merit an extensive discussion. This convention was used merely to clarify trifle matters which will no longer be discussed in this discussion.

**Coherent Humor**

This interactional convention was used by the male participants to primarily to inject humor to the proceedings. An interesting pattern that emerged from the male discourse on this matter is how humor is used toy with the idea of sexual infidelity towards a romantic partner. Consider the following excerpts:
(49) K: sex...

(pause)

(50) C: hindi (no)

(51) AM: bakit may pause? (why is there a pause) hahahaha

(52) AR: nag-iisip lang kami (we were just thinking)

(53) C: hindi taguan kasi kami eh hahah (no, we were just hiding)

(54) G: may nauuna sa motor (someone goes first to his motor)

(53) and (54) both imply acts of sexual infidelity. What makes this interesting is that the potency of humor usually comes from the truth value of the proposition being made and its disjunctive effect to reality by way of absurdity. The humor therefore in the given utterances is derived from the commonality of the sexual infidelity of men towards their romantic partners as a real and palpable phenomenon so as to lend truthfulness to the proposition. The absurdity required in this instance to make the proposition comically successful lies not so much on the infidelity itself but on the act of bringing the same to the open—a transition from a clandestine and furtive reality to open and known reality. The fact that men have to resort to this sort of shenanigan is indicative not so much of a juvenile disposition but more of a preoccupation on male virility. For men, virility represents strength. Potency is power. To joke about it reveals how proximate men are to power, and how accessible it is for them to use it at their disposal—even in a humorous way.

Another interesting instance of this relates to sexuality, particularly homosexuality. Consider the following excerpt:

(60) AP: ay, within barkada, ganun? between sa mga lalake? (ow, within your friends?

between boys? )

(61) K: oo ganun (yes)

(62) CG: I feel something for you, pare, hahaha (I feel something for you, bro hahaha)

(63) DG: This guy is in love with you pare

(64) GR: ano ’ng klaseng feeling? (what kind of feeling?)

(65) AP: feelings for the opposite sex?
Notice utterances (62) and (65) in which the male participants play with the idea of homosexuality. The humor in this utterance is inversely related to the humor of male virility. In this instance, homosexuality is viewed as a source of weakness and humiliation. It is an attribute associated with male impotence and is therefore deemed a badge of dishonor and disgust by the male community. Humor therefore is derived here not from the accessibility of power but for the lack of it and the same is deemed as a source for mockery.

**Interruption**

This is the least interactional convention utilized by the male participants in the FGD proceedings. Perhaps this is on account of the fact that the participants are friends of each other and there were minimal instances in which a participant would deprive or infringe another co-participant of his or her right to speak. Most of the time, this convention was resorted to merely to inject humor to the proceeding. However, the following excerpt bears interesting information:

(242) AP: si ma’am sheng? (how about ma’am sheng)
(243) SB: ako? mabait kasi ang asawa ko eh, hindi mo alam kung... (Me? My husband is kind eh, you don’t know if...)
(244) CG: siya lang ang nang-aaway haha (she is the only one who starts arguments)
(245) SB: parang ipapa-feel mo sa kanya na nang-aaway ka para malaman niya na nang-aaway ka, parang ganon. pero meron ding times na napipikon siya, dun naman ako

nang-aasar...sinasamantala ko (it will be just like you would start a fight so that he will feel that you wanted attention, just like that. But there are times that he gets offended, that’s the time I will tease him more. I take advantage of it)

Notice (244) in the excerpt above. The female participant who was disclosing a matter of personal significance in (243) is abruptly interrupted by one of the male participants. The success of the humorous attempt seems to be of doubtful consequence
considering that the female participant persisted in elaborating what she originally had to say before being interrupted by the male participant. In terms of power, the non-acknowledgement by the female participant dealt a blow to the male participant’s juvenile attempt at humor. In this instance, it is the female participant who prevailed.

**Female Participants**

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Table 4. The interactional conventions performed by the female participants during the FGD proceedings

Among the interactional conventions performed by the female participants in the FGD proceedings, the one that emerges to be the most dominant is discursive affirmation with seventy-nine (79) instances, followed by discursive maneuvering with thirty-eight (38) instances, then by coherent humor with twenty-seven (27) instances, then by enforcing explicitness with twenty-four (24) instances, then closely behind it is discursive hijacking with twenty-two (22) instances, then by formulation with twelve (12) instances, then finally by interruption with only four (4) instances.
Discursive Affirmation

Like the male participants, this interactional convention was the most utilized convention by the female participants. Through this convention, the female participants signaled their agreement with the premises or logical value of the previous utterances of their co-participants. The ways in which the female participants signaled their assent or agreement with their co-participants is interesting. Consider the following excerpt:

(98) AMTP: pag girl talk ano usually (when it’s girl talk, what’s usually the topic)
(99) SB: gossip, hha
(100) AMTP: ano ang topic for girl talk (what’s the topic for girl talk)
(101) SB: kung saan mura ang ukayan ganon (where the cheapest second hand goods are)
(102) AKM: ukay (second-hand goods)

The affirmation in this instance is connected with self-representation. In this instance, the female participants signify their common interest in cheap yet affordable fashion. While this puts the females in a positive light, what stands out is that representation in this instance is no longer ideological but physical. Fashion deals with outside appearances and the female preoccupation with appearance is indicative of a desire of looking beautiful. However, resort to cheap, second-hand clothing by the female participants is somewhat symptomatic of a lack of power since good and high fashion seems to be out of their reach. The inaccessibility of controllable beauty to them places them in a subservient position.

Another interesting instance of discursive affirmation is demonstrated the following:

(143) AP: kabisado niyo na yung kaya niyong pag-usapan, mga ganitong bagay parang
ganon, kaya niyo nang makipagbiraan na yung, yung halimbawa, yung sexual na, sexual na ... (you now very well the topics that you can talk about, things like that, you can joke around about anything, for example, sexual topics)
(144) SB: tatantiyahin mo kasi yung kasama mo eh (you have to estimate who you are with)

(145) CG: or for example, o eto, ayan, pagsasabihan ko to pero hindi in detail, alam niya

“ay, gago ka talaga” ganun, “gago ka talaga, pati yun?” pero hindi in detail, na ay ganito ganyan.. (or for example, I would open some things to her, but not in detail, she knows that. she would say “damn you” like that. “damn you, even that part?” but not in detail, like that)

(146) K: kasi tinatantiya mo? (because you are estimating)

(147) CG: siyempre ganun (yes, of course)

(148) SB: oo, tatantiyahin mo kasi minsan merong pikon sa grupo eh , kaya tatantiyahin mo rin kung pano.. halimbawa nag-uusap tayo tungkol sa married life tapos si jessa single , o for example, ganun. tatantiyahin mo yung sasabihin mo eh, pero kung alam mong hindi pikon si jessa.. (yes, you are going to adjust if there’s someone who is sensitive in the group, so you will plan how to.. for example, we talk about married life then jessa is single, for example, like that.)

Notice how the female participant becomes an accomplice for male domination in (144) and (148) respectively. In these instances, the female participant affirms the male narrative with respect to sex and lewdness (albeit implicitly). However, what stands out in this instance is the female preoccupation not so much on sex but on the dichotomy between married life and single life. This preoccupation highlights the female sensibility towards building meaningful relationships.

The female role as accomplice for male domination is likewise present in the following excerpt:

(324) CG: ang mga lalake maiinitin ang ulo pagdating sa traffic (men have tempers especially during traffics)

(325) SB: oo, hindi siya mapakali, ganun (yes, he’s bothered like that).

In (325), the female participant is quick to agree with the premise of the male participant’s statement. This underscores her affirmation of the male narrative and indicates the subservient position of women with respect thereto.
Yet another interesting thing that stands in this convention with respect to the female participants is the following:

(347) AP: Pero mas maganda pa rin yung dimension ng binibigay ko (but the dimension I am giving was way better)
(348) SB: Tapos nagtampo ka na (so you sulk immediately)
(349) AKM: pinagtampuhan ko lang yung ano yung “hos, ung pag”… tapos yung factor analysis
(350) S: “nag… ng hos” hahaha (I was just displeased by the “hos and pag” and the factor analysis of those)

Notice in (349) how the discursive affirmation of the female participant lends credibility to the premise of the utterance of another female participant. In this instance, what is being affirmed is the supposed maternal instinct that females have as a byproduct of some biochemical imperative in the female anatomy. By affirming the instinct, the female participant reinforces a representation of women as bearers of a unique natural gift that cannot be found in men. To some degree, this is an assertion of power since foresight is a sort of ‘superpower’ (for lack of a better term) that has long been held by women and has never been truly approximated in the male anatomy or male narrative.

There are instances in this interactional convention in which the female participants assert power and dominance over the male participants. However, the point of interest here is not so much on the assertion of power but how the female participants handle the same. Consider the following example:

(528) K: Sino mas nagco-command? Command or request. (Who commands? Command or request?)
(529) DG: Ako. (Me)
(530) SB: Babae. (Women)
(531) AKM: Babae. (Women)
(532) K: Babae ba nagco-command or nagre-request? (Do women command or request?)
(533) CG: Nagco-command. (They command)
(534) Sheng: Kay AKM? (How about for AKM?)
When asked who is more likely to issue commands or requests, the female participants are quick to refer to themselves and in unison as evidenced in (529), (530), and (531). The ability to issue commands or to seek requests situates women in powerful positions. Initially, the female participants claim power for themselves in the narrative. However, notice in (535) the sudden abnegation of a female participant with respect to her claim to power. The issuing of commands in this instance is reduced to trifle matters such as requiring the male partner to bring trinkets and tiny articles for hygiene. The abnegation results in an abdication of power and the representation of the woman is demoted to a caring maternal figure. Authority and power is surrendered in the service of men—to provide nurturing care for them. The maternal representation of women therefore has underlying subservient undertones that favor the dominant position of men.

**Discursive Maneuvering**

This is the interactional convention in which the female participants try to take control of the topic of conversation. There are plenty of instances in which this interactional convention was utilized as a primary tool to assert dominance over men. Consider the following excerpt:

(108) K: sa mga lalake pinag-uusapan niyo ba, family, friends? (among the male, do you talk about family, friends)

(109) AMK: mostly chismis (gossip)

(110) GR: yung mga friend din namin (our friends too)

(111) SB: chismis (gossip)

(112) AMK: chismoso talaga (gossiper, indeed)

Notice in (109), (111), and (112) how the female participants took control of the modality of articulation and provided representations of men for themselves when the question was clearly directed towards the male participants. Articulation is tantamount to
voice. Having a voice, in turn, is having power. In this instance, there is an attempt by the female participants to transform the power relations of gender in discourse by depriving men, even for a moment, of their opportunity to represent themselves.

This interactional convention, like in men, was also used by the female participants to let out pent-up feelings. However, unlike in men where this convention was used as a tool for compensating for insecurities by way of domination, the women used this convention to seek reassurance on some troubling instances about their relationships. The following example is illuminating:

(560) SB: Stress na stress ka nga, sila... (You are very stressed, while they are not)

(561) K: Bili ka ng diaper, ng gatas, eh idescribe mo pa kung ano itsura ng bibilhin. (When you ask them to buy diapers and milk, you still need to describe these things to them)

(562) SB: May experience akong di ko makalimutan. 14 years. Hindi, 13 years na kaming kasal, never kaming nag-away sa decision-making kasi kung ano talaga yung na-decide ko, irerespect niya. First time, Yung shinare ko sayo, di ko alam na magtatampo siya. Alam mo ikinatampon niya? Di ko nirefer sa kanya na nagdecide ako sa anak ko. Meron akong ginawa sa anak ko. Meron akong dinecide for my, sa anak ko na di ko nirefer sa kanya una. Nag-decide muna ako then sinabi ko na lang sa kanya for confirmation. (I have an experience I will never forget. 14 years. No, 13. We have been married for 13 years. We never fought over decision-making, because whatever decisions I have, he respects it. However, it was the first time, the one that I shared to you. I did not know he was hurt. You know why? I did not refer a decision I made with our son. I decided something for my son, but I did not ask for his opinion. I decided first then I just told him for confirmation)

(563) AKM: Parang na-bypass (He felt that his authority was bypassed)

(564) SB: Parang ganon. Hindi naman siya ganon. Nagbabago din kaya ang mood nila o style? Hindi kasi siya ganon (Yes something like that. Do their mood or style change for a time? He does not use to behave like that)
Notice in (562) above as to how a female participant suddenly brings up a perceived marital problem without it bearing any relation or significance to its immediately preceding utterance. In this instance, this convention is utilized to a liberating tool for a woman to be able to talk freely about the most intimate aspect of her life as a married woman—her hidden thoughts about her husband. However, as evidenced by her thought process, the female participant worries about disturbing the dynamics of her marital relationship in which she is situated in a subservient role. Her fears for her husband becomes more apparent, and the interactional convention becomes not so much as a tool for liberation but a cry for help.

**Coherent Humor**

This interactional convention was used by the female participants to inject humor into the proceedings. This was utilized by the women to maintain a comfortable and convivial tone of the proceedings—ensuring in the process that relationships therein remain pleasant and engaged. This was more utilized by the female participants than the male participants and evidences the preoccupation of women at maintaining good and harmonious relationships. Consider the following excerpt:

(33) K: yung partner ang binubully o ibang tao (the one being bullied is the partner or other people)
(34) S: mutual, haha
(35) D: ako ang nambubully sa iyo, haha (I am the one bullying you)

Notice in (34) and (35) how the female participants injected humor into a question that was somewhat laced with heavy subject matter.

Humor was also utilized by the female participants subversively to resist the domination of men in the discourse. Consider the following excerpt:

(165) AKM: hindi kami nag-aaway (we don’t fight)
(166) AM: as in???
(167) AP: wala pa (none yet)
(168) SB: ngayon pa lang pag-uwi niyo hahaha (you’ll fight when you get home tonight, hahaha)
In utterance (168), notice how the female participant jokingly remarks the possibility of the couple of having an argument after having just claim the contrary. This is a subversive challenge to the male domination as laid out in the previous narrative (see discussion on discursive affirmation in male participants above with the same excerpts given) as if the female participant questions the credibility of the male participant. The comedic element in the utterance maintains the peacefulness of the proceeding but its delivery nevertheless highlights hidden power dynamics between gender.

**Enforcing Explicitness**

This interactional convention was utilized by the female participants to elicit more specific details and information about a previously unclear and ambiguous utterance by a co-participant. Most of the instance in which this was used by women was for the purposes of engaging in gossip. While this may appear trivial to men, gossip is commonly perceived to be a source of power for the female species. Information, in this instance, is equated with power and the more information a woman knows, then it necessitates as a logical consequence that the more powerful she becomes. While there is no barometer to measure the mechanism of this power dynamic, the female species nevertheless continues to engage in gossip. This is manifested in (290) in the proceedings as can be gleaned from the following excerpt:

(288) GR: *hindi nagpaalam na ako hahaha* (no, I already told her where I am hahaha)

ha ha

(289) GR: *nag-hi nga lang ako dati eh pinagalitan ako eh*, (one time I said hi and she got mad)

(290) SB: *kasi?* (because?)

(291) GR: *pahi-hi ka pa siguro meron kang hina-hi-an diyan naiba hahahaha, hindi na tuloy ako nagha-hi hahaha* (why are you saying hi? Maybe that was not meant for me)
**Discursive Hijacking**

This interactional convention was used by the female participants to wrest control of the conversation for their own advantage. The following example offers interesting details:

(367) AM: Bwiset(annoying!)
(368) S: Pag big problems di kayo nagpapatulong! (if it’s a big problem, you don’t ask for help)
(369) AK: bwiset ... Ayaw niya. Pero yung pa-cute lang, isampay mo nga yun, yung mga ganun, yung kaya mo namang abutin, pero nagpapa-cute ka ganon (annoying! He does not want, but he tries to coy, hang those something like that, despite the fact that you can reach it, but you’re just trying to coy

Notice in (369) how the female participant somehow feels pride that her male partner is being coy at her so as to manipulate her into doing some of her partner’s biddings—all of which involve domestic household work. The use of this interactional convention highlight the subjugated situation of the woman as it indicates the female's feeling of delight in her own subjugation. The urge to force it into a conversation so as to gasconade about it, especially to her fellow females, reinforces the male-dominated dynamic of gendered power relations.

Similar examples of the same situation abound in the proceedings and they will no longer be discussed further to avoid unnecessary prolixity.

**Formulation and Interruption**

There were no prominent features that are revealing of gendered power relations in so far as these interactional conventions are concerned. The data at hand is too insignificant to support any finding that would warrant consideration.

**Explanation**

This is the stage of the analysis that takes into account the larger social structures that influence discourse in reproducing existing power relations (supra). The continuous and pervasive male domination in the text is symptomatic of existing power structures in
our society. The process of text production therefore, in so far as the proceedings demonstrates, continues to be normative. Patriarchy prevails and continues to be the dominant ideology that shapes all aspects of social life. In religion, the male narrative continues to dominate church doctrine and tradition—shaping as a consequence certain beliefs and practices. Likewise, in government, the domination of the male gender continues to dominate the legal institutions of power to the point that it has been, to some degree, institutionalized in the legal system.

The social structure, as a confluence of several analytical units, are patterned in accordance with the dichotomies of male and female. As Acker (1990) argued, “gender is not an addition to ongoing processes, conceived as gender neutral. Rather, it is an integral part of those processes, which cannot be properly understood without an analysis of gender.” The process of production is therefore gendered and the existing unequal relations of power will continue to permeate our social structures unless such a process is transformed, and the process of reproduction of existing power relations ceases to exist. However, as the findings of this study revealed, mechanisms of male domination continue to function in discourse. For their part, women continue to affirm the male narrative and become willing accomplices for the perpetration of this systemic process. Attempts at transformation fail because the female species is unable to function as a single unit to resist the assertions of male power into our sociopolitical structures.

**Conclusion**

The employment of Fairclough’s CDA entailed a three-level analysis to examine the power relations of gender as it is manifested in the discourse. The findings of this study yielded interesting results regarding power relations in gender as it is manifested in language. The text itself has yielded unequal power relations between gender. In terms of discursive contributions, the balance was already tilted in favor of the male gender as the male participants in the FGD provided more narratives and representations than their female counterparts. These unequal power relations were further revealed by the linguistic features and patterns that were examined in the text. These linguistic features and patters were all part of the interactional conventions used by participants in a communicative event. These include discursive affirmation, discursive maneuvering,
coherent humor, enforcing explicitness, discursive hijacking, formulation, and interruption. All of these linguistic features and patterns were at one or in several points, used as tools in perpetrating male domination. Discursive affirmation was a strategy employed by men to demonstrate their homogenous unity in asserting their superiority and dominance by way of assension and/or agreement with the logical premises of male-centric narrative. Likewise, non-homogenous representations were established via discursive affirmation in order to dispel assumptions of men by women—thus highlighting the strong and powerful defense mechanism that men employ against the penetration of the female narrative in the creation of men’s representation. This linguistic feature was also used as a tool for the objectification of women. Discursive maneuvering was a strategy employed by men to release preoccupations with a fragile male ego. As a consequence, and as a response to such a flaw, resort to domination is done at the expense of the women. Formulation was a strategy employed to provide clarification and reinforcement to male self-representation—ensuring a positive representation free from the control or interference of women. Likewise, this was also used to indicate sexual preoccupations—a feature heavily linked to the male sense of virility. Enforcing contributions did little to reinforce male domination. It merely ensured that discursive contributions of men remained relevant. Coherent humor was a strategy used by men to toy with the idea of sexual infidelity as a consequence of the proximity and accessibility of power to men through the modality of humor. Inversely, humor, as prime apparatus of power, is likewise used to appropriate homosexuality as a device for mockery among men. It’s relation to impotency indirectly links it to the subjugation of women.

The linguistic features and patterns, however, worked differently in so far as the women are concerned. Discursive affirmations, although helped in shaping self-representations and lend credibility to female representation of women by other women, they were also utilized by women as accomplices for male domination. Discursive maneuvering, unlike discursive affirmations, served as primary tools for women to assert dominance over men. This is the linguistic feature that served to have the best potential towards a transformative effect in unequal gender relations in discourse. Aside from this, discursive maneuvering also has an ironic function, it serves both as a liberating tool for women and as cry for help. Coherent humor was employed by women to maintain
conviviality in the proceedings. This highlights the preoccupation of women at maintain
relations on account of their perceived maternal and nurturing behavior. Enforcing
explicitness is likewise a tool of power for women by making gossip available to them.
Discursive hijacking was employed to highlight pride in an otherwise subjugated state of
women. Based on these findings, there were few to little opportunities for women to
dominate in the discourse. The already unequal power relations between male and female
in the text reinforces male domination and power. The linguistic features and patterns
therefore are accessible for men for appropriation and to serve their purpose of
maintaining the uneven status quo. As a consequence, this only reveals the pervasive
male-dominated ideology in the larger social structures that shape and create the belief
systems of our social group. The gendered nature of social structures, and the advantage
with which the male gender has over them, ensures that the current system of discourse
production and consumption remains normative—ensuring the perpetuation of the
unequal balance of power between genders.

**Pedagogical Implication**

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) has now become common in research studies.
The main thrust of this framework is to reveal the hidden ideological and power relations
that are embedded in language (as text) and subject them to thorough linguistic analysis.
In the educational setting, the principal meditational tool through which learning occurs
is language (Rahimi & Sharififar, 2015). Neither sociocultural learning theorists employ
the matters of inequity and privilege as focal points, nor the critical discourse theorists
consider the matters of learning (Rogers, 2004 as cited by Rahimi & Sharififar, 2015).
According to Rogers, CDA is related to the understanding of learning based on two ways.
Firstly, discourse analysis based on a critical domain by allowing one to perceive the
learning process in more complicated ways. Secondly, the researchers’ and participants’
learning are developed by the process of performing CDA. The ultimate goal of CDA is
developing critical thinking skills.

Wallace (1992) has been the first one to find a gap in EFL context. She asserted
that "EFL students are often marginalized as readers; their goals in interacting with
written texts are perceived to be primarily those of language learners" (p. 26). Likewise,
Wallace asserts that (ibid) most of the practices in reading classes is traditional in its methods and mechanisms. In other words, traditional reading classes are not supported in three principal ways: 1) using a method for finding the meaning of text; 2) using the texts which are more stimulating; 3) connecting the texts and reading activities to social contexts (Wallace, 1992 as cited by Rahimi & Sharififar, 2015). In order to entice learners to approach the text critically and to uncover the ideological assumptions of text, teachers can support learners with some skills and scaffolding of activity. In addition, an EFL teacher can employ CDA techniques and ask students to analyze discourse by finding the hidden meaning of the text, and, at the same time, establish the association between discourse, ideology, and power. Thus, the activity allows the teacher to encourage learners toward a lifelong ability in critical thinking (Rahimi & Sharififar, 2015).

References


