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Redesigning the English Classroom Towards Fourth Industrial Revolution, Are the Students Motivated?

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Abstract

Technology plays a prominent role in enhancing and innovating the quality of education nowadays which is in coherence and relevance with the aim the study which is to examine the motivation level of Arab EFL students in redesigning the traditional classroom to technology-based where the students use technology learn English. Mixed-method research design was used to gather data from 40 high school students were randomly chosen. The results showed that students are highly motivated as the easy access to technologies provide them with more learner-centered activities and authentic learning materials. The students reported having a

better learning environment, better peer interaction and participation in learning compared to the traditional classroom. The new insight of the importance of students' level of readiness and motivation on the utilization of technology in the classroom especially in English language learning session should be taken into account as to meet the purpose of providing education at the first place with relevant knowledge and innovative. The students are motivated to join and engage in new learning environment in the redesigned classroom with effective knowledge transfer and delivery.

Keywords: *redesigned classroom, English learning, students' motivation, education 4.0, the fourth industrial revolution 4.0.*

Introduction

The revolution of the world from manually based action to automation centred action has slowly taken place in maximizing every processes and procedure in every field, sector and aspects in this era. The primary source and reason which contributes to this revolution are known as the technology which progressively changing and enhancing humans' quality of life with the ultimate goal to create better world-living (Martinz et al. 2011). The revolution of transportation, production, management, communication and education has been progressed and fulfilled the current needs of a developed nation and society (Razak, ALAKRASH, & SAHBOUN, 2018). Tagging along with technology is the fourth industrial revolution which explicitly offers new challenges and remedies in innovating the quality of life. To meet these challenges and embracing the remedies offered, it is pertinent to take a chance and utilize these opportunities for a better quality of life, especially in education. Artificial intelligence which is one of the features of the fourth industrial revolution nowadays ground-breaking in many areas like linguistic, computer science, robotics and neuroscience. The use of technology in the classroom is one of the important concerns that slowly integrates into advancing the education system in all levels starting from preliminary level to the tertiary level of education. This integration can be seen from the implementation of technical aspects in terms of the use of knowledge transfer such as platform, learning materials, classroom settings, learning space, knowledge presentation and more. However, mutual understanding is pertinent in establishing good rapport among students as well as their relationships with teachers or educators in terms of embracing this integration of technology in the classroom and outside the classroom as well. Redesigning the classroom by integrating the technology of the fourth industrial revolution in learning and teaching process is highly dependent on the readiness and preparation of both

learners and teachers as well as their willingness and motivation. The use of the fourth industrial revolution in the classroom is very important to provide opportunities for learners to learn and operate in the age of technology (Bustan & Alakrash, 2020).

The inclusion of technology in teaching and learning process can be through development and implementation of the internet applications of educational tool modes such as e-learning, blended learning and Massive Open Online Course (MOOC) which have resulted in a re-evaluation of the transmission-based system where the teacher serves as the source of knowledge. Over time, there is growing interest the need to facilitate the learning process in assisting the learners to construct and personalize learning. Educational institutes, including schools, have embarked on critical procedures to redesign the traditional classroom as the learning environment, in the 21st century, evolving to be more self-directed. Today's classrooms need to be "arenas for innovative teaching practices that are not easily implemented in more traditional classrooms" (Breslow et al., 2013). Nowadays, learning spaces are nestled within virtual and real environments (Micklethwaite & Knifton, 2017). The dependency on technology as the primary source in the classroom has changed the role of teachers or educators as well according to the requirement and needs of the learning session. To establish an effective learning environment, it is important to stress that the students' concentration and interest are the main concern in this matter. The interest and concentration can be obtained through their performance during the learning session either they are engaged or vice versa as well as academic performance as well which is their grades. The use of technology in the classroom can be quite overwhelming without proper implementation and management in terms of the content distribution, teacher's role, condition of the facilities, etc. The behavior of the student affects the whole learning process and progress. This unlikely behavior can be linked to unpreparedness for class, non-completion of homework. However, Godzicki, Godzicki, Krofel, & Michaels (2013) found that the students more engaged in learning activities only because the teacher utilized technology. It shows that the presence of technology-supported with strategic plans can motivate the students to engage in classroom's activities.

One of the strategic plans with the utilization of technology in the classroom is known as redesigned classroom. This strategy has been initiated by the MoE with the ultimate goal to provide students with easy access to authentic learning resources in technology-enhanced environment that is conducive and supportive. The engaging and interactive classroom in this context can be seen with the physical arrangement of tables and chairs inflexible manner, the use of internet in teaching and learning, the use of vibrant colours painted on the walls, air-conditioned and well-lit classroom condition (Mohd Nor, Nambiar, Ismail & Adam, 2018).

Although this initiative was undertaken in 2013, the effect of the use of technology in the redesigned classroom on students' learning outcomes and engagement. Kamalludeen, Hassan, and Ahmad Nasaruddin, (2016) investigated at the students' patterns of using ICT in the redesigned classroom, while (Cheok, Wong & Ayub, 2017;) looked at teachers' perceptions and readiness towards redesigning the classrooms. In the Malaysian context A study conducted by Mohd Nor et al (2018) looking at the investigation of students' perceptions of the redesigned classrooms as well as its impact on students' learning outcome and behaviour. This current study intends to investigate students' motivation level on the use of technology in learning English as the second language among Arabic students in Malaysia. Findings from this study will allow policymakers, administrators as well as teachers to be aware of the impact of the use of technology in the classroom on students' understanding and learning.

Fourth Industrial Revolution

Fourth industrial revolution is the newest industrial transformation with “cyber-physical systems, Big Data, automation, data exchanges, cloud, robots, Artificial intelligence and internet of things, and (semi-) autonomous industrial techniques to understand the new technologies and innovation. The McKinsey Global Institute framed the 4IR as the age of “cyber-physical systems”. One of the consequences of Fourth industrial revolution is: “The blurring of technology into every part of our lives is becoming the norm (Hirschi, 2018). However, the impact that the fourth Industrial Revolution will have or the direction it will take is not yet known. A wave of technology is now crashing into our personal and professional lives like a ton of bricks” (Hawken, Lovins, & Lovins, 2013). The fourth industrial revolution 4.0 (IR 4.0) has given new stimulus for educational changes and transformations. As of late, experts in the educational field recognised the significant effect of butch technological innovations in Information computer technology is having on the Educational process (Ferneda & Ruffoni, J.2015). The experts concur that Education process in fourth industrial revolution 4.0 will be formed by innovations and will for sure need to prepare students to produce innovations.

Education 4.0

Education 4.0 is supposed to affect all the domains (Cognitive, Affective and Psychomotor). The fourth industrial revolution will require humans with adequate data and digital literacy. students in all fields will, therefore, need to obtain those digital and data literacies during their studying (Anggraeni, 2018). Convergence of machine and men during the 4IR means that the disciplinary distance between social sciences and humanities, science and technology will be

reduced. One of the important fragments of 4IR will be in the convergence of disciplines like computer science, business administration and mechanical engineering. In collaboration with industry, universities, therefore, need to come up with new disciplinary programs to fit the changes (Hussin, 2018). Big data, mobile computing, social network and cloud as innovations, created a chance to construct a learning environment that allows self-learning which is independent of place and time. In the education of fourth industrial revolution, students will be able to design their own pathway depending on their personal educational goals. Meeting the high demands for ubiquitous M-learning will impose using important tools like MOOCs, remote labs, game-based learning, virtual classrooms and virtual labs (Ahmad et al., 2019). By the rising level of complexity, there is vital need to impart deeper learning, this can be done by the increased use of practice-oriented learning and the use of blended project and scenario-based learning. As experts suggest innovation as maker space, it characterized as learning by doing and as open source innovation which it should be utilized as a means to train students.

Education in the fourth industrial revolution will have profound transformations in many models like industry, so that, to cope with the rapid and disruptive changes, there is a need of new ways to recognize and certify workplace-based learning (Agustina & Fajar, 2018). That requires a partnership between industry and educational institutions. Some other specialists suggest that high school and undergraduate's programs need to be compressed, supplemented by training and subsequent by in-depth studies. Some other specialists think that fixed degree programs may not be effective (Agustina & Fajar, 2018). therefore, the ministries of education and universities need to re-think about the academic and high school programs will be shaped in the future. To recognize that, a new system of certification, practice-oriented, and competency-based learning will be there.

Above-mentioned aspects require a transformation in the teachers' role as educators and the necessity to be aware of the knowledge, comprehension and willingness level to manage the transformation of the educational system with respect to the 4IR. For a nation to be able to generate professionals that fulfils the demands of the workplace, the first necessity is to prepare the human resources. For preparing these resources, first of all, the teachers must know the transformations taking place in the world and recognise the role and strategies of teaching-learning methods which requires improvement to achieve the goal of becoming a competitive nation in the 4th Industrial Revolution. Also, along the rapid expansion of the worldwide industry and economy, teachers are encouraged to get trained in the digital technologies domain, thereby, getting themselves ready to face the of the 4IR challenges. It is essential that they have a clear grasp of the modern technology to improve educational approach inside

classroom (Berita Harian, 2018). They must also be equipped with an aptitude to think ahead and with the new sets of skills. Therefore, to respond to the call of the government and be aligned with the educational transformation with respect to the Fourth Industrial Revolution, this research focuses knowledge, comprehension and willingness level of the teachers to manage the transformation of the educational system with respect to the 4IR, as they are the determining force of the success of the educational transformation. Those teachers not willing to adapt to the changes will face difficulties and become a burden in implementing the change in the educational paradigm.

Related Literature

The fourth industrial revolution has its influences on the teaching process within the new era of industry 4.0, the concept “Teacher 4.0” enlarged to cover the current teaching methods used in the higher education field. Therefore, education needs to adopt new teaching methods to be able to follow up with the fundamental changes happening with new technology. This technological innovation also brought radical change to education. MOOCs is a new form of education that offer stand-alone teaching online (xing, 2015; Alakrash & Bustan, 2020). In line with this evolution, the education systems of countries should focus on having a good look at cultivating innovative talent, particularly the high-level scientists and technologists. This changes also has transformed the role of the teacher as the medium of the knowledge transfer in classroom as these changes eventually turn the role to the students in playing the main part in keeping the learning and teaching process interactive and effective, Bangayan- Manera et al (2020). These changes are known as the indicators in building a new environment for the learning and teaching process to be mutually appealing and comprehensive with the existence of technology as the remedy.

In the context of English as second language learning, this topic has become a top priority in education and government circles in all Arabic countries (Wahba et al. 2014). English has been acknowledged as being essential in helping the countries to gain ground and status within the areas of globalization and IT. English is viewed, in the English language curriculum for the compulsory school stages, for example in Syria, as a means of promoting relations, understanding and cooperation between Syria and other countries of the world (Wahba et al., 2014). In relevant to the widespread of the use of technology in education, learning English has become more comprehensive and effective as it can be done online with accessible materials and knowledge that is interactive and interesting. The existence of technology also has turned a usual and common traditional classroom to an online friendly environment or

known as redesigned classroom to deliver a better learning and teaching process to new generations. The study of redesigned classroom or online classroom is closely related to the students' readiness and engagement in creating an effective environment for self-learning and cooperative learning habit. Apparently, this initiative has been an important effort to increase students' motivation in facing the evolution of the fourth industrial revolution that has been slowly integrating into every aspect of this world.

Despite the plethora of research that highlighted the contributions and benefits of digital technologies on teaching and learning, the effect of using technologies on students' motivation level especially in learning English as the second language is sparse. therefore, the aim of the study is to examine the motivation level in using technology in the classroom among Arabic high school students or precisely, in Arab International School in Malaysia (Elaf & Hussien 2020).

Methodology

The study has employed a mixed-method research design and used a multiple case study research design to provide a more in-depth exploration in capturing the basic features in different sites (Yin, 2009). Several reasons motivated the researcher to employ these research designs as it gives a completer and more holistic picture of the phenomenon when the conclusion is retrieved from multiple sources. In total, there are forty Arab EFL high school students who volunteered to participate in this study were interviewed and answered the questionnaire distributed. For the first data elicitation procedure, group discussions were held on their opinion on the facilities and physical attributes of the new classroom design as well as use of technology. As for the second research method which is a questionnaire, the instrument was adapted from a developed survey questionnaire.

The researchers used audiotape recording and transcribed verbatim interviews. As for the findings in the questionnaire, all the data was analyzed and presented in tables and figures by using SPSS 25. The data presented include the number of the subjects (N), the means (M) and the standard deviations (SD) for each item in each category of the section across all subjects. The mean scores were then compared against the agreed criteria adopted in this research to classify the responses into (1) high agreement, (2) moderate agreement, and (3) low agreement. The mean scores of the subjects' responses for each question are ranges from 1-5 specifically based on the measurement offered by Hanson et al was adopted (Hanson, Creswell, Clark, Petska, & Creswell, 2005). In precise, the mean scores of agreements range from 1.00 to 2.33

are construed as low, 2.34 to 3.67 are construed as moderate and mean scores of agreements range from 3.68 to 5.00 are construed as high.

Results

The students' interviews analysis showed that the redesigned classrooms is comfortable due to air-conditioning and internet access. Thematically, most of them shared that they prefer to have a comfortable ambience of the room. They repeatedly used adjectives such as 'comfortable', 'cold', 'fresh', 'nice' to describe the room and expressed their feelings as well. This is a clear indication that proved they are indeed pleased and satisfied with the condition and environment of the classroom which subsequently important to lighten their mood and motivation in learning and teaching session. Students declared that they liked a comfortable environment rather than being in suffocating condition, as shown in the following excerpts:

I feel comfortable to be in class. (Respondent 23)

I do not like to sit in a hot and humid classroom, it makes the room smelly with sweats. (Respondent 2)

I can study all day if the classroom is chilling. (Respondent 13)

I would not feel sleepy if we have an air conditioner in the classroom. (Respondent 15)

It shows that the comfortable ambience and effective learning environment hold a great cause to encourage students in their learning process. This was applauded by the instructors at the afternoon classes as they mentioned that students are more attentive and not as sleepy in the traditional classroom. Hence, it shows that it is really important for school management to be ecologically minded and make sure to prioritize air quality in the classroom that apparently will enhance both teaching and learning. A student also singled out about the flexibility of the classroom arrangement as this respondent specifically mentioned that he would love to sit in a circle and easily approach his teacher. This message refers to the flexible arrangement of tables as this strategy can allow them to walk, talk and discuss with friends and teacher easily with boundaries that usually exist in the traditional classroom. Besides that, one female student mentioned how she was comfortable to be sitting in a group and able to share ideas with her friends. She also added this accessible seating arrangement made her less afraid to ask questions or share opinions when they were having a learning session.

"I prefer to sit in the group and be closer with friends and teacher". (Respondent 12)

"I would be more open and active in class if I have my friends near me". (Respondent 27)

"I want to sit near the teacher. So I wouldn't fall asleep easily". (while chuckling) (Respondent 8)

When they have been asked about what are the good things about the use of technology or internet in the classroom, some students mentioned that they do not have to bring their textbooks to classes as the materials are distributed via online or kept in the computer. Thus, they do not have to carry heavy school bags with textbooks to school. One of the students complimented this approach by saying ‘it makes things less complicated’. They also added that the learning environment was fun and interactive as the teacher has used many interactive platforms to conduct the learning session. One of the students confessed that he initially did not like to learn English as the language structure is complicated to be acquired that the Arabic language as the language is their first language, however, the teacher makes it interesting by playing videos, songs and games to enrich their learning session. It can be shown in the following excerpts:

“Teacher asked us to sing an English song along, I like it. (Respondent 11)

The teacher always asked us to answer the English quiz via Kahoot and teach lessons which makes it fun. (Respondent 30)

Just now the teacher taught us by showing videos, I can finally understand the topic. Before we must use the textbook to read but I could not understand any of it. Now I do. (Respondent 3)

Based on the interview with the students, most of them have shown the same patterns and agree that the use of technology in the classroom was better than a traditional classroom in terms of group work, activity stations and pop quizzes but not so in the assessment. One male student mentioned that he does not like to do his assessment online. He added it would be troublesome for him to do it at home as his parents do not allow him to use the internet at home. Another student also mentioned that he does not know how to complete his assessment online as he felt that he is not technologically-advanced in knowledge to manage alone without a teacher’s assistance. These findings show that the use of technology in the classroom can be beneficial and effective in certain parts but improvement and continuous assistance from the teacher and school management are needed to smooth the transition from the implementation of the traditional classroom to total redesigned classroom. However, other students feel motivated and excited to do their assessments via online as there would find other ways to complete their assignments given by the online uploaded materials so the students could access them online and work on them remotely. In terms of the use of the internet in the classroom, most of the students are excited to use the internet as the lesson were interactive, with music and multimedia features. Students were enjoyed as they can try various activities:

Usually, the teacher will ask us to do quizzes like a game in nature and it is really exciting. I am always looking forward to this lesson. (Respondent 40)

When we are unable to understand certain topics, the teacher will explain by showing in figurative form and encourage us to search for extra information. So, we just have to look for it like video or google. (Respondent 22)

I can focus in class and feel sleepy. (Respondent 34)

Sometimes, I sing along with my friends and teacher. Now I know how to sing a lot of English songs and understand. (Respondent 7)

However, the students mentioned that they were only able to access the internet during the English lessons and only in limited time duration (specific hours) as they would have traditional classroom other extra hours as well as for other subjects. So, they lack knowledge of how to use certain learning platforms. However, students unanimously believed that teaching and learning in English lesson are more effective as they can able to go in-depth and understand how to communicate in English through the use of technology which gives them instant access to authentic learning materials and resources as well as when they have opted for extra information. Most of them repeatedly used the words ‘excited’, ‘more fun’, ‘interesting’, ‘not boring’, ‘easy to understand’ to express their feelings about this online learning environment.

In terms of the students’ motivation level, it can be described that students can fully enjoy the learning and teaching process with the existence of technology to accompany knowledge delivery. Based on the findings, we have received positive reactions and reviews from the students which eventually showed that this type of classroom has increased their motivation and strongly supported by their eagerness to attend the same lesson again. All the data above provide evidence to show how the use of technology supports the active learning to establish more effective learning environment. Getting students to enjoy the lesson is not an easy task especially when they are learning a new language which has different language structure than their first language which in this case, Arabic students with the Arabic language as their first language learn English as their second language. In order to strengthen the findings of this study, below is the results of quantitative data measured in terms of the Arabic students’ motivation level towards the use of technology in English lesson.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistic of Arabic Students’ Motivation Level

Questionnaire Items	M	SD	Hanson et al. (2015)
I think I will look forward to coming to class to work and learn English using a computer and technology	4.42	0.71	High
I think learning English using technology in the classroom is fun	4.42	0.71	High
I think I will learn English using technology more than the traditional way	4.42	0.71	High
I think using a computer and the internet to learn English is enjoyable	4.45	0.67	High
I prefer to use the computer and internet to learn English rather than textbook and worksheets	4.40	0.70	High
I think using the computer and the Internet to learn English is engaging	4.40	0.70	High
I think learning English using technology is effective and interesting	4.42	0.67	High
I like using technology to learn English in the classroom	4.47	0.50	High
The use of technology to learn English is a waste of time	1.90	1.08	Low
I think the use of technology in the classroom to learn English will not improve my learning process	1.42	0.50	Low

Based on the data illustrated above, it shows that 40 Arabic students are indeed posited high motivation level towards the use of technology in the classroom as the students show high agreement in using internet and computer for English lessons, as well as other 7 items as stated above. However, the students have shown low agreement towards two items included in the questionnaire which concern on the use of technology as wasting their time and it would not improve their English lessons. The total mean of the mean scores of the variables in the questionnaire indicates that the students are highly motivated in using the technology to learn English as their second language in the classroom. The students also show a low anxiety level to use the technology of the fourth industrial revolution to learn the English language in the classroom.

Discussion

The results of the study demonstrate that the condition and facilities (technological facilities) within the rooms can have an impact on students' motivation level in the teaching and learning process. These findings are in line with the past studies (Van Horne et al., 2012; Brooks, 2012; Barret et al., 2013; Grier-Reed et al., 2012) who found that majority of students are positively affected by the redesigned classroom arrangement and condition. A conducive and supportive learning process with a cool environment and well-equipped room can establish an appealing and interactive engagement with the students. The presence of the internet, as well as facilities, accommodate the learning and teaching to go beyond what the traditional classroom supposed to provide. These features help them to demand and obtain more than what they can have in common English lessons. They are exposed to various forms of learning materials such as listening to songs, watching videos and searching for information using tremendous educational platforms offered on the internet. Many of the activities in the classroom required collaborative learning where students can work in a team and obtained easy access to discussion with their peers and teacher. It is supported with the students' opinions about the flexible arrangement of the tables in the classroom which makes the classroom's condition more accessible and effective. Similar results reached by (Nair, Patil, & Mertova, 2012; Kumarawel, Yusop, & Abdul Razak, 2015) as they found that learning activities through VLE-FROG and mobile phones showed a positive impact learning process as it positively enhanced their IT competencies and a improved their understanding of learning materials.

Overall, the students have shared positive comments via an interview conducted and they have shown high agreements and positive reactions based on the survey in measuring their motivation level. They have reported that they indeed enjoyed the English lessons, paid more attention than before, were more engaged because of the interactive learning which enabled them to communicate together for better understanding of what is being taught. The result in line with (Granito & Santana, 2016), they asserted that learning environment is a critical factor of students' engagement and achievements in language learning. In technology-enhanced environment, students learn can improve and master the new learning skills such as problem solving, critical thinking and communication skills, interpersonal skills including relationship management and teamwork, learning personal responsibility and self-direct learning as one of the main principals of education 4.0 (Miller, 2008). The findings have also shown a paradigm shift in the educational process where the teacher's concern is now more on students' involvement in learning rather than instruction.

However, there are certain aspects in terms of this matter that need to be raised as the major concern would be the allocated time duration for this lesson, internet connectivity and the full implementation of the redesigned classroom. Some of the students complained that they only can have a lab class or use the internet in their lesson in specific lessons as they still need to have a traditional classroom setting for other lessons. Thus, this issue is meant to be connected with the implementation and arrangement of the real redesigned classroom that considers every aspects and part of the room into the online learning environment. The initiative to establish the real redesigned classroom should be considered to achieve the demands of 4th industrial revolution. Besides that, internet connectivity also has been a concern when they have poor internet connection as it would disrupt the whole learning process. However, the teacher should play their role to avoid the setback by providing other initiatives to solve this problem. The new role of the teacher in designing the tasks which require awareness and knowledge of new teaching methods. As Walker et al. (2011) and Razak, Yassin, & Maasum, (2020) stressed, the new teaching method enables collaborative dialogic learning as instructors and learners participate in knowledge building (Alakrash et al. 2020).

Conclusion

The objective of this paper is to investigate the motivation level among 40 Arabic high school students enrolled in Arab International School in Malaysia in using technology in their English classroom. The results of this paper have shown the relevance of the importance of technology in today's' learning and teaching process in schools and it does affect the students' motivation level to have an effective and comprehensive learning process. The findings of these results are not just subjected to English lessons solely but applicable to other subjects as well. However, further research should be done in concern with the full implementation of the redesigned classroom with other subjects and investigation on the factors what would possibly impact teaching and learning in classrooms should be done. Hence, the findings of this data can provide a baseline or reference in evaluating a good redesigned classroom by taking all of the new findings into account such as the condition and appearance of the room as well as the needs of the teacher, students and administrators to create an effective and interactive learning environment for students in relevance with the demands of the fourth industrial revolution.

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The Perception of Teachers and Students on the Use of Content-Based Instruction in Teaching Speaking at P4M Mataram

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Abstract

The present study is aimed at finding out the perception of teachers and students on (1) the implementation of Content-Based Instruction and (2) their perception on it when applied in teaching speaking classes at P4M Mataram. The study employed qualitative research design using an interview in data gathering. The data were collected through semi-structured interviews. The selection of semi-structured interview respondents was obtained through purposive sampling method. Then, the data were analyzed using Miles and Huberman's 2014 model of qualitative data analysis. The study found that CBI was effective for teaching speaking classes because it was

found to be effective in integrating content of other subjects and speaking points in speaking classes. The implementation of CBI has enabled learners to learn English integratively with a variety of activities in speaking classes and other subject matters. The teachers positively viewed CBI implementations but required rigorous time for planning and collaboration with other teachers. The students, while they enjoyed the integration, complained about their limited vocabulary, grammar, and expressions in conveying meanings.

Keywords: *Content-Based Instruction (CBI), Language teaching/learning, English Speaking Proficiency, EFL Setting.*

Introduction

The ability to use English as a communication medium is needed in the current global era, especially at work. This language ability certainly cannot be obtained instantly. In addition, language ability can be obtained through direct experience of interaction with target language speakers; this ability is also acquired by teaching in the classroom through both formal and non-formal institutions such as training and professional development of LPK (*Lembaga Pelatihan Kerja*). The aspect of language learning in LPK is closely related to the use of English for Specific Purposes approach. This ESP approach is in accordance with the analysis of student needs in teaching and using English in specialized fields of study such as tourism and hospitality. Thus ESP has a different approach to General English (GE).

ESP is generally used in teaching foreign languages for certain uses in certain fields of science and other professions. This goal is generally understood as a benefit in the English language role as a communication tool both oral and written. ESP material refers to the students' needs and accommodates them. According to Gatehouse in Una (2018, p. 41), ESP is the interpretation of the results of the analysis of authentic language needs used in the target workplace setting as situational languages have been prepared. Furthermore, Una (2018, p. 42) concludes that needs analysis includes all activities used to gather information about students' needs, shortcomings, desires and gaps. Therefore, ESP should be seen as an approach that are indeed different from General English. As Hutchinson & Waters (1987, p.19) put it:

ESP must be seen as an approach not as a product. ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material. Understood properly, it is an approach to language learning, which is based on learner need.

In other words, ESP is an English language learning approach not as a product of language which is the content and method adapted from the student's motivation of learning.

The use of Content-Based Instruction (CBI) in speaking teaching is an advance in the development of ESP today. CBI is very closely related to the use of specific material that is contextual in accordance with the needs of students. Mutual relations can be obtained reciprocally through CBI learning where students can master the subject matter as well as in terms of language aspects. Furthermore, the CBI principle which based on the continuity of content on material and assignments requires a series of activities in which the process of practice can be carried out directly by students. According to Corrales and Maloof (2011) state that CBI learning is not grammar learning like most English courses but students must obtain an adequate language structure.

In the application of CBI as a context for learning English as a foreign language, there are a series of activities that involve students in being able to adapt the subject matter according to the target language. Based on the characteristics above, Davies (2003) defines CBI as a teaching method that emphasizes learning something more than the language itself. Another definition of CBI as an English learning approach that integrates the use of language in the context of second language learning or foreign language with content so that students can convey ideas that are appropriate to the content of a particular subject matter (see Crandall & Tucker, 1990; Wesche & Skehan, 2002). The content in question must be interesting, in accordance with the subject matter, relevant to the needs of students, moreover the content can contain topics or themes according to specific interests or needs, EFL setting, and related to the purpose of teaching in a second or foreign language (see Richards and Rogers, 2001; Brinton, 2003; Snow, 2001).

Based on the above definition, having skill in speaking is one of the important things in language learning. Mastering it reflects success in learning English. As Harmer (2005) states that in the process of language learning, speaking is a "prominent" skill. Therefore, speaking learning is active learning because it involves the use of speaking skills in active oral communication. It should be noted that several factors underlie the successful implementation of CBI in speaking class, especially in the context of learning as a second language or foreign language.

Factors that are often encountered are the lack of exposure of students to material taught through the CBI approach, because teaching in Indonesia uses English in the context of communication as a foreign language. The teacher must pay attention to the preparation of vocabulary in all learning activities. This is important because students are helped in understanding the speaking concept in the target language. For example, in conversations in hospitality themes it is often found the words 'complimentary breakfast', 'front desk', 'kitchenette', 'late charge', 'luggage cart'. The availability of Glossary is very important accompanied by the role of the teacher in explaining and translating into supporting languages in this case to Indonesian.

According to Merriam-webster dictionary, perception is a result of perceiving: observation. Meanwhile, According to Robbins (1999, p. 124) the notion of perception is an impression obtained by individuals through the five senses then analyzed (organized), interpreted and then evaluated, so that the individual obtains meaning. In addition, Rakhmat in Ribahan (2018, p. 17) points out that understanding of perception as: "experience of objects, events or relationships obtained by deducing information and interpreting messages". The similarity of opinion can be seen from the meaning of concluding information and interpreting messages that have relevance to the process of giving meaning. Therefore, this study was conducted to find out the perception of teachers and students on (1) the implementation of CBI and (2) their perception on it when applied in teaching speaking classes at P4M Mataram. As a result, hopefully it can find problems, obstacles and strategies to further develop advance speaking teaching using the CBI approach. To further explore the phenomena that are being studied, the research questions are formulated as follows: (1) What are the perception of teachers and students on the implementation of CBI at P4M Mataram?; (2) What are the perception of teachers and students towards CBI when it applied in teaching speaking classes at P4M Mataram?

Methodology

In investigating the perceptions of teachers and students in the use of CBI along with its application in speaking teaching classes, a qualitative research design approach was used. Interview was used in the collection of data. Then to get more in-depth information about teacher and student perceptions and the implementation of CBI, case study research was carried out. The selection of semi-structured interview respondents was obtained through purposive sampling method. In this case, three teachers and five students from P4M were interviewed. Finally, the interview record was transcribed, re-translated and analyzed using coding.

Results and Discussion

The study found that CBI was effective for teaching speaking classes in several reasons:

1. It was found to be effective integrating content of other subjects and speaking points in speaking classes.
2. The implementation of CBI has enabled learners to learn English integrative with a variety of activities in speaking classes and others subject matters.
3. The teachers positively viewed CBI implementation but required rigorous time for planning and collaboration with other teachers.

4. The students while enjoying the integration complained for their limit in vocabulary, grammar, and expression for conveying meanings.

This section discusses each of the findings above, in terms of teacher and student perceptions, classroom implementation and challenges.

1. *It was found to be effective integrating content of other subjects and speaking points in speaking classes.*

The results obtained from the interview data analysis show that CBI use looks effective because it integrates content from other subjects in this case the theme of hospitality and tourism with speaking points in speaking class. This can be done by the teacher first distributing some glossaries containing vocabulary on a particular topic, forming it into a sentence and students doing conversational exchange. This can be seen from the findings of the interview from all three teachers who responded positively to this. Most of their perceptions are more in terms of the effectiveness of CBI in integrating content with the selection of certain topics during the teaching process as can be seen in the excerpts below.

"I first did a brief question and answer about the topic with a theme they liked. Their enthusiasm was seen from a series of exercises in each session. I also often start with the introduction of vocabulary and then form sentences together. I often tell them to take turns doing conversational exchange from the sentences they form" (Interview T2)

"... The use of the Glossary certainly makes it easier for students to recognize new words. Many uses of new words are less common in their ears. I see some students having difficulty in saying ... a lot of mispronunciation but with lots of practice it can be overcome ... of course it is not easy to start, but seeing them motivated I become excited" (Interview T1)

"This topic is much related of course to the needs studied by students. I often start with a brief introduction to each student. For example in the theme of hospitality, how to properly welcome guests" (Interview T3)

Moreover, the excerpts above illustrate the situation in which the integration process is going pretty well. The teacher feels how integration is applied directly to the task that is related to the learning process of students in the original situation. The teacher also sees how enthusiastic students are in learning new words on each topic given. The use of the glossary strongly supports students' concepts of a particular subject. Many unfamiliar new words can be overcome with the help of the teacher's glossary. Thus, it can help students develop speaking points to start a basic conversation. Furthermore, further findings report that there was an equal perception of teachers on the techniques taken by integration which were not only fixed on one speaking skill. Mastery of vocabulary can be overcome by the frequent use of techniques like Brinton cited in Villalobos

(2014) the use of this technique is the same as that used in CLT class which prioritizes the active participation of students. Furthermore, Brinton (2003) recommended several techniques such as: Pair and group work, information gap, jigsaw, graphic organizers, discussion and debate, and role-plays. This study showed that CBI was ideal in integrating language skills towards content in it. The following excerpts clearly illustrate their perceptions.

"I often start by playing a conversation that I took from YouTube on a particular topic. I ask students to listen and repeat several parts of the dialogue. I pay attention to one by one the vocabulary spoken by students ... often while correcting the wrong pronunciation and interpreting the vocabulary that students have not mastered" (Interview T3)

"I often ask students to form groups to discuss videos of ongoing conversation situations ... one by one progressively conclude from the topics they are discussing ... often question and answer about places, people's names, and repetition of vocabulary that has not been understood. Yes, we must make the atmosphere attractive to students "(Interview T3)

"... Mistakes are often found if they are told to rewrite the sentence they say ... yes a little correction in grammar and the order of words of course. It is natural to find out when they are new to the topic they feel they have not experienced in a real situation" (Interview T2)

Some students also immediately discovered how this CBI approach was important in developing their speaking skills. They tell how their experiences in recognizing new topics and try to apply them in situations in the classroom as well as in their real situation if they are involved in practical field works. This can be seen from the following excerpts.

"... interesting in my opinion, especially we are taught directly how to start a conversation... especially how to deal with tourists if there is a hotel room booking by telephone, handling complaints and much more ... many new words, the teacher explains it well" (Interview S1)

"Yes we are becoming more confident in communicating with strangers ... learning how to welcome guests, showing empty rooms, completing payments and much more ... helping me learn a lot, I guess" (Interview S2)

2. *The implementation of CBI has enabled learners to learn English integrative with a variety of activities in speaking classes and others subject matters.*

As mentioned above, the learning and teaching process to determine the extent to which the CBI approach works will surely need continuity of collaboration between the teacher and students in each class session. The teacher in her role as a class facilitator as well as the teacher must seek interesting learning and conduct a series of teaching activities that support the process. These are shown by excerpts below.

"Before entering the core activities I always ask students about the concepts they know. I become aware of the concept of understanding that they build on the topics being discussed" (Interview T2)

"...prior knowledge techniques are also important to further emphasize the background knowledge that students have ... Yes, at least me and students always make a glossary together about any vocabulary they don't know" (Interview T1)

"... choosing a topic together is a brilliant idea before going through a series of learning activities. We become aware of how far students know before core activities begin" (Interview T3)

In addition, each student has a special strategy during the process of speaking activities. Each student has their own uniqueness and obstacles, therefore it is even better if the teacher always monitors the progress of students through student journals and asks directly. The progress of students is inseparable from the collaboration of both parties both teachers and students. This obstacle does not indicate if students are unable, sometimes only because of nervousness, self-confidence or lack of readiness and wrong learning techniques.

3. The teachers positively viewed CBI implementation but required rigorous time for planning and collaboration with other teachers.

This is based on several characteristics and principles of CBI which emphasize more on the selection of task material that is relevant to students' abilities in the real situation. So the use of authentic tasks is an absolute requirement for the smooth running of CBI teaching in the classroom. This task is also related to the target language culture so that of course students better understand what is taught in class. This is as stated by Hutchinson & Waters in Briton (2003) that another characteristic of CBI that is the most important is its authenticity. The use of authentic material in the classroom converts the genuine objective and this also brings learning about the culture of the target language. The opinion was stated as follows.

"I learned a lot of things when learning about tourism topics, so I found a lot of new vocabulary that was unfamiliar to my ears ... yes it was very interesting and helped me add new vocabulary ... often I connected concepts in English and Indonesian, and found many special vocabulary which cannot be interpreted literally" (Interview S5)

"I came to know and understand about the world of tourism and when I understand one by one new vocabulary through Indonesian and it's easier to apply it in English conversations on that topic" (Interview S1)

"I became more excited and confident in communicating with foreign guests" (Interview S4)

“I think the use of CBI in speaking class greatly benefits students because they are prepared to speak English actively for their chosen field of work. For example in the world of hospitality and airports they often interact with foreign tourists. A little more helps them to maximize public service. (Interview T2)

"Student progress is seen when I give them some tourism topics and insert some new vocabulary that is commonly found in the world of tourism ... they are happy about it and try to have pair's conversation in front of the class" (Interview T1)

The suitability of the content and needs of students is absolutely taught by the teacher in the class. One teacher's collaboration with other teachers is absolutely necessary in its implementation in the classroom so that there is no monotonous learning and no progress. This can be seen in the following statement.

"...material planning with its implementation requires a lot of time, the accuracy of taking resources with the content taught to students is absolutely learned by each teacher" (Interview T3)

"Module preparation and uniformity between one teacher and another teacher is needed so that there is sequential and continuous learning" (Interview T2)

Another thing that often occurs in CBI learning is the active involvement of students throughout the phases of the learning process. Thus, the emphasis of learning is more on learner-centered, this is of course students play an important role in the CBI class. They are active in making and actively involved so that there is no dependence on the teacher. Moreover, they actively correct each other so peer correction and peer input are very necessary. This sometimes makes the teacher need more time to observe the class in each session.

4. The students while enjoying the integration complained for their limit in vocabulary, grammar, and expression for conveying meanings.

As explained earlier the role of students will appear active if they directly interact with each other. CBI teaching is more maximal when students are able to integrate many skills simultaneously, but in general the aspects applied in the process of speaking through CBI are not required to understand language criteria as a whole but based on context. Therefore, it is often found some difficulties faced by students at the beginning of CBI implementation in class. These are shown by excerpts below.

“I am very motivated and excited because I can learn to speak English even though it's a bit awkward” (Interview S2)

“I am very happy to learn new words, but I have to often find out what they mean” (Interview S4)

“Many new words for students are intended for speaking classes with hospitality themes such as complimentary breakfast, front desk, kitchenette, late charge, luggage cart that often students encounter difficulties both in pronunciation and meaning” (Interview T2)

“It's okay and it doesn't matter if the way we speak English but there are still mistakes because we are not native, the way we train to get used to speaking English and understanding what our interlocutor is” (Interview T3)

Conclusion

This study concludes the existence of 'synchrony' between the perceptions of teachers and students in terms of CBI implementation as an instruction medium in the speaking class at P4M Mataram. CBI provides students with meaningful and contextual language skills through authentic materials based on themes in certain subjects especially for English as Specific Purposes. Student constraints such as nervousness, awkwardness can be overcome by direct interaction when working practices are held. Mastery of vocabulary can be overcome by the frequent use of techniques like Brinton cited in Villalobos (2014) the use of this technique is the same as that used in CLT class which prioritizes the active participation of students. Furthermore, Brinton (2003) recommended several techniques such as: Pair and group work, information gap, jigsaw, graphic organizers, discussion and debate, and role-plays.

Finally, CBI is an approach to language teaching, by integrating several student abilities at once and teaching focuses on students, learned-centered. So the involvement of students in the classroom is an absolute thing, the completion of learning with small discussion groups and paired communication is the integration of strategies for reading, writing, listening and speaking.

Pedagogical Implication

CBI is the right approach in learning speaking in class. Students are more eager to innovate creating their own conversations. When students are interested and motivated in the subject they are learning, they make great relationships with life situations, learning languages becomes a fun and easy activity.

The advantage of this approach is that it can motivate students. With this approach students can develop their knowledge. This approach is able to stimulate their thinking by promoting social values. Meanwhile this approach also has drawbacks, that is, this approach can make students feel confused and unhappy because too much use of native language indirectly and makes them a problem.

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Teaching Preparatory School Students in KSA Through Rhymes: An Experimental Study

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Abstract

Due to growing technological advances, schools are increasingly under pressure to adopt modern technology to motivate their students, especially preparatory school students. The use of rhymes to teach English in preparatory schools, as reported by teachers and their experience, is a tremendously useful tool to achieve this aim. However, empirical evidence to confirm this hypothesis in the context of Saudi Arabian preparatory schools is almost nonexistent. The

principal objective of the study is to address this void by examining the influence of rhymes as a pedagogical tool. In this research, the participants were in the preparatory class students from selected schools in KSA, with an equal number of female and male students. The experimental and control groups consisted of 30 participants each. Results revealed that the use of the rhyme-based method of teaching in English has positive linguistic and attitudinal effects on the speaking and fluency of Saudi EFL learners at the preparatory level. Meanwhile, after the use of rhymes intervention, it significantly increased learners' perception and attitude towards English language speaking. Findings present implications for language teaching and further studies. In general, when Saudi EFL learners are being supported with the rhyme's method, the better chance of developing their fluency and accuracy in speaking. Likewise, when they are encouraged and motivated to talk in real-world language application the higher confidence they exhibit, Hence, the rhymes approach has been considered as an advantageous student-centred teaching platform in enhancing their communicative competence. The development of insurrectional materials which are rhyme-based is earnestly sought.

Keywords – *Fluency, Accuracy, Speaking, rhymes, Corrective feedback, language teaching,*

Introduction

Many educators accept the use of kindergarten rhymes in classrooms to encourage academic, physical, mental, emotional and musical development for children. The kindergarten rhymes are used for a pleasant and relaxing musical experience in the elementary music classroom and encourage interdisciplinary research. The extensive collection of children's play rhymes from around the globe supports a diligent and innovative curriculum for music educators (May 2020). It cannot be overestimated the value of children's play allows children to participate in their empirical and environmental senses. When children play, they join in events that support the growth of the core competencies of the 21st century, such as collaboration and commitment, rational thinking and imagination.

The American philosopher and educator John Dewey recognized the apparent connection between play and schooling, claiming that the free play of teachers should foster the individuality of children and social learning which facilitates democracy (Beatty, 2017). Studies have shown that children's play is a powerful learning stimulus, it demonstrates outstanding curricula in creative pedagogy and celebrates children's best training in environments for active learning (Fisher, Hirsh-Pasek, Golinkoff, Berk & Singer, 2011; Jones & Reynolds, 2011). In the interactive classroom, elementary children will obtain incentives to think creatively about and pursue new knowledge

through research and analysis with the use of play and rhymes (Jones & Reynolds, 2011). According to Benette (2010), the rhymes of children promote accuracy and fluency because these poems are often abundant in smooth use of foreign words and delicate phrases. Speaking in rhymes inspires and sweeps children in the fascinating world with names endlessly. Fabulous pictures and sound effects create an interactive, dynamic playground for children in nursery rhymes.

Rhymes as Language Play

The kindergarten rhymes are 'language plays' representations as they are communicated by oral communication and exchanged between an adult and a child or a group of children (Cobb, 2007, quoted in Mullen 2017). Mullen (2017) states that nursery rhymes and rhymes have an aura "strong with language, joy and fun," which also acted as an "interactive childhood memory." The study of child care rhymes allows the whole child to grow (i.e., learning, physical, social and emotional development). Practical music is interested in the voice, tone, rhythm, tempo, form and conceptual structures for children of the rhyme (Kenny, 2005). Nursing rhymes should be regarded as incentives for students to participate in creative music and language arts as children focus on rhymes, sounds, patterns and other artefacts, normal additions of children's play (Cooper, 2010). The rich language inherent in nursery rhymes, which make it relevant for music education, may also generate valuable interdisciplinary learning opportunities. Interdisciplinary research Pedagogues recognize the need for a larger curriculum of music. They provide kids with ample opportunities to engage in musical events and allow them to develop their interests and place in different areas (Barrett & Veblan, 2018). Barrett and Veblan (2018) encourage music educators to pursue an interdisciplinary approach to music instruction so that the curriculum integrates various aspects of the development, learning styles, language and music that can create a positive children's musical experience.

According to Barrett (2005), a language-centric program provides students and teachers with the opportunity to learn music and language and its significance, uses various forms of instruction to promote understanding, provides numerous spaces for fostering creativity and provides a broad range of opportunities for hearing similar music in the classrooms and cultural contexts. It can be linked to various aspects that are important for a single musical performance including musical characteristics (e.g. dynamics, pace, rhythm, melody and harmony); specific experiences and musical reactions and the sense of place where, how and by whom music is produced (Barrett & Veblan 2018; green, 1988; Path, 2017). The original linguistic and musical features of infant rhyme and enjoyable processes and interactions provide an entertaining and memorable platform for learning for children of all ages.

The childhood period is the first stage of human development (Butler & Markman, 2016; Schady, 2011). Although confident children are developing, all children step ahead through a clear continuum of physical, cognitive, social and emotional growth and transformation. Juraid (2016), suggests that English as a global franc lingua has led to preparatory education policy in numerous non-English speaking countries. English is a modern, reasonably casual global movement (e.g. elementary schools) that started in Egypt in the 1990s. However, Thapa et al. (2013) advise students to develop communication skills through speech, reading, writing and listening. Oral communication involves information exchange in the listening process and the understanding of what is heard. Peyton and Jalongo (2008) are responsible for ensuring that verbal communication prepares young children later for successful schooling. Raghavendra et al. (2012) may be why it is essential to develop excellent listening skills for children to fulfil school academic standards and gain acceptable reading skills. The opportunity to interact helps children to concentrate and discover their unique possibilities. Kids who are effective communicators translate more quickly through their cognitive system what they know than a more passive counterpart. In his view, Oduolowu and Oluwakemi (2014) have observed that children can display higher concentration and memory as they learn successful communication.

Simon and Norton (2011) also identified oral communication as the first, most effective and most widely used organized contact tool for the infant. Moreover, oral speech is the preparatory mediator of society, how children find themselves in the community. Oral discourse is primarily about communicating with others. It requires the application of information and abilities to communicate and hear adequately. Mires, Lee and McNaughton (2018) acknowledge that although the curriculum relies extensively on oral communication, it has widely been agreed that it proved difficult to perform oral communication. Some teachers may not have been able to implement this method because their basic background is not straightforward. Peterson et al. (2016) state that these problems are described in various ways. These comprise low socio-economic backgrounds, youth with hearing impairment, brain injuries and academic problems, and other individuals of unknown roots. After those issues, often children become quiet, cautious and feel alone and easily ignored by the peers as they try to make friends or engage in a community activity.

Recently, a variety of news stories, blog posts, and social media debate have called for music teachers to evaluate the repertoire used in their classrooms carefully. They challenge the adequacy of certain popular folk rhymes and nursery rhymes. Such talks will be conducted to demonstrate the essence of cultural awareness and the promotion of positive learning experiences for learners. It will be tragic, though, if language teachers quit using traditional rhymes and nursery rhymes in their classroom out of fear of political correctness or of a futile effort to propagandize the school.

In terms of infancy, language and artistic growth, infancy rhymes have too much to deliver (Fountas & Pinnell, 2018, Knapton, 2015, Mullen, 2017), though they are not available to the numbers of children (Kenney, 2005; Conventional Nursery Rhymes May be Headed towards Extinction, 2009). Language teacher has an enormous possibility to start cultivating a fun and positive language with nursery rhymes and also to hold mindful instruction by contemplating carefully which rhymes to use for their pupils. The study is likely to help the policymakers develop relevant and successful new school curricula for Saudi schools through the introduction, and exemplar implementation, of socially rooted English, rhymes into the classroom setting. We believe that this would ensure a stress-free environment for preparatory school students and, in the long run, will lead to numerous educational and economic benefits as it would contribute to the training and formation of a new generation of young people armed well with the knowledge of the English language. The work would also contribute to the current literature on teaching in Saudi Arabia in particular and the world, in general, focusing on rhymes in the preparatory education level.

Theoretical Grounding

Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)

The teaching of rhyme is anchored on the audio-lingual method as language teaching approach rooted in the B.F. Skinner theory of Behaviorism. The theory expounded that learning and acquiring a language is a product of external and internal stimuli shaping human actions through reinforcement involving the process of effective modelling and practice, practice and rewards (Azizifar, 2015; Bagheri et al., 2019; Barona-Oñate et al., 2019; Littlewood, 2018; Mart, 2012; Virvou et al., 2015). The use of ALM is fundamentally founded on two distinct principles involving the behaviourism theory and the view of structural language teaching. The structural view of language teaching in ALM focuses on the linguistic system, which makes up the structural rules and vocabulary. Hence, the theory of behaviourism implies that in the learning environment, when learners are positively and properly reinforced to learn grammar, the higher the tendency of becoming communicative competent.

The preparatory medium of teaching language for the audio-lingual method is oral. Language is a speech where the oral practice is given much emphasis. This method is teacher-centred. This implicates that the teachers' role is a model for the target language in monitoring and correcting learners' performance and outcomes. The teacher controls the learning situation by letting the students engaged with tasks and drills to practice language structures and grammar items. Interaction of the learners is not encouraged, which frequently the learners may not understand the

meaning of what they are repeating. It is believed that when they listen and imitate the teacher as they are learning the structures of grammar (Bin Tahir & Hanapi, 2017; Hamada, 2016; Hamada, 2016; Littlewood, 2018). For audio-lingual method, grammar is taught indirectly or covertly (Deya, Gaibani, & Elmenfi, 2019; Lee, Schallert, & Kim, 2015; Qi & Lai, 2017; Rashid, Abdul Rahman, & Yunus, 2017). Previous researches highlight (Bleske-Rechek et al., 2019; Efremova, Plotnikova, & Ustyuzhanina, 2015; Loh, Liao, & Leung, 2018; Okpe & Onjewu, 2016; Thoms, Sung, & Poole, 2017; Uysal & Yavuz, 2015; Vercellotti, & Packer, 2016; Verhoeven, Perfetti, & Pugh, 2019; Zheng, & Yu, 2018) that failure of learners to achieve mastery of the linguistic systems and forms at their stage, they will be capable enough to obtain proficiency in the target language, which is English. Hence, communicative competence requires linguistic accuracy is a critical component suggesting that in communication, it does not only matter what message is transmitted but also how the message is transmitted. Errors in language form may elicit negative reactions by the listener. The teaching for accuracy is a useful goal for language instruction as it improves communication. Therefore, the teaching and testing of grammar should not at all be ignored. The teaching and testing of grammar can be viewed in two ways, namely structural view, and communicative view. The structural view highlights the testing of one's awareness of the grammatical features of the structures of the language.

Research Context

Developing reasons for learners to pursue English as a foreign language at preparatory school rates is a significant challenge for educators and policymakers because it is taking place at a crucial and formative stage of student education. Motivation is a critical factor in any undertaking, even more so in the learning of a language other than one's mother tongue. The present study aims to investigate the effectiveness of using rhymes in teaching English to young learners. In Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), as a matter of course, English is shown traditionally in preparatory schools, with resources and materials being limited, at the very best, to teachers' improvisation at the expense of available posters and flashcards. Speaking and listening activities are neglected mainly because, besides other reasons, they are taxing on teachers' possible time and energy and, more often than not, frustrating for learners. With better technology, however, and its optimal and intelligent use by educators, it is possible to present EFL classrooms as a livelier learning setting to learners, for the simple reason that young learners tend to learn better and more efficiently in a happy and exciting environment. Similarly, there is a shortage of research in KSA on the use of rhymes. Many Language experts have shown the meaning of EFL learners in KSA that some English is speaking Arabic language learners in both SL and FL circumstances have a major

obstacle to being intelligible for other users (Alfallaj & Al-Ahdal, 201; Al-Ahdal et al., 2014; Al-Ahdal & Al-Awaid, 2014; Al-Ahdal et al., 2015; Al-Ghamdi, Almansoob, & Alrefaee, 2019; Magulod, 2017). Hence, this situation needs to be arrested at the foundation years of Saudi learners where it should be charted down at the preparatory grade levels. Hence, this prompted the researcher to conduct an intervention using rhymes in teaching the English language and its cognitive and attitudinal effects on students.

Research Purposes

The preparatory purpose of this experiment is to investigate the impact of utilizing rhymes to teach English to elementary school students in KSA. It specifically answers the following research questions: (1) examine teachers' attitudes towards the use of rhymes in teaching English; (2) analyse the statistically significant differences in the performance of preparatory school students in the experimental and control groups on the basis of students' performance in pre- and post-intervention vocabulary and pronunciation tests; and (3) Research Question 3. Is there a difference between the Pre-test and Post-test Attitude scores of the respondents when grouped According to gender; and (4) propose interventions for the professional development program of language teachers such as IM-based production.

METHODS

Research Design

The study employed a descriptive survey and pre-test-post-test research designs. Merits of using the designs are discussed in this portion. The descriptive component focused on the assessment of the teachers' attitude towards rhyme while the pre-test-post-test part focused on the implementation of rhymes in teaching preparatory students. The pre-test-post-test design was used to measure the change in the perceptions and attitudes of the students to identify the effect of change with the use of rhymes in the classroom using a survey questionnaire. Effect size or gain score is calculated in the study using G*Power. This design is used to identify the effect of results from an identified intervention (Dimitrvo & Rumrill, 2003).

Research Participants and Sampling Procedure

The 20 preparatory school teachers were selected as respondents for the descriptive survey while the participants of the quasi-experiment design composed of 30 preparatory EFL learners. The latter were randomly sampled from one institution. Sampling size was calculated using the G*Power T-test Mean difference between two independent sample means (matched pairs) with A

priory Type of power analysis set into a two-tailed test showing an actual power of 0.90, and effect size of 0.5. Description of the respondents' profile is mostly male, and most come from middle-income families. Anchored on the ethical research consideration, personal information and details given by the participants were confidentially treated. Before the selection and identification and selection of participants, a written request was sent and approved by the authorities and their parents. The data privacy agreement form was also filled out by the respondents and parents.

Research Instruments

For the pre-test-post-test design, a survey questionnaire was used to measure the perception and attitude of the respondents before and after the intervention. The instrument is a self-assessed tool with a 5-point Likert scale with one as the lowest and five as the highest. Likewise, validation of the research instrument was conducted since it was a self-made questionnaire.

Treatment Phases

Pre-Treatment Phase

Before the conduct of the study, the respondents were taught by the teacher using rhymes with corrective feedback. The pre-test of perceptions and attitudes was surveyed. In the course of teaching, language learning tasks were planned and organized to making-meaning activities for the learners to have practice on language fluency and accuracy activities with corrective feedback. In the pre-task, the students were introduced to the rhymes to be completed. They were given the pre-tasks where the students collaborated to come up with the items and conversations which will happen in the given rhymes learning activities. Vocabulary words were also practised. Before the tasks begin, the class agreed with several rules such as using the English language only during the tasks.

Implementation Phase

In the course of implementing rhymes, the students were grouped with four members in each lesson for the actual learning discussions. The topics were taken from the Mother Goose Rhymes, which was introduced to the students as of springboard of rhymes lessons. There were three mother goose rhymes which are selected for the experiment which lasted three weeks of intervention. Table 1 shows the session plan for the intervention. The mode of instruction used was explicit instruction. It is a way to teach students skills or principles by clear, formal teaching. It helps to explain lessons by teaching students how they should proceed and excel with a mission. The session plan has the following parts: Presentation; Discussion; Unlocking of Difficulties;

Motive Questions; Pre – Rhyme Reading; Post –Rhyme Reading; Comprehension check-up; Guided Practice and Generalization. During the intervention, the teacher used music videos to introduce the rhymes for two days. The three rhymes were taught for three weeks. The teacher developed a weekly-lesson design for each rhyme. The learning tasks were video recorded with the permission of concerned authorities.

Table 1. Session Plan of the Intervention

Lesson Objectives: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Read words with short o in CVC pattern • Read phrases, sentences and rhymes in combination with sight words and vocabulary words learned from the rhymes Subject matter: Grammar and Vocabulary Macro skills: Listening and Speaking		
Learning Tasks 1. Presentation 2. Discussion 3. Unlocking of Difficulties 4. Motive Questions 5. Pre – Reading 6. During-Reading	Learning Tasks 1. Presentation 2. Discussion 3. Unlocking of Difficulties 4. Motive Questions 5. Pre – Reading 6. During-Reading	Learning Tasks 1. Presentation 2. Discussion 3. Unlocking of Difficulties 4. Motive Questions 5. Pre – Reading 6. During-Reading
Week 1. There Was a Crooked Man Here was a crooked man and he had a crooked smile He had a crooked sixpence and he walked a crooked mile. He had a crooked cat and a crooked little mouse, They all lived together in a crooked little house. Well this crooked little man and his crooked little smile He took his crooked sixpence and he walked a crooked mile. He bought some crooked nails and a crooked little bat And he tried to fix his roof with a rat-tat-tat-tat	Week 2. Tom the Piper's Son Tom, he was a piper's son He learns to play when he was young The only tune that he could play Was "Over the hills and faraway" Over the hills and a long way off The wind shall blow my top knot off Now Tom with his pipe make such a noise That he pleased both the girls and boys And they did dance when he did play "Over the hills and faraway" Over the hills and a long way off The wind shall blow my top knot off Now Tom did play with such a skill That those nearby could not stand still And over all head of they did dance Down through England, Spain and France Over the hills and a long way off The wind shall blow my top knot off.	Week 3 Over the River Over the river and through the woods To Grandmother's house we go. The horse knows the way To carry the sleigh Through the white and drifted snow, Oh! Over the river and through the woods Oh, how the wind does blow. It stings the nose And bites the toes As over the ground we go. Over the river and through the woods Trot fast my dapple gray. Spring over the ground Like a hunting hound On this Thanksgiving Day, Hey! Over the river and through the woods Now Grandmother's face I spy. Hurrah for the fun, Is the pudding done? Hurrah for the pumpkin pie.
6. Post – Reading 7. Comprehension check up 8. Guided Practice C. Generalization D. Application	6. Post – Reading 7. Comprehension check up 8. Guided Practice C. Generalization D. Application	6. Post – Reading 7. Comprehension check up 8. Guided Practice C. Generalization D. Application

Post-Treatment Phase

After the implementation of the activity, the post-test of perceptions and attitudes were surveyed. Before and after testing, the students provided with necessary instructions highlighting the significance of their scores in the fulfilment study.

Data Analysis

The pre-test-post-test, in calculating the effect size, G*Power statistical software was used using Cohen's Effect Size interpretation. The attitude of teachers towards rhyme was interpreted using the following: 4.51-5.0- Strongly Agree; 3.51-4.5- Agree; 1.51-2.5- Disagree-; 1.00-1.5-Strongly

Disagree. The perception component has five items with the following descriptive interpretations and scale ranges: Strongly Agree ^a (4.20-5.00); Agree ^b (3.40-4.19); Undecided ^c (2.60-3.39); Disagree ^d (1.80-2.59); Strongly Disagree ^e (1.00-1.79). Meanwhile, the attitude component has also five items answered with a 5-point Likert scale with the following descriptive interpretations and scale ranges: Highly Favourable ^a (4.20-5.00); Favorable ^b (3.40-4.19); Undecided ^c (2.60-3.39); Not Favourable ^d (1.80-2.59); Very unfavourable ^e (1.00-1.79). Meanwhile, to ascertain the significant difference in the perception and attitude of the respondents towards speaking before and after the interventions, a t-test of dependent sample means was used. Cohen's d effect size was used to interpret the effect of the gain scores. Responses were tabulated correctly and subjected to an appropriate statistical test.

Results and Discussion

Research Question 1. What is the attitude of teachers Towards Teaching Rhymes in English?

As presented in Table 2, it can be gleaned that the language teachers generally have a favourable attitude towards the use of thymes in the Saudi preparatory classroom, as evidenced with the grand mean of 3.96. The finding implies that language teachers can recognize the value of nursery rhymes as language learning acuity of the pupils. The finding shows that rhymes are seen by language teachers as one of the most important communication resources to facilitate language acquisition and to encourage the physical and emotional wellbeing of preparatory learners.

Table 2. Teachers' Perceptions of Using Rhymes in the Classroom

	The use of rhymes in the classroom:	Mean (n=20)	Interpretation
1	Promotes preparatory student's collaboration.	3.71	Favorable
2	Fosters communication skill is an important resource for students with all levels.	3.92	Favorable
3	Fits the unique style of the student Motivates students to engage further in learning events	3.67	Favorable
4	Promotes the growth of interpersonal skills	3.96	Favorable
5	Enhances understanding of essential topics and theories by teachers	4.21	Favorable
6	Encourages the improvement of leadership skills of students.	4.13	Favorable
7	Enhances understanding of important topics and theories by teachers.	4.13	Favorable
	Grand Mean	3.47	Favorable

Legend: 4.51-5.0- Very Favorable; 3.51-4.5- Favorable; 1.51-2.5- Not Favorable 1.00-1.5-Very unfavorable

The teachers put a value on the usage of rhymes and rhymes to teach a second language is of particular importance. The techniques differ between nations, and also between classes and instructors, and Saudi Arabia classes are not an exception. The teachers answered that using rhymes is appropriate to find that it only leads to memorizing words if the students use it in the actual sense of conversation. They assume that there are other essential training approaches and that they are also special, since this approach may be an important skill t to teach a second language. The majority of teachers 'comments were constructive and often clarified and

indicated their replies. Two agree that using rhymes and rhymes will help to learn when used by young children to help them fully grasp the context to bring the enjoyable aspect of the lesson eventually. Many teachers said they use it to devote time and money in teaching and to make their classroom feel updated, renewed and unique. Teachers' familiarity with their young students is significant and cannot be overlooked, The main objective of this paper is to examine how relevant the usage of rhymes and rhymes is to preparatory education teachers in Saudi Arabia. Despite the favourable attitude of teachers in using rhymes in language teaching, there is still a need to enhance the knowledge and skills of teachers on the effective utilization of rhymes to obtain its full benefits in language teaching among Saudi preparatory learners. The benefits of rhymes in language teaching has been supported by previous studies (Brown & Nicklin, 2019; Campbell, 2018; Clerkin & Gilligan, 2018; Cook, 2020; Magulod, 2018; Millei, 2019; Muwati, Tembo, & Mutasa, 2016; O'Keefe, Dearden, & West, 2016; Pullinger, 2017; Rees, 2016).

Research Question 2. Is there a Difference in the Pre and Post Scores on Perception and Attitude towards Speaking and Pronunciation Before and After the Used of rhymes?

The second specific research purpose supplements the first research objective. It ascertains the perceptual and attitudinal effects of rhymes with corrective feedback towards English language speaking before and after the implementation of the intervention. Likewise, the effect size was calculated to describe how the intervention improves the learners' perceptions and attitudes. Table 2 shows the test of difference in the learners' perception before and after the utilization of rhymes. Results showed that there is a significant difference in the perception of the learners towards speaking before and after the implementation of rhymes with corrective feedback as evidenced by the computed p-value of 0.000 and a large effect size of 0.70. The significant changed on the perception of the respondents from fair ($X=3.22$, $SD=0.267$) to strongly agree ($X= 4.20$, $SD= 0.30$) is observed, which is highly attributed to the effectiveness of the intervention.

Table 2. Means, Standard Deviations and Test of Difference on the Perception of the Respondents towards

Speaking and pronunciation before and after the Implementation of rhymes

Perception	Mean Score	Interpretation	SD	Mean Diff	t-value		p	Effect Size (d)
Pre-Perception	3.22	Fair	0.267	-1.195	-7.686		0.000*	0.70*
Post- Perception	4.20	Strongly Agree	0.302					

*= Significant at 0.01 level
Large Effect Size

ns= not significant

d=Effect Size Convention (Cohen's d):

The finding indicates that the usage of rhymes in the preparatory EFL classroom is a particularly beneficial understanding of expression. The students may exhibit tasks in which contact is the aim. The exercises they did concentrate on the importance of utilizing the target language. It also manifests that with the student-centred language teaching principles of rhymes, the students were able to perceive themselves better in speaking after the intervention. Similar findings have been disclosed by language researchers with regards to the of rhymes in the classroom on the perceptions (Alisaari & Heikkola, 2017; Arévalo Fuquen & Cortes Olarte, 2019; Cross & Fujioka, 2019; Goswami, 2018; Yazici & Bolay, 2017).

Consequently, Table 3 also shows the test of difference in the learners' attitude towards speaking before and after the implementation of rhymes with corrective feedback. The gain effect of 0.70 indicates that there is an increase in the position of the respondents towards speaking. The table reveals that the computed p-value of 0.00 is lesser than 0.01 shows a significant difference. The substantial change in the attitude of the respondents from fair (X= 3.12, SD= 0.32) to highly favourable position (X=4.35, SD= 0.40) is noticeable which is highly attributed to the effectiveness of rhymes in teaching English as the intervention.

Table 3. Means, Standard Deviations and Test of Difference on the Attitude of the Respondents

towards Speaking and pronunciation before and after the Implementation of rhymes

Attitude	Mean Score	Interpretation	SD	Mean Diff	t-value	p	Effect Size(d)
Pre-Attitude	3.12	Fair	0.320	-1.228	-18.544	0.000*	0.70*
Post- Attitude	4.35	Highly Favourable	0.402				

*= Significant at 0.01 level
Effect

ns= not significant

d= Effect Size Convention (Cohen's d): Large Size

IT implies that after the exposure of the respondents to the rhymes, they were able to have a higher score in their attitude. Therefore pre- and post-attitude ratings of the Saudi EFL students vary considerably. In the activity, the respondents were able to show favourable attitude towards speaking with the use of rhymes with implies that their interest was activities in such a way that they were provided with a relaxing classroom climate to promote the use of target language with a drill and practice. Hence, their engagement focused on the purposeful and meaningful-based real-world collaboration. The finding on the favourable attitudinal effect of rhymes to learners in the KSA context is reminiscent of the previous language studies of experts (Brooks & Cueto, 2018; Flor et al., 2019; Green, Gallagher, & Hart, 2018; Heath, 2017; Movallali et al., 2018; Rvachew et al., 2017). The result shows that nursery rhymes are relevant for teachers because they offer a way to instruct children by playing effectively. The wide variety of kindergarten rhymes from around the world also allow teachers to build exciting; interdisciplinary learning experiences adapted to the needs, interests and skills of their students.

Research Question 3. Is there a difference between the Pre-test and Post-test Attitude scores of the respondents when grouped According to gender

Accordingly, when the attitude is compared between the male and female in the use of rhymes in teaching English, no significant differences were found before and after the implementation of the activity. The findings manifest that when gender is taken, no attitudinal effects are seen for the teaching method. The results imply that both sexes highly benefitted from the use of rhymes in language teaching. Hence, both sexes gained positive effects of learning using rhymes. Language learning attitude is not affected by gender, implying that both genders were able to obtain the same level of benefits using the rhyme, showing no significant difference. Such strategies should be implemented to encourage children to take part in the language course and to create an excellent anxiety-free language learning climate. One of the most straightforward approaches to engage children is by enjoyable experiences in the language course. Songs, rhymes and games are among the enjoyable events most successful for children in a language class. They are often excellent resources for language instructors to use for young students thanks to their limitless advantages.

The difference between the Pre-test and Post-test Attitude scores of the respondents
when grouped According to gender

Group	Category	N	Mean Score	SD	t-value	df	p-value
Pre-test	Male	15	2.81	0.75	0.09	28	0.92ns
	Female	15	2.78	0.78			
Post-test	Male	15	3.90	1.04	-5.75	28	0.57ns
	Female	15	4.10	0.80			

*= Significant at 0.01 level

**=Significant at 0.05 level

ns= not significant

It shows that the use of rhymes in language teaching is seen as beneficial for both male and female learners. The finding implies that that teacher should not build a demanding instructional atmosphere to generate the required long-term incentive and beneficial impact for learning English using rhymes. High motivation is maintained during their academic life as a consequence of engaging school lessons where teaching takes place through songs, rhymes, sports, story-telling and other fascinating events. In such an environment, often in the face of a possible defeat, the students can carry out new ideas and appreciate the job. Participation is linked to pleasure; thus, a good attitude for the tasks will make students pay attention and function more (Bangayan-Manera,2019). This finding contradicts with previous literature claim that language learning is favourable for female than males (Aldosari, 2014; Ames, 2003; Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Green & Oxford, 1995; Hilao & Wichadee, 2017; Karatas et al., 2016; Khalil, 2005; Kitchakarn, 2015). The literature on education and schooling has provided girls with some motivational advantages in fields, including their language (Meece, Glienke & Burg 2006). The approach was often applied to modern languages. Girls typically rate slightly higher in English as a foreign language than men worldwide (Education First, 2015). Language variations between boys and girls may be caused by discrepancies in specific social styles and attitudes (Henry, 2010).

Implications to Language Teaching

The importance of this analysis in our research project is linked to the success of the rhymes relevant to the students 'involvement in studying a foreign language. In our case, we interpret this, the contact, the social and cultural facets, as part of the seven-domain growth cycle, as students connect these dimensions, they get closer to learning. The researcher then suggested rhymes in English as a tool for improving students ' speaking skills. The rhymes played a major role and were based on guided oral procedures with various situational contexts and concrete elements which introduced new terms and frameworks to students who could adapt them during their oral success. To conclude, the use of rhymes in speech skills yielded good results, primarily when visual aids and memory techniques were used. While the students did not establish complicated foreign language discourses, they created basic phrases so that they could communicate before and after the listening rhymes with other students. But while the rhymes were fluent in English, the researchers stated that they wanted events to encourage a deeper comprehension of the language. Nevertheless, the rhymes provide for the creation of different techniques for learning vocabulary and grammatical constructs adaptable to oral discourse. In our analysis, the significance of this research project relies on how students have acquired certain skills via English rhymes to construct simple words to communicate with other people or convey their feelings. Furthermore, this

research helps one to consider how individual rhymes cannot effectively establish skills. This is therefore important to help them by various techniques, such as games involving gestures, which encourage them to engage with specific elements to build positive relationships with new information.

The findings of this research have consequences not only for language instruction but for the global sense, in the effort to develop the communication skills of ESL students. Language instructors should use rhymes extensively to provide preparatory students with improved language learning opportunities. The foregoing are potential implications: (1) language teachers should be able to properly integrate rhymes not only in language subjects but in other content areas since it provides energetic standpoint of helping learners overcome the barriers of speaking of preparatory learners regardless of learners' gender; (2) there is a need for sustained professional development for language arts teachers focusing on the benefits and other strategies with songs and rhymes should be initiated; (3) there is a need to integrate traditional and modern rhymes with the use of technologies as a way to cope with demands of Education 4.0; (4) language teachers are encouraged to develop learning instructional materials integrating the use of Saudi contextualized, gender and culture-based modern and conventional rhymes; and lastly, (5) strong support of educational managers and administrators on the communicate language competence of students. Since the practice of teaching English to young people needs specialized instruction to be successfully carried out, the preparation of English teachers who work at the preparatory level should be a government top priority. Teachers ought to consider the language acquisition of youngsters. The program includes a total shift according to children's preferences and desires, with a number of helpful, enjoyable experiences such as song rhymes and sports. In fact, kid scripts need to be updated to their standard to foster imagination and avoid memorisation. The test structure will also adjust such that teachers are not required to encourage children's memorization. Teachers will have a competitive pay scale at the preparatory level such that professional teachers are inspired to enter preparatory schools. Moreover, all relevant variables such as instructors, teacher managers, teacher coaches, curricular creators and assessment experts will work together in order to obtain the best result through language policy and appropriate teamwork should be developed to increase linguistic effectiveness. The concept behind teamwork is to guarantee that the desired outcome of the plan is accomplished by supplying students with contextual services, appropriate course books and other assistance, including well-trained instructors. More critically, child development and age ought to be given the highest importance to render language learning successful. That is why every early childhood education program should be customized to fit young learners.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this study attempted to investigate the effectiveness of enhancing the speaking fluency and accuracy of EFL learners of preparatory students using the Task-Based Language Teaching (Rhymes-based) Approach with Corrective Feedback. Using a hybrid research design to a total of 30 sampled participants, and the pre-test-post-test survey was conducted. Important features of the findings showed that the use of rhymes is a practical student-centred teaching approach in enhancing the speaking fluency and accuracy of EFL learners as evidenced by improved speech automaticity, grammatical language accuracy, and word counts. Meanwhile, after the use of rhymes intervention, it significantly increased learners' perception and attitude towards English language speaking. Findings present implications for language teaching and further studies. In general, when Saudi EFL learners are being supported with the rhyme's method, the better chance of developing their fluency and accuracy in speaking. Likewise, when they are encouraged and motivated to talk in real-world language application the higher confidence they exhibit, Hence, the rhymes approach has been considered as an advantageous student-centred teaching platform in enhancing their communicative competence. Eventually, the findings represent an original presumption that students in the research community would understand mixed rhymes/songs and brief gestures as well as fluent oral communication skills. Even though the students began from a somewhat lower English standard, they established verbal communication (listening and speaking) and effectively conducted songs and small conversations. Nevertheless, to produce improved outcomes, the researcher recommends that young non-native learners require new tools and resources urgently. Sounds, rhymes/songs and a soft storm was saying tempo would be more energetic to utilize existing opportunities in the EFL classroom and just list a couple of the routes to test it out. Studies are often essential to adapt to the age and degree of development of the learner. Ultimately, design rhymes and vital debates in children are required, both in cognitive and in behavioural terms and in particular to ensure that they engage with the system and the meaning of childhood.

Implications to Teacher Education Development program

As to the implication of this study to the teacher education program, future preparatory teachers must be able to have an intense immersion to teach children literature such as rhymes to children. It can be intensified by providing experiential learning to student-teachers. In such a way, this will inspire future teachers to become subject tacticians in the 21st-century classroom where their knowledge of children's psychology will be enhanced. It will also develop the future teachers to

come instructional material developer. As the art of teaching English to young people is a particular profession, which requires unique preparation to be successfully carried out, the first goal of policy instruction would be to educate English teachers, who teach at the preparatory level. Teachers ought to consider how to acquire a language for students. The program often has to adapt extensively in line with the desires and preferences of the students, with several valuable enjoyable experiences such as songs and sports. Pupils scripts must be updated to their maturity such that innovation is promoted and memorization is avoided. The assessment structure will also adjust such that the authority will not compel the teachers to encourage children's memorization. Therefore, all relevant variables such as students, teacher managers, teacher mentors, curricular creators and appraisal practitioners will work together and collaborate appropriately to make language policy efficient. The concept behind teamwork is to ensure that the desired outcome is accomplished by the availability of content support for pupils, suitable course books and other assistance, including professionally qualified teachers.

Implications to Future Studies

While other literature verified rhymes 'utility in language instruction, the thesis was performed using pre-test post-test templates to help overcome a research void by observing the actual experiences of Saudi EFL students in the key in enhancing speaking fluency and accuracy. The results found that rhymes are used as a technique to enhance speech capacity, and their visual and attitudinal impact are identified in language learning. As an inference for future studies, since the analysis has used only a small number of cases and a simplistic configuration of the experimental method, similar studies must be repeated or reconducted in consideration of the inclusion of other equally important criteria such as instructor and student personality variables, socio-economic status of students and other associated school influences. Additionally, a longer sample time using certain alternative testing approaches for confirming test results can be undertaken.

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Spoken English Skills and Saudi EFL Undergraduates: A Case Study

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Abstract

Empirical shreds of evidence show that, there are far too many noticeable mispronunciations, native-language interference, grammatical errors and code-switching among Saudi students even

when there are at the verge of their tertiary-level graduation with an English specialization. After conducting a theoretical study into the investigations made earlier on, and correlating them to the present scenario, the current research aimed to look deeper into the issue to figure out the underlying causes straight from the horse's mouth. To ascertain the reasons behind the void between the actual and the desirable after a detailed analysis of student perceptions in Al Badaya College of Qassim University about the matter forms the backbone of the current research. The main aim of the case study was to take actions in improving students' verbal skills in English. Results showed that the major challenges affecting students' comprehension and the use of the English languages are Phonetics and Phonology, followed by Syntax. Both Morphology and Pragmatics were the least troublesome to the students. Students do not interact with each other in the EFL classroom. The study presents implications to English language teaching in Saudi Arabia.

Keywords: *EFL, Saudi Arabia, speaking-skills, motivation, fluency, speaking-skills strategies, spoken English, Qassim University*

Introduction

It is no longer an overestimation to claim that English enjoys a prestigious status for the reasons for traveling, education, and work. Majority of research reports are produced and documented in English; it is the language of the internet, medical science, aviation industry, mass journalism, space-science, business world, academia, and various other explorations and investigations. Crystal's 2003 study reflects a fantastic 80% of scientific papers that are first published in English. 85 % is the official language for communication of various international organizations (Cystal, 2003). In the Gulf States, English teaching and learning has been an attention grabber for several research enthusiasts in academia. Innumerable papers are published, highlighting the shortcomings of the curricula, teaching methodologies, students' attitudes, and problems in learning English. Since English opens up vast vistas of knowledge and opportunities for the students in the fields of jobs and education in the global arena, the Saudi government has dealt with the language learning opportunistically and generously so as to prepare its youth to face the challenge. In Saudi Arabia, the Ministry of Education has left no stones unturned to chalk out a practical and comprehensive language curriculum in the pursuit of achieving proficiency in English. English is introduced from the primary level in Saudi schools, and it is a compulsory subject. The Ministry keeps a strict vigilance over the syllabus and textbooks, which keeps on updating upon the necessity.

Despite the introduction of the English language at an earlier age, and dedicated efforts of the educators, students are still far from speaking the language proficiently. Empirical shreds of

evidence show that there are still too many noticeable mispronunciations, native-language interference, grammatical errors, and code-switching among Saudi students even when there are on the verge of their tertiary-level graduation with an English specialization. After conducting a theoretical study into the investigations made earlier on, the current research aimed to look deeper into the issue to figure out the underlying causes straight from the horse's mouth. To ascertain the reasons behind the void between the actual and the desirable after a detailed analysis of student perceptions in Al Badaya College of Qassim University about the matter forms the backbone of the current research. The main aim was to take action in improving students' verbal skills in English.

Statement of the Problem

Selectively, teaching speaking skill is an invincible task as the skill of talking fluently in any language harps on the interdependency of various factors: from an excellent grasp of its grammatical features to acquisition and retention of its lexical resources; besides, there are delicate cultural nuances that often add to the complications of the matter. Since English is a foreign language in Saudi Arabia, students do not have appropriate exposure to the language beyond EFL classrooms; therefore, imparting the right knowledge of the language is insurmountable, as it solely banks on classroom sessions. Additionally, several studies conducted on Arab English learners indicate that Arabs are not "intrinsically motivated, and they lack basic skills to interact with each other freely" (Al-Sobhi, 2018). As such, the efficacy of a decade of teaching English is tarnished, as students experience hesitation, repetitions, code-switching while simultaneously talking in English. The role of EFL teachers is obscure, and there is considerable room for improvement in the current teaching strategies adopted by EFL instructors.

In addition, a conducive learning atmosphere must be developed to encourage confidence and trust so that students can talk more in English. Often the opinion and feedback of students is neglected throughout the scenario and is worrying because the achievement of any goal would be impossible without taking account of the perspectives and suggestions of the target performers. The researchers are seeking to determine the cause of student incompetence in spoken English in Al-Badaya, taking into account new curriculum changes, teacher education and strict management measures to ensure discipline and ambitious quality control by the departments.

Purpose of Study

The study seeks to

- Conduct theoretical research comparing different views related to Saudi EFL students speaking performance errors and failures, relating them to the particular situation of girl students in the college of Al-Badaya
- Analyze students' perspectives on the issue of speaking difficulties faced by them, and figure out underlying causes.
- Suggest some possible amendments based on students' suggestions into existing teaching strategies that may boost the quality of teaching and learning English, coalescing course objectives and strategy with student's wants.

Literature Review

Islamic Culture: Language classroom is considered a socially defined reality that is influenced by the belief systems and behavioural norms of the society (Tudor, 2001). (Shah, Hussain, & Nasseef, 2013) Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is predominantly an Islamic nation, and it zealously tries to uphold its piousness by perpetuating and disseminating Koranic solemnity in all its affairs. Islamic values and teachings, along with Arabic knowledge, are drilled from the very inception of children's education. Drbseh quotes Al Shumaimeri (2003) who mentions that "The Higher Committee for Education Policy in Saudi Arabia has assured that the ultimate aim of education in Saudi Arabia is to make students understand Islam correctly and comprehensively; to implant in them the Islamic creed; to imbibe in them the Islamic values, teachings and Ideals; and, above all, to spread Islam as well as to develop the society economically, socially and culturally, and, more importantly, to prepare the individual to make a meaningful contribution to the strengths of his community" (Drbseh, 2019). Al-Ahdal (Al Ahdal et al., 2019) pointed out that owing to such "powerful rooting in the culture, there was natural opposition towards foreign language such as English ...which could be considered as a threat to the pristinely glorious Islamic culture." They pointed out that, even though the policymakers are trying to revolutionize the educational process by shifting the focus to the acquisition of English, lack of sufficient training to the EFL teachers in linguistics, inadequate curriculum and conservative society has to be harnessed in order to realize the goals of imparting fluency in English (Al-Ahdal, 2019).

In yet another study, Al-Ahdal mentions the prohibition of the Saudi government in allowing any foreign involvement or ownership of institutions of higher education that could have vindicated English education. There are differing and contrasting opinions as regards to learning English.

Based on the conviction that culture and language are inseparable as they are, the Saudi authorities fear an erosion of the established traditions, thus viewing English as an intruder. This obviously impacts the English language skills of the students who are deemed ineligible or incapable of competing in highly competitive global assessments as their lack of language and access to the world of knowledge, which is mostly in English as stated above (Al-Ahdal et al., 2018). "The fear psychosis" within the departments of English as well as the Ministry of Education needs to be curtailed, laying, instead, greater emphasis on learning and practicing English (Al-Ahdal, 2019). Al Badaya is a small city in the region of Al Qassim in Saudi Arabia. Qassim is considered the most conservative of all the areas, and Qassimi people are extremely pious. A French traveler, who resides in Riyadh, the capital city of KSA, sounds a warning to anyone visiting the place:

"In Qassim, the tradition is first and foremost expressed through religion as the province is famous for being the most conservative of the Kingdom. A foreign traveller in Qassim has to be aware of local customs and abide by the rules in order not to hurt the feelings of the inhabitants." (Egal, 2016)

Qassim is the centre of the Najd region and the centre of the Salafi movement. Many notable *Salafi ulemas* and sheiks have been a contribution to this region. Many Islamic clerics graduate from Qassim, and therefore, it is renowned as the centre of Islamic education (Burke, 2011). It is sporadic to hear anyone speaking any other language in this area than Arabic. This fact is a sufficient indicator that anyone trying to learn a language in Qassim other than Arabic will most certainly be far removed from any practical usage whatsoever. This situation poses a significant challenge to EFL educators as well as students. In other words, the practice of English is limited to classrooms, and remains fragmentary, which is insufficient to bloom into a full-fledged competency. Students, who make exhibit remarkable proficiency, claim to have travelled and spent some time abroad or have made virtual friends with native English speakers. In recent research on writing skills of Saudi EFL students at Qassim University, Abdurrazzag Alghammas et al. quoted Al-Khairy (2013) who stated, "Much research conducted in the Arab world has reported that Arab students who are studying in institutions of higher education suffer from serious handicap in the English language" (p. 2) (Alghammas & Alhuwaydi, 2020).

Saudi Schools: In an expository study published in 2012, A. Ansari mentioned, "In Saudi Arabia, there is no environment of the English language. Here English is not a serious subject. Students, as well as Saudi teachers, take it lightly. Students are not properly taught English in their schools" (Ansari, 2012). Martin et al. (1988) highlighted the fact that learning a language from an early age (i.e., two years until puberty) is crucial, because cerebral plasticity is active in those years. Beyond

puberty, language function in the brain becomes localized, and thus, learning a new language becomes challenging (Martin, 1988). Owing to this factor, English is introduced in the fourth year of the primary level when students are between nine to eleven years of age. They have an English class once a week of 55 minutes duration as one can easily estimate that this duration is insufficient to develop any second or foreign language, especially in a situation where the dominant language is the native one in all the spheres of social and professional activities. The same schedule is followed until secondary levels. Thus, from its inception to puberty, English teaching is way scanty for proficiency to develop among Saudi EFL learners. "At the same time, the Ministry of Education, which runs public schools, found that the percentage of failure in English courses is high; therefore, they passed a law that allows students to pass and move on to the next grade even if they flunk English. Consequently, most high school graduates' level of English is relatively low." Apart from the duration, the quality of teaching is inadequate, as noted by many researchers. (Alhmadi, 2014; Al-Ahdal A. A., 2019; Al-Sobhi, 2018; Ahaydib, 1986; Awadh, 2000; Al-Qurashi, 1995a).

Teaching Strategies: Abu-ghararah points out a severe issue of teaching English in Saudi EFL classrooms. According to her research entitled 'Problems with Speaking Activities in the Saudi EFL Classroom', 80% of the respondents noted that teachers in Saudi EFL classrooms used Arabic most of the time (Abu-ghararah, 2014). Arabic was their medium of instruction. Intermittent use of the native language may be permissible; simply because, "there is seldom any harm in giving meaning by translation" (Abbott, 1981). However, using Arabic for teaching the English language deprives students of the only opportunity to interact in English. This condition is debilitating, and has "far-reaching consequences (Abu-ghararah, 2014).

Ansari pointed out another issue in his study that at the college level, teachers are frustrated by the students' deficient level in English, and find it impossible to start from scratch when the burden to complete the syllabus outweighs any other consideration. Many teachers quit their jobs because of the issue. Therefore, "some teachers have a high percentage of failure in their courses. Other teachers do not cover the syllabus properly or let students pass even if they do not deserve it" (Ansari, 2012).

Besides the use of Arabic in classrooms, researchers have also noted the inadequacy of the teaching strategies used in Saudi EFL classrooms. English teachers teaching Saudi students mostly practice teacher-centered techniques, paying little attention to Communicative Language Teaching (Al-Sobhi, 2018; Fareh, 2010; Alhaisoni, 2013).

In her study, *Why can't EFL programs deliver as expected*, Fareh highlights the issue of teacher-centered classrooms in the Arab world. She aptly points out that in EFL classrooms, the teaching mainly targets average students, excluding both the fast learner and slow one. The slow learners feel excluded, because they do not follow the instructions while the fast learners are distracted, because they already know what is being taught. "In other words, two sectors of the class are marginalized, so they benefit little from the teaching process" (Fareh S., 2010). The reasons stated behind the aforementioned practice have much to do with the need to maintain discipline in the class. Yet, the entire point of teaching EFL misses its mark if students remain passive learners rather than actively participating in the discussions. However, Drbseh suggests the following remedies: (i) Deep knowledge of subject matter (both language and literature); (ii) Awareness of new pedagogical trends; and (iii) An understanding of how best the students will learn English (2019).

Arabic vs. English Language: Arabic is an ancient language with a rich culture and literature. Arabs take great pride in their language and heritage. Arabic has been resilient in withstanding time for over 1500 years without undergoing any radical change, unlike many European languages (Basma Ahmad Sedki Dajani, 2013). Arabs place great supremacy to learning their language and rarely allow any foreign influence over their language or culture. Nonetheless, English is being promoted for maintaining high educational standards in the Kingdom, and boosting students' global competency in terms of knowledge (Al-Ahdal A. A., 2018). Thus, English serves only as a bridge to the outside world. Arab students rely on English only for travel purposes, or for their need to pursue higher education programmes. In all the other fields, nevertheless, there is a general feeling of self-complacency, which bespeaks the common attitudes towards the learning of English. Even the brightest of students speak in Arabic as soon as he or she is in the company of their comrades or family. In such a situation, developing English fluency is challenging, because students lack sufficient motivation.

Lack of Motivation: Motivation is crucial to learning, particularly in relation to the acquisition of a second/foreign language. It stems from two requirements: learners' attitudes towards the foreign language, and need for communication (Lightbown, 2006). Motivated learners are responsible for their own learning, and take charge to become more autonomous (Holec, 1981). Autonomous students not only are fast learners, but they also add a spark of life to EFL classrooms, and may motivate other fellow-students. However, autonomy is a culturally specific Western concept that is inappropriate in non-Western settings (Little, 1999). Hence, teachers in Saudi EFL classrooms

experience difficulty sharing with their learners' decision-making and pedagogic responsibility. This may run counter to their pedagogic beliefs, professional training and established classroom practices. This technique leaves out students from being actively involved in the processes of learning, but also may tend to overlook serious issues that may be easily eliminated by just "listening" to their problems. This practice adversely affects their motivation and positive attitude towards learning, as they are reduced to mere subjects.

Methodology

Design: In order to probe the issue of the underlying causes, and to recommend a befitting solution, an inferential and descriptive study was designed, and qualitative research was conducted.

Instrument: The first device was the deployment of a student-assignment, consisting of open-ended questions about the significant issues that affected their comprehension and usage of the English language, particularly from a linguistic perspective, and the probable reasons behind it. Further, a questionnaire with close-ended questions was devised to determine the underlying causes for the challenge faced by them.

Thus, data collection was two-fold: a focus-group was selected, and an open-ended question assignment was set up for them; besides, based on the students' responses, a close-ended questionnaire was distributed randomly among a significant amount of subjects within the premises.

The participants, mainly female students, were requested to share their perceptions candidly, assuring them of complete privacy and anonymity.

Findings and Discussions

Open-ended Question Results

Student responses to the open-ended question asking them what was the most difficult linguistic element for them to conquer, and the reasons behind it were both exciting and revealing. Apart from the linguistic elements a small number of students (3%) included psychological reasons, mainly stating anxiety in their responses. The most significant number of students (36%) wrote that Phonetics and Phonology were the most challenging courses for them. Next, it is Syntax (23%), which poses a severe challenge to the students. Among all the linguistic components, it was discovered that both Morphology and Pragmatics (5%) were the least troublesome to the students.

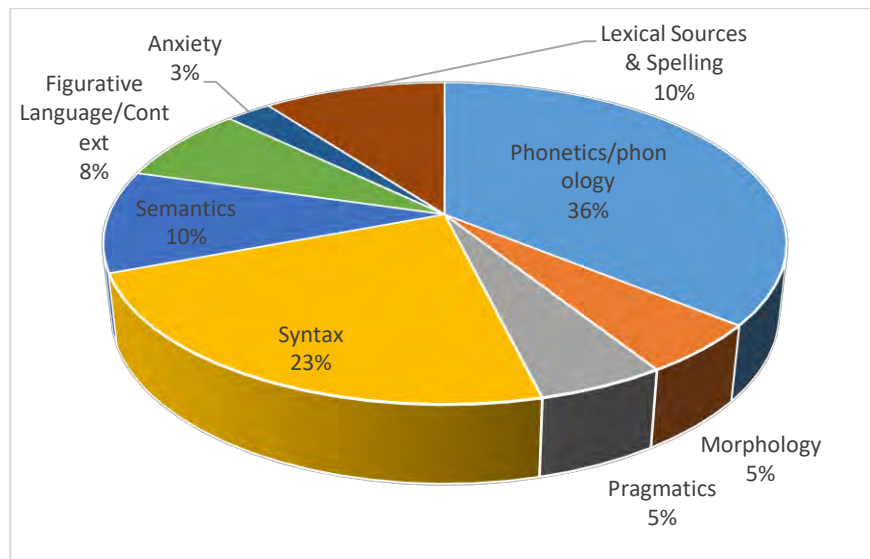


Fig-1: Major Challenges Affecting Students' Comprehension and the Use of the English Language in Al-Badaya College of Science and Arts, Qassim University.

Close-Ended Questionnaire Results

After the discovery of the significant difficulties faced in various areas of the English language that negatively affect their fluency, it was imperative to hunt for the underlying causes. Hence, a final questionnaire was distributed to a large group of students, and a statistical table was calculated based on 90 responses.

In figure-2, almost half of the students confirm that the teachers in the EFL classrooms motivate them to talk more in English. This practice is a positive sign. Although almost the same number of students say that either usually or sometimes the teachers encourage them, it is still a healthy environment for them to practice the language more often.

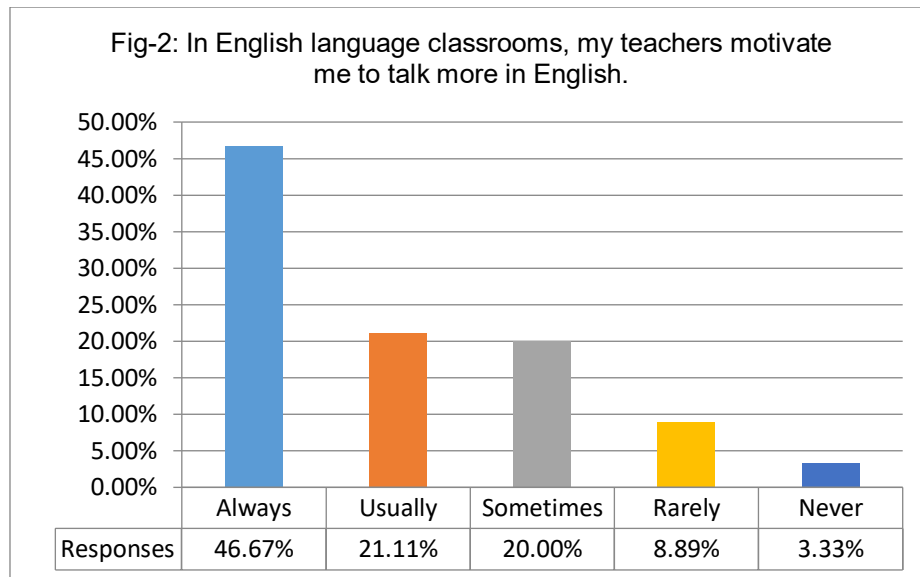


Figure 3 displays the frequency of English used by Arab English teachers in private conversations both inside and outside the classroom. The most considerable number of students (41.57%) revealed that usually (but not always), the Arab teacher spoke to them in English. Approximately 32.6% of the participants, however, said that they always spoke in English. It is to be mentioned that this specific question has had varied responses, because it depended on the teachers; therefore, it was difficult to generalize for the students. A few students, nevertheless, mentioned in their assignment that some teachers preferred to talk only in English, whereas others allowed Arabic in the conversations. However, an exciting fact is that the 'never' category was null, which means all the teachers use English while interacting with the students, and 'rarely' was the least.

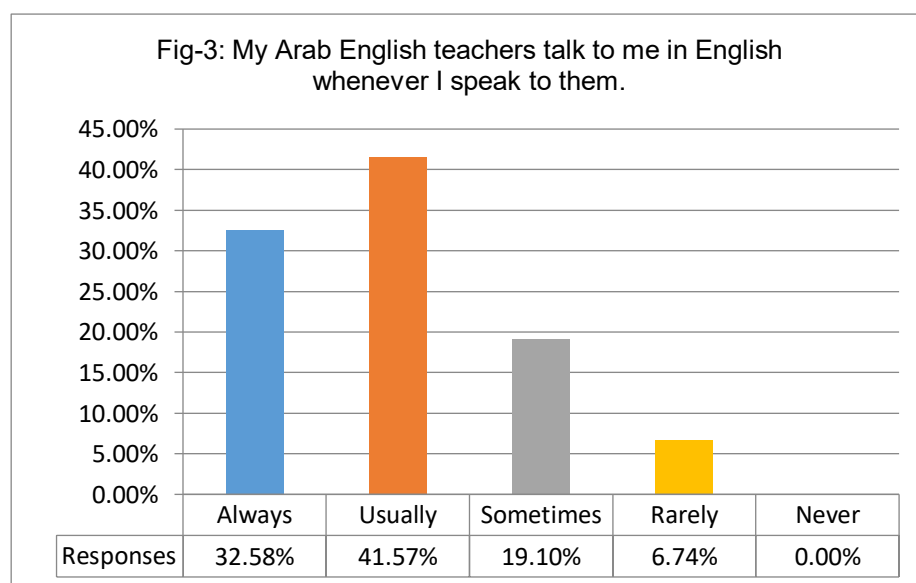


Figure 4 confirms the fact that the English teachers do not encourage the students to speak in Arabic in the EFL classroom, which is an up-and-coming trend. Almost three-quarters of the students stated that the teachers never encouraged them to speak in their native language.

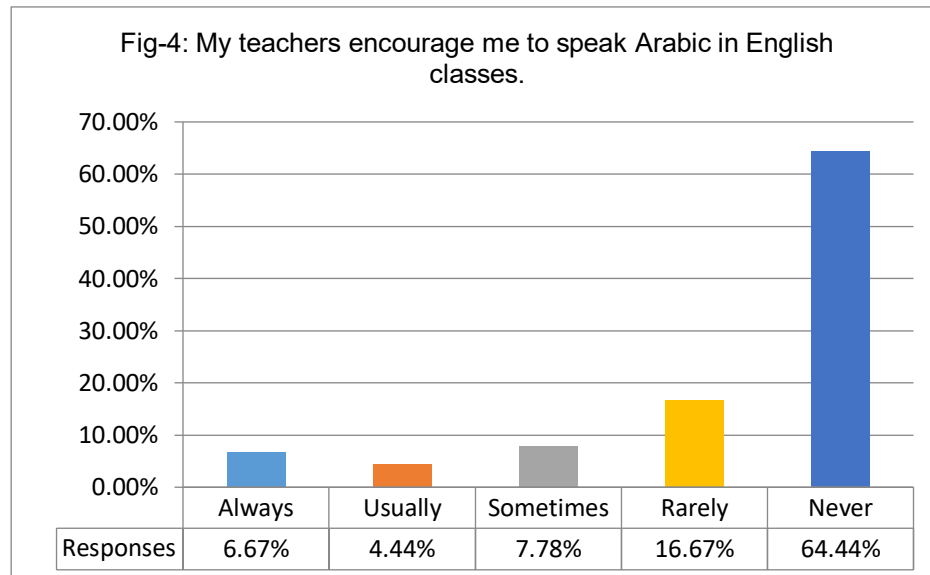


Figure 5 provided some crucial revelations, aiding the research question. It can be easily seen that the frequency of student-interaction with each other in English is unsatisfactory. The percentage of students choosing 'always' and 'never' is almost the same, which is slightly puzzling. However, the curve is flatter, was 'usually', 'sometimes', and 'rarely' speaking in English is almost identical with 22.47%, 26.9%, and 25.85, respectively. Only a small number of the participants (14.65) said that their classmates always interacted with them in English. It is a sufficient indicator of the fact that, the students of Al Badaya College do not use the English language with each other as often as they should for the fluency in the literature to ensue.

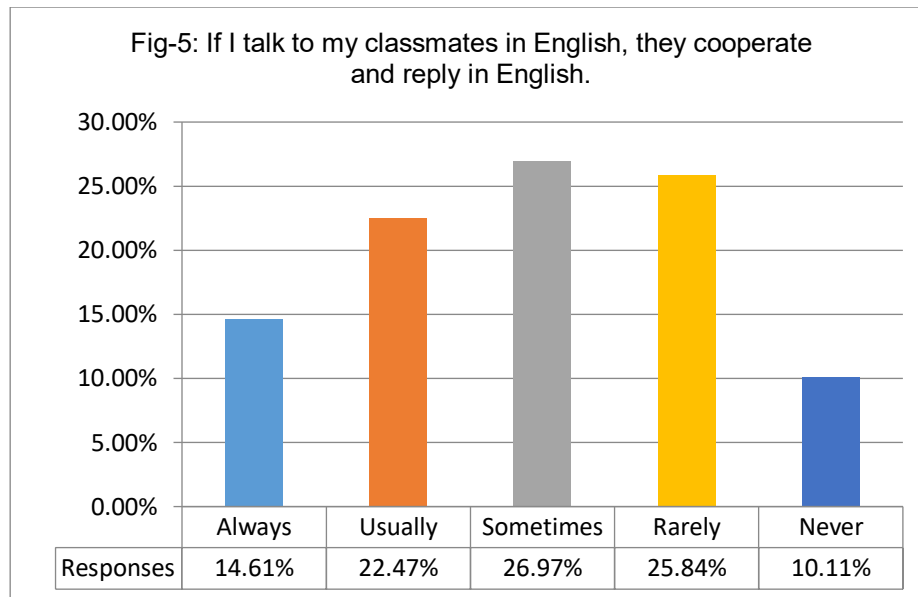


Figure 6 exhibits the fact the EFL teachers utilize group or pair work sufficiently enough as the maximum number of students (30.34%) said that they practice group /pair work sometimes. 28.09% said it was done usually. The same number of students fall in the 'always' and 'rarely' category. This contradiction of the results calls for a further detailed investigation. However, the fact that there are group/pair activities in use, even if sometimes, it is affirming.

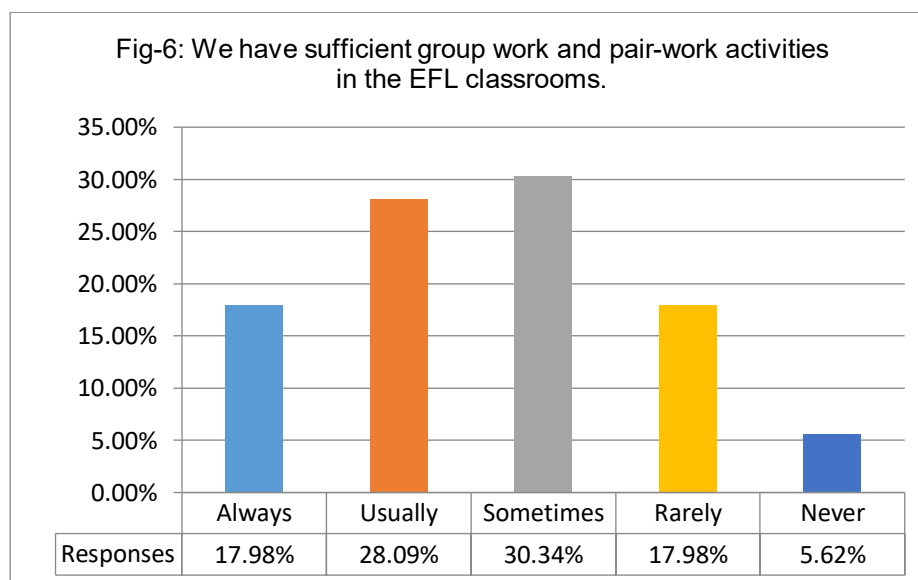


Figure-7 shows the frequency of syllabus completion by the EFL teachers in a semester. The remarkable fact here is that none said that it was incomplete. The most significant number of students said that the syllabi were always completed, which is 65.56%. It may indicate the fact that the teachers are probably focussing more on the completion of their syllabi rather than on the

performance of the students in the classrooms; or, not all the students always have a fair opportunity to talk in the classrooms. Since the classroom is the only place where students interact in English, this data is worrisome.

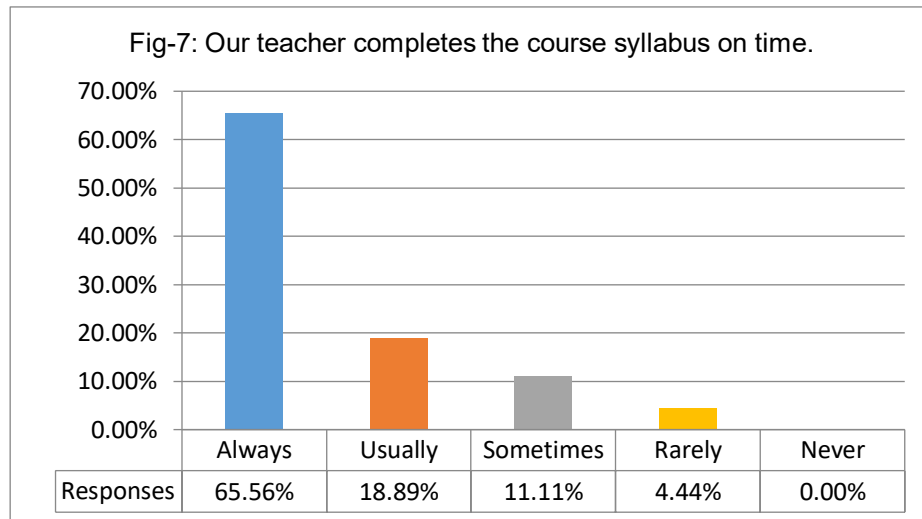
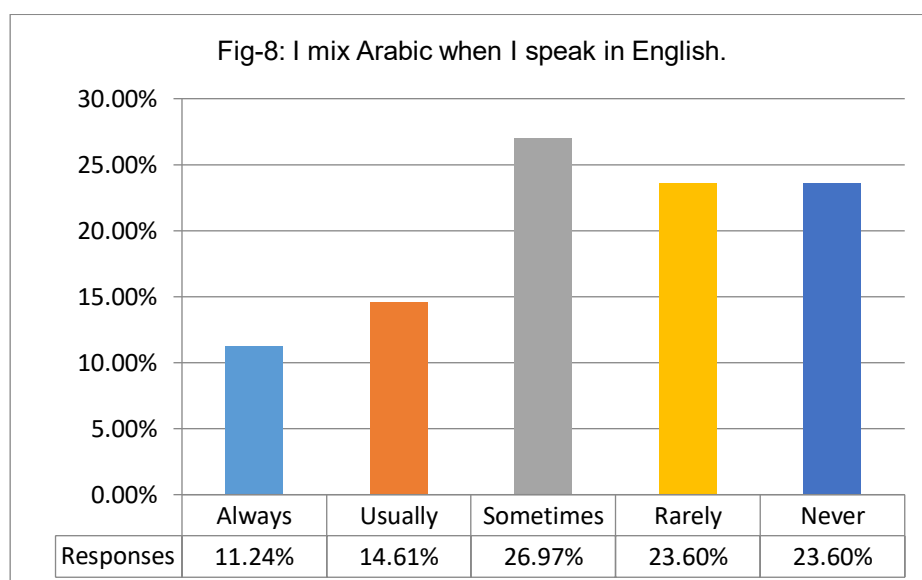
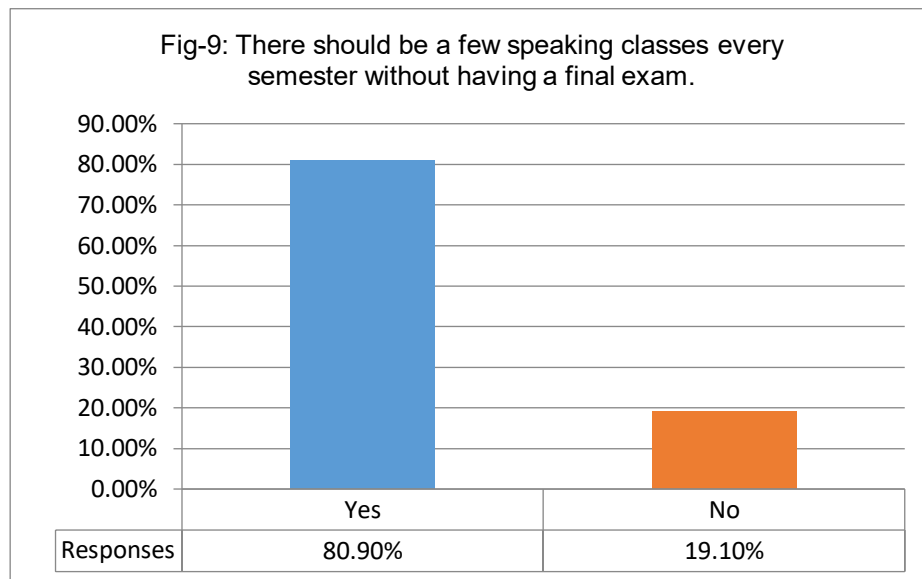


Figure-8 reveals the fact that code-switching takes places with Arabic when students talk in English. Majority of the subjects believed that they mix Arabic with English sometimes. However, a massive number also admitted to 'rarely' and 'never' code-mixing with the same percentage of 23.6%.

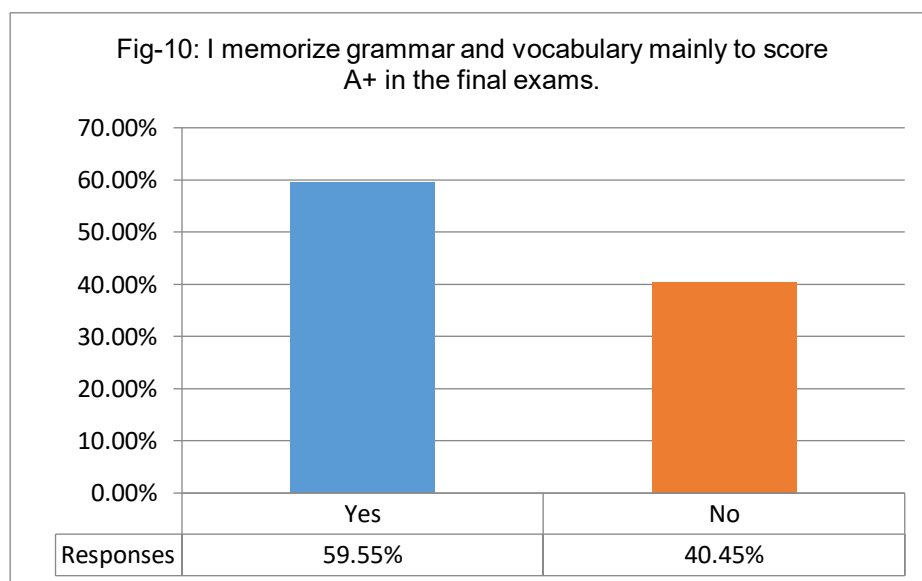


Students were asked if they would participate in speaking discussions or courses if there were no assessment. Surprisingly, approx. Eighty-one per cent of the students voted positively. This

frequency indicates that students are motivated enough to work on their language skills if they have a chance without worrying about the final exam.



Statistical information accruing with the last question was an eye-opener. Figure 10 vividly indicates that more than half of the students (approx. 60%) were memorizing grammatical rules and vocabulary in an effort to score high grades in exams. This practice definitely has a detrimental effect on the spoken skills of the students as their priorities are entirely opposite to what the strategically targets of an EFL teacher and course.



Conclusion and Recommendations

The present study revealed that the major challenges affecting students' comprehension and use of the English languages are Phonetics and Phonology, followed by Syntax. Both Morphology and Pragmatics were the least troublesome to the students. English teachers do not encourage the students enough to speak in English in the EFL classroom. The study presents implications to English language teaching in Saudi Arabia. The data collected highlighted two significant problem-areas that are the main obstacles to students' acquiring proficient fluency in English. Firstly, the students need to interact with each other solely in English. Since the campus is the only arena where they practice their acquired language, they should exploit the option to its maximum potential. The department of English can take disciplinary actions if students do not comply. Apart from that, the teachers need to incorporate more speaking activities in their classrooms, and keep a strict vigilance on the students' use of English. Any use of native language should be discouraged and penalized, even if the students interact with each other. Students should be stimulated to interact with each other only in English, and they should be informed of its significance. Incorporation of more social or club activities such as dramas, role-playing should be encouraged by the teaching staff. Every semester must have a two-hour speaking and reading sessions during which they will read and engage in discussions for which they will not be assessed. This step will relieve them from the pressure of examinations, and they will participate more willingly. The overall environment should be conducive, supporting, and appreciative

Implications for Teaching

This study presents implications to the language classroom in the context of Saudi EFL learners. The teachers need to be careful with the feedback. Positive and constructive feedback should be adopted so that students are not demotivated or distanced. The teachers should focus on developing the students' skills rather than obsessively competing to wind up their syllabi. The department must be flexible with regards to the on-time syllabus completion; however, appropriate measures must be taken to avoid any misuse of this option. Overall, both the teachers and the students need to develop a positive outlook towards learning, for authentic learning can only take place with a positive attitude. The findings of this study have an effect not just for Saudi EFL classrooms but also on the global background in the quest for the development of ESL learner's communication skills. Language teachers should use language teaching extensively to provide more learning experiences for students: (1) Language teachers should be able to integrate new language strategies appropriately not only in language subjects

but in other content fields, as it provides a firm position for helping students overcome the barriers to speech; (2) it is necessary to promote the development of language arts teachers who concentrate on the benefits and other strategies that are aligned with effective language instruction.

Limitations of the Study:

The scope of the study was limited to studying the situation in AL-Badaya College of Arts and Science, because of the cultural practice of unmixed classrooms and social differences caused by the Covid-19 pandemic. A case study was therefore methodized to dive into the core of the problem and record students' perceptions in the matter. After having discovered the root cause of the problem, the researcher also aims to suggest sustainable ways of improvements that educators can take in conjunction with the current requirements of students within the existing context. The practical implications of the study are expected to substantiate the strategic objectives of English teaching in EFL classrooms.

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Interpretation of the Concept of Life in Korean and Russian Explanatory Dictionaries

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Abstract

The subject of the research is the concept of life in Korean and Russian languages. The study was conducted within the framework of contrastive linguistics, has an interdisciplinary character, and solves problems at the intersection of conceptology, sociolinguistics, and linguoculturology. Considering the concept of one language against the background of another is intended to establish not the only system but also the contrastive significance of language units. Lexical and semantic fields of the concept are constructed based on the definition analysis method of lexicographic sources in Korean and Russian languages. Semes are identified as part of the concept's notional layer in Korean and Russian picture of the world, their place in terms of the nuclear peripheral device is determined, and a linguistic and cultural interpretation of the results is proposed. As a result, during the study, it was able to identify specific features of the concept of life in Korean and Russian linguistic cultures.

Keywords: *Linguistic and Cultural Concept, Conceptual Component of the Concept, Definitional Analysis; Korean Language, Russian Language*

Introduction

Currently, the study of concepts as an object of linguoculturology, cognitive science, and other related disciplines continues to be the focus of researchers' attention. Yu.S. Stepanov interprets the concept as a "clot of culture in the human mind", a "bunch" of ideas, concepts, knowledge, associations, and experiences that accompany the word", "the main cell of culture in the human mental world" (Stepanov, 2001). The notion of the concept first appeared in work "The classical theory of concepts", written by Aristotle (1998). The next mention of this term occurs in the work of linguo-philosophist Gottlob Frege in 1892, who distinguished "notion" and "concept" in linguistics. In linguistics, this term is both old and new at the same time, since it still attracts the

attention of world-class scientists working in this field, such as Clark and Marshall (1981), Talmy (2000), and others. The concept is included in the key categorical and conceptual apparatus of Western cognitive linguistics (or Cognitive Linguistic Enterprise), although it is not a central concept in it.

According to generalization made by V. Evans, the concept is understood as a "fundamental unit of knowledge, central to categorization and conceptualization", due to perceptual experience, associated with the process of analysis of perceptual meaning ('perceptual meaning analysis'), which provides the formation of a conceptual system. The process of analyzing perceptual meaning actualizes rudimentary concepts-images-schemas ('image schema'). Concepts that are encoded in a specific language format are called lexical ('lexical concept'). Being relatively stable cognitive units, concepts are modified in the process of experience (Greimas, 1966). Many cognitive linguists, in particular I.A. Sternin, consider the concept as a unit of operational consciousness, acting as a complete, undivided reflection of the reality's fact (Whorf, 1956).

For linguoculturology, it is essential that the concept not only belongs to consciousness, and is mediated in language (Humboldt, 1985), but is also determined in culture. Croft and Cruse call the concept a mental unit designed to link together scientific research in these three areas – culture, consciousness, and language (2000). Fundamental works on this problem are contained in the works of Wilhelm von Humboldt, who understands the word as a semantic sign, thanks to which we form certain portions of our thinking (Humboldt, 1985). Based on the teachings of Wilhelm von Humboldt and hypothesis of linguistic relativity, E. Sapir (1993) and B. L. Whorf (1956) define language picture of the world as a way of seeing the world reflected in the language (Croft, 2000). V. I. Karasik, one of the representatives of cultural direction, considers the concept as a mental formation marked to some extent by ethnosemantic specificity.

Despite some differences in understanding of concepts, and differences in methods and techniques of their research, the analysis of concepts' content through language means provides a fairly rich, most reliable, and verifiable material (Karasik & Sternin, 2007; Gak, 1989).

Conceptology is "the science of concepts, their content, and the relationship of concepts within the concept sphere" - national, group, artistic, or individual [ibid.].

This work is devoted to the study of the interpretation of the *life* concept in explanatory dictionaries of Korean and Russian languages.

The research database was made up of 12 definitions of monolingual dictionaries-five defining dictionaries of Korean language (KL) and seven defining dictionaries of the Russian language (RL). The Korean-language part of material includes: «동아새국어사전. 이기문», 1989 (Don's

new defining dictionary of Korean language) (동아새국어사전, 1989); «국어사전국어국문학화감수», 2002 (Explanatory dictionary of Korean language under literary editorship 정운길 (Jong Yoon Kiel)) (국어사전, 2002); «실용국어사전», 1997 – 2010 (Practical explanatory dictionary 1997 – 2010) (실용국어사전, 1997-2010); «새국어사전», 2003 (New explanatory dictionary 2003) (새국어사전, 2003); 국립국어원표준국어대사전 (Large standard explanatory dictionary of Korean language of National Institute of Korean language) (국립국어원표준국어대사전, 1991). The Russian-language part of material includes: “Dictionary of Church Slavonic and Russian languages” (1847) (Stepanov, 2001; The dictionary of Church Slavonic and Russian language, 1847), “Materials for N.N. Sreznevsky’s Old Russian Dictionary” (1893); (The dictionary of Church Slavonic and Russian language, 1847), “Explanatory Dictionary of the Living Great Russian Language” of V. I. Dahl (1863 – 1866), “Explanatory dictionary of Russian language” under the editorship of D. N. Ushakova (1935 – 1940), “Dictionary of Russian language” S. I. Ozhegova (1949), “Dictionary of Russian language” under the editorship of P. Evgenieva (1957 – 1960), “Large explanatory dictionary of Russian language” under the editorship of S. A. Kuznetsova (1998 – 2000) (한영우 & 경세원, 2010). The choice of these dictionaries is not random. They were widely used as main lexicographic sources in the study of Korean and Russian languages and occupy an important place in the history of lexicography.

The studied dictionaries are characterized by a different diachronic range: all dictionaries of the Korean language are modern, while Russian-language dictionaries cover the period from the XI century to the present. It is objectively impossible to trace the development of the Korean concept in time using dictionaries. Monolingual explanatory dictionaries of the Korean language began to be compiled recently, in the early 20s of the XX century, as the Korean writing system 한글 [Hangul], appeared only in the XV century, when the Korean alphabet was created on the initiative of Wang Sejong. Due to the lack of their written language, the majority of the population was illiterate, and the literate part of the population – 양반 [yangban] (Aristotle, 1998) the class wrote in Chinese. Another important factor that influenced the creation of explanatory dictionaries so late was the Japanese occupation of the Korean Peninsula from 1910 to 1945 (Lee & Ramsey, 2011). During this period, the use of the Korean language was persecuted, which affected its functioning in all spheres of life of Korean society (Gak, 1989). All these factors have influenced the development of the language and, of course, its lexicography, including in terms of explanatory dictionaries. The first explanatory dictionary of the Korean language was Mun Se Yong dictionary

(1937), but unfortunately, it is not available outside the Republic of Korea. In the absence of historical dictionaries of the Korean language, however, we felt it appropriate to refer to historical dictionaries of the Russian language (taken dictionaries, starting from the XI century to trace the development of the Russian concept of *life* in dictionary and reveal the constant and non-constant characteristics). Historical material can be useful and comparable to Korean, namely when referring to Korean folklore texts.

The translation of explanatory dictionaries' names and dictionary entries was first made into English by the author of this article (Stepanov, 2001). A concept that originally - but not earlier than X century-designated in medieval Korea two categories of nobility (serving people) - civil (munban 문반, 文班) and military (muban 무반, 武班) officials (Aristotle, 1998). The purpose of this work is to identify interlanguage and interlanguage semantic features of the concept of *life-based* on the material of explanatory dictionaries of Korean and Russian languages. The concept of *life* as a basic concept of any culture is necessary for studying and understanding the features of culture. As for Korean and Russian cultures, due to their differences, it is important to study the composition and representation of the concept of *life* for successful communication and translation of lexemes that Express this concept. As a result of what has been said in this study, we will consider the concept of life in a comparative aspect, and in particular its role in shaping the language picture of the world of Korean and Russian languages. It is important to note that the concept has not currently been considered in a comparative aspect in different cultures, as well as identification of features of translating the lexemes that nominate this concept from Korean to Russian.

The relevance of the study should be emphasized. Until recently, a grammatical theory of the language was developed in Korean linguistics (Kondratieva, 2005; Greimas, 1966), while the desire to find differences between the native language and the European ones led to a change in approaches. Thus, Korean linguists moved from adherence to universal rules and postulates to building their grammatical theories, which led to a change in the typological approach to contrastive analysis, which is characterized by the search for an individual (Williams, 2005), distinctive features of comparable languages (Kondratieva, 2005). However, at the moment, there are no comparative works in Korean linguistics that are performed within the framework of the anthropocentric paradigm and have a linguistic and cultural orientation. Also, Korean translation studies have not yet completed the work on compiling bilingual dictionaries of the Korean language and many world languages, in particular the Russian language. In this regard, we should note the timeliness of research that compares the cultural concepts of Korean and other languages,

not only for linguoculturology and conceptology but also for the theory and practice of translation (국립국어원표준국어대사전, 1991).

Materials and Methods

In modern linguistics, there are various methods of studying concepts: conceptual analysis, definitional interpretation, stylistic interpretation, distributive analysis, component analysis, contextual analysis methodology, cognitive interpretation of the results of describing the semantics of language means, etc. Many works on conceptology were created in the course of contrastive linguistics, methods of which were developed and tested (Lehrer, 1974).

One of the most effective methods of concepts' research, including in works of the comparative plan, is the method of analysis of definitions presented in explanatory dictionaries. According to the definition method, the meaning of a word is conditionally equated to its dictionary interpretation, and each significant part of the dictionary definition is considered a component of the meaning (Sharifullina, 2016). Interpretation of definitions is traditionally used in the context study (Fedunova, 2011; Kuznetsov, 1992). Of course, the dictionary value is minimized as much as possible and its potential part is not reflected in the dictionary entry: ". Even the most complete dictionary does not cover all the possible content of words associated with the entire life experience of a person and resulting from the most unexpected language or non-language context" (Anikina, 2009). Nevertheless, an explanatory dictionary is usually able to reflect the core of concept's conceptual layer, along with some other components of meaning, so the basis of this study was the method of definition analysis, which analyzed the interpretation of the concept of *life* in the explanatory dictionaries of Korean and Russian languages.

The definition analysis was supplemented with semantic (seminal) analysis, statistical data analysis was used to identify the frequency of use of SEMS in dictionary entries of explanatory dictionaries. Due to the specific purpose and material of the study, a comparative method is used.

Results and Discussion

The authors precede a definitive and seminal analysis of a specific material with theoretical information about the seminal device of lexical meaning. A.J. Greimas and other French linguists divide the semes into three types: archiseme (reflects characteristic of whole classes of associations), differential seme (make up the core of word's meaning, defining its scope within the lexical-semantic groups of words and knowing the meaning of this word from values of its "neighbors") and virtually, or potential semes that reflect a variety of minor, sometimes not

mandatory features of the subject, associated with the consciousness of speakers) (전진숙 & 전선철, 1966). V. G. Gak, who made a great contribution to the development of comparative linguistics, examines varieties of semes and gives them detailed definitions with examples. Thus, differential semes reflect the direct differences of objects. Any phenomena and objects are characterized by two kinds of signs: descriptive, which reflects the external features of the object, and relative, reflecting the relationship of this object to another. So the word *bus* differential seme that distinguishes it from the designation of other types of transportation are 'traffic on land' (unlike aircraft), 'trackless' (unlike the trams), 'with its motor' (unlike the bus), 'four wheels' (unlike a motorcycle), etc. These signs can be interpreted as their own relative characteristics of an object. They are added to the descriptive semes 'use of intercity crossings', 'density', 'large-capacity'. In some cases, the descriptive and relative characteristics of the object are interrelated: the capacity of the bus is determined by its device. Similarly, the lexeme *life* is considered based on the material of dictionary entries of Korean and Russian dictionaries. Potential semes reflect various secondary, sometimes optional features of the subject, various associations with which this element of reality is associated in the minds of speakers. For example, in verbs of movement, the potential seme is 'speed of movement': in our view, *to go* is usually associated with a normal, average pace of movement, running – flying – with fast, crawling – with slow. Potential semes play a large role in speech, their functioning is associated with the appearance of figurative meanings in the word. In the usual direct use of the word, they fade into the background, and corresponding signs are not necessarily updated. In this study, we consider differential semes, which will be considered in the future-in study of the representation of the concept of *life* on the material of paremias and folklore texts.

It should be started with a definitive analysis of articles from Korean lexicographic sources. In the Korean language, there is a general concept of *life*, which consists of several concepts that are close to each other in different degrees, denoted by different lexemes. There are nine lexemes-nominees of the concept in the above dictionaries of the Korean language. Their interpretations are largely crossed in such a way that the left parts of some definitional texts are included in the right parts of others. In addition, there are lexemes in the right parts of definitive texts that do not include dictionary entries. As a result of the analysis of definitions, semes of lexemes-nominees of the concept are identified and the degree of their brightness in the notional layer of the concept is determined on the basis of statistical calculations.

Articles in all dictionaries include a lexeme- title and definition text. There are no illustrations. The order of semes in the study text below is determined by their frequency, i.e., the total

occurrence, in the analyzed dictionaries.

Seme 'existence': 생활 – 생계를유지하여살아남. (continue its existing), 생명– 목숨(physiological existence of a person or animal through breathing), 생존 – 살아있음, 존명, 살아남음(existence, surviving) (동아새국어사전, 1989); 생존– 생명을유지하고있음, 살아있음(life support, existence), 삶– 목숨또는생명 one's life (Stepanov, 2001) (physiological existence), 생애–생계(existence, livelihood), 인생– 목숨을가진사람의존재(human existence) (국어사전, 2002); 생- 삶(existence), 생명 – 목숨(existence), 생애–생계(existence, livelihood) (국어사전, 2002); 생명– 목숨(physiological existence), 생존 – 살아있음(existence) (새국어사전, 2003); 생–또는살아있음(existence), 생존– 또는살아남음(existence, surviving), 삶–또는살아있음(existence) (국립국어원표준국어대사전, 1991).

The lexemes that contain semes 'existence' in Korean dictionaries are: '생존' (in the interpretation of this lexeme in dictionaries, the semantics of 'existence' is updated 4 times), '생명' (3 times), '생애' (twice), '삶' (once), '생' (once), '생활' (once). The total number of cases when the seme 'existence' is "brought to the surface" of the dictionary definition, –12 times.

Seme 'period from birth to death': 생명 – 사물을유지하는기간(period of keeping personal things), 생애 – 이세상에살아있는동안, 한평생(period of life in this world), 한평생중에서어떤일에관계한동안(period of life), 일생– 살아있는동안(during life), 평생, 일기(during whole life), 전생(past life), 한살이, 한평생(one life from beginning to end) (동아새국어사전, 1989); 생애 – 살아있는한평생동안(period of one life), 인생 – 사람이이세상에살아있는동안(period of a person's life in this world), 일생 – 세상에태어나서죽을때까지의동안(period of life from birth to death in this world), 생애, 생평, 일평생, 종생, 한살이, 필세one's lifetime (period of life) (국어사전, 2002); 일생 – 살아있는동안(life period), 평생(whole life) (실용국어사전, 1997-2010); 인생 – 사람이이세상에있는동안(period of a person's life in this world), 일생 – 나서죽을때까지의동안 (the period from birth to death) (새국어사전, 2003); 일생 – 세상에태어나서죽을때까지의동안(period of life from birth to death), 평생(平生) – 세상에태어나서죽을때까지의동안=일생(period of life from birth to death) 생애(生涯) – 살아있는한평생의기간(period of one's life) (국립국어원표준국어대사전, 1991).

The lexemes that contain seme 'period from birth to death' in Korean dictionaries are 일생 (semes updated 7 times), 생애(twice), 생명(once), 평생 (once). The total number of cases when the seme

'period from birth to death' occurs in the dictionary definition, – 11 times.

Seme 'a living organism, a person, an animal': 인생– 목숨을가지고살아가는사람(a man who lives his own life) (동아새국어사전, 1989);인생– 목숨을가진사람의존재(human existence),사람이이세상에살아있는동안(period of a person's life in this world) (국어사전, 2002); 인생–사람이세상을살아가는일(human activity in the world),어떤사람과그의삶모두를낫잡아이르는말, 사람이살아있는기간(period of a person's life) (실용국어사전, 1997-2010); 인생– 생명을가진사람(a man who owns life), 사람이이세상에있는동안 (period of a person's life in this world), 일생–사람의목숨(human life force)사람의생활life(human life) (새국어사전, 2003); 인생– 생명을가진사람(a man who has life) 사람이이세상에있는동안(period of a person's life in this world), 일생–사람의목숨(human life force),사람의생활life (human life) 인생– 생명을가진사람(a man who has life), 사람이이세상에있는동안(period of a person's life in this world), 일생–사람의목숨(human life force), 사람의생활life(human life) 인생– 생명을가진사람(a man who has life), 사람이이세상에있는동안(period of a person's life in this world), 일생–사람의목숨(human life force), 사람의생활life(human life), 인생(人生) – 사람이세상을살아가는일(human activity in the world) (국립국어원표준국어대사전, 1991).

Lexemes containing seme 'living organism, human, animal' in Korean dictionaries are인생 (sems occurred in dictionary entries 7 times), also일생 (3times). The total number of cases of explication of this seme in dictionary entries - 10 times.

Seme 'vital activity': 생– 삶 (life as a life activity); 생활– (살아서활동감(vital activity), 삶–사는일, 살아있는일(vital activity),생명–판존재와구별되는, 생물로서의특성을보여주는추상적활동(an abstract activity that demonstrates one's own characteristics as a living being that differs from other beings), 생애–생계(livelihood, activities for survival, living) (동아새국어사전, 1989); 생–삶(vital activity), 생활–살아서활동감 (vital activity), 삶–생(vital activity), 일정한조직체에매어구성원으로활동함(activities of a member of an organization) (국어사전, 2002); 생활–어떤행위를하며살아감 (vital activity), 조직체의구성원으로활동함(activities of a member of an organization) (새국어사전, 2003); 인생– 사람이세상을살아가는일(vital activity in the world), 생활–살아서활동감activity (vital activity), 삶–살아나가는일(vital activity) (새국어사전, 2003); 생(生)–사는일(vital activity), 삶–사는일(vital activity), 인생(人生)– 사람이세상을살아가는일(man's vital activity in the world) (국립국어원표준국어대사전, 1991).

Lexemes that contain seme ‘life activity’ are presented in Korean dictionaries as follows: ‘생’ (seme occurred twice), ‘생활’ (twice), ‘삶’ (once), ‘인생’ (once), ‘생명’ (once), ‘생애’ (once). The total number of cases when the word ‘life activity’ is explicated in dictionary definition - 8 times. Seme ‘life force’: 삶 – 목숨, 생명(physiological life, life force) (Karasik & Sternin, 2007); 생 – 생명(life force), 생명 – 목숨, 생(life force) (국어사전, 2002); 목숨 – 숨을쉬며살아있는힘(life force), 살아가는원동력(the driving force of life) (실용국어사전, 1997-2010); 생 – 생명(life force), 목숨 – 살아있는힘, 생명(life force), 사람의목숨(man’s life force) (새국어사전, 2003); 생명 – 사람이살아서숨쉬고활동할수있게하는힘(power to breathe and live) (국립국어원표준국어대사전, 1991).

The lexemes that contain seme ‘life force’ in Korean dictionaries are: ‘생명’ (seme occurred twice), ‘목숨’ (twice), 삶 (once), ‘생’ (once). The total number of cases when the word ‘life force’ is explicated in dictionary definition - 6 times.

Seme ‘this life is unlike other lives (one life, another life)’: 인생 – 이세상에서의인간생활(human life in this world), 생애 – 이세상에살아있는동안, 한평생(period of life in this world) (동아새국어사전, 1989); 인생 – 사람이이세상에살아있는동안(period of life in this world), 인생 – 세상에태어나서죽을때까지의동안(period of life from birth to death in this world), 세상에태어나서죽을때까지의동안(period of life from birth to death in this world) (국어사전, 2002); 인생 – 사람이이세상에있는동안(period of life in this world) (새국어사전, 2003).

The lexemes containing seme ‘this life as opposed to other lives (one life, another life)’ in the analyzed explanatory dictionaries of the Korean language: ‘인생’ (semes occurred 4 times), ‘생애’ (once). The total number of cases of updating this seme in dictionary entries 5.

Seme ‘livelihood for survival’: 생애 – 생활을위한사업, 생계(livelihood, activities for survival, living) (동아새국어사전, 1989); 생계(existence, livelihood) (국어사전, 2002); 생애 – 생계(existence, livelihood) (새국어사전, 2003); 생활 – 살림을함, 생애livelihood (livelihood) (국립국어원표준국어대사전, 1991). The lexemes that contain seme ‘means of survival’ are: ‘생애’ (seme occurred twice), ‘생계’ (once), ‘생활’ (once). The total number of cases of explication of semes in dictionary – 4.

Seme ‘everyday life as a daily (daily) filling of life’: 생활 (being), 먹고입고쓰고하는등의살림살이living (accommodation and housekeeping) (동아새국어사전,

1989); 인생 (mode of life) (국어사전, 2002). Seme 'everyday life as a daily (daily) filling of life' once "brought to the surface" in the interpretation of words such as '생활' and '인생', the total number of occasions of actualization – 2 times.

Seme '*lifestyle*': 삶-살아있는현상 (lifestyle) (실용국어사전, 1997-2010). This seme is explicit in the dictionaries of the Korean language once.

The conceptual core of the concept of *life*, according to lexicographic data that reflect language picture of the world to some extent retrospectively, includes the meanings 'existence', 'period from birth to death', 'living organism, human, animal (carrier of life)'. The nuclear zone includes the meanings of 'livelihoods' and 'life force'. Remaining identified meanings, namely 'this life in contrast to other lives (one life, another life)', 'means of subsistence for survival' and 'way of life', belong to the periphery of the conceptual layer of the concept. The conclusion is made based on the frequency of seme explication analyzed definition texts. From this distribution of nuclear-peripheral meanings, it follows that in the Korean language picture of the world, *life* is more represented as material, that is, physical, material, than as spiritual.

We turn to the definitional analysis of explanatory dictionaries of the Russian language. The analysis takes into account and presents all components of dictionary entries, both definitive texts, and their fragments, as well as illustrative material (which is present in dictionary entries of most of the analyzed explanatory dictionaries of the Russian language).

Seme '*time - period of life*':

"Time from birth to death", "century" (The dictionary of Church Slavonic and Russian language, 1847), twice;

"Time from birth to death of a person or animal" (Ozhegov, 1949), once;

"Time of such an existence from its origin to the end, as well as in some n. its period", "short, long life", "at the beginning, at the end of life", "at the end of life (at its end)", " someone's life was interrupted.)" (Dictionary of Russian language, 1961), 5 times;

"Period of someone's existence", "period in someone's existence, limited by the scope of staying anywhere (The big explanatory dictionary of the Russian language, 2001), 2 times;

"Time, the period of existence from birth to death", "short, long life", "live, live, live, etc.". "At the beginning, at the end of life", "on the slope of life (at the end)" (한영우 & 경세원, 2010). The total number of cases of explication of the seme '*time - the period of life*' in explanatory dictionaries of the Russian language - 15 times;

Seme '*physiological state (human, animal, plant)*':

State of animals from birth to death, and plants to wither" (The dictionary of Church Slavonic and

Russian language, 1847), once;

"Life is conditioned only by nutrition and food assimilation, and in this sense is given to two kingdoms of nature: animal and vegetable" (Ozhegov, 1949), once;

"State of the organism at the stage of growth, development, and destruction", "human life", "plant life" (Karasik & Sternin, 2007), once;

"Giving life to someone (to give birth), the life of plants" (Dictionary of Russian language, 1961), once;

"V. Komarov, the Origin of plants", "physiological state of a person, animal, or plant from birth to death", "neither in the life of an animal nor in the life of a plant could we find a single trait exclusively peculiar to one or the other", "Timiryazev, Plant Life" (The big explanatory dictionary of the Russian language, 2001), 4 times;

"A special form of the existence of matter that occurs at a certain stage of its development, the main difference between which inanimate nature is the metabolism", "the emergence of life on earth", "life of plant world" 3 times (한영우 & 경세원, 2010);

The total number of cases of seme use 'Physiological state (human, animal, plant) ' in explanatory dictionaries - 11 times.

Seme '*spiritual power*'. Explicated in the interpretations and illustrations of the following dictionaries:

"Rich inner life", "intense spiritual life", "spiritual and moral forces" (Ozhegov, 1949), 3 times;

"Activity of society and man in one or another of its manifestations", namely spiritual life (Dictionary of Russian language, 1961), once;

"Fullness of physical and spiritual forces", "Artist is the builder of the spiritual life of mankind" (The big explanatory dictionary of the Russian language, 2001), 2 times;

"Fullness of physical and spiritual forces", "external manifestation of the fullness of physical and spiritual forces: There's so much life in his eyes! * Olga has no life in her features (Pushkin)", "activity of someone or with a certain activity of society and a person in one or another of its manifestations, in various fields, spheres ... Spiritual life in art, in science" (한영우 & 경세원, 2010), 3 times.

The total number of cases of using the seme 'spiritual power' in dictionary entries of explanatory dictionaries in Russian languages - 9 times.

Seme '*activities (human, society)*':

"Activity of society and man in the totality of its manifestations, or in its individual manifestations, and its internal content", "social, familial, literary, and scientific life", "party's life", "country

economic life” (Ozhegov, 1949), 4 times;

“Activity of society and man in one or another of its manifestations”, “Public life. Family life. Spiritual life. Busy life” (Dictionary of Russian language, 1961), 2 times;

“Activity of society and man in its various manifestations, in various fields, spheres”, “animation, the excitement caused by the activity of living beings” (Dictionary of Russian language, 1961), 2 times;

“Activity of society and man in its various manifestations, in various fields, spheres” (한영우 & 경세원, 2010), once.

The total number of cases of explication of seme ‘activity (person, society)’ - 9 times.

Seme ‘*reality, the matter of fact*’:

“Reality in all its manifestations”, “it is necessary to live not by imagination, but by actual life”, “reality in its separate external manifestations” (Ozhegov, 1949), 3 times;

“Reality. Implement the decision. Enter into life (realization)” (Ozhegov, 1949), once;

“Reality surrounding us; being” (The big explanatory dictionary of the Russian language, 2001), once;

“Reality, being”, “there are a lot of interesting things in the surrounding life. In life, it is completely different than on stage”, “I’ve never met her in my life” (한영우 & 경세원, 2010), 3 times;

The total number of cases of semantic concept use ‘reality’ in dictionary entries studied by explanatory dictionaries - 8 times.

15. Seme ‘*existence*’:

“State of individual”, “the existence of personality” (Dahl, 1863-1866), 2 times;

“Existence in general, being in motion and development”, “physiological existence of man and animal” (Ozhegov, 1949), 2 times;

“Physiological existence of man, animal, all living things”, “a special form of existence of matter that occurs at a certain stage of its development”, “existence in development, movement (about nature)” (한영우 & 경세원, 2010), 2 times;

The total number of cases of using seme ‘spiritual strength’ in dictionary entries of Russian languages explanatory dictionaries - 6 times.

Seme ‘*revitalization, excitement, energy*’:

"Outward movement, revival", "revitalization, the manifestation of activity, energy" (Karasik & Sternin, 2007), 2 times;

"Revival, the excitement caused by the activity of living beings" (The big explanatory dictionary of the Russian language, 2001), once;

"Revival, excitement caused by the activity of living beings", "birds woke up and life began. By evening, life on the streets freezes. Life in the bazaar is in full swing" (한영우 & 경세원, 2010), 2 times;

The total number of cases of using seme 'revival, excitement, energy' among the studied dictionary entries of explanatory dictionaries of the Russian language - 5 times.

Seme '*life, condition, daily life*':

"Established order in the daily existence of someone, something", "mode of life" (The big explanatory dictionary of the Russian language, 2001), 2 times;

"Established order in the daily existence of someone, something", "mode of life". "Urban, rural life. Everyday life" (한영우 & 경세원, 2010), 2 times;

The total number of cases of actualization of the meaning 'life, state, daily life' - 4 times.

Seme '*form of existence of matter*':

"A special form of existence of matter" (Dictionary of Russian language, 1961), once;

"A special form of motion of matter that occurs at a certain stage of its development" (The big explanatory dictionary of the Russian language, 2001), once;

"A special form of existence of matter that occurs at a certain stage of its development, the main difference between which inanimate nature is the metabolism" (한영우 & 경세원, 2010), once.

The total number of cases of explication of the meaning of 'form of existence of matter' in dictionary entries of explanatory dictionaries of the Russian language - 3 times.

Thus, the conceptual core of the concept of *life* in Russian language picture of the world according to lexicographic data includes meanings 'time – period of life' (15 explications in the analyzed dictionaries), 'physiological state (of a person, animal, plant)' (11 explications). The nuclear zone consists of meanings 'spiritual power' (9 explications), 'activity (of a person, society)' (9 explications), 'reality' (8 explications), and 'existence' (6 explications). Remaining identified semes 'animation, excitement, energy' (5 explications), 'life, state, daily life' (4 explications), and 'form of existence of matter' (3 explications) belong to the periphery of conceptual layer of the concept. Since dictionaries reflecting different periods in the development of the Russian language were analyzed, we can draw conclusions related to the dynamics of the concept's conceptual part. First, in modern dictionaries appeared semes that are not in the "Dictionary of Church Slavonic and Russian language" (1847), "Materials for the old Russian dictionary" N. N. Sreznevsky (1893), "Explanatory dictionary of the living great Russian language" by V. I. Dahl (1863-1866). These include 'state of organism', 'activity', 'reality', 'development', 'way of life', 'meaning and fullness of life', and 'experience' (The dictionary of Church Slavonic and Russian language, 1847);

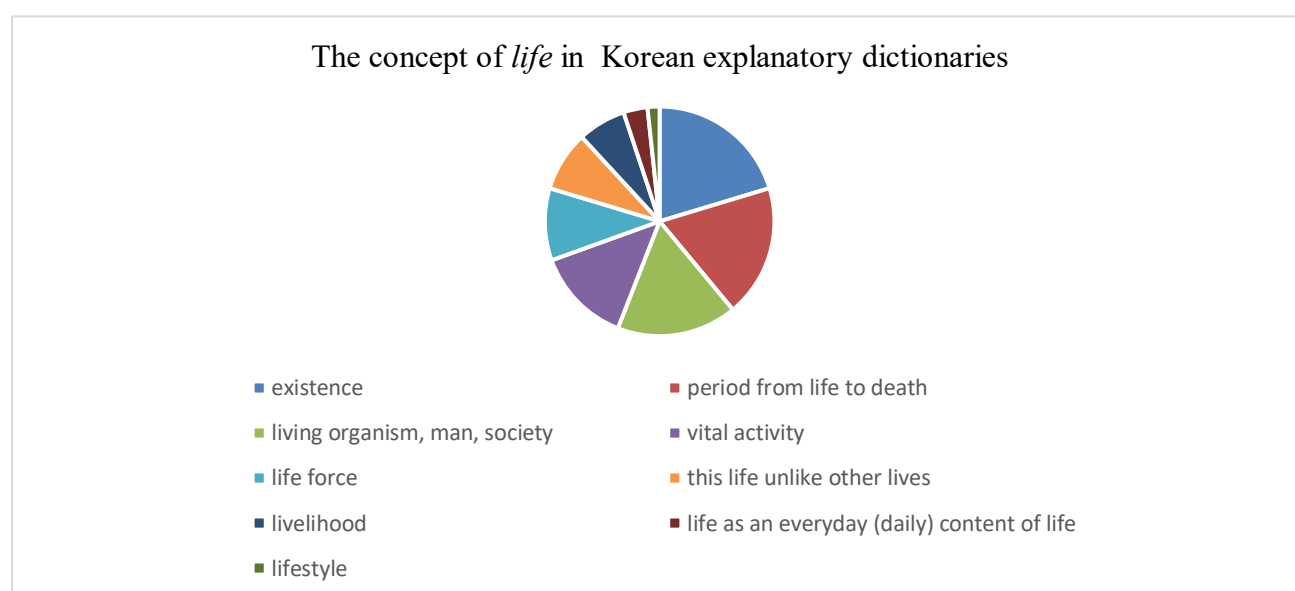
Sreznevsky, 1983; Dahl, 1863-1866; Ozhegov, 1949; Dictionary of Russian language, 1961; The big explanatory dictionary of the Russian language, 2001; 한영우 & 경세원, 2010). These semes actualize in the concept of *life* its physiological hypostasis. Second, the idea of life as a "life of the spirit" persists over time, but it does not unfold in such detail as in dictionaries that reflect past epochs of the language's life. In dictionaries of modern Russian, it is represented by the only lexeme "spiritual".

The contrastive aspect of the study revealed common and different conceptualizations of life (according to dictionaries). Let us consider them.

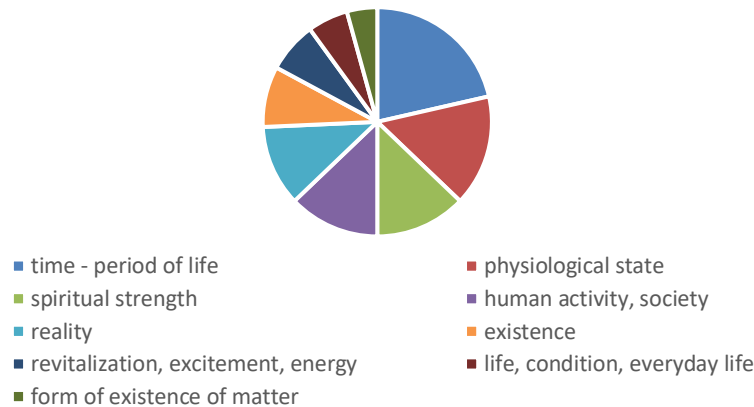
Nuclear zones of the concept layer of Korean and Russian concepts of life partially coincide, including one common meaning for the 'period of life'. In addition to the general meaning, there are different, although comparable, concepts: the core of the Korean concept includes the meaning of 'living organism, human, animal', and the core of the conceptual part of the Russian concept is 'physiological state'. The hierarchy of comparable features is different.

In the nuclear zones of both concepts, there is a common sense of 'activity', but the other meanings do not coincide, and differences are determined not only by their quality but also by their quantity. There are only two semes in the nuclear zone in KL: 'life activity' and 'life force', whereas in RL there are four semes: 'spiritual force', 'human activity, society', 'reality', and 'existence'. In this case, the national and cultural specificity of the concepts is reflected. We have already mentioned the features of the seme 'existence' in KL (there is a person, an animal) and RL (there is a person, an animal, a plant). It is also significant that the Korean concept in the nuclear zone contains the meaning 'life force', and in Russian - 'spiritual force'. The presence of seme 'life force' speaks to the peculiarities of the Korean culture-understanding of life as overcoming difficulties. In Korean, there are a large number of expressions with the meaning of "overcoming difficulties with the use of life force": 고생하다 (to experience adversity, to experience deprivation, to go through a lot), 고생이 많다 (a lot of adversity), 수고하다 (make a lot of effort when performing any work), 아무리 어려워도/힘들어도, 바빠도... (no matter how hard / active/ busy you are) and etc. In Russian, the meaning of 'spiritual power' is actualized in such contexts as culture, creativity, harmony, freedom, life, problems, food, needs, values, introspection, identity, rebirth, degeneration, persistence, etc. (see illustrative material of dictionary entries: The dictionary of Church Slavonic and Russian language, 1847; Sreznevsky, 1983; Dahl, 1863-1866; Ozhegov, 1949; Dictionary of Russian language, 1961; The big explanatory dictionary of the Russian language, 2001; 한영우 & 경세원, 2010).

The peripheral zone of the Korean concept was composed of meanings ‘this life as opposed to other lives (one life, another life)’, ‘means of livelihood, means of survival’, and ‘way of life’. Peripheral zone of Russian concept was made up of meanings 'animation, excitement, energy', 'life, state, everyday life' and 'form of existence of matter'. As we can see, there are also similarities and differences in the peripheral part of the conceptual layer of the concept of life. The number of semes (three semes in both Korean and Russian dictionaries) is the same, but not the qualitative composition and hierarchy. However, these parts of the concept layer differ in that Korean dictionaries have first place in the seme means of ‘livelihood’ (here also the connection with the meaning of overcoming difficulties), while in Russian dictionaries there is no similar seme at all. In Russian dictionaries, the seme ‘form of existence of matter’ is highlighted, which reflects the current stage of development of language and lexicography (Figure 1, Figure 2).



The concept of *life* in Russian explanatory dictionaries



The obtained results can be interpreted taking into account cultural, worldview contexts of the compared lexicographic material.

It is known that Buddhism and Confucianism had a great influence on the development of philosophical thought and beliefs of Koreans and neighboring Eastern countries. The peculiarity of Korean culture that distinguishes it from European, including Russian, is the belief in rebirth. According to popular Korean beliefs, each person had not one, but several souls: some of them were doubles of a person, others acted as a "life force" and spiritual nature, and others-as spirits-owners of individual organs. Belief in a multiplicity of souls testifies to the complex stratification of different ideas, to the stratification of different religious systems. Influence of borrowed Ideology-Taoism, Buddhism, Confucianism-was observed mainly among ruling layers of Korean society (Evans, 2007). As for the common people, peasantry, shamanic, pre-shamanic and totemistic ideas about life and death, about the soul and its afterlife continued to exist in their midst to a large extent.

Buddhism treats the problem of rebirth as follows, "There is no unchanging self, or Atman, passing from life to life: self exists, but not as a figment of imagination, not as something continuous and permanent, passing from one life to another". In Buddhism, "I can be likened to an image on a film, where there is a continuity of frames and not a continuity of objects passing from frame to frame" (Murayama, 1929).

The development of views about the soul was greatly influenced by religious and philosophical ideas borrowed from China. First of all, this is felt in the terminology for three main souls. Following terms are accepted in Korea: «hone» (in Chinese Hun 魂), «pak» (in Chinese. po 魄) и «yien» (in Chinese lin 靈). In the views of Koreans on the soul are reflected in their complex philosophical views. According to the religious and teaching (Mohd-Asraf, Hossain & Eng, 2019),

the world consists of five primary elements: earth, wood, metal, fire, and water. These primary elements arose from the "kee " that is their basis. "kee", in turn, was represented by two States: "yankee" (active, light "ki") and " yimkee "(passive, dark "ke"). In the course of the struggle of two opposing varieties of "ke", five material elements arose, and their subsequent interaction led to the emergence of heaven, earth, and all things, including people with all their differences (Clark, 1932).

Among Koreans, "hon" acts as a reborn soul. It is associated with the idea of reincarnation, i.e. belief that the soul of the deceased is reincarnated as an animal or a person. This idea is close to the Buddhist concept of "rebirth of the soul". But in Korea, it has a more ancient, totemistic basis. One of the researchers of Korean religion, S. Clark, wrote, "Shamanic belief means that after death, the soul eventually turns into animals: a fox, a crow, or a dog. Koreans say that this is not a Buddhist idea of transformation" (전진숙 & 전선철, 1966).

Transmigration of the soul (metempsychosis) in philosophical Buddhism is expressed in the doctrine of the Dharmas. Man perceives the world through the prism of his feelings and sensations, and the sensations themselves are the manifestation of Dharma agitations in the consciousness of every living being. The physical death of a person, as well as of all living things, is the result of the disintegration of this complex of Dharmas. Dharmas do not disappear, but are reborn in a new complex – this is rebirth. In this case, the form of a new rebirth is determined by the sum of the merits and misdeeds (karma) of this being in its previous existence. The abstract, supra-real, non-body-related soul of the Buddhists was alien to Korean philosophy (Clark, 1932).

Based on the above, it follows that the Korean understanding of life combines the beliefs of many religions from shamanism and ancestor worship to Confucianism and Buddhism. Koreans believe in rebirth and having multiple lives, which is naturally reflected in the lexical composition of language. The semantics of a few lives is reflected in lexicographic sources, which include the interpretation of names under consideration of concept tokens are translated in the Russian language as "this life", "this world", "past life", etc. Thus, we simulate a specific component of the conceptual layer of the concept. Russian culture and the Russian language (in particular, in lexicographic sources), a person lives only one life from its beginning to its end.

In European philosophical thought, there is an idea of life as a form of existence of matter (Kondratieva, 2005). This view sets the global scale of the phenomenon of life. Similarly, this phenomenon is understood by the ordinary consciousness of a European, and in particular a native speaker of the Russian language.

In the analyzed material, this representation corresponds to such a semantic component of the concept of life as 'reality'. Seme 'reality', explicated in dictionary definitions of word 'life', indicates the comprehensive nature of the phenomenon of life and the concept associated with it. Everything that concerns not only a person but also natural and social phenomena is included in life as real reality. The latter is clearly shown in the illustrative block of an article in one of the modern dictionaries: "there are a lot of interesting things in the surrounding life. In life, he is completely different than on stage. I've never met her in my life. Working in a newspaper is a school of life. A reporter should feel the beat of life. Implement the decision. Enter into life (find application, be realized)" (한영우 & 경세원, 2010).

The difference in parameter "native speaker/subject of a life" is related to the global nature of the phenomenon of life for a native speaker of Russian (but not Korean). If, according to Korean dictionaries, only a person or an animal acts as a carrier/subject of life, in Russian dictionaries it can be a person, an animal, a plant, or any representative of the living and inanimate world. Vivid examples of "carriers of life" recorded in the illustrative block of dictionaries are "a turning point in the life of the state" (Ozhegov, 1949), the economic life of the country, the life of the state, life of humanity (Dictionary of Russian language, 1961).

As mentioned above, in the nuclear zone of the Korean concept came the meaning of 'life force', and in the peripheral zone, the meaning of 'means of existence, means of survival'. These meanings are closely related to each other: 'life force' in Koreans is associated with the idea of survival, including survival to the end, as well as overcoming difficulties. The relevance of these meanings can be interpreted from the point of view of cultural context. In Korean culture, an important role is played by the word 고생 [kosen] difficult life, suffering, adversity, deprivation. Korean dictionaries clearly express the negative connotations of life.

In contrast to Korean dictionaries, in Russian-language dictionaries, the key category of concept has pronounced positive connotations. Here are examples of interpretations and illustrations from different dictionaries: "Fullness of manifestation of physical and spiritual forces, someone is full of life, there is a lot of energy, a lot of life, love has breathed new life into it (caused a strong rise in all the vital forces)" (한영우 & 경세원, 2010); "External movement, animation, streets are full of life" (Dahl, 1863-1866); "Animation, the manifestation of activity, energy, streets are full of life. More life! (call to an act more energetically, more vividly, spoken)" (Dictionary of Russian language, 1961); "in the wilderness, in the darkness of imprisonment. My days passed quietly without divinity, without inspiration, without tears, without life, without love" (The big explanatory dictionary of the Russian language, 2001).

Conclusion

The notional part of the concept of life in both Korean and Russian languages is represented in temporal, substantive, and, relatively speaking, qualitative coordinates.

The temporal dimension of the concept, according to the material of both languages, is included in the conceptual core: life is what lasts. As for the substantive dimension, meanings found to differ in scope: existence in the Korean material is actualized as a physiological category ('maintenance of life', 'survival' in relation to a living being); in Russian language, it is explicated as 'the existence of a person', 'existence in General', and 'being'. The axis we have named quality is represented by the meaning of 'difficulty' in Korean and 'fullness of life' in Russian.

The purpose of this study was to examine the language against the background of another using a definitional analysis designed to establish not only the system but also the contrastive significance of language units. It is within this description that specific features of the concept of *life* in Korean and Russian linguocultures were discovered. Thus, definitional analysis, despite the limited lexicographic description and the lack of a consistently developed theory of semantic analysis that influences the compilation of dictionary entries, acted as a full-fledged method in process of contrastive study of lexemes that explicate the concept of *life* in the two languages under study. In the future, it is possible to consider constant and non-static features of the concept of material of folklore and artistic works. The results of this study will serve as a basis for further construction of lexical-semantic and associative fields based on the material of paremias and folklore texts of the Korean and Russian languages.

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Technology in Saudi EFL Undergraduate Classrooms: Learning Tool or Weapon of Distraction?

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Abstract

This paper explored the perceptions of Saudi EFL university students on the positive and negative consequences of tech-enabled classrooms. It used the survey method with 120 students across two colleges affiliated to Qassim University by administering a questionnaire to gather data. It used the frequency analysis to isolate and rank. The findings surfaced that the students manifest a favourable perception on the use of smart devices in EFL learning because they are encouraged to use their smart devices leading them to become inseparable to their smart devices in the classroom. Meanwhile, as to how essential for the college EFL learners to have smart device as a learning tool, they saw themselves productive with the use of smart phones in their daily learning. For them, the use of smart phones is generally advantageous and useful in their course. As to the possession of smart devices leading to the distraction of learning among the respondents, it is evidential that most of the participants reported the inadequacy of skill of language teachers to creatively integrate technology into the learning process, making the intervention more of a superimposed compulsion than a fun tool that could enhance their learning experience. The study presents implications to the proper integration of ICT in language learning.

Keywords: *Language Learning, M-Learning, Smart Devices, Technology Acceptance Model*

Introduction

The new education model, education 4.0, allows teachers and students to be competent with the latest technologies that can provide instruction in an effective way. The use and application of technology in schooling was a challenge in today's modern system of education. With tablets, notebooks, desktops rapidly growing, they've redefined the conventional way of learning through unlimited and boundless student learning experiences. Technology has come to occupy a centre stage in language classrooms across countries of the world (Bond, 2020; Chun, Kern, & Smith, 2016; Hoi, 2020; Magulod, 2018; Lai et al, 2016; Liu, Geertshuis, & Grainger, 2020; Shen & Ho, 2020; Shen & Ho, 2020; Wu & Chen, 2020; Elshahawy, 2020; Alrefaee, Mudkanna & Almansoob, 2020), especially in Saudi Arabia where new interventions are being thought of in the field of EFL (Alhamami, 2018; Al-Shehri, 2016). At the same time, there is a small but ever-present lobby of teachers and parents who advocate the dangers that come with dependence on technology as a learning tool, the biggest one cited being a distraction (Al-Ahdal & Shariq, 2019). The introduction of technology in the modern age introduced significant changes in the educational environment. Interestingly, Saudi university classrooms have witnessed a deluge of technology in the past few years with laptops, smartphones and tablets edging out pen and paper, and sometimes, even teachers! This attitudinal change has been partly engineered by the teachers, and in some part, by university managements and advisors who started out with a noble mission of arming their learners with all that technology had to offer to place them on a level playing ground as their western counterparts. In tune with this philosophy, pedagogical changes were encouraged and infrastructures modified at great monetary costs to accommodate the new- found love for hi-tech learning. In the process, the role of teachers and the human angle of teacher-learner symbiotic relationship was side-lined. In other words, where some objectives of the changed approach were intended, certain outcomes are unintended and undesirable. This supported the study of Bangayan-Manera (2020), that students are more inspired to study and focus on their scholastic performances when teachers give equal attentions to their students. While it is true that learning today cannot be divorced from technology, what is equally true is that artificial intelligence would still take many years before technology can completely replace human element from the learning environment (Sousa & Rocstudentsha, 2019).

For most Saudi schools and universities, the integration of technology into teaching pedagogies has become a high priority, however, not all have been able to use it efficiently as a learning tool

in many subjects. The question of technology use in classrooms, both the how much and when, of it, is almost an over-researched subject with clouded outcomes that fail to give a verdict one way or the other (Al-Emran, Elsherif, & Shaalan, 2016; Aljaloud, Billingsley, & Kwan, 2019; Alresheed, Raiker, & Carmichael, 2017; Radianti, et al, 2020; Wiseman, et al, 2018; Elashhab, 2020). While some voices claim the efficacy of technology as a performance enhancer (Chang, Hajiyeve & Su, 2017; Garcia et al, 2019; Guangyang & Haiyan, 2019; Hamidi & Jahanshaheefard, 2019; Nelson & Hawk, 2020; Rashid & Asghar, 2016; Reinhold et al, 2020), others are equally virulent that screen time is directly proportional to distracted learners (Crompton, Burke, & Gregory, 2017; Gökçearslan et al, 2016; Gonzalez, Gasco & Llopis, 2019;; Lau, 2017; Shi, 2019; Wang, Tan & Li, 2020). EFL classrooms and teaching communities have been fraught with fears of technology ultimately overtaking all other learning goals and its use becoming an end in itself. The fears are real as teaching especially in the EFL classrooms is becoming more and more game-based and learner engagement is getting irrevocably tethered to technology as nothing holds the young generation as much as the fast-paced world of technology.

Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

This study is grounded on the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM). This theory in the field of information system explains how users accept and adopt technology based on its usefulness, ease of use, facilitating condition, and behavioral conditions (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1989). Because of the soundness, simplicity, and adaptability of TAM, it is considered as one of the standard models to measure information system adoption and acceptance in the context of technology learning (Hansen, Saridakis, & Benson, 2018). In the context of the present study, it presents the perception of Saudi EFL learners on the use of technology. In such a way, better implementation of technology in language classes will improve students' learning performance. Accordingly, higher education institutions are tap to produce highly skilled and capable human resource have a role in understanding what affects students' technological acceptance and literacies before implementing interventions of setting up technological systems. The need for universities to have an analysis of the proper use of ICT learning will let them identify the determinants which will leverage its implementation and utilization for students' development (Khan, & Ahmad, 2018; Sulaiman & Almuhammad, 2018).

Is technology a boon or bane in language learning?

Previous studies claim that technology can be a great distraction for the learners if it is not properly handled by the teacher. Rampersad (2012) asserts that this is especially so in the lower schools,

with young learners where even the very basic technological intervention can cause the learners to move from the educational zone to the entertainment arena, the study points out that there are always learners who still do not understand the lesson in spite of ICT tools. Moreover, with learners being constantly connected even as the teacher lectures in the class, the chances of plagiarism are always present. In like manner, Zaka, Parkes and Davis (2011) found that lack of self-direction in online learning by the students can be a source of distraction for students. However, what could deter this danger to a great degree was the presence of the teacher online to check diversions from the lesson. This was missing in spells of independent online study.

In a simulated study on multitasking by college students who carry laptops to classroom, Sana, Weston and Cepeda (2013) found that this intrusion of technology is counterproductive. While it is true that multitasking as a lifestyle is believed to improve efficiency, there are negative repercussions on the outcomes of the tasks carried out simultaneously. The study found an impairment of cognition as a result of the intervention of technology, or in other words, the unrelated online tasks were found to hinder participants' cognition. Awwad, Ayesha and Awwad (2013) studied the role of laptops as in-class educational tools across three study streams with university students in the UAE. They point out, and rightly so, that laptops are a mandatory requirement for students to attend lectures in colleges around the world. However, the study found via the self-report questionnaires that whereas students did use laptops for educational purposes, this was rather in a limited way and often they wandered into checking emails, exchanging messages, and chatting on-line while in class. Goundar (2014) ironically describes the changing learning environment of the decade as one that moved from 'learner-plus-learning-material' to 'learner-plus-learning-material-plus-technology-plus-distraction'. This finding has been seconded by Spitzer (2014) noting the risks and side effects of information technology in education.

In a study on BYOD (Bring Your Own Device) initiative in New Zealand, Baker (2014) found that the sustainability of technological initiatives in secondary schools entails the question of doing so most effectively. The students are challenged by the task of managing their devices, getting distracted to play games on their devices, thereby being 'engaged' in the class but quite differently. For McDonagh and McGarr (2015) devised a new term for all the technology imperialism that is the norm of teaching environments today. They call it Technology Somnambulism when teachers are concerned only with the acquisition of computer hardware, equating it with the idea of ICT in education. This was a study placed amongst Irish post primary school teachers who acted more like 'electronic janitors' rather than being able to make ICT an effective part of their pedagogy. It may be remarked here that with teacher ignorance a major issue to grapple with, any technological intervention in the classrooms stands a chance to be used for non-academic purposes by learners

who come to class with far more technological input than their teachers. In other words, if ICT cannot be successfully modified to cater to the curricular needs, it is more a distraction and danger to education than a useful tool. Makki et al (2018) also identified barriers of classroom computing integration found that teacher-related factor is one of the barriers.

In a study with ICT using student handled individual tablets, Vatanartiran and Karadeniz (2015) found that though ICT was a relatively new introduction in the Turkish schools, attention related problems were already perceptible amongst the learners. Teachers in the study reported that students freely accessed other sites on their devices even during the lesson which lead to attention loss or deficit. Mavridi (2017) gives a more balanced view of technology use in the EFL classroom. While technology cannot be totally banned from the classroom because it is an effective learning tool of modern times, it is important to check and manage learners' predisposition to multitask and wander to non-academic subjects when asked to use their devices in class.

Research Context and Gap

The Saudi Ministry of Higher Education has encouraged teachers and students to take advantage of information technology (IT) (Alebaikan & Troudi, 2010). As early as 2005, Saudi administration began to mandate the use of ICT in education, the Ministry of Education launched programmes to train teachers, assisted in the creation of Learning Resource Centres (LRCs), and ensured that there was no dearth of theoretical or practical knowledge that could impede the integration of ICT into education so far as the teachers were concerned. Initial years saw resistance from teachers much like is expected when the old systems have to make way for the new ones. However, as the teaching community witnessed the inroads that technology made into the very life of the Saudi people, they participated enthusiastically in ensuring that education was not untouched by it. Yet there were many stumbling blocks and some still persist.

This paper is a quantitative study designed to understand the perceptions of EFL learners at Qassim University of KSA about the role of technology in the classroom. We understand that it is part of the Vision 2020 and subsequently Vision 2030 of the Saudi administration to ensure all its citizens are empowered to act out their role as global citizens in all fields whether social, political, economic, educational or technological. In keeping with this Vision, integration of technology into the educational systems at all levels has been an ongoing process in the last decade. Saudi teachers lack the vision to think of ways in which technology can replace traditional teaching, they have socio-cultural inhibitions in allowing greater integration of technology into the learning environments (Alasmari & Kang, 2019), they are not adequately trained to make full use of technical resources at their disposal (Alanazi & Thompson, 2019; Al-Gahtani, 2016; Alharbi, et

al, 2017; Alothman, Robertson, & Michaelson, 2017; Khan & Adams, 2016; Masimba, Appiah & Zuva, 2019; Parsazadeh, et al, 2018; Shorfuzzaman, et al, 2019). Even so, curricular and policy demands require them to use technology in innovative ways in ensuring greater learning (Chaudhuri, 2020; Liu, Geertshuis, & Grainger, 2020; Ruipérez-Valiente, et al, 2020; Turugare & Rudhumbu, 2020). This has led to an almost competitive professional environment where teachers come up with newer and more creative ways in which to use the latest gadgets as educational tools, the latest in the repertoire being smartphones which have come to replace laptops and tablets given their portability, affordability and multiple uses.

While previous studies have claimed benefits of ICT to the students 'engagement and academic performance (Aldiab, et al, 2019; Alharbi, 2018; Alharthi, et al, 2017; Alothman, Robertson, & Michaelson, 2017; Rashid & Asghar, 2016; Uzun & Kilis, 2019). Studies in the Saudi setting on the risks and side-effects of technology in education has not been well investigated among universities. Whether the ICT interventions contribute to learning or distraction among the learners is a less researched subject in the Saudi EFL environment. This study expects to provide a framework which will assist educational planners and policy makers to work out processes that are likely to optimise the role of technology in foreign language learning in Saudi universities. The administration and the Ministry of Education will particularly benefit from designing policies and allocating funding that will assist the educational institutions in integrating technology into the curriculum without being a superficial tool. The results are also expected to guide teachers and teacher trainers in identifying critical areas where the technology may be a part of prevailing educational technology. The study findings are also expected to open new areas of research that move away from the prevalent mind-set of leaning on technology without first ensuring its need in an educational setting. With these areas in focus, the study is likely to be of great use to the teaching learning community and to research in education and language learning.

Research Objectives

Our objectives in undertaking this study are multidimensional. One, this study is path-breaking in the field as the current trend the world over is towards greater inclusion and integration of technology into the educational environment as young people today are practically inseparable from their smart devices and any attempt to do so in the name of betterment of the learning experience would fail at the outset. This study is guided by the following research questions: (1) Are the Saudi youth separable from their smart devices in the classrooms? (2) How essential is it for the college learners of EFL to possess a smart device as a learning tool? (3) Does the possession of smart devices lead to distraction in the class amongst the college goers?

Methodology

Research Design

The study is a descriptive survey research on the perceptions of Saudi EFL university students on the positive and negative consequences of tech-enabled classrooms. It used the survey method with 120 students across two colleges affiliated to Qassim University by administering a questionnaire to gather data. It used the frequency analysis to isolate and rank.

Participants

120 non-random EFL students enrolled at three campuses of Qassim University were selected for the study. The researcher zeroed in on them through his professional network. Yet some of these were his current students too at the university campus. Of these approximately half (N=62) were males and the remaining (N=58) were females. Demographically, the population was more or less homogenous, in the age group of 18-20 years, with an equal number of exposure to public school education, and all belonged to the urban regions. This was an important factor in the selection of the population as it was an obvious prerequisite to have a population which had free access to modern electronic devices and also were adept in their use. Further, the campuses to which the population belongs are not enabled campuses that encourage ICT integration into the learning process. Indeed, it is the stated aim of Qassim University to turn out well rounded, educated youth whose development is in tune with global educational standards. The researcher sought the assistance of his colleagues at these campuses to collect the data during college hours.

Research Instrument

Previous literature was reviewed to establish a viable 16 item questionnaire to gather data on students' perceptions on technology usability, ICT in education, and distraction. Once this was done, the questionnaire was validated by four EFL teachers who actively use technology in the classroom, mainly in the form of MALL and peripherally CALL. The questionnaire was also validated by technology teachers and as per their recommendations, the shortcomings were duly ironed out. Post validation, the questionnaire was reduced to 12 items. The questionnaire is attached later in this paper as Table 1. Since this was a perceptions questionnaire, the responses were sought on a five-point Likert Scale where 1 represents Strongly Disagree and 5 represents Strongly Agree. We understand that the Likert Scale is a standard perceptions measurement tool highly recommended in social science research.

Data Collection

The questionnaire was originally prepared in English, but an Arabic translation was also attached to help the participants understand the statements well. The teachers who administered the questionnaire were briefed about the contents and scope of the statements. They were also requested to explain the statement(s) to the participant(s) if help was sought. The questionnaire was administered at the beginning of the EFL period and, on an average, 25 minutes were spent by the participants in answering it. The investigator specifically followed the principles of scientific ethics. After collecting the responses of the students, data was coded and statistical analyses were conducted for a month. Eventually, for another month the findings were examined, interpreted and reported released.

Results

This study aims to evaluate the obstacles that present themselves in this attempt. It is the endeavour of the researcher to gauge the extent to which the learners perceive technology as a source of distraction in their EFL classes as a large repertoire of computer-based audio-visual tools including language laboratories are extremely popular in EFL courses in the kingdom. Results shown in Table 1 and Figure 1 present the assessment of the respondents on the role of technology in EFL classroom, that it is remarkable that the data collected through the reverts demonstrated unanimity of opinion among the participants on a large number of the questionnaire items. This fact makes it reliable to generalise the outcomes though we agree that 120 is a small number of participants to give a holistic picture of student perception in a country as large and diverse as KSA, yet a moderate beginning for further research.

Table 1. *Perception of Students on the Role of Technology in the EFL Classroom*

No.	Statements	<i>SD</i> 1	<i>D</i> 2	<i>N</i> 3	<i>A</i> 4	<i>SD</i> 5
1	I am allowed to carry my smartphone, tablet or laptop to the EFL class.	0	0	0	0	120
2	The EFL class is interesting because I can use my device freely.	0	0	11	69	40
3	Activities and tasks in the EFL class always require me to go online.	16	22	9	34	39
4	The teacher steers us well towards completing our lesson using certain online sources.	58	33	7	12	10
5	I surf my social pages while the class is on.	2	1	1	21	95
6	I feel my partner often gets interested in my screen when I do non-academic online activities.	0	7	14	47	52
7	I sometimes miss on the class content as I engage in non-academic online activities.	12	6	14	20	68
8	I feel that if the teacher were also online, guiding us through the online task, the temptation to engage in personal communication would be checked.	9	7	9	21	74

9	On an average, I spend less than 25% of class time in non-academic online activity.	73	24	11	7	5
10	On an average, I spend more than 25% of class time on non-academic online activity.	8	6	3	14	89
11	I like to use my device to study but don't know how to stick to the academic content as sometimes the task assigned is irrelevant.	6	9	15	32	58
12	I would rather leave behind my device as it distracts me in the class.	90	16	2	8	4

Note: 1- Strongly Disagree; 2- Disagree; 3- Neutral, 4- Agree, 5- Strongly Disagree

The four research questions were satisfactorily answered by the reverts. The data obtained is graphically represented in Figure 1 to have a clearer presentation of the data. This fact is supported by the percent of response of the participants to item 1 of the questionnaire. It may be noted here that teachers in KSA, especially in the EFL courses, encourage their students to make extensive use of their smart devices for innovative purposes (other than for taking notes) such as accessing podcasts for pronunciation drills and actively using Apps to promote collaborative learning practices. This is borne out by the fact that more than 90% of the participants reported positive attitude towards the EFL classes because they are allowed or rather, encouraged to use their smart devices during these. However, whereas more than 60% of the participants recognize the fact that online access is important for their EFL tasks and assignments (*item 3*), a whopping upwards of 75% are rather disappointed at the teachers' inability to adequately guide them (*item 4*) in its effective use. Consequently, more than 79% of them tend to wander off to non-academic online activities (*item 5*).

It is clear that even with technology so close at hand, student engagement is not optimum. That technology can be counterproductive too in the EFL classroom is proven by the fact that not only the primary user but also peers are distracted when they find their classmates engaging in non-academic online activity during class time. More than 82% of the participants reported their awareness that their online activity attracted the attention of their peers, drawing larger the circle of distracted students in the class. It is no wonder then, that slightly more than 73% of the participants reported losing on the lesson content as their attention to the learning process is diminished. Close to 86% of the participants also reported that they spend an average of more than 25% of the class time on non-academic use of their smart devices. In the study of Malana (2020), it revealed that majority of the students find difficulty in answering higher order questions which really resulted to low cognitive performance. The role of the teacher is brought out by responses to item 8 and 11 to which participants responded by missing the teacher on the online tasks which they (79%) feel would have kept their useless wanderings in check. The other reason cited for

distraction is that the tasks are not well designed for online engagement and therefore, the students move to other sites.

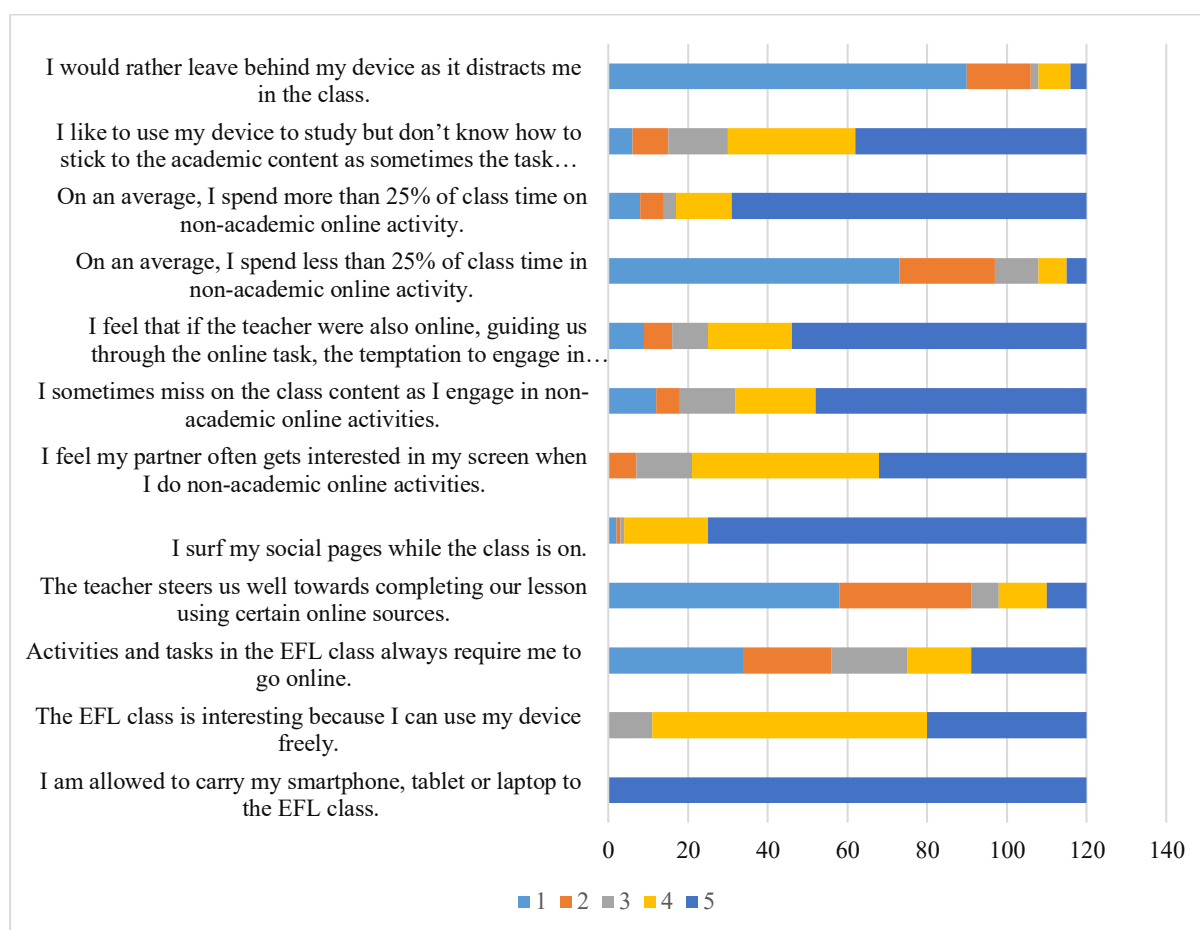


Figure 1. *Perception of Students on the Role of Technology in the EFL Classroom*

Discussion

Based from the findings presented, answering the research questions, it goes to the credit of the administration that Saudi Arabia today is competing with the technologically advanced nations of the west with being among the fastest growing populations to own smart devices and high-speed internet connectivity. With the active intervention of the Ministry of Education and the vision of the administration, smart devices are very much a part of the educational milieu.

Research Question 1. Are the Saudi youth separable from their smart devices in the classrooms?

The question on the separability of smart devices to the respondents in the classroom showed that most of the participants reported positive attitude towards the EFL classes because they are allowed or rather, encouraged to use their smart devices. It can be inferred from the finding that the usefulness and acceptability of smart devices in language courses is evidential in the high

assessment given by respondents leading them to become inseparable to their smart devices in the classroom. This finding shows that the respondents were able to experience the benefits of using smart phones to accomplish their learning tasks more efficiently. They find the benefits of smart devices, which adds a new learning dimension to their skills. Experts have reported smart devices learning as a way to enrich learning among students as well as provide positive interaction between the students and the instructor to promote purpose and active learning experiences (Abdullah & Ward, 2016; Liu, Li, & Carlsson, 2010; Liu, Zhao, Chau, & Tang, 2015; Nikou & Economides, 2017).

Research Question 2. How essential is it for the college learners of EFL to possess a smart device as a learning tool?

As to how essential for the college EFL learners to have smart device as learning tool, they saw themselves productive with the use of smart phones in their daily work. For them, the use of smart phones is generally advantageous and useful in their course. This finding supports the previous literature highlighting the usefulness and acceptability of smart phones among university students in China, Australia, United States of America and other European countries (Al-Emran, Elsherif, & Shaalan, 2016; Crompton & Burke, 2018; Han & Shin, 2016; Sung, Chang, & Liu, 2016; Yeap, Ramayah, & Soto-Acosta, 2016). For language learning, studies also proved that mobile learning generated linguistic and attitudinal effects showing that mobile learning significantly impact the acquisition and knowledge of language in the four macro skills and testing among university students (Ahn, 2018; Metruk, 2019; Yaman, Şenel, & Yeşilel, 2015; Yavuz, 2016). Therefore, the utilization of smart devices strongly supports second language learning and acquisition (Hsu, 2013; Viberg & Grönlund, 2012).

Research Question 3. Does the possession of smart devices lead to distraction in the class amongst the college students?

As to the possession of smart devices leading to the distraction of learning among the respondents, it is evidential that a majority of the respondents is rather disappointed at the teachers' inability to adequately guide the students on in its effective use, hence, students tend to wander off to non-academic online activities. Consequently, most of the participants reported their awareness to their online activity attracted the attention of their peers, drawing larger the circle of distracted students in the class. It is no wonder then, that large percentage of the participants reported losing on the lesson content as their attention to the learning process is diminished. This implies that when the students are not properly guided with the use of mobile learning, it will eventually lead for their

learning destruction. Similar findings have been reported by previous researches that when ICT is not properly utilized in the classroom it will caused destruction among learners. Rampersad (2012) and Sana, Weston and Cepeda (2013) found that that intrusion of technology in learning is counterproductive when self-direction is lack among the students. Awwad, Ayesh and Awwad (2013) who found via the self-report questionnaires that students did use smart devices for educational purposes, this was rather in a limited way and often they wandered into checking mails, exchanging messages, and chatting on-line while in class.

Conclusions

This present study assessed the perception of Saudi university students on the role of technology in EFL classroom. It employed a descriptive survey research design to a total of 120 non-random EFL students enrolled at three campuses of Qassim University, Saudi Arabia. The findings surfaced that the students manifest a favourable perception on the use of smart devices in EFL learning because they are encouraged to use their smart devices leading them to become inseparable to their smart devices in the classroom. Meanwhile, as to how essential for the college EFL learners to have smart device as learning tool, they saw themselves productive with the use of smart phones in their daily learning. For them, the use of smart phones is generally advantageous and useful in their course. As to the possession of smart devices leading to the distraction of learning among the respondents, it is evidential that most of the participants reported the inadequacy of skill of that teachers to creatively integrate technology into the learning process, making the intervention more of a superimposed compulsion than a fun tool that could enhance their learning experience.

Practical Teaching and Teaching Implications

The findings of this present study yield several practical and teaching implications on how can ICT be best integrated into the EFL learning environment so as to not be a cause of distraction but a useful learning tool. The following are offered: (1) incentive orientation for Saudi English language instructors to match their teaching strategies and methods to M-learning modality can be initiated; (2) training for language teachers to use M-learning in the classroom should be part of the faculty development program of the University; (4) before the use of mobile learning in English course, language teachers are encouraged to do pre-assessment the preferred learning styles of the students which can be the basis of initiating learning activities and tasks; (5) strengthen the provision of e-learning environment in the University to allow students achieve maximum benefits of M-learning; (6) assessment on the level of technology adoption and readiness of language

teachers in Mobile learning should also be assessed to address their practical and strategic needs; (7) The strong support of the university administration is sought.

Moreover, blended learning with judicious amount of space and scope for personalised teacher intervention needs to be studied in wider contexts. Even then, some educational software does boost learner performance more than other programmes, and why this is so needs to be carefully examined. Some novel applications of technology such as interactive whiteboards are often found attractive by language learners and their innovative use in EFL may be researched and encouraged. Including such technology means an active E-presence of the teacher to constructively guide the students, creating meaningful, authentic tasks and activities that integrate technology and not superimpose it in one artificial block over the traditional lecture method. Finally, studies with broader scope need to be undertaken to gain deeper insight into the dilemma before any conclusions can be established.

The Saudi youth can certainly not be isolated from the deluge of technology that has practically overtaken his counterparts anywhere in the world. Indeed, the youth recognise that education, especially in the EFL arena, cannot get ahead without partnering with technology. Also true is the fact that technology in the EFL classroom is a source of distraction, more often than not, affecting learning outcomes adversely as is shown by the poor language proficiency of the Saudi youth though budgetary spending on English education alone is second only to the allocation for Science and Technology. The key problem then lies in a fair evaluation of the teachers' role in ensuring that technology aids rather than hinders the learning process.

Limitations and Future Research Direction

The present study set its limitations which can be offshoot for further investigations and validation. Foremost, data of this study were mainly based on the self-assessment report of the respondents in one university in Saudi which is a significant limitation of the study. For further education, there is a need to increase the number of participating universities as well as the number of samples for more conclusive findings. Secondly, gender and age were the only personal variables covered in the study; there is a need to include other equality, individual, and school-related variables. Thirdly, the use of a hybrid research method and quasi-experimental research design are also encouraged for future investigations.

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Gender Perception of Euphemism Expressions: A Study of Saudi ESL Sojourners

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Abstract

This study examines the euphemism strategies used in the Arabic language. The research suggests strategies of euphemism found in Arabic speakers follow common patterns depending on the topic expressed through un-expression. This study posit cultural and religious beliefs impact Arabic language speakers who are on a sojourn status; however, this study also begins to examine the role of gender within the restructuring of oral expression dependent on the situation. It surveyed 318 respondents. The importance of this study is to understand public appropriateness and avoid communicative conflicts. Public appropriateness becomes an awareness issue, not only to facilitate polite conversations but also to be aware of secondary audiences or those not actively engaged in it. This moves beyond politeness to broader communicative concerns. To that end, this study approached euphemism by having respondents evaluate the expression on a Likert scale. The study compared evaluations gathered by an online survey. Respondents were presented with several social situations, each of which held the potential for objectionable speech. Responses were sorted and evaluated in regards to gender and education level in the analysis. The cross-analysis explores public understanding inside and outside of conversations.

Keywords: *Euphemism, Politeness, Gender, ESL Settings*

Introduction

Al-talatuf fel alfad /ətələtuf fil əlfæd/ is an Arabic phrase nearly synonymous with the English word euphemism. Like euphemism, Al-talatuf fel alfad is concerned with the good in speaking and how to speak properly. The English word euphuism—derived from Greek origins—enforces positive and public acceptance by not addressing taboo topics directly. Instead, surrogate words and phrases are used. Given that Arabic, Greek, and English all utilize words and phrases to redirect taboo topics suggests a level of universality. Independent of language and culture, the need to present matters acceptably seems notable. However, the methods used and rationale behind why does vary from culture to culture, language to language, generation to generation, and situation to situation.

Etymologically, euphemism is an English word taken from Greek. Euphemism can be broken into distinct morphemes: prefix “eu” meaning good and root “phemi” for speaking (Abu-Khadar 2010; Al-Husseini 2007; Hysi, 2011; McArthur, 1992; and Rawson, 1979). Rawson categorized euphemism into two types: positive and negative. Positive euphemisms “inflate and magnify.” That is to say, positive euphemisms grandiloquize. Conversely, negative euphemism “deflate and diminish.” Arabic *Al-talatuf fel alfad* similarly has positive and negative usages to “inflate and magnify” and “deflate and diminish,” respectively.

Euphemism makes a taboo—unpleasant or objectionable topic—more amenable for the listener (Leech, 1974: 53). Specific definitions of euphemism vary. Generally, it is a way to make subjects palatable to the listener so communication is not interrupted (Alkire, 2002: 1). Alkire noted euphemism distances the conversation from the challenge of taboo by somewhat removing the listener from the topic. Euphemism has also been described as “substituting a less distasteful word or phrase for something unpleasant (Bloor & Bloor, 2007: 73). Talbot (2010) claimed, euphemisms change the language to remove harsh, embarrassing, offensive, and distressing words (p. 36). In Talbot, these words are offensive in some way, but Talbot breaks down these unacceptable situations. Euphemism can be a technical version, or softer version, of an objectionable word. Euphemism is used to avoid disturbing someone.

Euphemism is culturally independent, as it frequently occurs in many cultures, generations, and situations. However, euphemism usage is culturally dependent on understanding taboo topics. Mental health, physical health, body functions, and talkativeness can all be Euphemized in Arabic.

Euphemistic substitutions happen in official communications, media, public speeches, religious texts, and in informal and private conversations.

Literature Review

All languages have euphemism, “All our evidence indicates that euphemism is a universal feature of language usage” (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 216). Although euphemism usage and acceptability varies according to culture, it has been specifically explored across many different languages, cultures, and time periods. Recently, Zhou and Wan (2018) explored euphemism in Chinese language and literature. Li (2017) used a grammatical analysis approach to exploring euphemism in both Chinese and English. Other English language euphemism studies of recent note include Pan’s “A Tentative Study on the Functions of Applications of English euphemism” (2013). In Russian language exploration of euphemism studies have also been recently published, including Kagileva’s “‘Political Correctness’: Interpretation Aspects” (2017). Dalamu’s “Euphemism: The Commonplace of Advertising Culture” (2018) looks across cultures and languages moving with the speed of marketing, negotiating a myriad of cultural taboos for profit. Demonstrating euphemism as a cross-cultural, multilingual concern is important, but this study focuses specifically upon Saudi Arabic dialect usage abroad. Other Saudi Arabic language explorations include Al-Azzam, et al. “Social and Cultural euphemism in Saudi Arabic: A Semantic, a Pragmatic and a Sociolinguistic Analysis” (2017) that explored linguistic phenomenon specifically within Saudi Arabian Arabic while mapping social and cultural pressures on various topics moving into digital dialogue. Sameer (2018) discussed how to develop and model euphemism in conjunction with translating the Qur’an. The paper explored euphemisms as the textual level deeper than word or sentence levels, pairing living culture with specific historic verses. Most euphemism structures have more narrowed focuses, like Sameer’s exact look at the Qur’an translation. Hadi (2019) examined specific synonym functions concerning political events. Rabab’ah and Alqarni (2012), Akan (2019) and (Muna & Tengku, 2017) looked specifically at translation problems and possible answers between Arabic and English language negotiation. Also, negotiating cross linguistic spaces is the concern of translating American hip-hop movies audiovisual translation of taboo words (Al-Yasin & Rabab’ah, 2019).

Euphemism is treated as a bridge between polite and impolite, a way to negotiate both concepts at once while maintain properly accepted attitudes. Since euphemism is being treated as a bridging concept between polite and impolite, politeness needs to be understood as well.

Politeness is an underlying concept because it often necessitates the use of euphemism. Defining politeness is beyond the scope of this immediate study, but does help frame the concepts within

the study and needs at least a working definition. Other researchers have worked more specially with politeness, and relevant work has helped shape the researcher's understanding of politeness. Foremost of note is Goffman (1967) "face-work" theoretical framework. Goffman defined the face concept as to how a person would like to be seen in society or politeness as the social mask that they wear through a combination of communicative social contexts. In Goffman, each society member attempts to save face in a different context and through different means.

Additionally, Widdowson (1990) wrote, "those participating in conversational encounters have to show care for the preservation of good relations by promoting the other's self-image, by avoiding offense" (cited in Khanfar, 2012: 109-110). Coupling Widdowson with Goffman, reveals one of the reasons society members wear public faces is to preserve good relations by avoiding offense. Brown and Levison explored face, "...consists of two related aspects: one is 'negative face,' or the right to get the freedom of action and freedom from imposition; the other is 'positive face,' the consistent positive self-image that people have and want to be appreciated by other people" (cited in Khanfar, 2012: 61). Brown and Levison's concepts are essential to remind us that face has both positive and negative aspects, members of society are not always working toward their ideal self, and/or do not always benefit others when trying to work toward their displayed personage.

Face then becomes a mask of politeness, not fully defining politeness, but rather shaping the explanation of why politeness and euphemism are utilized across societies and generations. For the purpose of this study, euphemisms are understood to exist as a way to extend politeness and shape face. Haung (2005) clarifies four circumstances in which euphemism is used, concepts which shaped the questionnaire used with respondents, which include:

- Avoiding taboo topics
- Expressing politeness
- Conceal
- Elegance

Respondents in this study were asked about a variety of social interactions, attempting to account for all four broad categories Haung discussed. Politeness and impoliteness have been studied not only in interpersonal communication but also in other contexts. Notably, Graham (2007) studied politeness in email communication, expressing discussing how email community members create an environment in which their identity is "(re)negotiated" (742). More recently, Touiserkani (2015) looked at how politeness worked in other modern multimodal texts with a case study of audiovisual translation aspects considered when translating the video game *Half Life2*.

This aspect of time and situation becomes important in framing this study's scope, but also in trying to apply its findings. Palmer (1993) noted that taboo meanings change with time, as people

try to avoid impolite or unpleasant words differently in different generations. Claire (1998) also examined taboo language, and the resulting euphemisms, over time, emphasizing the negative senses of taboo expressions can become more positive. Conversely, other expressions gain more taboo status, pointing out that some words passed from generation to generation resulted in necessitated word substitutions because previously used phrases were no longer polite.

In this study, euphemism is used explicitly as an extension of politeness. Euphemism is being used as an important aspect of politeness. euphemism is a specific way face is negotiated to maintain politeness in social situations. Previously noted, Palmer and Claire couple well with Face and Politeness as understood through the critical research lens of Goffman, Widdowson, Khanfar, Brown and Levison. This specific working concept euphemism is accepted across several social fields such as sociolinguistic, pragmatics, psycholinguistics, and other relevant fields.

Older studies of euphemism use in the Arabic produced insightful framing for this study. Khanfar (2012) studied taboo, dysphemism, and double speak in Iraqi and other Arabic cultures. Khanfar found that Arab, educated or not, used polite forms in daily conversations to prove humbleness and politeness. Therefore, politeness is reflected in what they utter and what they do not utter. Khanfar's examination of Arabic prose, poetry, and Qur'an found that Arabs attempted to avoid harsh words and phrases in nearly all ways. Khanfar posited that Arabs attempted to avoid harsh words and phrases when referring to affairs, activities, concepts, and processes even when they needed to talk about—or refer to them—specifically. Notable, "Women Who Cough and Men Who Hunt: Taboo and euphemism (Kinaya) in the Medieval Islamic World" (Naaman, 2013) alluded to the origin of Arabic euphemism. Naaman discussed the euphemistic sense of Kinaya, a word used in medieval sources as a polite and acceptable term. Naaman introduced a specific evaluation of gendered euphemism uses and potential differences among Arabic users.

Al-Husseini (2007) conducted a comparative study on euphemism's nature in Arabic versus English languages, like Rabab'ah and Alqarni (2012), Akan (2019), and (Muna & Tengku, 2017). Al-Husseini (2007) took most of his Arabic data from the Qur'an. Al-Husseini extrapolated three different categories:

1. Expressions that are substituted for offensive ones.
2. Surnames that are used instead of first names to show solidarity and respect.
3. Using exaggeration euphemistic expressions to elevate the actual meaning.

Ultimately, Al-Husseini concluded both Arabic and English have some similarities but also differences in specifically how they handle euphemism, mostly concerning the three categories he derived. Shehab, Qadan, and Hussein (2014) voiced concerns about typical translations of Arabic euphemism into English, because it "wreaks havoc on the Arabic original" (189). Shehab, Qadan,

and Hussein suggested that such translations fundamentally change the cultural value. A loss occurs. This loss stems from the fundamental connections between language and culture and how intertwine euphemism is with what is said and not said orally because of culture. All of these opinions have their merits, despite their apparent disagreement. In due course, the tension between Al-Husseini's noted similarities and Shehab, et al., are explored in the study with respondents' data.

Euphemism Gender Differences

Previously noted, "Women Who Cough and Men Who Hunt: Taboo and euphemism (Kinaya) in the Medieval Islamic World" (Naaman, 2013) introduced not only historical perspective on Arabic euphemisms, but also the gender divided in usage. Earlier studies claimed euphemism across male and female genders, but often investigated each gender separately. Euphemism and gender were not always studied together against other cultural or context variables. However, earlier studies did find particular gender's euphemism usage along with other controlled variables such as topic, culture, education, etc.

Treating gender and euphemism relevant studies in historical order should look back as far as Lakoff (1975). Lakoff asserted that Western women possessed qualities stemming from feeling inferior within society, leading to traits such as hesitance, lack of confidence, and less than ideal speakers. Lakoff pointed to a lack of economic, social and political power as compared to the men around and over them in Western society. In fairness, Holmes (1993) disagreed. Holmes claimed that women were more sensitive to social and cultural values and the demands inherent therein. That sensitivity, in Holmes, created the need for women to use euphemism differently than men creating women focused on affective functions and interactions.

Historically, and philosophically, Brown and Levison (1987) explored face-saving and claimed that senders and receivers in a conversation were engaged in how they were perceived. Elyyan (1994) examined euphemism frequency usage in specific situations: illness, death, private body parts, etc. Elyyan worked, specifically with Jordanian Arabic, with tabooed terms and avoided subjects. The study suggests that employed euphemisms extend from one group to another due to differences in age, contextual variations, and social status. Euphemism becomes a double-edged sword in Rafenstein (2000). The function of euphemism presents facts in milder ways to avoid embarrassment, which can also be used to hide facts. Euphemism becomes obfuscation and not just politeness in Rafenstein's exploration, "Nice Ways to Put It: euphemism." While Abrantes (2005) characterized topics that consider to be tabooed into three categories: shame-based topics (e.g., sex and body function); politeness-based topics (e.g., lying and insults, including

talkativeness); and fear-based topics (e.g., e.g., death and some diseases like mental condition) (87). Additionally, Allan and Burridge (1991) believed that context, motivation, and intention were important factors. Allan and Burridge saw these as determinants to euphemism usage. Rafenstien explored how those structures led to omission and outright lies.

"Aspects of Taboos and euphemism in Women's Language," concluded women replaced taboo words with euphemistic ones significantly more than men do (Hysi, 2011). Hysi's conclusion does not exclude men from the euphemism use, however found social factors guide conduct and thus euphemism. Nevertheless, she speculated women refrained from taboo words because of their greater sensitivity and sympathy.

Malkawi and Rabab'ah (2012) studied conversations in Jordanian Arabic between men and women. Malkawi and Rabab'ah looked specifically at the topic of health in Jordanian discussions. Their sociolinguistic study found that men tended to not ask about women's health due to inherited norms. This was especially true in front of foreigners or unmarried audiences. Results showed that women used proper forms of address and kinship terms to show solidarity. Malkawi and Rabab'ah's study goes against Lakoff claims that females were far more indirect and polite than males.

Moving from Jordanian to Algerian society, Ghounane (2014) focused on speakers of the Tlemcen dialect. Algerian people frequently used euphemism because of conservative norms. In Algeria, Tlemcen people, mainly, females avoided taboo in situations where there is a mix between the two genders. This was noted precisely when the tabooed topic involved masculinity and femininity. Females felt comfortable using tabooed topics in the presence of other women in situations of annoyance, anger, and infuriation.

This study attempts to combine personal knowledge with those topics and shape a survey that could account for discrepancies between and glaring lacks in other findings. Notably missing is the third party perspective. Previous scholarship focuses on face-to-face interactions but fails to explore third party viewers. Furthermore, the context of Saudi Arabian has not been as comprehensively investigated as broadly as this study attempts. Since Wafi (1983) asserted language carries culture and people's accurate history. Therefore, languages are most likely influenced by a number of social and linguistics factors such as religions, traditions, gender orientation, nations' cultures and family language planning, in various groupings, but also demonstrated to third party on-lookers (Alharthi, 2020).

Procedure and Significance

Uniquely, this study approached euphemism from a unique angle, examining respondent perspectives to evaluate expressions in given scenarios. This study compared respondent evaluations conducted via questionnaire. Respondents were presented with different social situations. Each of these situations held the potential for culturally objectionable speech. Respondents were sorted according to both gender and education level, and their responses analyzed.

The study strived to apprehend how understanding public appropriateness is necessary to avoid communicative conflicts. Therefore, public appropriateness becomes a public awareness issue, not only to stimulate politeness among speakers and their immediate audiences, but also among those who are attempting to be a third party or secondary audience and, more importantly, through cross-cultural communication. This moves beyond immediate politeness into larger communicative concerns.

Research Questions

The following research questions were given to participants in Arabic via emailed survey.

1. What is the standpoint of Saudis in regards to euphemism?
2. How gender (male vs. female) affect the standpoint of Saudis in regards to the choices of euphemism?
3. How the educational level impact the standpoint of Saudis in regards to the choices of euphemism?
4. Do mental condition, body function, and talkativeness topics impact the standpoint of Saudis in regards to the choices of euphemism?
5. Does formality impact the standpoint of Saudis in regards to the choices of euphemism?

Data & Methodology

The survey was conducted online. Qualtrics, a specialized website, was used to distribute surveys. Three hundred eighteen survey links were emailed to Saudi students studying in the United States. Represented were Central United States, Northeastern United States and the Southern United States. Specifically Boulder, CO, Storrs, CT, and Memphis, TN. It is notable that participants were Saudi expatriates living in the United States at the time of the survey. These locations were chosen for availability but did not actively shape the study model. Rather, these were students easiest to query. Only fully completed questionnaires were analyzed. Out of 318 respondents, 111 completed

the questionnaire, while 42 started but did not complete the questionnaire. Twelve days were given to complete the survey.

Questionnaires were developed in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). MSA is a widely used Arabic dialect. MSA is widely used in television, radio, magazines, and newspapers. This dialect choice should provide equal access to Saudi respondents, but can also be used when replicating this study in other Arabic regions utilizing modern Arabic media.

Arabic was pointedly used to examine perspectives on Arabic euphemism and not English. Culture and language are central to respondent perceptions with given scenarios. Those situations should not be translated into English because it changes the relationship to the scenario being described. By remaining in MSA, this study attempted to remove one level of cultural filtering. The English translation was not sent out as part of the survey but is provided to facilitate readers and future scholars. The English version (Appendix A2) attempts to translate with the closest meaning in English and replicate the original Arabic question, although it is notable that meaning would necessarily change in any translation.

The emailed questionnaire asked basic information about respondents regarding gender and educational levels. Gender was broken into the two binaries: male and female. Education levels were broken into four categories: high school, bachelors, masters, and PhD. Refer to tables 1 and 2 below for demographic information of the respondents to see the 30% increase in male respondents and near bell curve between education levels high school to Ph.D. of note; the age variable has not been included as a specific table as one of the demographic features of the study. However, the distribution of age can be approximated by the education level of respondents as the Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission's (SAM) regulations require age limits for each academic level. The full survey used can be seen in Appendix A1, and 2 in both Arabic and English

(Appendix A1 and A2).

Gender	Number	Percent
Male	71	64%
Female	40	36%
Total	111	100%

Table 1: Both genders were represented (64% male and 36% female).

Education	Number	Percent
High school	21	19%
Bachelors	36	32%
Masters	39	35%
PhD	15	14%

Total	111	100%
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Table 2: In the four education levels represented bachelors and masters are the largest groups who reported, 32% and 35% respectively.

After basic gender and education questions, respondents were presented with social situations. These involved some sensitivity judgment of topics: the use of a toilet, noting the presence of a person is considerably challenged, and similar circumstances. Each of the scenarios contained topics largely undiscussed directly in Saudi Arabian culture, thus taboo, and may need to utilize euphemism. The online survey presented the scenario with four possible terms for each topic. Respondents were asked to rate provided terms according to their self-perceptions of the euphemistic qualities.

Online surveys gather data about experience and perception, but they are most useful when responses have a quantification that can be analyzed mathematically. The Likert scale provided such a structure. The Likert scale takes responses from the survey and translates them into categories, often expressed from “extremely likely” to “not likely at all.” This survey utilized a five-point Likert scale to allow gathered views to be quantified into responses. Specifically, the 7 points were labeled *Very Euphemistic*, *Euphemistic*, *Neutral*, *UnEuphemistic*, or *Very UnEuphemistic*.

A combination of three topics and two settings were used to create six scenarios. The topics were the condition of mental health, the function of body, and talkativeness. The formality were the other two settings, i.e., formal situations and informal ones. Therefore, each given scenario pulled from one topic and one setting. As an example, two scenarios covered mental health, one asking about a formal setting and the other in an informal setting. To each scenario, respondents rated expression as *Very Euphemistic*, *Euphemistic*, *Neutral*, *UnEuphemistic*, or *Very UnEuphemistic*. That allowed the current study to gauge perspectives on the quality of euphemism usage based on ascribed labels. The study presented the scenarios without specifically labeling formal and informal for the respondents because it did not want to guide perceptions. Instead, the scenarios were presented without those labels, requiring respondents to infer the settings to allow for freest choice.

Because respondents were male and female Saudi Arabians living abroad, studying in the United States, a comparison was possible to analyze the sensitivity level of each gender. The perspective of the respondents is necessary here. Expected expression choices should be consistent because the study evaluates the influences of social contexts on euphemism usage.

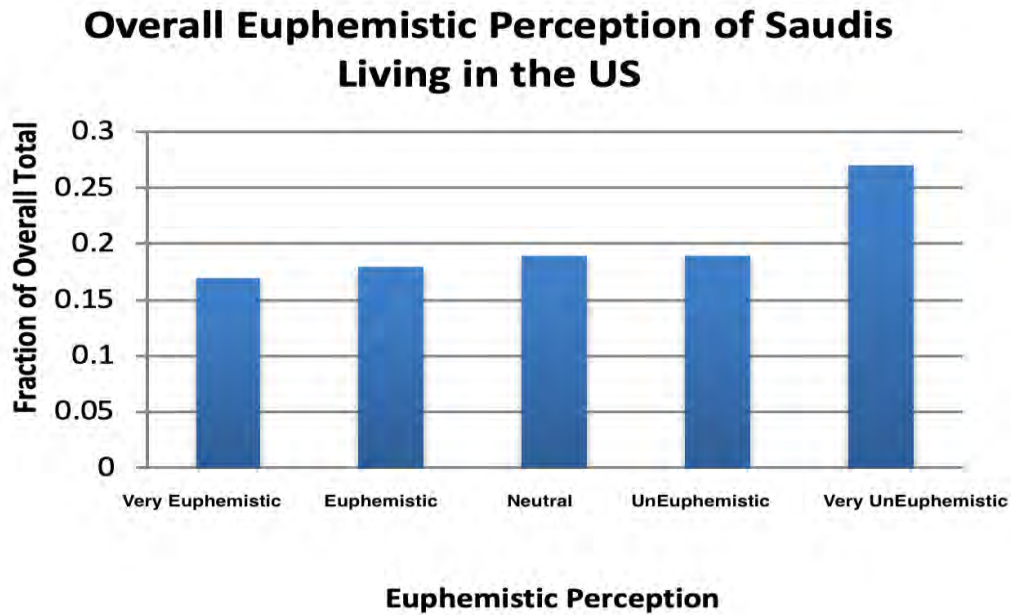
The study only concerned the perspectives of Saudi sojourns residing in the United States and whose L1 was Arabic language. Thus, it is anticipated that different results may yield if the same current study was conducted with participants who never studied abroad. Additionally, if the study was repeated with Saudi Arabians that did not reared in homes that taught Arabic as a primary language, those imposed limits are expected to be meaningful even though the exact meanings are outside the scope of this study. Therefore, results should not be extrapolated from this study to automatically generalize to the entire Saudi Arabian population. Similarly, this study focuses on scenarios presented in interpersonal communication.

Because data were categorical, the chi-square statistic was most appropriate for analysis. Chi-square did not depend on assumptions of normality associated with most parametric statistics, ergo those found with a T-test. P-Values were calculated and reported. Each P-value represents the probability within the answer categories. Because subsample sizes were unequal, more men than women and disparate education amounts, fractions were used in bar graphs to compare euphemistic assessment distributions. The math behind the Chi-square, P-value, and graphing was completed within MS Excel.

Results

Saudis Regarding Euphemism

Understanding this initial impression is important when contextualizing further answers. Answers provide a larger context for remaining research questions. Graph 1.1 demonstrates the overall euphemistic perception of Saudis who participated in this study. The data skews slightly toward the right of the graph *Neutral*, *UnEuphemistic*, and *Very UnEuphemistic*.



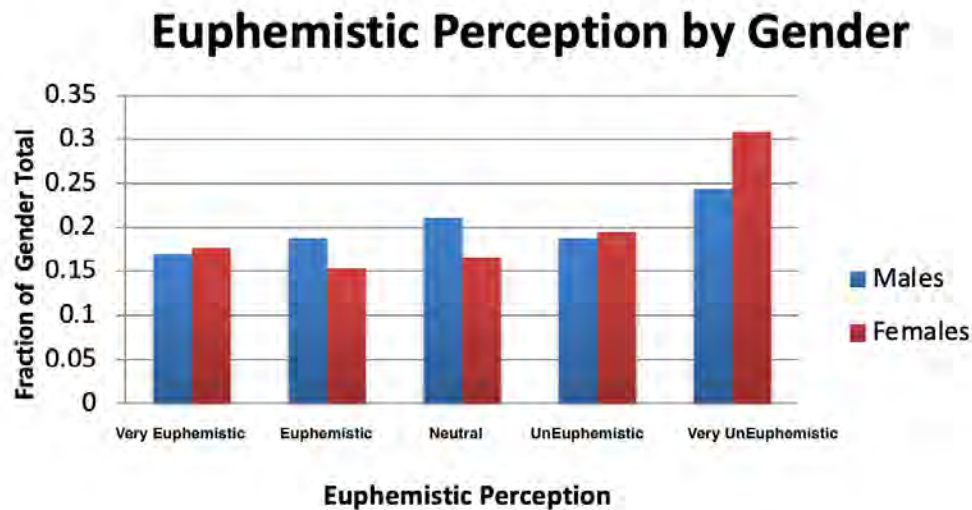
Graph 1.1 Euphemistic perception of Saudis currently living in the United States.

This question details specific variables: gender (male vs. female), educational level (high school, bachelors, masters, or doctorate), and formality (formal vs. informal).

The effect of gender in regards to the choices of euphemism

Degree of euphemism	Males (Actual)	Females (Actual)
Very Euphemistic	288	170
Euphemistic	321	147
Neutral	360	159
UnEuphemistic	321	187
Very UnEuphemistic	414	297
	Males (Expected)	Female (Expected)
Very Euphemistic	293	166
Euphemistic	299	170
Neutral	332	188
UnEuphemistic	325	184
Very UnEuphemistic	455	258
Chi-square	21.435	
Degrees of Freedom	4	
p-value	0.00026	

Table 2.1: Perception of euphemistic expressions by gender.



Graph 2.1: Shows the overall perception of euphemistic expressions by gender.

Table 2.1 and Graph 2.1 both cover genders' euphemistic perceptions. Table 2.1 shows the chi-square statistic revealed a significant difference as $p\text{-value} = 0.00026 < 0.05$. Results show one significant relation and four relationships approaching significance between respondents' male and female and corresponding perspectives regarding euphemistic expressions. Graph 2.1 shows the distribution of genders' perceptions across the scale. The overall distribution skews right toward *Neutral*, *UnEuphemistic*, and *Very UnEuphemistic*.

Perspectives differed. Even in this small sample size, the perspectives are shown to significantly or approaching significantly differ on how mental condition and body function. However, there was no evidence of any differences between gender perspectives pertaining to expressions for the talkativeness.

The following Tables are presented to show differences between males and females regarding individual expressions. The expressions covered, by the survey scenarios, include:

1. *Do my needs* in formal settings.
2. *Do my needs* in informal settings.
3. *Urinating* in formal settings.
4. *Urinating* in informal settings.

Gender / Perceived Degree of euphemism	Very Euphemistic	Euphemistic	Neutral	UnEuphemistic	Very UnEuphemistic	Total
Male	1 (.01)	5 (.07)	24 (.34)	19 (.27)	22 (.31)	71 (.64)
Female	0	3 (.08)	4 (0.1)	17 (.43)	16 (.4)	40 (.36)
Total	1 (.01)	8 (.07)	28 (.25)	36 (.32)	38 (.34)	111

Chi Square	8.88
Degrees of Freedom	4
p-value	0.06

Table 2.2: Gender perceptions of mental disability *handicapped* informal context

Table 2.2 shows Chi-square statistic approaching significance ($p\text{-value} = 0.06 < 0.10$). Results demonstrate significance between participant gender and perspectives regarding the expression *handicapped* in an informal context. It shows that male responses were most likely to be *Neutral*, *UnEuphemistic*, and *Very UnEuphemistic*; however, female responses was most likely to be *UnEuphemistic* and *Very UnEuphemistic*.

Gender / Perceived Degree of euphemism	Very Euphemistic	Euphemistic	Neutral	UnEuphemistic	Very UnEuphemistic	Total
Male	44 (.62)	16 (.23)	11 (.15)	0	0	71 (.64)
Female	23 (.58)	10 (.25)	3 (.08)	2 (.05)	2 (.05)	40 (.36)
Total	67 (.60)	26 (.23)	14 (.13)	2 (.02)	2 (.02)	111
Chi-square	8.55					
Degrees of Freedom	4					
p-value	0.07					

Table 2.3: Gender perception of *is he okay* informal context.

Table 2.3 demonstrates a difference in approaching significance. Table 2.3 break down the participant results revealed a difference approaching significance ($p\text{-value} = 0.07 < 0.10$) between respondent gender and attitudes concerning the euphemism *is he okay?* in the informal context. The data indicates female responses were similar to male responses, but overall, females seemed to perceive expression to be less euphemistic than males did.

Gender / Perceived Degree of euphemism	Very Euphemistic	Euphemistic	Neutral	UnEuphemistic	Very UnEuphemistic	Total
Male	15 (.21)	16 (.23)	28 (.39)	8 (.11)	4 (.06)	71 (.64)
Female	5 (.13)	6 (.15)	12 (.3)	10 (.16)	7 (.18)	40 (.36)
Total	20 (.18)	22 (.20)	40 (.36)	18 (.16)	11 (.10)	111
Chi-square	9.03					
Degrees of Freedom	4					
p-value	0.06					

Table 2.4: Gender perception of *do my needs* formal context

Table 2.4 shows the difference in approaching significance. Table 2.4 explores the chi-square revealed $p\text{-value} = 0.06 < 0.10$. Results show that male and female perspectives are significant. Overall, females perceive the expression to be less euphemistic than males.

Gender / Perceived Degree of euphemism	Very Euphemistic	Euphemistic	Neutral	UnEuphemistic	Very UnEuphemistic	Total
Male	23 (.32)	20 (.28)	22 (.31)	2 (.03)	4 (.06)	71 (.64)
Female	11 (.28)	3 (.08)	13 (.33)	7 (.18)	6 (.15)	40 (.36)
Total	34 (.31)	23 (.21)	35 (.32)	9 (.08)	10 (.09)	111
Chi-square	14.97					
Degrees of Freedom	4					
p-value	0.01					

Table 2.5: Gender perception of *do my needs* informal context

In Table 2.5, the Chi-square revealed significant difference with a $p\text{-value} = 0.01 < 0.05$. Results show a significant difference between respondent males and females and perspective regarding the euphemistic expression *do my needs* in the informal context. The data demonstrate that females seem to perceive the expressionless euphemistic than males in informal contexts.

Gender / Perceived Degree of euphemism	Very Euphemistic	Euphemistic	Neutral	UnEuphemistic	Very UnEuphemistic	Total
Male	1 (.01)	1 (.01)	5 (.07)	29 (.41)	35 (.49)	71 (.64)
Female	0	0	1 (.03)	8 (.2)	31 (.77)	40 (.36)
Total	1 (.01)	1 (.01)	6 (.05)	37 (.33)	66 (.59)	111
Chi-square	8.86					
Degrees of Freedom	4					
p-value	0.06					

Table 2.6: Gender perceptions of *urinating* formal context.

Table 2.6 demonstrates the Chi-square statistic approaching significance $p\text{-value} = 0.06 < 0.10$. Results show an approaching significance between gender and perspectives regarding *urinating* in the formal context. The data shows both genders perceived this expression to be not especially euphemistic. Males were divided *Not Euphemistic* and *Very UnEuphemistic*. Females answered *Very UnEuphemistic*.

Gender / Perceived Degree of euphemism	Very Euphemistic	Euphemistic	Neutral	UnEuphemistic	Very UnEuphemistic	Total
Male	1 (.01)	3 (.04)	19 (.27)	26 (.37)	22 (.31)	71 (.64)
Female	1 (.03)	3 (.08)	3 (.08)	13 (.33)	20 (.5)	40 (.36)
Total	2 (.02)	6 (.05)	22 (.20)	39 (.35)	42 (.38)	111
Chi-square	8.03					
Degrees of Freedom	4					
p-value	0.09					

Table 2.7: Gender perception of *urinating* informal context

Table 2.7 reveals Chi-square approaching significance $p\text{-value} = 0.09 < 0.10$. Results show the difference between respondents' gender and their perspectives regarding euphemistic expression *urinating* in informal context. The data indicates that female responses were somewhat similar to male, but overall females seem to perceive the expression to be less euphemistic than males. This finding was true for all difference, significant, or approaching significant for both mental condition and body function types throughout the questions.

The effect of educational level in regards to the choices of euphemism

Male - Perceived Degree of euphemism / Education Level	High school	Bachelor	Masters	PhD	Total
Very Euphemistic (actual)	53	96	93	46	288
Euphemistic (actual)	60	116	99	46	321
Neutral (actual)	69	122	98	71	360
UnEuphemistic (actual)	64	100	107	50	321
Very UnEuphemistic (actual)	66	142	155	51	414
Total	312	576	552	264	1704
Very Euphemistic (expected)	52.7	97.3	93.2	44.6	
Euphemistic (expected)	58.7	108.5	103.9	49.7	
Neutral (expected)	65.9	121.6	116.6	55.7	
UnEuphemistic (expected)	58.7	108.5	103.9	49.7	
Very UnEuphemistic (expected)	75.8	139.9	134.1	64.1	
Chi-square	16.864				
Degrees of Freedom	12				
p-value	0.15				

Table 3.1: Education level of male respondents regarding expressions

Table 3.1 reveals no significant difference $p\text{-value} = 0.15 > 0.05$. Results demonstrate no influence based on education level in male responses.

Perceived Degree of euphemism / Education Level	High school	Bachelor	Masters	PhD	Total
Very Euphemistic (actual)	29	64	62	15	170
Euphemistic (actual)	32	52	55	8	147
Neutral (actual)	23	43	70	24	160
UnEuphemistic (actual)	34	54	76	22	186
Very UnEuphemistic (actual)	74	75	121	27	297
Total	192	288	384	96	960
Very Euphemistic (expected)	34	51	68	17	
Euphemistic (expected)	29.4	44.1	58.8	14.7	
Neutral (expected)	32	48	64	16	
UnEuphemistic (expected)	37.2	55.8	74.4	18.6	
Very UnEuphemistic (expected)	59.4	89.1	118.8	29.7	
Chi-square	24.468				
Degrees of Freedom	12				

p-value	0.018
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Table 3.2: Education level of female respondents regarding expressions

Table 3.2 demonstrates the statistical significance $p\text{-value} = 0.018 < 0.05$. Results show an influence on education level on female responses. The data suggests that male participants were not influenced by education, but females were. Female responses yielded a significant difference on euphemistic perspectives. Table 3.1 reveals no significant difference $p\text{-value} = 0.15 > 0.05$. Results demonstrate no influence based on the educational level in male responses.

The effect of mental condition, body function, and talkativeness topics in regards to the choices of euphemism

Perceive Degree of euphemism	Very Euphemistic	Euphemistic	Neutral	UnEuphemistic	Very UnEuphemistic	Total
Mental (Actual)	79	53	82	108	246	568
Body (Actual)	123	150	141	78	76	568
Talk (Actual)	86	118	137	135	92	568
Totals	288	321	360	321	414	1704
Mental (Expected)	96	107	120	107	138	
Body (Expected)	96	107	120	107	138	
Talk (Expected)	96	107	120	107	138	
Chi-square	218.332					
Degrees of Freedom	8					
p-value	8.7E-43	(i.e., $8.7E-43 = 8.7 / 10^{43} = 0.87$).				

Table 4.1: Male perception by euphemistic topic.

Table 4.1 demonstrates statistic significant difference $p\text{-value} = 8.7E-43 < 0.05$. Results show the influences of topics. Male respondent perceptions were likely to be perceived by males as *Very UnEuphemistic*, *although* expressions related to body function yielded more evenly divided perceptions by males.

Perceived Degrees of Freedom	Very Euphemistic	Euphemistic	Neutral	UnEuphemistic	Very UnEuphemistic	Total
Mental (Actual)	46	24	22	62	166	320
Body (Actual)	83	65	63	45	64	320
Talk (Actual)	41	58	75	79	67	320
Totals	170	147	160	186	297	960
Mental (Expected)	56.6	49	53.3	62	99	
Body (Expected)	56.6	49	53.3	62	99	
Talk (Expected)	56.6	49	53.3	62	99	
Chi-square	144.554					
Degrees of Freedom	8					
p-value	2.7E-27	(i.e., $2.7E-27 = 2.7 / 10^{27} = 0.27$).				

Table 4.2: Female perception by euphemistic topic.

Table 4.2 demonstrates Chi-square statistic revealed a significant difference $p\text{-value} = 2.7\text{E-}27 < 0.05$. Mental condition, body function, and talkativeness results show variety in responses. Table 4.2 shows that expressions related to mental condition seem more likely to be perceived by females as *Very UnEuphemistic*. Nevertheless, expressions related to body function and talkativeness yielded more evenly divided perceptions by female participants. Data suggest that both male and female respondents have similar attitudes overall on these topics. This is most likely indicating larger social concerns than gender.

The effect of formality in regards to the choices of euphemism

Perceived Degrees of Freedom	Very Euphemistic	Euphemistic	Neutral	UnEuphemistic	Very UnEuphemistic	Total
Formal (Actual)	121	149	175	174	233	852
Informal (Actual)	167	172	185	147	181	852
Total	288	321	360	321	414	1704
Formal (Expected)	144	160.5	180	160.5	207	
Informal (Expected)	144	160.5	180	160.5	207	
Chi-square	18.075					
Degrees of Freedom	4					
p-value	0.0012					

Table 5.1: Male perception by formality context.

Table 5.1 demonstrates chi-square statistic revealed a significant difference $p\text{-value} = 0.0012 < 0.05$ for males. Results show the influence of formal or informal contexts. The data shows males were more likely to perceive expressions as *Very UnEuphemistic* used in a formal context; however, *Very Euphemistic* used in an informal context.

Perceived Degrees of Freedom	Very Euphemistic	Euphemistic	Neutral	UnEuphemistic	Very UnEuphemistic	Total
Formal (Actual)	77	70	80	94	159	480
Informal (Actual)	93	77	80	92	138	480
Total	170	147	160	186	297	960
Formal (Expected)	85	73.5	80	93	148.5	
Informal (Expected)	85	73.5	80	93	148.5	
Chi-square	3.345					
Degrees of Freedom	4					
p-value	0.50					

Table: 5.2: Female perception by formality context.

Table 5.2 demonstrates Chi-square statistic revealed no significant difference ($p\text{-value} = 0.50 < 0.05$) for females. Results show no influence of the formal and informal context. Data shows that

male responses were influenced by context, while female responses were not. Male responses yielded significant perspectives depending on the formal and informal contexts.

Discussion

It is important to reiterate that perspectives differed. Perspectives differed significantly or approaching significance for expression part of mental and body function topics. For the mental condition topics, there were two expressions that yielded differences approaching significance: 1. *Handicapped* in informal settings. 2. *Is he okay?* in informal settings. For the body function topic, there were four expressions that yielded a difference that was significant or approaching significance. Those expressions were: 1. *Do my needs* in formal settings. 2. *Do my needs* in informal settings. 3. *Urinating* in formal settings. 4. *Urinating* in informal settings.

The main question “what are gender differences in Saudi Arabian perceptions pertaining to euphemisms” is broken into subsets. From the data, females seemed more likely to perceive expressions: *handicapped*, *is he okay*, *do my needs*, and *urinating*. Differences, with significance or approaching significance, for both mental conditions and body function topics.

Different social, cultural, and contextual factors might explain female than male attitudes. Tendencies toward euphemism could be used to support the assertions that women are sensitive to social and cultural values and ensuing demands (Holmes, 1993). Holmes asserted that women focused on affective functions of interactions more so than men. Holmes disagreed with Lakoff’s (1975) assertions about hesitancy, unconfidence, and unidealized speakers.

Data collected also shows evidence that male respondents were not influenced by educational level. However, female respondents were. It can be posited that the level of education’s impact was not seen fully within each group. Overall, results reflect literature assertions that education was a significant variable. Hysi (2011) indicated euphemism is not employed heavily on gender-based only and that education, culture, social class, etc. have an impact. Saudi perspectives are shown to employ euphemism are influenced by these variables.

Data suggest male and female respondents had similar overall perspectives due to the influence of topic—mental condition, body function, and talkativeness. The topic variable influence was clearly seen in the perspectives of each gender were significantly different. Holistically, both genders were influenced by topic. Results support the fact that common cultural norms unify gender groups. Previous studies on Arabs and Arabic language in general show that there are internal motivations to use euphemism when taboo topics are needed. Data supports Elyyan (1994), showing tabooed terms avoided and substituted by less direct expressions. Elyyan worked specifically with Jordanian Arabic, but this study’s Saudi responses were similar.

Data from respondents revealed males were influenced by formal contexts while females were not. Male responses showed significant differences in perspectives in formal and informal contexts. Conclusions from literature understood that euphemism relies heavily on settings and is supported by this study. Specifically, Claire (1998) highlighted the importance of euphemism dependent on social contexts. Situational contexts help define what is or is not taboo. Wafi (1983) proclaimed that language carried culture in such a way that social factors demonstrate. Language, culture, and appropriateness change between the formal and informal contexts in the same way Claire understood social context.

Overall, gender differences play a vital role. Both genders place different values and perceptions upon the significances, taboos, and acceptability. Similarly, the interaction of gender with education level, topic, and formality result in major differences in the way euphemistic expressions were perceived and evaluated within the study. Keeping in mind, the study was limited to Saudi Arabians, with the first language of Arabic, studying in the United States in a small study. Further studies could focus on other topics, themes, areas, language primacy, and other factors to continue these findings. Future studies could also explore euphemisms outside of interpersonal situations and language usage, perhaps exploring formal writing, informal writing, digital communication, and mass media.

Conclusion

Specifically, second language learners intending to communicate with native Arabic speakers need to understand euphemism in the context of the original language and culture. If second language learners fail to understand how taboo topics are handled then embarrassment and discomfort may occur. Beyond unease, these embarrassing situations may result in a loss of face from the speaker, listeners, and third parties. In the context of this paper, anyone endeavoring to learn Arabic needs to understand how euphemism and taboo are handled in interpersonal communication. Beyond this study, Arabic language learners may also want to explore other types of communications structures of positive and negative euphemism. Other researchers have written about media, holy texts, and public speaking, as noted in the literature review.

Arabic primal language learners also need to remain aware of how euphemism is handled. Not incidentally, this study focused on Saudis living in the United States attending school. These participants were queried in Arabic to negate second language acquisition issues and reflect their original culture. However, consider each participant was also engaged in some way in American language, media, culture, and lifestyle. Age was not a primary distinction within the sample, other than understanding basic age ranges. However, some of these adult learners also have families.

Some may be raising children in Saudi homes within American culture. Future research should look at language and cultural norm preservation. However, primary Arabic speakers need to be cognizant of how they teach euphemism to their children to fully ensure the cultural *Al-talatuf fel alfad* can be understood by children learning Arabic at home and English outside the home concurrently.

Since euphemism occurs in all cultures, they are observed formally and informally in every society and to some degree in all human reactions. Understanding how euphemism works by focusing on one specific, definable occurrence—like expatriate Saudis living in America—allows for an inspection that informs about those limits. Hopefully, the inspection provides the reader with the tools to better understand not only that scenario but also begin to apply to other occurrences, in other situations, even in other languages and cultures.

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Oxymoron in Day-to-Day Speech

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Abstract

Oxymoron is a figure of speech results from the combination of two elements that stand in opposition, i.e., antonymous, to each other, for special effect. Among other effects of oxymoron is the effect of contradiction. People live in a world full of contradictions therefore they must have the ability to express contradictory situations and they must be able to grasp their meanings in their everyday life. To do so people have to use certain contradictory expressions in their communication with each other. Oxymoron is one of many tools that is used for making contradictions. This paper examines oxymoron along with its types and the oxymoron constructions in day-to-day speech used by people in English. The paper studies oxymoron from semantic standpoint. This is achieved through semantic analysis for many oxymoron examples that are gathered and randomly selected from different social media sites. The study shows that oxymoron is used in day-to-day speech. Specially one type of oxymoron which is called the poetic oxymoron, that is the most frequently used more than its counterpart the non-poetic oxymoron. Generally, oxymoron is frequently found in everyday language, and many are hardly noticed. Studying the pervasiveness of this figure suggests some underlying ability to conceive ideas, objects, and events in oxymoronic terms.

Keywords: *poetic, non-poetic, oxymoron*

Introduction

English has recently gained importance due to advances in information and communications technology (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020). Traditionally, figures of contradiction as irony, paradox, understatement and oxymoron are regarded as rhetorical figures. They have been viewed as characteristic of language as opposed to thought. They were taken to be seen in poetic literary style in contrast to day to day speech (Lakoff, 1992; Pederson, 2012). However, according to Herrero (2009), it has not until very recently that these tropes have been fully considered as conceptual mechanisms of meaning creation and deduction. Gibbs (1994) states that over the last years, research works in cognitive linguistics show that these tropes are considered purely reasoning tools, thus being crucial in everyday linguistic exchange and part of the figurative foundation for everyday thought. Contradiction tropes specially can illustrate how our conceptualization of contradictory situations motivates the need for speech and communication that reflect figurative strategies of thinking. Therefore, people can maintain and modify social relationships by recognizing contradictory situations, then commenting on them directly in ironic terms that include these figures of speech. According to Gibbs (1994) oxymoron is one of the most salient figures of thought and speech that reflect our contradictory understanding of experience. Oxymoron is a figure of speech in which two words that are semantically incompatible and saliently contradictory in meaning are intentionally attached to each other for special effect (Shen, 1978, 2007; Fletcher & Kelle, 1997; Ruday, 2017). This devise is based on the violation of the rules of the semantic compatibility of words, which creates the effect of surprise; give new meaning to phrases and verbal turns, and leads to new concept (Sakaeva & Liya, 2017). Semantically, oxymoron is being described as the most explicit and contrasted form of verbal opposition where the opposite elements become logically incompatible. On the surface, oxymoron expressions appear self-contradictory or illogical. However, they usually make a lot of sense and are often profoundly true, at a deeper level. In literature, oxymoron is used by poets and writers to attract reader's attention to apparent contradictions. It is a common device especially in poetic texts. It adds beauty, colors, emphasis, exaggeration, humor, and irony. It is used to create paradoxical, dramatic, contradictory, dramatic and poetic effects.

One of the central aims of the present paper is to examine oxymoron along with its types and structure in day-to-day language. Following Shen's (1978) point of view, the paper claims that people use oxymoron as figures of speech automatically and unconsciously to the degree, it goes sometimes without being noticed in everyday communication. Oxymoron does not

“simply represent figures of speech but also reflects poetic schemes for conceptualizing human experience and the external world.” (Gibbs, 1994, P. 295).

The Structure and Types of Oxymoron:

The present study follows Shen’s (1978) classification of oxymoron. He classifies oxymoron into two basic types: direct and indirect oxymoron. Shen (1978) distinguished between these two types in terms of their internal semantic structure. He analyzed the internal semantic structure of oxymoron in large scale of poetic corpus and his main findings were: It is the indirect oxymoron that is the most frequent and dominant in the poetic corpus more than the direct oxymoron, which its frequency is very low. This means that in a poetic discourse the indirect oxymoron is characterized as the poetic oxymoron while the direct is characterized as the non-poetic oxymoron. His distinction between these two types is built upon the sense relations obtained between the two terms composing the oxymoron. It is worthwhile to mention that comprehension of oxymoron is driven by the conceptual knowledge designated by the structure of a particular oxymoron (Gibbs & Kearney, 1994).

The Direct Oxymoron

Semantically, the internal structure of the direct oxymoron is comprised from two elements that are direct antonyms (Shen, 1978 & 2000; Gibbs, 1994; Gibbs and Kearney, 1994). According to Kuiken (2008, p. 76) “in direct antonyms, there are two opposite poles on a certain dimension like hot/cold, two opposite values on a distinguishing feature like man/woman or incompatible attributes like square/cycle.” Lexical items are direct antonyms when they represent two opposite poles on certain semantic dimension. The two antonymous terms are consecutive lexical items, which are directly contradict each other, i.e., the first word appears and its antonym follows. ‘Cruel kindnesses’, ‘Feminine man and heavy lightness’ are examples of direct oxymoron. A detailed explanation will be dealt with in the next section under the heading componential analysis

The Indirect Oxymoron

This oxymoron consists of two elements in which one of them is not the direct antonym of the other, but rather the hyponym of its first term or vice versa of the antonym Shen, 1978; Shen, 2000; Gibbs, 1994; Gibbs & Kearney 1994). Semantically, the two lexical items that comprise this oxymoron are not antonymous in a direct way, because one of the opposite elements usually the second is a hyponym of the other element’s antonym usually the first like ‘sweet sorrow’, ‘bright smoke’, and ‘sacred garbage’ (Shen, 1978). According to the definition ‘sorrow’, for example, which is the second term is not the direct opposite of ‘sweet’, but it is one of the basic components of ‘bitter’ entities. This is because of the internal semantic

structure of this type is based on sense relations of meaning between these two elements. This type of oxymoron is also called the poetic oxymoron as it characterizes the poetic text.

Semantic Perspective of the Structure of Oxymoron

From semantic standpoint, oxymoron involves a relation of opposition between the meanings of two words. This relation of opposition is a semantic relation between the meanings of two lexical items; therefore, it is handled within a lexical framework (Shen, 1978). One of the well-known semantic theories, which explains how meanings are structured and how features of different semantic opposition can be combined, is the componential analysis theory (Lyons, 1977; Leech, 1981).

Componential Analysis (CA)

The meanings of individual words can be analyzed in a number of ways. One method of analysis is the componential analysis or abbreviated as CA. This theory is based on the concept of semantic contrast phenomenon that is the meaning or the word sense namely a lexical item, which form a large and indefinite set of meanings, is reduced to a relatively small set of distinctive features or contrastive components (Lyons, 1977; Leech, 1981). CA attempts to treat these semantic contrastive components in terms of 'binary' opposites. In those binary terms, there is only one feature or component at to label and distinguish between the two terms in the binary in terms of pluses and minuses (Lyons, 1977; Leech, 1981). The use of a plus "+" sign or a minus "-" sign is to distinguish between the positive and negative values of the semantic feature. This feature in turn is employed with respect to the value of variable or the component. Therefore, features of an opposition are labelled by the sign "+", those labelled by the "-" sign to distinguish linguistically the positive and negative values of the semantic components that is used for the meaning variables. The semantic features are structured and organized within a hierarchical structure that is some of them are higher than others. The hierarchical structuring is significant, since the semantic features of a given lexical item do not equally represent the meaning of the item. It is rather the lowest feature(s), which is (are) the distinctive one(s) and bear most of the semantic load in that its function is to distinguish the lexical item in question from its neighboring item. Thus, what distinguishes for example 'girl' from 'boy' is the lowest distinctive semantic feature, i.e., the "'-/+ male'" (Lyons, 1977; Leech 1981). Lyons (1977), Shen (1978), and Leech (1981) state that the basic sense relations, which come out from this method, are important for the study of semantic structure of opposition are that of antonym and hyponym.

The Antonym Sense Relation

Lyons (1986) states that one of the most important and semantic relations is antonymy, or oppositeness of meaning'. Lyons explains that antonyms existence in a large quantity in the vocabulary of human languages is related to human beings' general tendency to think in oppositeness, i.e., to polarize experience and judgment. Antonym means two words of opposite meaning. When two terms are antonyms, they share all their semantic features reserve for a shift in the “-/+” sign of their distinctive feature. Thus, for example in binary opposition like ‘girl/boy’ the meaning of the lexeme ‘girl’ is said to be distinguished by the semantic components ‘human’, ‘non-adult’, ‘non-male’. Components such as these are presented as [+HUMAN][-ADULT][-MALE]. The same applies to the lexeme ‘boy’ for example has the same semantic features except for ‘non-male’ will be ‘male’. The components are presented as [+HUMAN][-ADULT] [-MALE]. According to Leech (1981) the meanings, which are expressed by two words for example, are incongruous if one includes features at least one feature opposed to the feature in the other. Therefore, the meaning of ‘girl’ is irreconcilable with ‘boy’ because of the discordance between “[-MALE] and [+MALE]”. It is the distinctive feature, the ‘-/+male’ which distinguishes ‘girl’ from ‘boy’ not the other semantic features which are identical.

The Hyponym Sense Relation

Hyponym as a sense relation is an important as the relations of opposition and contrast. It is the relation that holds between a more specific or subordinate lexeme and a more general or superordinate lexeme (Lyons, 1971; Leech, 1981). Hyponym is based on the notion of meaning encapsulation. This is because hyponym as a relation of sense rests upon encapsulation of some syntagmatic modification of sense of the superordinate lexeme. Hyponym is a relationship of meaning which exists between two meanings when “one componential format contains all the features present in the other. Thus ‘woman’ is hyponymous to ‘grown-up’, because the two features making up the definition ‘grown-up’ [+HUMAN] [+ADULT] [-MALE]” (Leech, 1981). The lexeme ‘grown up’ is also hyponymous to ‘female’ and ‘human being’ (Leech, 1981, p.92).

Method

The nature of this research is descriptive qualitative. The object of the research is the analysis of oxymoron expressions found in selected examples in everyday language. The research methodology is conducted by observing and examining a sample of oxymoron expressions, which are further subdivided and classified in order to reveal the types and frequencies of oxymoron types following Shen’s (1978) classification of types and structure of oxymoron.

These structures will be compared with respect to their frequency of use in a specific data. All numbers and percentages of oxymoron types in the sample are summed up in Table (1).

Data Collection

The data of this study are comprised of words and phrases that are containing oxymoron expressions and they are taken and selected randomly from different social media sites on the internet, like Facebook, Twitter, personal blogs and other personal sites. These sites generally and most of the time are used by ordinary people, i.e., they use their day-to-day language to communicate with each other. There are 273 oxymoron expressions that are selected as samples in this study. Considering the limited size of the material, not all the samples are being analyzed and the results can probably not be generalized, but they can hopefully show some interesting tendencies.

Data Analysis Method

Oxymoron expressions are being investigated in order to find out their use, types, semantic structure and the frequency of occurrence of each type. The present study analyses oxymoron from semantic standpoint. The componential analysis method is applied to analyze the internal semantic structure of oxymoron. For the purpose of analysis of the internal semantic structure of oxymoron, all samples of oxymoron are classified in accordance with Shen's (1978) classification of oxymoron types, namely into direct and indirect oxymoron. The total number of samples that contain the oxymoron expressions along with the numbers of each type are being calculated in order to find out the dominant type of oxymoron in the sample as shown in table (1).

Data Analysis

Analysis of the Direct Oxymoron internal semantic structure

A close analysis of the internal semantic structure of the direct oxymoron used in the sample shows that the direct oxymoron is composed from two elements that represent the direct antonyms.

1. "She cannot walk or feed herself and she barely speak. It is a living death".

Living Death is an example of direct oxymoron. The semantic structure of the direct oxymoron consists of two terms that are antonymous, namely 'living' and 'death'. The semantic feature list of the first term 'living' can be defined as (this is only a partial list): "+physical property, +state, +incident, matter, +biology +organism, +animate, +human +existence ...+live". The direct antonym of 'live' is lexically realized by the lexical item die whose semantic feature list consists of the same features of live save for the replacements of the "+sign" of the distinctive feature 'live' (namely "+live") by the "-" sign. Literary speaking, this expression seems

nonsensical in that to be alive is not to be dead. How can a person be both alive and dead at the same time? It makes no sense. This apparent contradiction may refer to a life that is full of suffering it would be better to be dead. A life of hopeless and unbroken misery and a life emptied of joys and satisfaction.

2. *"He has bittersweet memories of summer camp."*

Here "bitter" and "sweet" are two lexical terms that introduce two contradictory poles that have clear semantic dimension of bitter entities. Here, the semantic structure of the direct oxymoron consists of two terms "bitter" and "sweet". Bitter can be defined as (and this is a partial list): "+adjective, +concrete, + physical prosperity, +sensual, + taste, +perception..., -pleasing, +sorrow, - sweet". The opposite of "bitter", its antonym, is lexically recognized by the word "sweet" whose feature list consists of the same features for "bitter" save for the replacement of the "+" sign for the lowest distinctive feature "bitter" (namely "-sweet" by the "-" sign. Literary speaking, this expression seems nonsensical in that sweet is not bitter.

A bitter thing cannot be sweet at the same time. The example of bittersweet is a two-word opposite expression; refers to something that appears to be contradictory, but it is actually possible. It is said to describe a situation where two feelings are in opposition and balanced at the same time. Sometimes bitterness, which may include sorrow, unpleasing feelings and experiences, can lead to certain degree of happiness, pleasing feelings, memories, or experiences that are happy and sad at the same time or a pleasure mixed with overtones of sadness.

3. *"There was a love hate relationship between the two neighboring states."*

The two terms love and hate, which comprise this oxymoron, are direct antonyms. They represent the same semantic dimension that is of emotions. In the case of love hate, the two antonyms present opposite poles regarding the semantic feature "+/- love". The semantic feature list of the two terms "love" and "hate" may include (+noun, + abstract +uncountable, +animate, + human, +state, +emotion, + intensity, ..., +/- love". What distinguishes love from hate is the lowest contrastive component (namely "+/-love").

Literary speaking, this expression seems nonsensical in that to love is not to hate. Love and hate saliently contradict each other. Normally People who love somebody or something cannot hate that person or thing at the same time. Love hate expression refers to someone or something about which one has mixed feelings. It describes strong opposing emotions that often occur together, also this expression shows how the friction between those two contradictory intense feelings. It shows sometimes the complexity of emotion someone undergoes. It sometimes used as a joke of certain serious situation.

4. *"It always seemed to me a sort of clever stupidity only to have one sort of talent."*

The word "clever" may be conceived as being composed of the following concepts or semantic features: "+adjective, +property, +human, +evaluative, +epithet ... +intellect". The word "clever" is contradictory to "stupid", that is, they are direct antonyms to each other because they hold at least one semantic feature in common. Both words have the semantic feature (+/- intellect) and both words share the semantic feature that are antonymous of each other-that is of (+clever) in clever and (-clever), in stupid. These are also antonymous because the pair of antonymous semantic feature are antonymous on the common semantic domain of intelligence scale.

Semantically, clever stupidity describes a person who is intelligent in one limited sphere, but inept in other areas and engages in correspondingly stupid behavior in certain situations. This expression may suggest a sense of humor or it may show the complexity of a situation where two obvious opposite things illogical but at the same time are true literally or imaginatively such as cleverness and stupidity.

5. *"So many bunked in the class, and that is why the class has weak strength."*

The two terms of this expression are "weak" and "strength." The semantic feature list of the first term, "weak," can be defined as (this is only a partial list): "+adjective, +physical property, +prosperity, +matter, +attribute, +state, +action, +character ... -strength. Lexically, the word "strong" which is realized as the direct antonym of "weak. Thus, the semantic feature list "strong" consists of the same features for "weak" save for the replacement of the "+" sign of the distinctive feature "weak" namely "-strength") by the "-" sign. These are also antonymous because the pair of antonymous semantic feature are antonymous on the common semantic domain of strength. Weak is the opposite of strong. They are complementary opposites within a greater whole. Anything weak is lacking in strength or power. The contradiction is heightened here to indicate the weakness of the strength, i.e., sometimes even in strength there is a weakness.

The analysis of the Semantic Internal Structure of the Indirect Oxymoron:

In this structure, we have two opposite terms, which are not the direct antonym of the other but rather the hyponym of its antonym.

1. *"I let silent scream as the cat walked through the door carrying a dead bird."*

The internal structure of this oxymoron "silent scream" is analysed as follows the phrase consists of two terms "silent" and "scream". The feature list of the first term, "silence," can be defined as (this is only a partial list): "+adjective, +sensual, -count, -sound." The antonym of "silence" is lexically realized by the word "sound" whose feature list consists of the same

features for "silent" save for the replacement of the "+" sign of the distinctive feature "silence" (namely "-sound") by the "-" sign. However, the second term of the oxymoron is not "sound" but its hyponym, i.e., "scream"; the feature list of this latter term adds the feature "+loudness" to those of "sound," and this addition turns "scream" into a hyponym of "silence." Therefore, "scream" represents the hyponym of sound that is the direct antonym of silence.

Literary speaking, this expression seems nonsensical in that a scream is not silent. It is used to highlight contradiction. It can be used when someone is in so much pain, or in frightened situation. It causes a lack of sound to escape the mouth. Usually due to shock or intense amount of pain or fear to the body.

2. *"Everyone at the party knew about Sarah's new boyfriend as it was an open secret."*

This oxymoron is composed of two elements "open" and "secret". The direct antonym of open is close not secret. However, the second term of the oxymoron secret is conceived as an example, i.e., that is a hyponym, of closed entities which are the direct antonym of the first term "open". Literary speaking, this expression seems nonsensical in that a secret must not be open or declared. If something is secret, no one else is supposed to know about. This oxymoron describes a fact that started off a secret, but now a select number of people know about it. Many people will gossip about this secret, and they will spread it further. Therefore, and for contradictory effect, here this oxymoron expression describes a supposed secret that is in fact known to many people.

3. *"Smile, even if it's a sad smile, because sadder than a sad smile is the sadness of not knowing how to smile."*

This phrase consists of two terms "sad" and "smile". The semantic feature list of the first term, "sad," can be defined as (this is only a partial list): "+attribute, +feeling, -count,..., -happy." The antonym of "sad" is lexically realized by the word "happy" whose feature list consists of the same features for "sad" save for the replacement of the "+" sign of the distinctive feature "sad" (namely "-happy") by the "-" sign. However, the second term of the oxymoron is not "happy" but its hyponym, i.e., "smile"; the feature list of this latter term adds the feature "+beam" to those of "happy," and this addition turns "smile" into a hyponym of "happy." Therefore, "smile" represents the hyponym of happy that is the direct antonym of sad.

Literary speaking, this expression seems nonsensical sad and smile are in opposition to each other. A smile is supposed to be a happy smile not sad smile. This contradictory expression may describe a complexity in one's psychological and emotional situation. It may refer to a happy kind of sadness, or sad kind of happiness. While genuine, happy smiles exist, the 'non-enjoyment' smiles are less about what one's feeling inside and more about what he or she

wants to signal to others. A contradictory effect has been highlighted here. It is a way of showing that someone is sad or in pain.

4. *“The teacher told James not to be such a big baby when he complained about having too much homework.”*

In this oxymoron “baby” is not the direct opposite of “big”, but it is a type or a hyponym of the superordinate category of small entities which is the direct antonym of “big.” Literary speaking, this expression seems nonsensical because all babies are small. The word “big” is added to emphasize the fact that someone is acting more childish than one would expect. All babies can behave in a childish way but, for some reason, adding the word big communicates that the person being talked about is even more childish than a regular sized baby.

5. *“You have made a living corpse out of her.”*

The lexical features of the first term “living” can be defined as (+live). Lexically, the antonym of “live” is the word “dead” whose feature list consists of the same feature for live for the replacement of “+” sign save for the lowest distinctive semantic feature of live (+ live) by the “-” sign. On the other hand, “corpse” is the hyponym not dead in the second term of the oxymoron. So, corpse represents the hyponym of dead that is the direct antonym of “live”. Here there is an apparent contradiction between live and corpse how does a corpse that is supposed to be dead be a living one. Instead, a corpse should refer to a dead body. The oxymoron here describes a situation where a person who is referred to a corpse has been crushed by suffering. People are being resembled by a corpse because they feel like they are in a never-ending nightmare without all hope to live. Many of them want to die but they linger between life and death.

Results

The results that have been obtained from the semantic analysis of the internal semantic structure of the two types of oxymoron found in the sample have shown the following: Oxymoron falls into two main classifications: direct and indirect. A systematic analysis of the oxymoron corpus identifies 273 oxymoron. The first fact emerging from this analysis is that indirect oxymoron is the most frequent devices in everyday discourse, with an average of 74% occurrences, versus 26% occurrence respectively, for the direct one. The indirect oxymoron or the poetic oxymoron is the most frequently used type and it is more dominant than the direct type that its frequency is very low. This means that the oxymoron is not solely constrained to literary and poetic styles. Since it is the indirect oxymoron that is most frequently used in everyday language, it means that, from a cognitive point of view, the structure of this poetic type of oxymoron is more

natural, simpler and easier to comprehend and to recall than that of the non-poetic oxymoron. This is because the semantic structure of the indirect oxymoron exhibits certain structural features. This means that the two terms of the indirect oxymoron can be related and linked in several manners than they do in the direct one, thus easing the process of interpretation. It is easier for people to create features that are more innovative from the combination of two words that composed the indirect oxymoron than that they do for the direct oxymoron. This is because a larger number of semantic features can be materialized from interpreting the amalgamation of features. Therefore, it is more facilitating for people to ascribe meaning to the poetic oxymoron, than for the direct non-poetic oxymoron.

Table 1 Frequency of oxymoron types

Types	Time of occurrence	Percentage
Direct Oxymoron	71	26%
Indirect Oxymoron	203	74%
Total	273	100%

Conclusion

Based on the results and the data analysis the following conclusion can be drawn: The aim of this paper is to study oxymoron and its employment in day-to-day language. The analysis in this paper identifies and examines the types and the internal semantic structure of oxymoron that occurs in the selected data from everyday language. The total number of oxymoron expressions used in this study is 273; of 203 is indirect oxymoron while 71 is direct oxymoron. These results prove that oxymoron is not solely limited to literary style and the poetry texts. Oxymoron is often used in literature, but also it also as the study shows can be used frequently in everyday language, people may use them consciously without being aware that they are using them. It can be said that most frequently used and the dominant type of oxymoron is the indirect oxymoron that is the poetic oxymoron. This study suggests that people have the ability to use contradictions and see an alternative side of persons or situations in life that cannot be grasped at the same time. Therefore, they are able to conceptually grasp in a single stance two things that are clearly contradictory to each other. Oxymoron expressions are not merely figurative speech tools but they can be considered as reasoning tools, thus being crucial in everyday linguistic exchanges and also for meaning creation. Oxymoron is an important literary device not only in literary style but also in everyday communication because it allows both authors and ordinary people to use contradictory, contrasting concepts that are juxtaposed

together in a manner that in fact results in making sense in a strange and rather complex manner. It is used by people deliberately to attract people's attention to contradictions to make others pause and think. As study shows that oxymoron is an intriguing literary device because it helps to comprehend a profound level of truth and explore various layers of semantics in any linguistic communication. In everyday communication, however, people do not use oxymoron to form deep statements just like those that are used in poetic and literary texts. Instead, they are doing it to show wit. The employment of oxymoron adds flavor to their speech.

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**Assessing language need and proficiency of English graduates of
Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University for designing pre-placement
training and workshops**

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Abstract

English is considered a lingua franca and so it is commonly used and required to run all fields. Academic professionals are in dire need to fulfill the requirements of the intended workplace. Unfortunately, most of the graduates in Saudi Arabia after their graduation are not competent enough for the job requirement. This study focuses on communication gaps in terms of English needs and proficiency by the 2020 graduate students of Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, KSA. The present discussion clearly states that language proficiency is not only based on grammatical knowledge but appropriate use of language according to the set context, which is also vital in communication. The research aims to examine the need and skills in the

English language at the workforce and remedial measures. For this purpose, a mixed approach has been used in the present study. The language need analysis of the academic professionals will be governed by interviews and proficiency is tested via DILANG test in order to gain a deep insight into the research. The tool used in the present research interviews. The present research conducted semi-structured interviews to collect data according to the need of workforce and graduates' proficiency needs. The interviews were adapted from CEF Professional project. The participants were briefed about the questions of the interview starting from general to the specific language use at the workplace.

Keywords: *language proficiency, language need, academic professional, ESP, DILANG*

Introduction

English language is becoming more important as a universal means of communication, particularly after the recent advances in technology that have brought people of different cultures and countries closer to one another (Alzeebaree & Yavuz, 2017, as cited in Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020; Al-Ghamdi & Alrefaee, 2020; Nasser, 2020). English is a language that is used worldwide. It is required in almost all professions. The success of professionals in their workplace largely depends on proficiency in the English language. The importance of the English language cannot be ignored in any field, whether it is science and technology, entertainment or business. As a part of globalization, it is expected that the demand of competent people with good communication skills is an effective formula in the working circle. It has also been observed that English being a lingua franca has been in practice in all professions. In the light of the above statements, the present study focuses on the communication barriers in terms of English needs and proficiency among the graduate students of the College of Science and Humanities at Sulail under Price Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, KSA. After their graduation, these students are expected to join different job titles in different sectors. Thus, it becomes necessary to understand their English needs and proficiency level so as to give them adequate placement training, so that they can be productive for the intended workplace.

The significance of English continues to grow in English language use and its learning. All parts of the world are being aware of the importance of the English language at all the workplaces. It is considered as a tool of communication for national as well as international purposes. It has become more common in written works of all fields. The spread of the English language has been discussed with various models. One of the most important was developed

by Kachru in 1985. The model presented three circles: expanding, outer and inner circle (Jenkins 2003: 15).

Kachru's Circle (1985) has propounded three circles of the English language (adapted from Crystal 2003: 61), which signifies the importance of the English language. In this model, the inner circle represents people who are English speakers i.e. The United States, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia and the most of the European countries. The countries like India, Pakistan, and Singapore are located in external circles where colonialism brought the English language in these countries, thus using English as the only official language. The third circle is the expanding circle where only the English language is used to interact with other societies but there is no formal recognition of the English language such as China and Russia. The spread of the English language has been demonstrated conveniently and has been recognized by many people.

Education or academia is one of the main fields to apt English as a medium of instruction or lingua franca. Mauranen (2010: 7), describes academia as universities and institutes focusing on the prominent work of publication. He states that these institutes work multidimensional and their members belong to different cultures and situations. Due to the multidimensionality of academia, members have to interact with people belonging to different communities around the world. Thus with the increasing pace of communication on a worldwide level, these workers are in need of a medium or language for successful interaction and thus the English language serves the purpose of a lingua franca. According to Mauranen, English serves the purpose of a world-known language that facilitates academic communication.

Literature review

Language proficiency has been given great importance and defined in various ways. The most important aspect in defining this is Noam Chomsky's competence and performance (Llurda 2000: 85). He considered competence as "the monolingual speaker-listener's knowledge of language" and performance as "the actual use of language in 26 real situations" (Bacarić & Mihaljević Djigunović, 2007: 95). In short, he considered the inner course of language as an entity different from the actual use of the language. His views on proficiency were reinforced based on grammatical knowledge by Hymes in 1972 to address communicative and linguistic social use of the language. He incorporated these aspects and coined the term communicative competency that ruled grammar and applied to real-life situations (Bacarić & Mihaljević Djigunović, 2007: 95).

Canale and Swain (1980) designed a three-component framework: Strategic competencies, socio-culture, and grammatical aspects (Harley et al. 1990: 9). Strategic competencies play an important role in every social interaction that comprehends both verbal and nonverbal messages.

The Council of Europe has recently identified language proficiency. Efficiency in the Common European Reference Framework (CEF, 2011: 9-11) refers to all aspects of knowledge, skills, and traits that learners learn in actual social interactions, and these competencies are divided into two categories: general competency and communicative competency. General competency deals with independent linguistic aspects and innate ability to learn. Communicative competence is based on the use of language in terms of pragmatic, social, and linguistic competency. Sociolinguistic competence is also influenced by cultural norms of the society like politeness and behavior in social interaction.

The current discussion clearly indicates that language proficiency depends not only on grammatical knowledge but also to the appropriate use of language according to the specific context. The context determines whether speaker is fluent in the target language or not. English as the focus of this study is seen as an awareness of different norms in communication. For a person who is described as competent and competent, the awareness of the standards associated with the English language is mandatory. The setting determines whether the speaker is capable of the target language. If English is to be a focal point in this test, it is seen as knowledge of the various writing standards. For an individual professional to be called able and skillful, familiarity with English language standards is essential. There are various factors for determining English proficiency for academic professionals as demonstrated in the present research. There are specific language skills that students must possess upon graduation while entering work fields (Finlex, 2004: 792). Those skills can be defined as the “ability to update their professional experience in their fields of study and to work successfully in an international work environment” (University of Jyväskylä’s Language center, n. d.).

However, the competency of academics concerning a specific job does not rely solely on proficiency in English rather expertise in related work, is also a vital component of professional competence. On the other hand, language flaws are of secondary importance in front of successful interaction and mettle to use English. The focus was on the message to be understood by the listeners rather than competent grammar and pronunciation. Language proficiency was based on the apt use of field-specific terminology. The mastery in the English language was not considered as an ultimate goal but successful interaction (Karjalainen & Lehtonen, 2005: 142).

The above discussion states that language proficiency is based on productive and receptive skills. It is not possible to separate communication skills from language performance at working places.

Methodology

The DIALANG test is employed in the present study. It is a system to diagnose language proficiency. The test takers are given feedback on their strengths and weaknesses. DIALANG can test skills of vocabulary, grammar, listening, reading, and writing (Lancaster University, n. d.).

A. Huhta (2010: 161-162) states that DIALING divides proficiency into grammatical as well as sociolinguistic components too i.e. how test-takers differ in their contexts. DIALANG test is a multi-dimensional test along with the feedback process. It can be used to test private and public circles that include working situations as well as inferred from the above discussions. The selection of DILANG over other tests is that other tests are commercial language testers therefore cannot be used in the present study. Apart from this, the aim of this testing is not to issue any certification but to diagnose the strength and weaknesses of academic professionals as per the diagnostic aspect of DIALANG, which is the main concern of the study. This aspect proves it the most appropriate test. Apart from this, DIALANG test is accessible at any time because it is an online test.

The language needs of the academic professionals of the College of Science and Humanities at Sulail under Price Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, KSA in the present study is determined by English for Specific Purpose (ESP) teaching traditions focusing on needs analysis of the targeted learners. As discussed earlier, the use of English language by the academic professionals in the institute has created certain expectations. These expectations can fall in the category of objective, subjective as well as personal requirement of the language in the context. It is necessary to explore the language needs of the academic professionals because of increasing use of lingua franca. The present study focuses on the demands of these professionals in terms of language use by exploring hurdles and helping them to be proficient in lingua franca. The study focuses on the subjective needs of the professionals.

Materials and Methods

The purpose of the research is to examine the English language need and proficiency at the workplace. For this purpose, mixed approach has been used in the present study. The language need analysis of the intended academic professionals will be governed by interviews and

proficiency is tested via DILANG test to gain a deep insight of the research. The tool used in the present research is interviews.

In the present study the 2020 graduate students of College of Science and Humanities at Sulail (Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University, KSA) were interviewed that is only a specific organization so the present research is a study case. Semi-structured interviews were conducted by the present research to gather data according to the needs of the intended professionals. The interviews were adapted from CEF Professional project. The participants were briefed about the questions of the interview starting from general to the specific language use at the workplace.

The research sample consisted of sixteen participants of College of Science and Humanities at Sulail who worked as researchers. The sample was selected because all these were expected to use English at their intended workplace. The academic professionals were tested based on writing, grammar and vocabulary. The DIALANG test didn't test the speaking skill due to technical constraints however the speaking and listening skills were addressed in the interviews of the participants. The test took one hour and forty minutes to complete the given assessment. Vocabulary Sized Placement Test was the part of DIALANG test to test the level of the vocabulary of the participants. The writing test was based on the accuracy, registers, and organization of the text.

Results

Needs analysis of Interviews

The data collected in the present study through interviews is analysed through qualitative analysis i.e. content analysis. Content analysis has been widely used to analyse communication content. It has been categorized into three approaches: inductive, deductive and theory-based analysis. In the present study the amalgamation of the inductive and deductive approach is applied for better transcription of the interviews. The data was transcribed word to word with special attention on the language use by the participants. The transcribed data was read many times and categorized into spoken interaction, written language and other aspects related to need analysis of the participants.

The need analysis of the interviews highlighted that spoken communication in a formal situation such as seminars, meetings and conferences is the most important due to involvement of a greater number of parties. There is greater pressure in these situations of the need to understand and to be understood. The demands of English language change according to the social situation. The need to be a proficient speaker is more important in formal situations

rather than taking to peers and attending a telephone call. In most situations the academic professional meet with almost hundred people, thus finding it difficult to talk to strangers and listening to fluent speakers

The need analysis also shows that challenges in written communication vary due to cultural differences. According to the participants, academic articles use words that vary from culture to culture. They state that email correspondence is the easiest way of communicating with others.

The last part of the needs analysis depends on the socio-cultural factors present in communicating with foreigners. The factors were: body language, dress code, politeness practices, and social ranks. This question was included in the needs analysis to know the non-linguistic factors in the various interactions.

Most of participants believe that social ranks do not matter in their interactions. They pay less attention and focus on choosing vocabulary according to social ranks. Academics value a person's accomplishments rather than titles. Therefore, it is inferred that matter is more important than the situation interaction. One must be very careful while choosing words to communicate with others in the community or society. The same words cannot be used in different social ranks. Relevance is just as important as accuracy and efficiency.

The aspect of body language was considered as the most important non-linguistic factor in every interaction involving the English language. The participants believed that body language comes into play when actual non-verbal communication is not understood by the other person. On the other hand, the politeness factor was considered as a difficult aspect in interaction with different people. The right amount of politeness should be practiced in formal situations of seminars and conferences but more level of politeness may lead to informal behavior. The part of non-verbal communication was considered as the most significant non-phonetic factor in each connection including the English language. The members accepted that non-verbal communication becomes possibly the most important factor when genuine non-verbal content isn't comprehended by the other individual. Then again, the amiability factor was considered as a troublesome perspective in association with various individuals. The perfect measure of amiability ought to be rehearsed informal circumstances of classes and gatherings yet progressively level of pleasantness may prompt casual conduct.

In order to conclude, the proficiency of the participants falls in the lower level of proficient users. The need analysis clearly states that participants need improvement in written and speaking aspect.

The Language Test

The analysis of DIALANG data is done both quantitatively and qualitatively. On quantitative analysis, the number of correct answers were calculated, even all the sub-skills were also taken into consideration and compared to one another either they were difficult form other or not.

In addition to this, qualitative analysis was also applied by discussing the importance of participants' performance in every skill in the language.

The DIALANG test was based on 30 questions. The questions consist of multiple choice answers, dropdown menus, short answers writing and a self-assessment question of yes and no.

The first step in the DIALANG test is a vocabulary test that determines the level of difficulty of the participants. The participants were asked to decide whether the 75 words presented were real words or not real words. The writing section of the test was based on self-analysis. Some participants scored more on the vocabulary test and less on the written test. Four participants succeeded test on intermediate level, while the other twelve cleared it on the difficulty level. The DIALING written test actually measured the correct use of words, appropriate language, and text accuracy. In this test six participants received a C1 level, eight participants fall in B2 level and two in C2 level.

The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) has suggested different proficiency levels for language proficiency. They are C2, C1, B2, B1, A2, and A1. It has described all the levels in detail. However, in nutshell C2 and C1 levels are described as a higher level of proficient user and lower level of proficient user respectively; B2 and B1 refer higher independent user and lower independent user; A2 and A1 are higher and lower basic user.

As previously described that VSPT (Vocabulary Sized Placement Test) also tested word registers and their organization with eight or nine questions, nine and ten questions were based on textual organization and language accuracy with eleven or thirteen questions. The table shows the correct answers for each participant.

Participants	Word register/ appropriacy	Textual organization	Language accuracy	CEFR level
i	7/8	9/9	11/13	C2
ii	5/8	6/9	5/13	B2
iii	7/8	6/9	11/13	C1
iv	8/8	6/9	9/13	C1

v	5/8	5/9	7/13	B2
vi	5/9	7/10	8/11	B2
vii	7/8	1/9	8/13	B2
viii	5/8	7/9	7/13	C1
ix	5/8	7/9	7/13	C1
x	7/8	1/9	8/11	B2
xi	7/8	1/9	8/13	B2
xii	5/8	5/9	7/13	B2
xiii	8/8	6/9	9/13	C1
xiv	7/8	9/9	11/13	C2
xv	5/8	6/9	5/13	B2
xvi	7/8	6/9	11/13	C1
Average score	6.25/8.07	5.5/9.06	8.25/12.75	C1
Right answers	77%	61%	65%	-

Generally, participants had difficulties in accuracy questions. None of the participants answered correctly. In textual and word register questions four participants had a correct answer.

The second aspect of the grammar was tested with questions related to Noun, Pronoun, Adjectives, Verb, numerals, Adverbs and other structures. The questions related to these aspects were more as compared to punctuation marks due to their more importance in language.

The detailed result of grammar is as follows:

Participant	Nouns	Pronouns	Adjectives & Adverbs	Verbs	Numerals	Punctuation	Word order	Other structures	CEFR level
i	4/4	3/4	1/1	5/7	2/2	2/2	5/5	5/5	C1
ii	4/4	3/3	2/3	3/3	3/4	0/2	6/6	4/4	B2
iii	4/4	3/4	1/1	5/7	2/2	1/2	5/5	5/5	C1
iv	4/4	4/4	1/1	4/7	1/2	1/2	4/5	4/5	B2
v	4/4	3/4	1/1	5/7	2/2	1/2	3/5	4/5	C1
vi	3/4	3/3	3/3	3/3	4/4	1/2	5/6	3/4	B2

vii	4/4	4/4	1/1	5/7	2/2	2/2	4/5	4/4	C1
viii	4/4	3/4	1/1	5/7	2/2	2/2	3/5	4/5	C1
ix	4/4	4/4	1/1	6/7	2/2	1/2	3/5	4/5	C1
x	3/4	3/3	3/3	3/3	3/4	1/2	5/7	4/4	B2
xi	4/4	4/4	1/1	4/7	2/2	2/2	4/5	4/5	C1
xii	4/4	3/4	1/1	5/7	2/2	1/2	3/5	4/4	C1
xiii	3/4	3/4	1/1	5/7	2/2	2/2	5/5	5/5	C1
xiv	4/4	3/3	2/3	3/3	4/4	0/2	6/7	3/5	B2
xv	4/4	3/4	1/1	4/7	2/2	2/2	5/5	5/5	C1
xvi	3/4	4/4	1/1	5/7	1/2	1/2	3/5	3/5	B2
Average score	3.75/4	3.32/3.75	1.4/1.5	4.38/6	2.25/2.5	1.25/2	4.32/5.38	4.06/4.68	C1
Right answers	94%	89%	94%	73%	90%	63%	80%	87%	-

As indicated by the table, the participants secured full in adjectives and adverbs due to its easy use. The questions based on Noun and Pronoun were comparatively easier for the participants and all the participants had good grammatical knowledge as seen in the above graph.

Discussion

The importance of English keeps on developing in English language use and its learning. All pieces of the world are monitoring the significance of the English language at all the work places. It is considered as an instrument of correspondence for national just as global purposes. It has gotten progressively basic in composed works all things considered. The present study focuses on the English language needs and proficiency of an academic professionals. It was explored by taking in view English as lingua franca and gaining proficiency in working fields. Moreover, the significant role of English in all spheres of life is self-evident.

The study adopted a mixed approach. Data was collected through needs analysis and DIALANG test, in which participants were judged in writing, vocabulary, and grammar. The investigation embraced a blended methodology. Information was gathered through the requirements of the participants and DIALANG test, in which members recorded their responses about Jargon and language structure in hard copy. It was additionally trailed by their self-evaluations. The expansion of meetings assisted with doing the necessities examination of

the students. The information gathered was analysed in their sub-abilities. The interpretation of meetings was finished with a blended methodology. This procedure considered information as the primary wellspring of giving data about the language needs and their capability levels. It was also followed by their self-assessments. The addition of interviews helped to carry out the needs analysis of the participants. The data collected was examined in their sub-skills also. The transcription of interviews was done with a mixed approach. This process considered data as the main source of providing information about the language needs and their proficiency levels.

The needs analysis was divided into two sections: spoken and written communication. The needs of the participants in terms of spoken and written communication are judged according to their language abilities and proficiencies. Pronunciation and accents were also judged when certain participants were talking. The requirements of the members as far as spoken and composed written material are decided by their language capacities and proficiencies. The participants were able to get the main points and could easily cope with the situations of daily life, could produce the same text on the provided topics. The members had the option to get the primary concerns and could undoubtedly adapt to the circumstances of the day by day life, could deliver similar content on the given subject. They could easily describe situations and experiences. They were above average level in speaking.

The participants showed that they were asked to speak English in front of larger group of people so they face speaking difficulty in facing the audience. The members demonstrated that they were solicited to communicate in English in front from a huge gathering of individuals so they face talking trouble in confronting the crowd. In addition, English is used in their written mode more as compared to their speaking modes. We can easily speculate the same findings supported by Karjalainen and Lehtonen (2005: 94) where working staffs used English more in written communication rather than speaking activities. As stated by the participants, their speaking skills need to be polished and considered as challenging in the present study especially in seminars and conferences. They need to focus more on their accents and pronunciation. It is also difficult for them to articulate the appropriate words. Articulation of appropriate and relevant words seemed a great task for them. And they felt reluctant to deliver at a particular time. They also considered that interaction with strangers was also challenging and risk-taking in terms of pronunciation.

According to the participants the oral competency needs to be improved as they considered it as a key of strengthening their positions at workplace. In addition to this, listening to different audios build up their proficiency levels to understand the different accents of lingua franca and

helps to build their courage in English language use. They believe that in speaking, interaction substance is more important than grammar and phonetics. They focus on gaining the message of the conversation. It is noted that the oral competency should be improved as they considered it as a key of fortifying their situations at work place. In expansion to this, tuning in to various sounds develop their capability levels to comprehend the various accents of most widely used language and assists with building their mental fortitude in English language use. They accept that in talking communications substance is a higher priority than punctuation and phonetics. They centre around picking up the message of the discussion.

Further, Sajavaara's (2000: 117) exploration of the same ideas indicates that the government should conduct seminars related to oral presentations where needs of the academic professionals are fulfilled related to giving lectures and speeches. In the present study, the oral work was considered as a difficult task confirming the previous researches. Authorities should lead workshops identified with oral introductions where requirements of the scholarly experts are to improve speaking capabilities of individuals according to particular talks and addresses. In the current examination, the oral work was comparatively considered as the troublesome.

The research shows that grammar and vocabulary aspects contribute to the proficiency of receptive as well as productive skills. The participants lie on C2 scale of CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Language). In the present study participants seem to be at a better level. In terms of written expressions, they need to have sufficient amount of vocabulary and grammar. As far as composed articulations they have to have adequate measure of jargon and language structure.

On the basis of the relationship between participants and English language proficiency, the participants need skills-based on production and understanding of written and speaking skills. Their language proficiency is seen in their written expressions. However, speaking activities as used less by the participants are at a secondary level but they still in a need to improve it.

The aim of the research is to provide options for a string correspondence between participants and English language proficiency. Although, at the workplace, they have more written work the demand of speaking skills should not be neglected. The participants do not consider themselves as proficient in their self-assessed work. The different activities of oral work could improve their speaking proficiency. By doing so, the participants will be more confident and courageous while dealing in English language. They could feel the strong communication in all social interactions and fear of talking to strangers will also be eliminated. This productive skill enhancement does not only help them to flourish in their proficiency but also builds up the confidence and mastery of the English language.

Conclusion

The present study explored the English language needs and proficiency of academic professionals. The comparison of their present proficiency with their desired one indicates a need to train them taking cue from this research. Personality development and communication skills development programs and workshops will help them to improve their efficiencies. Conducting language-based seminars and presentations will also be useful to eliminate the deficiencies. The language abilities that the sources felt required consideration on a language course were oral aptitudes. The areas where they felt that they required better aptitudes were formal discussions, for example, dealings, casual chitchat and articulation. English language proficiency is an important factor in determining the academic performance of students in different institutions. This was significantly more important in the context of assessment and less in the context of formative assessment where students had more time to prepare for the assessment. Seminars, workshops and different meetings must be arranged by teachers or other proficient scholars to train individuals. It is of great importance to communicate well in societies. Common day English or day to day English spoken must have to be enough mature to show the capability. More elaborate studies are warranted in order to have a better understanding of the relationship between language proficiency and its use in daily life.

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A Linguistic Analysis of the Last Words in Aircraft Black Boxes

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Abstract

The importance of language in the aviation industry is unquestionable. Pilots use language all the time for various reasons, mostly to hold a conversation with other pilots or aircraft controllers. The official and the most dominant language of international aviation communication is English. Yet, there are numerous aviation accidents that show that the role of language fails in the aspect of communication, instead language there plays a totally different role than mere communication. The cases of catastrophic aircraft flights show that miscommunications can and do occur. In any analytic investigation of the recordings retrieved and transcribed from the tapes of the aircraft black boxes, investigators linguistically misinterpret the most significant last words on the records as this task falls out of the scope of

their main task. But why that all attention, in particular, goes to these last words? Obviously, there are certain fascinations with the idea of last words, as if those words hold some kind of power needed to be revealed especially in the case of emergency conditions. Unfortunately, accidents happen and most aircraft accidents are tragically fatal. Those accidents require extra attention to be paid for the black boxes tape recordings and from a linguistic point of view, four linguistic branches make it easier to run a fully comprehended analysis following syntactic, semantic, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic perspectives based on various theories as in the present study.

Keywords: *Black Box, Linguistic perspectives, last words, fatal accidents, tape recordings*

Introduction

The term 'black box' refers to the ambiguous process of the inputs and the outputs of certain data whether in the aviation industry, chemistry, or any other field of knowledge. The data concerned here are the ones that aid in the investigation and analysis of the accidents by combining the audio clues retrieved from the (CVR) and the imagery data of the airplane's instruments and sensors that are recorded on the (FDR). Over 900 crashes have been solved by these means of analysis and the main part was played by the black box and its two components since it was established by the federal authorities in 1957 as a standard element aboard all the commercial aircrafts (MacPherson, 1998, p.6). Aviation as a field has witnessed a lot of historical accidents that were the result of a linguistic misunderstanding between the pilots or with the (ATC). One of the unforgettable accidents is the Tenerife collision between two airplanes of the kind B747 in 1977. The gist of this accident was the use of non-standard forms of English language. That was one of the international standard policies concerning air safety to unite the aviation language to be Standard English. The above-mentioned accident happened due to using a non-standard phraseology. Thus the standardization is significantly necessary as aviation becomes global (Alderson, 2009, pp. 168-187). Hence, English became the de facto of international communication in all walk of life (Alrefae, Al-Ghamdi, 2019; Alrefae, Mudkanna & Almansoob, 2020) especially the aviation organization. Yet, the ultimate truth is crystal clear that not all pilots are native speakers of English. Recently, the reports have stated that poor English skills may be the reason that leads to air disasters. According to the Independent Newspaper in the UK (2017), the consultant linguist Dr. Barbra Clark had confirmed that English-speaking pilots were getting to fail in using the correct vocabularies

and there were several examples of the pilots switching between the English and the French or the Spanish languages during the flights over France or Spain.

What is the Black Box?

Sadly, the famous name of the device called 'black box' is certainly heard after any airplane crash especially if the crash involves numerous numbers of victims. This is very often noticed where that investigators or reporters involved in the process of investigation are urgently searching for the black box or any other parts of it; Flight Data Recorder (FDR) and Cockpit Voice Recorder (CVR). Moreover and technically speaking, to paint these instruments of the (FDR) and the (CVR) in bright eye-catching orange color is because they are too valuable in any aviation accidents to stand out easily. And to say that nature did not make many things in the color orange besides oranges. If the black boxes were black in color, then they can be camouflaged by their surroundings. Linguistically speaking, the use of the adjective (black) in black box means "opaque." According to avionics and engineering fields, the use of the phrase 'black box testing' implies that the test is done without any kind of access to its internal system. Likewise, the term "white box" means the device is transparent by which its internal systems are accessible and well-known (BBC News, 2019).

Language and the Black Box

Linguistically speaking, the reasons for misunderstandings in the aviation conversations are various such as the pilots' or co-pilots' switching their languages unconsciously especially during moments of panic or simply being lazy. In either ways the concerns remain clear. The unclear communication of language or the lack of the English-proficiency standards leads obviously to two things; First and the worst reason that has the potentiality to develop and be the reason for so many deadly accidents or incidents, and that what really happened. The second thing points the finger to the defect in English-proficiency tests and exams which are held by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO)(Cushing, 1994, p. ix).

The key problems identified by the report are the language-related miscommunication between pilots themselves or with the Air Traffic Controllers (ATC), else to cheating on the exams, and corruption or inadequate testing. These are the most common causes that result in accidents. In order to work in this field of aviation, the pilots and controllers are very much required to pass English- proficiency test to ensure a standard level of English speaking abilities (Independent Newspaper, 2017).

Language and fear

Dictionaries like Cambridge English Online Dictionary and Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary shall agree upon the same realization that fear is a state of being unwell caused by certain forces like danger or anxiety which result in specific linguistic and non-linguistic encodings. Hence, It would be very primitively naïve and un-humanism to exclude the fear element from being taken into account while running the analyzing process. Thus, it is quite reasonable to state a clear set of features that represent the embodiment of fear in humans, one can't doubt the linguistic features that are very much representatives of the state of panic, starting with the kind of uncertainty and ambiguity that overwhelms the whole speech. That is why people tend to mumble confusing things which are usually in forms of fragments and elided words that overcome the whole language process under circumstances of feeling fear in addition to the physical and physiological changes that control bodily actions and processes (Whalen, 1998, pp.177-188).

Linguistic Perspectives of Analysis

To begin with the concept of linguistic analysis, this implies presenting an organized attempt to describe the data (linguistic in nature) to serve a well-defined purpose. . In this respect and according to Hartmann and Stork (1972, p.130 cited in Chen 2016 , p390-400), they suggest that it is better to break down the very wide concept of linguistic analysis into small elements and it is the task of the linguists to narrow down the range of the linguistic analysis saying that :

linguists have to break it down into minimal elements (segmental analysis), by establishing how these elements are made up (componential analysis), by examining the relationships between them (distributional analysis) and by determining their arrangement with in longer sequences (immediate constituent analysis, functional analysis), such procedures are used on the levels of (phonemic analysis), grammar (grammatical analysis, morphological analysis) and vocabulary (semantic analysis).

The Syntactic Level of Analysis

Syntax is defined in a very simple way as a group of rules or principles which control the ways in which words are placed together to form phrases and well-formed sequences of words (Koopmann, Sportiche, and Stabler, 2014, pp.1-5).

Ellipsis

the syntactic phenomenon of ellipsis can be defined as the speakers' deletion of certain syntactic elements in the sentence which can be inferred from the context itself which creates a mismatch between the string of sounds and their corresponded meanings which are interpreted by the hearers (Aelbrecht, 2010, p.2). For instance, it is very common to hear these utterances like "equipment", "flame out" or "down" especially in the contexts of aviation.

Repetition

As for Halliday and Hasan (1976, p.4, cited in He, 2014, p.47) repetition is part of lexical cohesion rather than grammatical cohesion. And the notion of lexical repetition represents that kind of cohesive devices in the text where it functions as a link between the repeated item and its antecedent

Ambiguity

The concept of ambiguity has also been defined by David Crystal in (1988, p.15) as "a reference to a word or a sentence which expresses more than one meaning and this reference has to do with linguistics". In this respect, many kinds can be realized as related to the concept of ambiguity such as the structural or grammatical, lexical or semantic and pragmatic ambiguities.

Interjections

According to the Oxford English Dictionary (2006, p. 424) the origin of this word, interjection, comes from the old Latin as 'Interjicere' or 'inter iecto' that means "throw or placed in the middle" and the lexicographers define interjections a "word or phrase that is used as an expression of surprise, pain, or pleasure usually connected to the concept of exclamation."

Short cut

The concept of shortcuts is used interchangeably with the linguistic well-known process identified as Acronym, which is viewed as a kind of abbreviation but differs in the procedure of omitting or leaving out the redundant items. Acronym can be described as "an abbreviation consisting of the leaving out some letters usually are the initials of the word" (Cambridge Online Dictionary).

Abbreviation

According to the dictionaries of etymology the term abbreviation comes from Latin origin as 'brevis' which stands for 'short'. The process is basically based on one principle that is to save time and space, humans tends to abbreviate. Going back in time to the Romans' days where the Romans tend to apply abbreviation on three kinds of linguistic elements that were; the words syllables, substituting one letter instead of the original letter for reasons of secrecy, and the type of arbitrary signals that were adopted in usage of the field of Mathematics. (The British Cyclopaedia ,1838, p.6)

The Semantic Level of Analysis

The word Semantics comes from the verb *sēmaniō* means in English as 'to denote/ to signify' in other captions it means 'significant', and semantics represents the systematic study of meanings. The theories of meanings go back to the times of Aristotle and many scholars attribute these interpretations of meanings to him claiming that he invented the denotational theory of meaning. Others argue this to be the ideational theory while some scholars defeat the entire assumption (Wheeler, 1999, p.191).

Semantic Ambiguity

According to Pinkal (1985, cited in Poesio, 1997, pp. 3-7) "A sentence is semantically indefinite (in terms of meaning vagueness) if and only if in certain situations, despite sufficient knowledge of the relevant facts, neither 'true' nor 'false' can be clearly assigned as its truth value." Pinkal presents two kinds of ambiguity spectrum known as "wider sense" and "basic or narrow sense" semantic ambiguity as far as the meaning of the expressions are concerned.

Idiomatcity

The term idiomatcity is a description to those expressions that possess the features of producing a global meaning that the compositional pieces of those structures would not be able to hold. In other words, it is a characteristic of meaning representation for the overall picture of the expression that is completely different from the meaning of the pieces retrieved alone (Kavka and Zybert, 2004, p.54).

Entailment

According to Crystal (1998, p.136) is a relationship between a set of sentences based on the formula that the truth of one sentence necessarily implied the truth of the other. In other words, if A and B are a pair of identical sentences assuming that A is true, then B must be also true.

Semantic Ellipsis

The area of semantic ellipsis is addressed as a troublesome section due to the various amount of ambiguities and vagueness resurrected by a simple or ordinarily syntactic omission which leaves an effect on the meaning of the proposition. According to Ross (1967, cited in Elbourne, 2005, p.65) who presents that the deletion of some elements in the sentence could leave out a meaning hole that is either viewed as a sloppy or restricted reading regards the process of analysing the meaning.

The Pragmatic Level of Analysis

The field of pragmatics depends on the raw material supplied by the speaker to reveal his intentions beyond his choice of certain utterances that would be figured out by the listener. Thus, to do any pragmatic based analysis the elements of participants shared knowledge, and context must be present in the language to satisfy the social communication and interaction (Siddiqui, 2018, p.77).

Inferential Principle

The Relevance Theory, suggested and developed by Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson in the 1980s, highly depends on the inferential principles in its explanations of the cognitive efforts of the participants. This theory assumes that every act of communication is inferential that would help in explaining the notions of metaphoric, idiomatic and ironic utterances due to the fact that they are explicit violations of Grice maxims, in particular the maxim of truthfulness, yet only a cognitive extension would justify these forms of communication usages by drawing the actual inferences beyond those deliberate violations (Wilson and Sperber, 1994, p.100).

Reference

Yule in (1997) defines the concept of reference as "an action in which the communicator utilizes linguistic forms in order to direct listeners into identification of something." From this, one can express reference as a process of pointing and identifying things via the use of linguistic world, phrases or sentences or simply any linguistic forms in the system to help the

listeners to get knowledge or uncover things which probably are in the external world that needs to be pointed at to accomplish full understanding and comprehension on the part of the addressee which is previously done by the addresser.

Deixis

The term deixis is defined by Lyons (1977, p.637, cited in Sugiharto, 2004, pp.141-142) as "the location and identification of persons, objects, events, processes and activities being talked about, or referred to, in relation to the spatiotemporal context created and sustained by the act of utterance and the participation in it, typically of a single speaker and at least one addressee."

Discourse Particles

According to Stede and Schmitz (2000, p.125), discourse particles are "words that play a significant role in steering the flow of the dialogue and in conveying various attitudes and expectations of the speaker especially in the spoken aspect of language... also they tell more about the content of the utterance".

The Sociolinguistic Level of Analysis

Sociolinguistics first appeared in a paper written by Haver Currie in (1949) and then published in (1952), yet others negotiate the first appearance of the term sociolinguistics to a paper entitled as "Sociolinguistics in India" presented by T. Hudson earlier in (1939, as cited in Millar, 2012, p.16) in which Hudson stated that language is "a social instrument and the context is an integral part of language in society." Sociolinguistics examines the relation between the usage of language and its correspondence to various social aspects like gender, status, education and many levels of society that consume different varieties of language.

Code Switching

Code switching as a linguistic term has been defined differently by different scholars and linguists such as Gumperz (1982, p.59, cited in Balan, 2011, p.10) who treated code-switching from conversational perspective as a juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passage of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" in that manner code-switching serves for social purposes that enable speakers to express themselves better.

Methodology of Analysis

Data Description & collection

The data in the present study are the last fragmented texts or as called the 'last words' uttered by the pilots or other crew members (captains, co-pilots) exclusively in the cockpit of the deadly crashed airplanes moments before death. The texts selected for the purpose of the analysis are chronologically presented according to the date of plane accident with a brief discussion of the cause of the accident, the name of the airline and the number of the flight, the names of the crew in the cockpit, the location of the crisis and for sure the official sources of the accident reports. The data are collected from official websites and online black box databases officially provided and permitted by the National Transportation Safety Board (NTSB) and the Aviation Accidents Database (AAD), in addition to the released black box accident tapes by the bureau of the aviation investigators after the disasters been investigated, resolved and authorized announced publicly by the Accident and Incident Data-Federal Aviation Administration known as (FAA)

The Eclectic Model of the Analysis

The last words in the cockpit are analyzed according to four chosen linguistic levels where they begin with:

- 1- The Syntactic Level: as it is the core of linguistics worked out by the theory of language and grammar of William O'Grady (1996).
- 2- The Semantic Level: the field of meanings assisted by the same theory above in analyzing the usage of idiomatic expressions.
- 3- The Pragmatic Level: the research goes further to include the context of the study in examining the utterance and its explicit and implicit meanings plus how those linguistic elements breach and violate the maxims of speech in Pragmatics inspired by the work of Edward F. McQuarrie and David Glen Mick (1996) and their theory of figures of rhetoric as they analyzed the devices that lie under the operations of speech which range from lower to higher deviation of the norms and the work of Sperber and Wilson (1998) in the Relevance Theory.
- 4- The Sociolinguistic Level: The fourth level of sociolinguistics comes to end the analysis where social and cultural factors interplay causing a major shift of language linguistically known in the theory of Carol Myers-Scotton (1993) work about the social motivations for using code-switching.

Procedures of Analysis

The analysis shall be examined as depicted in the following steps:

1. A brief introduction about the flight accident including time, place, location and other details;
2. Syntactic Level; the data will be examined according to the linguistic devices such as : Ellipsis, ambiguity, repetition, shortcut, interjection, and abbreviation;
3. Semantic Level: the analysis moves on explicated the meanings of the data by eliciting semantic ambiguity, idiomaticity, entailment , and ellipsis;
4. Pragmatic Level : investigating the utterances based on the pragmatic devices of discourse analysis such as reference, deixis, discourse particles and inferential principle;
5. Sociolinguistic Level: the data are examined according to the sociolinguistic tool of code switching; and

Data Analysis and Discussion

Preliminaries

The present section is geared towards analyzing the data collected for the purpose of this study by means of the analytical framework engineered out of the previous revision of the literature. The results of the analysis are fetched throughout the analysis and put to be discussed at the end.

The Data

Text (1)

"skipper's shot! We've been shot, tryin' to help"

The above text is uttered by the first officer R. Andress of the Pacific Air Lines flight #773 on 07 May 1964 at 6:48 a.m. near San Ramon, California.

Cause of crash: The aircraft crashed into hills after captain Ernie Clark was shot in the head then first officer Raymond Andress by the passenger Francisco Paula Gonzales, as a part of murder-suicide plot (pacificairlinesportfolio).

The Syntactic Level

Structurally speaking, the text above falls in the domain of the phrase-level consisting of three phrases.

Ellipsis: the last phrase *tryin' to help* contains nominal ellipsis where the subject and the auxiliary are elided.

Ambiguity: the omission of the subject and the auxiliary creates ambiguity in the sense that the subject could be interpreted in either ways as referring to the speaker (I was trying to help) or the captain (He was trying to help).

Repetition: the past participle verb *shot* has been repeated twice, one to refer to the captain's shot (singular) and other to refer to the captain's and the speaker's shot (plural).

Short Cut: linguistic shortcut phrases such as *skipper's shot* for 'skipper has shot' and *we've been shot* for 'we have been shot'. Also, the word *tryin'* is a verbal shortcut for 'trying'.

The Semantic Level.

Ellipsis: as in the omission of the agent in the last phrase.

Ambiguity: deletion of the agent creates ambiguity in determining the content meaning of agent in the phrase *tryin' to help*.

The Pragmatic Level

Reference: the speaker, Raymond Andress, was referring to himself. So pragmatically the phrase is (I was) *trying to help*.

Inferential Principle: In this context, cognitive effort is needed to decode the utterances uttered by the communicator, Raymond Andress, to the addressee, (ATC). The last utterance indicates a situation inferred as the captain's murder by a suicidal passenger that the officer was attempting to resolve. Yet, his utterances suggest that he has failed or soon about to fail, which is what actually happened and all 44 persons aboard were fatally killed including the officer.

The Sociolinguistic Level

Code Switching: although uttered in English but the text show alternation from the standard technical jargon to the informal style of language indicated by the grammatical shortcuts and the ellipsis in the last phrase and the word *tryin'*.

Text (2)

"Ah... just barely... we'll pick up the ILS here."

The text is uttered by Captain in command (CIC). Dan Teelin with Capt. William J.O'Neil in American Air Lines flight #383 on 8 Nov 1965 at 7:01 p.m.

Cause of the crash: the aircraft crashed into a wooded hillside due to pilot error; crew's failure to properly monitor the altimeters during a visual approach into deteriorating visibility conditions in which fifty-eight people were perished near Cincinnati runway 18 of the Greater Cincinnati Airport (ExploreKYHistory).

The Syntactic Level

The text is on the syntactic levels of phrases and words as it shown above.

Ellipsis: as it is very obvious the syntactic ellipsis in the adverbial phrase *Ah... just barely...* the dots here show the lexical gaps in the text where the subject and the predicate are omitted leaving only the adverb in the phrase.

Ambiguity: the combination of the adverbs *just* and *barely* suggests a form of ambiguity in the sense that both indicate emphasis but to what? What is in the phrase needs to be emphasized? Moreover, English speakers use the two adverbs interchangeably but *barely* does not show timing phase as *just* which expresses a time constraint.

Interjections: the use of *Ah*

Abbreviation: the use of *ILS* to stand for the 'Instrument Landing System'.

The Semantic Level

Idiomatcity: the use of *just barely* indicates an idiomatic use to express something; a situation that is about to succeed but it fails and that is what happened (the flight crashes) this idiomatic meaning is totally different from the meanings of the words if taken alone.

Ambiguity: Meaning ambiguity in the use of the interjection *Ah* ranges between surprise, expressing realization or expressing resignation about the situation.

Ellipsis: The ellipsis of the text is the agent or the experiencer of the phrase *just barely*.

The Pragmatic Level

Discourse Particles: the use of *Ah* functions as an initiator for the captain, yet the follow idiomatic expression refers to a bad situation that might go out of control in the flight # 383.

Deixis: the deictic word *here* is a spatial term indicates 'runway 18' in the context. While the personal deictic term *we* refers to the pilots 'Teelin and O'Neil'.

Inferential Principle: in a nutshell, the text is an answer of captain D. Teelin to the Tower men's question "*Have you still got the runway OK?.*"

The Sociolinguistic Level

Code Switching: the use of interjection *Ah* suggests an informal style of speech.

Text (3)

"we're finished!"

The text is uttered by the co-pilot of Ariana Afghan Airlines flight # 701 on 5 Jan. 1969, at 1:34 p.m. near Horley in England on approach to Gatwick Airport.

Cause of the crash: CFIT due to pilot error and misjudgment; the aircraft while descending hit a chimney pot of a house then crashed through trees until it completely hit and destroyed a detached house and caught fire. 48 people died including a couple in that house (tailstrike).

The Syntactic Level

The above text is on the syntactic level of sentences; a simple sentence.

Ambiguity: the structure of the sentence *we're finished* is ambiguous with the verb *finished* since it could be either a transitive verb or intransitive one. At the same time, *finished* can be considered as an adjective.

Ellipsis: if to consider the verb *finished* a transitive verb then there is an elided object or complement. And if to treat *finished* as an intransitive verb then the sentence has no elliptical parts.

The Semantic Level

Ambiguity: the proposition *we're finished* is obscure because it does not clarify *finished* with what? or does it refer to the speakers' end as in use of inclusive *we*.

Ellipsis: the ellipsis in the proposition is that it has no completion or meaningful continuation.

The Pragmatic Level

Reference: the context of the utterance is presented with referring expression *we* as the antecedent for both the pilot and co-pilot.

Deixis: the pronoun *we* is a personal deictic word.

The Sociolinguistic Level:

Code Switching: the sentence *we're finished!* is a softened expression for a harsh truth like we are going to die/crash.

Text (4)

"four two delta, got the strobe lights in sight"

The above text was the last words uttered from Avion Airways flight # DC3-216 on 20 Mar 1969 at 12:35 p.m. at New Orleans International Airport LA (MSY). Pilot Marion Leo Hayes and co-pilot Allen R. Tennyson.

Cause of the crash: pilot error; the crew's failure to cease the landing attempt below minima weather conditions, lack of clarity and misinterpretation of the crew for the information received from the ATC (aviation-safety).

The Syntactic Level

The above text is on the syntactic level of phrases; discontinuous noun phrase

Ambiguity : the above sentence could be interpreted into two different ways; as an affirmative or interrogative because *four two Delta* could function as a subject for the affirmative sentence or simply as announcement of the flight name to let the sentence starts with the verb *got* and thus interpreted as a question.

Short Cut: *delta* is a short cut of the name of the company 'Delta air lines', while *Four Two* is a short cut of numbers to name the aircraft.

The Semantic Level

Ambiguity: *delta* refers many things; a letter of Greek alphabet, a landform at the mouth of a river, or to the American airline company. *Strobe lights* generally refers to any form of torches

that are very bright in their intensity, also this term in aviation jargon refers to flashing white lights put on the furthest right and left of the aircraft.

3. The pragmatic level

Reference: the reference in this text reveals that the utterance was not a question but an affirmative declaration made by the captain of the N142 Delta to the ATC as a part of landing preparations on the active runway .

Inferential Principle: throughout the conversation, the cognitive principle has been improperly communicated between the crew and the tower men using ROGER (received order given expect result) throughout the talk that led to misinterpretation by the crew thus the aircraft kept on landing till it hit the ground and caught fire.

The sociolinguistic level

Code Switching: surprisingly, the sentence shows no code switching from the standard language of aviation jargon.

Text (5)

"Mountains!!!"

The text is from the cockpit of Vnukovo Airlines flight #2801 on 29 Aug. 1996 at 8:22 p.m. crashed into mountains near Svalbard in Norway.

The crew were captain Evgeny Nikolaevich, first officer Boris Fedorovich, and flight engineer Anatoly Matveevich.

Cause of the crash: the crash was a result of pilot error and the loss of awareness of the crew about their dangerous situation until it was too late when the aircraft started descending in a mountain area. While the aircraft was making its roll to head back to the runway, the crew loss control over it and they entered an area of severe turbulence till it hit the mountains killing all 141 aboard (tailstrike).

The Syntactic Level

The above text is on the syntactic level of words.

Ellipsis: the word *mountains* has an elided subject and predicate in the text.

Ambiguity: the use of the three exclamation marks !!! with the elided word *mountains* arises a lot of question about the grammatical function of this words.

The Semantic Level

Entailment : the proposition entails a situation with *mountains* which refer to a large landform of land higher than its surroundings that is usually has a steeper top than a hill while the !!! indicates intense surprise or shock.

The Pragmatic Level

Reference: the word *mountains* refers to a high land or area.

Inferential Principle: so far all what has mentioned about *mountains* did not communicate the real meaning of this word in this context. The captain's last encoded word tells that the aircraft was in its way to hit the mountains and perish and that was happened.

The Sociolinguistic Level

Code Switching: though the tragic end the speaker had, yet his last words show no shift from the Standard English aviation language code.

Results and Discussion

The analysis shows that because of a lot of air crashes throughout the history of aviation accidents proved the lack of the real linguistic essence of analysis and the evidence of this theory is that numerous accidents happened due to what is known as pilot-error or in other words, the language problem. Of the overall accidents, it is obviously clear that the last words always place their valuable significance that add to the whole accident investigation state and eventually help to write the final reports of that accident. A model created in this study stands upon that problem where four essential linguistic levels are adopted along with their devices to analyze the misunderstanding in the cockpit.

Starting with the first level of analysis, the syntactic devices appear in the analysis are shown in the below table along with their frequencies and percentages :Table no. (1) shows the syntactic level constituents and the their frequencies and percentages:

Table (1): The Syntactic Level Constituents, Frequency and Percentages

The Device	Frequency	Percentage
1. Ambiguity	5	100%
2. Ellipsis	4	80%
3. Short cuts	2	40%
4. Interjection	1	20%
5. Repetition	1	20%
6. Abbreviation	1	20%

The above table shows clearly that the highest frequency is scored by ambiguity with (5) times, equal to (100%), next is ellipsis with (4) times, equal to (80%). The last higher frequency device is short cuts with (2) times, equal to (20%). These results are evidently prove that humans in hazardous and dangerous times they go through start producing fragmented utterance and ambiguous phrases by eliding the basic grammatical elements and linguistic structures of the formal sentences. Furthermore, they start repeating the same or different words unconsciously as they are facing the danger with certain interjections. As for the results scored by the repetition with (1) times, equal to (20%) and abbreviations with (1) times, equal to (20%), and abbreviation with (1) times, equal to (20%), they back up the assumptions that say, in deathly situations, one does utter such uncontrolled, meaningless fragmented utterances. Table no. (2) shows the semantic level constituents and the their frequencies and percentages:

Table no. (2): The Semantic Level Constituents, Frequencies and Percentages

The Device	Frequency	Percentage
1. Ambiguity	4	80%
2. Ellipsis	3	60%
3. Entailment	1	20%
4. Idiomaticity	1	20%

These results show that ambiguity scores the highest frequency with (4) times, equal to (80%). This result is a very good clarification of the deathly situation the people were in. The fragmented utterances they made were almost all ambiguous for the hearers. The transcriptions of the audio recordings collected from the black boxes of the perished airplanes show a higher

scale of ambiguous utterances which can hardly be interpreted correctly. All these are due to the language of fear features.

The idiomaticity scores (1) times, equal to (20%). This device comes next in frequency. The reason why the people in the cockpits used idioms was that they believed that they have said elided and abbreviated words in a hasty way as they were under the time pressure. Entailment scores (1) times, equal to (20%) this justifies the drawing of the necessary conclusions of the propositions according to their denotation and the logical implications of the meanings presupposed by the participants, yet the entailment is a little bit strict to be implied in every proposition especially when there is a load of confusion and ambiguity lurks the situation that would justifies that rather low percentage scores in the propositions of the pilots whereas semantic ellipsis registers (3) times, equal to (60%) for the same purposes mentioned in the syntactic ellipsis.

The third level of the analysis is pragmatic level. Table no. (3) shows the devices appeared in the analysis and their frequencies and equal percentages.

Table no. (3): The Pragmatic Level Constituents, Frequencies and Percentages

The Device	Frequency	Percentage
1. Reference	4	80%
2. Inferential Principle	4	80%
3. Deixis	3	60%
4. Discourse Particles	1	20%

Pragmatically, the above results turn out that reference scores (4) times, equal to (80%) which is a very logically acceptable due to the nature of the data of the study where referring expressions are frequently used and proven helpful to clarify things with simple referring linguistic items. As for the score (4) times of the inferential principle, equal to (80%), will justify the rather intense usage of the cognitive principle adopted from the relevance theory because at that states one can't exemplify everything with many linguistic utterances, but rather leave something to the logical and cognitive elaboration of the communicators.

The device of deixis scores (3) times, equal to (60%) since that use of deictic words is much relevant to denote things which is more easier than repeating the same words or names over and over again, that deictic words do the job quite rapidly. The use of discourse particles scores (1) times, equal to (20%). This is connected to the pragmatic state of the utterances where the need of discourse markers is taken into the account of some pilots especially at moments of anger and stress that words spilled out unconsciously or their usage is to tie thing up in the

speech as in the use of certain discourse markers for purposes of stress, or to provide connection to the fragments.

Finally, the sociolinguistic level whose constituents show the appearance of code switching and paradox as in table no. (4) below:

Table no. (4): The Sociolinguistic Level Constituents, Frequencies and Percentages

The Device	Frequency	Percentage
1. Code Switching	5	100%

To start with the value of code switching to infer the evident reason that will support the proposed theory of fear that in states of panic, humans lose control especially with language production and due to the case of bilinguals, as appeared in some data investigated in this research, the mental faculty of language processing would instantly shifts to the mother tongue of the speaker. Some cases of monolinguals witness an alternation in the same native language but to different variety of language as in the change from the formal to the vernacular forms of language due to stress, confusion and panic.

Conclusions

On the basis of the findings of the analysis conducted in the previous chapter, the following conclusions can be made:

1. The results of the analysis shows that there are certain linguistic devices used on the level of syntax, semantic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic levels. This result verifies the hypothesis which reads *"There are certain linguistic devices used by the airplane pilots in the aviation accidents recordings on the syntactic, semantic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic levels."*
2. The analysis on the syntactic level shows that the linguistic devices and their percentages are: ambiguity with (100%), ellipsis with (80%), repetition , interjection , and abbreviation with (20%), short cuts with (40%). This validates the hypothesis which reads that *"On the syntactic level, the linguistic devices are: Ambiguity, ellipsis, repetition, short cuts, abbreviation, and interjection."*
3. The analysis on the semantic level shows that the linguistic devices and their percentages are: ambiguity with (80%), idiomaticity and entailment with (20%), and ellipsis with (60%). Thus the hypothesis which says that *"On the semantic level, the linguistic devices are: semantic ambiguity, idiomaticity, entailment, and ellipsis ."*
4. The analysis shows that the pragmatic level is realized by the following linguistic devices with their percentages: reference with (80%), inferential principle with (80%), deixis and

discourse particles with (20%). This confirms the hypothesis which says that "*On the pragmatic level, the linguistic devices are: reference, deixis, discourse particles and inferential principle.*"

5. The analysis on the sociolinguistic levels shows that the linguistic device that realize this level is the code switching with high frequency. Thus the hypothesis which says that "*On the sociolinguistic level, the sociolinguistic tool is : code-switching .*" comes true.

6. It is very certain that handling such a reading of the past recorders on the tapes retrieved from the aircrafts' black boxes goes not without considering the element of fear attached to the speakers' language. After presenting a quite amount of fear theories and panic characteristics, one can't doubt the linguistic features that are very much representatives of the state of panic, starting with the kind of uncertainty, production of fragmented utterances and ambiguity that overwhelms the whole speech.

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Implementation of iPad Device in Kuwait Intermediate Schools

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Abstract

This research paper sheds light on the use of iPads in Kuwait intermediate schools. The use of the modern electronic devices has been increased recently. It is also an exciting experience to both students and teachers simply because it makes the learning and teaching run more smoothly, conveniently, and comfortably than the traditional method of teaching. Six hundred male and female pupils aged between 12 and 14 years old of four intermediate public schools in the State of Kuwait were the subject of the study. Pupils were divided into two major groups. Pupils of Group A were taught traditionally, while their counterparts of Group B were subject to iPad teaching. The results of the study show that pupils taught via the iPad performed better than those taught traditionally. Female pupils showed better performance than male pupils. In

spite of some drawbacks in the use of the iPad, the researcher found that the advantages stimulate educators to utilize iPads in the L2 teaching process.

Keywords: *iPad, technology, teaching, learning, classroom*

Introduction

Modern electronic devices have not only been preferable for fun and amusement but also have invaded the domain of education. They have been developed from old fashion tools ranging from a tape recorder, OHP, the closed video circuit, CD, DVD, and PC to new mobile and innovative devices such as smartphones, iPads, and smart board. The use of the iPad is easier than the traditional computer, which requires a wide range of capabilities, and memorizing numerous linear instructions. In fact, the iPad has become a resolution to various didactic problems with soft movements on a clear screen to perform a tremendous number of functions within a glimpse of time.

This research paper is concerned with the study of the experimental use modern technology in the form of the iPad as a teaching and learning aid among male and female EFL pupils at Kuwait intermediate public schools. The researcher's main focus is on the iPad which is the most favorable means for attainment of informed learning in Kuwait. This study is done on pupils of grades six, seven, and eight. Around 100 students from each school were selected for the study. Pupils in Group A, 300 male and female Kuwait citizens, were taught through traditional methods, whereas pupils in Group B, 300 male and female Kuwaiti citizens, were taught by using the modern technology of the iPad.

When data were compared, it was found that the use of new technology was more effective. After completing the experiment, it was found that female students performed higher than male students.

In short, this study reaches a synopsis that the use of the iPad in education has experienced a revolution in the world of pedagogy. Students today are luckier than the previous generations since they are connected to modern e-learning technology in an unimaginable way, and the iPad has evolved as one of the most creative and exciting devices in the e-learning process.

Aim of Research

The goal of this study is to both scrutinize the experiment of using the iPad in teaching and measure the range of its success. The study also aims at evaluating the advantages and

disadvantages of the use of the iPad as an effective teaching aid substituting the traditional means.

The Issue of Research

The researcher means to offer responses to the enquiries and questions posed by parents and teachers regarding the effectiveness of the iPad as a novel teaching aid. Through polling the opinions of a specimen of pupils and their teachers, the researcher noticed a deep concern in educational circles about the outcome of the iPad's use. This concern emerges from two sources: the first one is related to the extent pupils are serious to handle their study with a device basically dedicated for amusement and fun. Second, the skill of writing and handwriting may retreat or be negatively affected since it will be weakened by the passage of time.

Method of Research

Analytical and descriptive methods are used in this research. The researcher justifies the findings of the responses from the specimen of the questionnaire. He analyzes the pros and cons in order to identify the validity of the use of the iPad for educational purposes. On the other hand, the descriptive method is employed to portray a picture of the state of using electronics in general and the employment of the iPad in particular in schools instead of the traditional books and board.

Research Tools

The research involves the following ways in handling the merits and demerits of the iPad's use in schools:

1. figures
2. tables
3. lists
4. questionnaires

Modern Electronic Devices in Education:

Nowadays, students are amazingly linked to a long series of modern electronic devices. A question arises as to how the educational echelon can make use of these tools in the learning or teaching process. Moreover, what are the most favorable and innovative programs that can be employed for each stage of schooling? How much more will teachers and pupils be creative and exploratory? In fact, the application of modern technology at universities provides

cooperation and communication among pupils inside and outside the classroom. Schooling with the help of modern electronic devices enhances the feeling of independence among students, and motivates them to seek for the right responses, either through peer group or individual activities. Furthermore, such modern devices enable teachers to share the schooling processes with their pupils. The researcher has had discussions with educators in the Ministry of Education regarding the use of the iPad in teaching. Before indulging deeply into the iPad use, the researcher finds it more interesting to introduce e-programs and applications deployed in the domain of teaching and learning. Table {1} below demonstrates the most common electronic programs used in education that may actively engage students in study through technology.

Table {1}: most common electronic programs used in education

Program	Application
Accelerated Reader	It motivates students to read and evaluate their understanding of reading material.
Evernote	A cloud program that helps students upload access and share word files, audio files, remarks, presentations through laptops, iPads, and any other smart tablets.
Sky WifiSmartpen	A complete note-taking device which allows students to record the material they write and hear.
Reading Eggspress	An interactive online program designed for building students' competence in reading and comprehension.
A Review of STAR Early Literary	An online-based evaluative program. It is intended to assess student's literacy skills through a range of questions. It presents data about student's accuracy and speed.
STAR Reading	An online appraisal program. It assesses students reading achievement through the cloze method and traditional reading texts.
Study Island	An internet-based program. It is a complementary means designated particularly to handle achievement tests individually upon certain criteria.

iPad as a Teaching Aid

The iPad is a line of tablet computers designed and marketed by Apple's iOS. The first iPad was released on April 3, 2010. Since then, many new versions were released annually. The user interface is built around the device's multi-touch screen, including a virtual keyboard. The iPad has a built-in WiFi and, on some models, cellular connectivity, (Buchanan, M. March 5, 2010).

Actually, modern technology is in continuous development and improvement. Most students today are very savvy in novel electronic tools. In fact, they are luckier than the previous generation because they were born into an age bombarded with sophisticated technological innovations, especially in the fields of electronics and communication. The iPad as a teaching and learning tool has hit the news in educational circles ever since its release. Many educators, however, still consider it as educational hype that simply deals with information in an amusing method far from the traditional dictating way. It offers the chance of updating course books and material constantly. The iPad is regarded as an easier device to use than a computer. It does not require all the skills of the traditional computer. The iPad is designed as a touch device, so the interface is made for finger integration. The iPad is a device to “pick up” (McGreal, M. 2012). In addition, at schools, it is quite convenient to share among pupils. In comparison with traditional PCs, the iPad sustains more working hours between chargers than the traditional computer.

Teachers can design their pupils' iPads with materials that fit their level and learning style. For instance, if they teach reading comprehension in the form of storytelling, pupils can download the cast from iTunes and practice listening as well. For pupils who learn through tactual interaction, they may find an App that enables students to understand the points quickly and accurately. Teachers can teach all their pupils the same lesson in different ways with the help of the iPad.

There is a great transformation in the way educators teach and students learn with the use of the iPad. It involves interactive textbooks and a host of apps and contents suitable for endless learning possibilities. When it comes to finding content for lessons, the iPad has something for everything to be taught. There are innumerable apps, interactive textbooks, videos, and podcasts that cover all the grade levels. The App Store, iBooks, and iTunes make it simple to navigate and find what both teachers and students need (*Broida, R. January 28, 2010*). The researcher has given strong emphasis on interpreting the data generated by surveying pupils and teachers. It is interesting to note the differences in how students perceived the impact of

iPad use on their achievement and how teachers perceived the impact of students' use of iPads on their performance.

The researcher focuses his attention on the impact of using iPad on the reading comprehension, knowledge of content, and analysis skills of intermediate pupils who study by using iPads. The researcher comments that the iPad promotes student engagement by integrating new technology into intermediate or tertiary education. Findings include remarks from pupils who seem to have benefited from the use of iPads. The researcher has conducted his study on both male and female pupils and found that the female students showed better performance than the male ones since the females used iPads diligently for their studies. In addition, female students were very punctual in using it in their studies. The impact of the iPad on education is speculative in nature, as the pupils surveyed have been given iPads, (Brian X. Chen, 2012). Male and female students expressed their satisfaction in the first implementation of the iPad. Actually, this study measures both pupils' and educators' interest in iPad and its potential uses in their schooling environment.

Educational Applications of the iPad

Youths all over the world got hilarious with the music that tunes out of the iPod, and the iPhone surpassed the technicalities of the smartphone, but the iPad appears poised to change the track of the mobile computing technology (Bosker, B. October 19, 2010). The iPad's features have attracted the interest of all people, professionals and ordinary. It has become a gust in the schooling industry. Enthusiastic teachers can creatively nurture their pupils' minds and incorporate the use of the iPad in their routine school day. What helps them achieve this goal are the following splendid organizational and educational applications of the iPad:

Sundry Notes	The use of this application is to enter Wikipedia, Google, copy images from the internet, make drawings and recordings, format writing, and many more functions. Teachers need this application to restore items for class organization.
Docs anywhere	Portability of digital documents is possible by this application. Transfer between desktop and a portable set is performed by a USB and iTunes, and reading of Word, Excel, PowerPoint, HTML, types of texts, PDF files, and other file formats, all of which are available for teachers and students.

The Outliner	Students can plan lists and outlines for different tasks. Teachers can use this application to set down teaching notes, create rubrics, and retain grade sheets.
Gtflashpro	It allows teachers and students to download flash cards, assignments, quizzes, and test components, store pictures and audio for reference or incorporation into a lesson.
Free Books	Students and teachers alike need to have e-books. This application provides the function of downloading material for free.
Keynote	With this application, teachers can select from a number of pre-made themes and distribute their notes with videos, pictures, tables, animations, figures, and charts.
Bento for iPad	This application tackles the teachers' needs directly. It organizes material and avoids mess. The iPad can provide this service by various database templates teachers may select from, such as student lists and other tasks, (Smykil, J. December 1, 2006).
Evernote	It is an easy-to-use, free app that helps to remember everything across all devices that are used. It lets the students take notes, capture photos, create to-do lists, record voice reminders. It can also make these notes completely searchable.

Background of iPad Use in Kuwait Intermediate Schools

The experiment has been applied in individual schools and proved to be successful from the beginning. The Ministry of Education in Kuwait intends to generalize it in all schools in the six provinces gradually. The computerization of teaching is regarded as one of the promising projects within the context of distance schooling. Before triggering the experiment of the iPad use as a teaching aid in Kuwait Intermediate Schools, the researcher finds it conspicuous to point out the significant facts that made the Ministry of Education apply the use of iPads at faculties to replace the traditional textbooks. Following are facts about the general atmosphere in Kuwait:

Kuwait is a small, well-off oil country, so the Ministry of Education can afford providing pupils with iPads, if necessary.

1. The standard of living of the Kuwaitis is relatively high, so pupils have the ability to buy their own devices.

2. Usually, Kuwaiti pupils are connected to an array of electronic devices in an amazing way. Hence, the environment is favorable for using the iPads in schools.
3. The use of the iPad in Kuwait Intermediate Schools satisfies the desire of the Kuwaiti pupils of having new things in their study lifestyle.
4. The Ministry of Education in the State of Kuwait is constantly diligent to update the didactic and pedagogic methods in schools.
5. The successful implementation of iPad use in civilized countries has encouraged Kuwaiti educators to introduce this novelty at universities. So it would be appropriate to prepare students from their middle.

Research on using the iPad in Kuwait Intermediate Schools started in 2011. The concerned educators have held training courses for teachers on the following programs:

1. **Teacher kit:** It is a personal organizer for the teacher. To continue their ideas better, it would be better to enable the teacher to organize classes. **Teacher Kit's** simple and innate interface enables teachers to track attendance, grades, and student behavior. This program is used for a periodic follow-up of the students.
2. **Keynote:** This feature is used for designing both a PowerPoint presentation and Word processing as teaching aids.
3. **Dropbox:** Teachers can consolidate their files to all smart devices including computers with the help of this program.
4. **PDF note:** The PDF Note enables students to comment on and store books in an electronic browser similar to the teachers' books.
5. **Animoto:** A fast, exciting program for designing various videos in different modes.

For the above listed reasons, the researcher finds it necessary and challenging at the same time to handle the experiment of using the iPad in Kuwait Intermediate Schools, particularly because it is the first research on iPad use in education in the State of Kuwait.

Analysis of Using iPads in Kuwait Intermediate Schools

The iPad has become a popular core among other electronic instructional tools in classrooms. It has the main feature of engaging the students in classrooms. Apart from this, the researcher has surveyed the schools where the iPad has been used as a teaching aid. The researcher noticed that iPads could improve pupils' achievement standards efficiently. However, some teachers are still shaky on how to use the iPads effectively (Cheng, J. October 12, 2011). On the other hand, other teachers enjoy having paperless classes, following up on pupils' attendance, running interactive presentations and testing their students via the iPad. The use of the iPad in classrooms does not incur many problems because no physical effort is involved. Safety codes provide enough security to the range of capabilities of the iPad. The researcher noticed that pupils they met with displayed a high level of responsibility and care when handling the iPad in their classes simply because they were familiar with it prior to introducing it in their schools. The researcher also found that female pupils showed more care and responsibility than male pupils. Female students demonstrated better skills in using technology. They also took the experience more seriously than male students did, so that their score was higher than males'. Substantially, the iPad is a strong and dependable device. It only requires minor regular maintenance and upgrading issues. The personalization feature of the device furnishes teachers and pupils with a high level of agency and option in how, where and when they can deploy the iPad for learning and teaching aims (Baig, Ed. March 2, 2011).

Regarding professional reclamation of teachers, a high level of formal intensive training would be enough to fortify teachers' alertness to use the iPad in their classroom. Educators need mere personal access to the device to become familiar with it. They can complete their job skillfully by rules very similar to Kolb's lane of experiential learning. It is a self-directed experiential operation (Gruber, J. January 14, 2010). Moreover, teachers may perform their tasks either through cooperation with each other or through a small learning set where they feel relaxed to try out ideas and consequently gain confidence, support, and creativity. The field survey of the study shows that there are common mutual benefits when teachers work collaboratively on developing their skills in the use of mobile teaching aids, such as the iPad. This will lead to a positive outcome of educational development in providing students with considerable potential to support their learning process.

Through this activity, pupils can use their experiences in the virtual ambience to narrate a story. Students at school level use the application of converting learning texts into engaging material for enjoyment. The outstanding benefit of the iPad was that it prompted most

detached students to interact with the activities of the class and be excited while learning (Smykil, J. December 1, 2006). The iBook application, for example, engages pupils in reading. For filling pupils' presentation with videos, drawings, surveys, and texts, the "Nearpod" application enables the teacher to control the track of the lesson as pupils interact with the material. The e-books offers many advantages such as "portability, eco-friendliness, attractiveness, and easy access." (Sayyed Mohammad Alavi and Reza Dashtestani, (2014)). The free file sharing application, "Dropbox," is employed to deliver assignments to the teacher who grades them and sends them back all to "Dropbox". Using "Notability" aides, pupils record lessons, take notes and organize margins of files. Sharing lessons between pupils and teachers is possible by 'Keynote' application. Pupils can access explanation of lessons whenever they want and are able to learn to match their needs (Harvey, M. April 6, 2010). Finally, while the iPad is regarded as a luxurious electronic device, teachers and pupils whom the researcher surveyed commented that the implementation of the iPad has virtually decreased costs for both pupils and schools because it has eliminated the need for tons of textbooks, stacks, stationeries, and other schooling requirements. The researcher found that more advanced applications have been introduced in iPads. Such applications provide precious functions and valuable information. They are briefed in the following table.

Application & Function

eClicker: This application is used for conducting polls by teachers inside the class for allowing immediate feedback.

Mobile Air Mouse: This feature turns the iPad into a viable wireless remote or track pad. Teachers may use it as a remote control, track pad, foreign language functions, and keyboard. Mobile Air Mouse controls the visual aids during lessons (Lewis, D. March 5, 2010).

World Book- This Day in History: This is a valuable application to update videos, audios, images, and permits access to important historical texts.

Pages: This application is marvelous for creating notes, assignments, quizzes, presentations, tests, and handouts. This application is capable of file sharing as it permits saving files in convenient Word and PDF formats as well.

Noteworthy Detections of the iPad Use in Kuwait Intermediate Schools

The researcher noticed important findings extracted from the responses of both pupils and teachers to a questionnaire after touring the schools using iPads. He listed them as follows:

- a. The use of the iPad enables pupils to realize the essential elements wanted by the syllabus.
- b. The personalization feature of the iPad creates an easier path for teachers to mark attendance inside classroom.
- c. Dynamism is produced by the ubiquitous access to the internet.
- d. Exploration of alternative activities and types of evaluation for the learners are important.
- e. Teaching methodology has significantly been changed by the efficient use of the iPad.
- f. The use of iPads has created more cooperation between teachers and pupils. For example, the teacher does not have to write everything on board for the students. Instead, students can write on the iPad with the help of spelling checker.
- g. Since there is no interference of the traditional teacher, peer teaching has been realized by the use of the iPad.
- h. Pupils' creativity and engagement in peer assessment and in-group critique have been sharpened by the iPad.
- i. Students commented that there has been a remarkable increase in the quality of their educational process after two years of the experiment.
- j. The practicality of the iPad supports students of all levels.
- k. Teachers have traced better feedback of learning with the use of the iPad.

Despite the above positive sides of the iPad's use in classrooms, the researcher noted that educators did not hide their concern about issues like data security and safety. However, for schools, this is not a serious matter since the appropriate use of the internet is mainly a technical, educational, and behavioral issue within hands to control.

Questionnaire

To analyze the experiment of the implementation of the iPad in Kuwait intermediate schools, the researcher organized a questionnaire about the use of the iPad as a teaching means. The researcher polled the opinions of pupils and teachers through a questionnaire of 25 questions about the experiment of employing the iPad as a teaching tool instead of traditional books. The questionnaire sheets were distributed to specimens of 25 teachers who implemented the iPad device in teaching and learning. The researcher has handled the questionnaire by the numerical and the percentage methods. The rates of the responses have expressed that the iPad is a

successful teaching aid which can replace the conventional text books that the whole world has been replying on for a long time. The rates of the responses in the questionnaire are listed hereunder:

No.	Item	Agree	disagree
1.	The majority of teachers regularly use iPads in classroom.	82%	18%
2.	There is high demand by pupils for the extension of iPad further use and more.	81%	19%
3.	Technical errors are hidden when class is connected to the internet.	15%	85%
4.	There are important benefits for the workload of teachers.	78%	22%
5.	It is easy to perform multi-tasks on iPads.	92%	8%
6.	Long research cannot be written on iPads.	75%	25%
7.	The iPad's sensitive touch screen saves writing time.	80%	20%
8.	By "apps" pupils can create video, audio, text, or graphics.	82%	18%
9.	Teachers appreciate cost savings with iPad's use.	75%	25%
10.	The iPad provides the chance of interactivity into a book exercises.	90%	10%
11.	Pupils are more motivated by using iPads.	88%	12%
12.	The iPad's touch interface is right for everyone.	65%	35%
13.	By iPad use, the quality and standards of pupil work and progress is rising.	83%	17%
14.	Pupils can investigate various topics within the course book.	84%	16%
15.	iPads are designed to be personal devices and are difficult to share.	25%	75%
16.	Inserting teaching text books in iPads is cheaper than paper text books.	77%	23%
17.	The iPad is a tool that promotes fun and interactive learning.	91%	9%
18.	Pupils prefer textbooks as eBooks on the iPad to hard copy books.	11%	89%

19.	The use of apps aids in learning is appropriate.	60%	40%
20.	Learning by iPad is inspiring and motivating.	84%	16%
21.	Lack of pair work and group work disappears with iPad use.	72%	28%
22.	iPad eliminates the sense of responsibility and seriousness among students.	23%	77%
23.	iPad's screen may cause health problems to students.	75%	25%
24.	Students would prefer using iPads to laptop in class.	86%	14%
25.	The use of the iPad's may have a negative impact on neat and correct handwriting.	60%	40%

Advantages of iPad

Indubitably, the iPad is a very exciting gadget. This is affirmed by its innumerable advantages. The touch screen tablet enables students to simply touch icons to find out how they work and control them without having any other external device like a mouse or a keyboard. The polled pupils confirmed that the process of the iPad is incorporated conspicuously through downloading "apps" which are small software programs designed to work on the iPad from the iTunes store. The researcher found out that such 'apps' are capable of interacting with services on the internet so that pupils can create videos, audios, texts, or graphics on the iPad and upload them on a website (June, L. January 26, 2010). This kind of synergy between the iPad and web-based services makes it a much safer device to use with pupils and greatly reduces the possibility of distracting them onto websites. Furthermore, most iPad "apps" are also designed for a single purpose. For example, writing tasks can be more enjoyable to students because "nothing can beat the power of human effort as it is a pre-requisite in utilizing technology in L2 writing." Hjalmar et al., (2017).

When pupils switch from one "app" to another, the previous one is closed down. This feature helps teachers handle classes, and pupils use iPads much easier as it is harder for pupils to open multiple windows. A laptop can take a few minutes to start and boot up, whereas an iPad can be switched on and an "app" can be opened in seconds. This means that valuable classroom time is not wasted, so consulting something like Wikipedia or Google can be done quickly. Very short bursts of computer implementation can easily be used to enhance and inform classroom interaction without lots of wasted time. The teachers of the specimen declared that

iPads tend to generate sociable interaction within the classroom. They are easier to pass from person to person, so pupils are not bound to move to the location of the computer.

The iPad would be a great platform for publishing an ELT course book (Chanton, E. M. 2010). In theory, it would be possible to have video and audio materials built right into the pages of the book so that pupils could work independently at their own pace. A teacher could use a single device with a data projector to show activities on a board. There is a possibility to build interactivity into the exercises in the pages of the book so that the materials could be marked and scored by the software, and the results sent back to the teachers' copy. For a practice and test of listening and speaking skills, teachers can ask students to record their own speaking tasks to send for evaluation. Pupils can actually connect up live to chat with other pupils, work collaboratively on texts or exercises or do speaking or pair work activities from home. The researcher noticed that pupils could interact with live data that could become personalized for a particular class. Visual items could be 3-dimensional, tactile, and able to respond to user input from pupils. Pupils could even navigate around a small-scale virtual world from within the course book (Danial, M. March 17, 2013). The iPad is a fantastic tool for creating texts and enabling pupils to link directly to a blog or learning journal without leaving the iPad "app". Besides, the high-resolution screen makes it ideal for reading. The cost of developing an app-based e-book for an iPad is likely to be as great as that of developing a paper-based book, but the costs of distribution are likely to be much cheaper, which could result in cheaper products for students.

Other facilities of the iPad are the touch screen, the keyboard which pops up when needed, and no mouse. In addition, this tool is lightweight, portable and easy to use even if the students are not familiar with Apple products. All these features make the iPad an attractive tool to be employed for teaching and learning processes. The iPad functions can be controlled far easier than the normal PC or laptop. The researcher remarked that no pupils of the survey faced any impediments in using the iPad. They could perform a variety of tasks more inspiringly. They carry out their activities cooperatively and communicatively. Pupils are much motivated to learn and be engaged in the iPad. Furthermore, the iPad in classrooms makes all pupils excited and engaged. The results of the questionnaire demonstrate that the iPad has the ability to interact with a variety of applications, and the number of the educational applications is growing increasingly. The most significant quality of the iPad the pupils of the specimen commented on is that it can easily be updated, saving tones of trees. The researcher also found that hesitant pupils can use the iPad to ask questions, make comments during the lessons confidentially, and communicate with teachers and other students instantly. Pupils and teachers

of the specimen expressed satisfaction with the iPad as a mobile device for viewing content. It is an amazing way to experience the web, watch podcasts and videos, read books, and do home tasks and assignments. Besides, the pupils of the survey show great satisfaction with the iPad since it is light and portable. It is much lighter than a bag full of paper books, notebooks, and binders. They opined that they could stuff all that into the iPad and easily take it with them wherever they go. Finally, the touch interface and application system on the iPad make it easy to access learning tools very quickly.

Disadvantages of the iPad

Pupils and education professionals alike noted some disadvantages. First, the distraction element of the device is a real consideration because it blurs the boundary between work and play, in addition to the addictive nature of the device (Djuric, M. April 3, 2010). The researcher is afraid that the use of the iPad for learning would depreciate the need for good handwriting. He argues that the use of the keyboard and the exam requirement to write all answers by which pupils are evaluated constitute a hidden problem. This is because there are factors taken into consideration when marking the exams which have not been completely tackled by educators. Teachers of the specimen commented that the iPads lack of a keyboard makes it hard to do long writing assignments and perform multitasks at the same time. On the technical side, if all pupils are simultaneously connected to the internet at the same time, connection faults are bound to pop out. There has to be sufficient frequency range to support a high volume of devices connecting to the internet at once. If these disadvantages could be resolved, more pupils and professionals would be ready to use the iPad to its full educational potential. Each new generation of the iPad will resolve these disadvantages and will make it more attractive to include the device in the schooling curriculum. Although the iPad brings new opportunities, students agree that it is not a replacement of the laptop (Kang, C. January 27, 2010). Because the iPad has neither the memory nor the operating system of a traditional laptop, it has fewer features that cannot perform many activities simultaneously as the laptop can. The iPad is a device that boosts fun and interactive learning, but it is difficult to fulfill extensive research and write longer papers. The iPad is not imperishable: if it is dropped onto a hard surface, it may break or the screen may be scratched up. In addition, if pupils want to use the internet, they would need a flash because the majority of websites depend on it. In the study, few students reported feeling frustrated when underlining texts and taking notes within e-books on the iPad. Moreover, unlike a full-fledged computer, multiple “windows” or files could not be kept open, side-by-side on the iPad (Sheth, N. January 28, 2010). The researcher found that

teachers complained that iPads lack the ability to work with Adobe Flash and JavaScript because much educational content in websites is controlled by Flash. About 55% of the specimen's teachers believe that the iPad is a distracting tool because there is a possibility that students may stray onto external websites. They also think that the iPad lacks production capabilities. The iPad is a good content viewer, but it is not very good for content creation. In practice it is used for soft writing. In short, iPads are not good for sharing (Goldman, D. March 2, 2011). Finally, the iPad is designed to be a personal device. In fact, personal information cannot be saved if pupils share iPads.

Suggestions and Proposals

The researcher approves the advantages of the iPad as a novel, effective educational technology. From a quick comparison of the pros and cons of the iPad, it may well look like the benefits far outweigh the disadvantages, which is not very remarkable (Chalmers, E. 14 February 2010). The researcher believes that if educational authorities are thinking of introducing iPads in schools, then by far the best way to start is just by having a few in the teachers' staff room and allowing teachers to explore them and see what they can do with them. If this can initiate eagerness in learning among students, then other schools in Kuwait could be on the right way to having a 21st century revolution in the didactic system as a whole. The motivating impressions from pupils and teachers have clearly been stated by the increased inspiration and engagement with learning through iPads. Accordingly, the researcher recommends the generalization of the use of iPads in Kuwait schools, whether intermediate or secondary schools. However, improper acquaintance with the iPad "may change the positive attitudes of students toward technology if they are not detected and accommodated." (Sayyed Mohammad Alavi and Reza Dashtestani, (2014))

Conclusion

At the end of the research, the researcher has come to the conclusion that the iPad has surpassed all other educational devices, such as the projector, TV and desktop computer. Educational issues are solved by this gadget. It has restructured the teaching and the learning processes (Foo, F. 2 February 2010).

The iPad's touch screen and its interface enable both students and teachers to perform numerous tasks, operate different programs, and make use of several applications that have been shown to be greatly reflected in students' achievement. The researcher's focus has been on the employment of the iPad as a teaching and learning aid in Kuwait schools in the form of

e-readers replacing heavy conventional textbooks. The success of the use of the iPad has been denoted by the responses of the questionnaire conducted by the researcher, affirming the predominance of advantages over disadvantages. In addition, pupils can communicate and share study inside the classroom, making the classrooms educationally self-contained, not necessitating students to student out of class collaboration.

This study demonstrates that iPads enable pupils to physically join to their work that is particularly needed by them. These palpable elements – using fingers to zoom, rotate in, pinch close, or swipe across as well as increasingly interactive and immersive apps – facilitate hands-on learning. Moreover, the iPad's mobility provides students with the opportunity to take pictures, record audios, and shoot videos in any number of places. The device meets the requirements of active consumption, duration, and creativity. In short, when iPads are implemented in schools, pupils can showcase better performance in education.

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Toward an Inclusive Description of the Segmental Phonology of Philippine English

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Abstract.

This mother-tongue-based research on Philippine English (PE) phonology provides a more inclusive description of its segmental features as speech samples were obtained from the native speakers of the 13 major languages that roughly cover the entire country. Additionally, it is an

attempt to move the emphasis of PE investigation from an elitist-Manila-centric perspective to a more diverse and national in scope in describing the English vowel and consonantal production of Filipinos. In three separate recording sessions, speakers were asked to perform monologues, and to read aloud from the word and sentence lists as well as the passage in order to get the data for analysis. By using the frequency count, it was found that PE has a smaller inventory of phonological units in terms of its vowels and consonants. The vowel system is considerably reduced as it is characterized by weakened length distinction. It also appears that neutralization of sounds is evident in consonants as fricatives are generally collapsed. Moreover, this research highlights a different perspective from the previously established features of PE as it revealed the absence of long /i/ and /u/, and the emergence of short /ɪ/ and /ʊ/ in the vowel inventory. In addition, it was meaningful to discover that the use of /t/ for /θ/ and /d/ for /ð/ are not features of PE phonology which deviate from the claims made by other researchers. Thus, it can be argued that the segmental phonology of PE somehow reflects the interplay of the speakers' mother tongue and the English language learning and teaching in the country. Furthermore, this study sustains that English language is not homogenous in form but it is pluralistic in nature because of the many factors involved especially when situated in multilingual and multicultural contexts.

Keywords: *Philippine English, Phonology, Inclusive, Vowels, Consonants*

Introduction

The Philippine English (PE) appears to be unique in Southeast Asia considering that it is the only variety in the region which originated from the United States of America (USA) as compared to its neighboring countries where English came from the United Kingdom (UK) (Jubilado, 2016). It is one of the New Englishes in the world that has its own identity in its own sociocultural contexts, and emerged as an autonomous variety of English with its own self-contained system (McKaughan, 1993). In Braj Kachru's three-circle model of World Englishes, it is situated at the outer circle along with the other varieties in which English is considered as a second language (Kachru, 1996; 1998; 2005). Based on the Dynamic Model of Schneider (2007), PE is fossilized at stage 3, that is, in the *nativization* stage. The PE variety is said to be a product of a macro-language acquisition process which is "taking place where speakers of different mother tongues within the same environment simultaneously acquire a common language that serves a unifying linguistic resources" (Tayao, 2004, p. 157).). Llamzon (1969) articulates that "it is the type of English which educated Filipinos speak, and

which is acceptable in educated Filipino circles” (p.15). In 2000, Bautista emphasized that PE is a “nativized variety of English that has features which differentiate from Standard American English” (p. 20) because of the influence of the speaker’s mother tongue, of the various cultures in which the language is rooted, and of the changes in some rules in grammar. Thus, the peculiar features of English in the Philippines is not surprising anymore particularly on its phonological level (Gonzalez, 1976) that has been extensively studied and documented as early as 1969.

The pioneering works on PE phonology were primarily based on the spoken English of the educated Filipinos ((Llamzon, 1969; Gonzales & Alberca, 1978; Beltran, 2015; Jubilado, 2016) since English language acquisition and use in the Philippines are mainly a function of the duration of schooling as well as of the quality of education (Bautista, 2000). Llamzon (1969) also believes that the “educated individuals are the representatives and judges of acceptable speech in a language community” (p.15). The idea of educated or elite groups include the media personalities too as “the agency which has the best chances of providing a variety for eventual standardization would be the mass media” (Gonzalez & Alberca, 1978, p. 5). However, considering the fact that Philippines is characterized by numerous languages all over the archipelago, Tayao (2004) sees the use of *sociolectal* framework as a more strategic method in illustrating the phonological features of PE because each *lectal* group has its own characteristic which supersedes differences in the speakers’ mother tongue. Thus, the use of *lectal* ranges of the speakers, the *acrolect*, *mesolect* and *basilect*, has become a popular approach (Llamzon, 1997; Tayao, 2004; Regala-Flores, 2014). It is important to emphasize that these widely-known investigations which aimed to describe the phonological features of PE were conducted in Metro Manila.

Looking at the researches conducted on PE phonology, it is very evident that they actually overlooked the fundamental principle of *inclusivity* in demonstrating the characteristics of this variety which is situated at the very core of *World Englishes* (WE) enterprise (Bolton, 2006). Tupas (2004) argues that generalizations under one flag--Philippine English--must be able to capture the cultural and sociolinguistic make-up of the whole country. Therefore, it is implied that previous findings based on the speech forms of the educated elites coming from a metropolitan linguistic environment, which indirectly advocate the elites and the imperial Manila, do not truly represent the features of PE phonology. As Gonzales (2017) stresses, “by generalizing findings based on an unrepresented ‘Philippine English,’ we could be ignoring other minorities and groups affected by other social factors, indirectly advocating elitism” (p. 82). Furthermore, the use of *lectal* framework is characterized by the socio-economic and

educational backgrounds of the speakers that is closely associated with the idea of prestigious accent as imposed by socially powerful groups that may resist and suppress variability because of the stigma that is attached to non-standard spoken variety (Richards & Tay, 1981 as cited in Foley, 1988). Since Philippines is highly diverse, ignoring the speakers of different linguistic and cultural groups is seen by Tupas (2004) as one of the major research gaps in constructing the features of PE variety. Gonzales (2017) believes that a more comprehensive description could start in a mother-tongue-based investigation that would include the speakers of the major languages. A similar standpoint was offered by Tayao (2004) who thinks that a wide-ranging phonological description of PE could be done by encompassing speakers from different linguistic and geographical backgrounds.

Because of the strong call for a decentralized and represented PE variety, this research was carried out to provide a more inclusive description of its phonology based on the speech samples obtained from the native speakers of the 13 major languages that roughly cover the entire country: Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao. The researcher attempts to move the emphasis of PE phonology from an elitist-Manila-centric perspective to a more diverse and national in scope in describing the English *vowel* and *consonantal* production of Filipinos. This investigation is an attempt to “help democratize English language studies in the Philippines because it will broaden the range of possibilities that Filipinos can make an impact on the English language” (Tupas, 2004, p. 54) that is truly Philippine English. In the conduct of this investigation, the researcher underscores that it is purely descriptive, and she does not suggest anything as regards correctness, intelligibility, acceptability and the like. Moreover, it does not make assertions as regards models and standards of English.

Methodology

2.1 Research Setting and Participants

This study employed a descriptive-qualitative research design in order to describe the segmental phonology of Philippine English (PE). It was conducted in state universities situated in provinces where each of the 13 major Philippine languages is widely spoken: Tagalog, Kapampangan, Pangasinan, Ilocano, Bicol, Cebuano, Hiligaynon, Waray, Tausug, Maguindanaon, Maranao, Chabacano, and Kiniray-a. For each Philippinist language, there were two native speakers served as representatives, an office head/administrator/university official and an administrative staff. A total of 26 speakers took part on this research in which 19 were females and 8 were males whose ages ranged from 22 to 47. Although all of them were educated, the inclusion criteria adopted the idea of Tayao (2004) that participation should

be limited to those whose undergraduate degrees or fields of expertise were not English or any of the areas allied to it, like mass communications, speech and drama, linguistics, creative writing, etc., as features of new Englishes are mainly found in the speech of these types of speakers (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008). Additionally, participants should be free of outside influence to ensure the authenticity of the data as emphasized by Boberg (2004). Thus, all speakers were born from parents, both the mother and the father, who were native speakers of their respective languages; have virtually spent all their lives in their home provinces where they earned their elementary, high school and college education; and have not lived in other areas for more than six months as it is believed to be the maximum duration of stay in a particular place before the language production of an individual will be affected by ambient languages.

2.2 Data Collection

To elicit the needed data, the researcher made use of read materials and verbal prompts. The speakers were asked to read aloud from the list of words and sentences as well as the *Wolf* passage. Moreover, participants performed a monologue and gave their opinions/answers verbally about certain questions. After all the needed data were gathered, the researcher employed an auditory analysis in which speech samples were transcribed phonetically using earphones and analyzed them descriptively. The vowel and consonant sounds in all verbal tasks were transcribed according to narrow phonetic transcription using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) symbol. From the read tasks, there were 246 words produced by each participant that were intended to capture all the vowels and consonants identified in various phonological environments. The said number of tokens were considered as San and MacLagan (2009) maintain that 200 words are usually deemed sufficient to yield a representative sample of speech.

In the spontaneous tasks, the researcher initially identified a maximum of ten words for each vowel and consonant sounds to be analyzed from the combined speech samples as modelled by Deterding (2003). However, since the production of the participants varied in this style of speech, some sounds had less than ten occurrences. To solve this, the researcher decided that the number of words to be examined would be based on the speaker who produced the least number of tokens for each sound. Thus, a total of 198 words were considered for each speaker in the spontaneous verbal tasks which is assumed to be acceptable. There were also instances when a single word was used for many times as it contained multiple target sounds. The data from spontaneous speeches were first transcribed using ordinary transcription. The researcher

then looked into words which contained the target sounds that were transcribed using the IPA method. A total of 11,544 words from the combined verbal tasks were examined to illustrate the segmental features of PE. Then, an inventory of phonemes or sound segments was made and the occurrence of sound features were counted.

2.3 Constructing the Segmental Features of PE

In constructing the segmental features of PE phonology, the vowels and consonants in all tasks must be established first. In order to do that, Tayao (2004) maintains that frequency count is required although it must be emphasized that the main goal of this study is the phonological phenomena themselves and not their relative frequency of occurrence. In this paper, the researcher set a stricter inclusion criteria of a particular feature, that is, the two participants of each major Philippine language must have an average of at least 60% of the total number of occurrence of a particular speech form for it to be considered as a characteristic of the pair. The term *pair* here pertains to the two speaker representatives who share the same native language. Overall, this investigation had 13 pairs of speakers. In this way, the researcher is certain that the feature cuts across *idiolects*, that is, that it was *dialectal*. Such use of frequency count is also adherent to the idea set forth by Hung (2000) in the identification of shared, not *idiosyncratic*, phonological properties among speakers. After the identification of pair's segmental features, the description of PE phonology was then constructed following the work of Tayao (2004) in which a feature must be exhibited by at least 80% of the total number of pairs. This means that at least ten pairs of speakers must display a particular feature for it to be included in the vowel and consonant system of PE.

Results and Discussion

The segmental features of the Philippine English (PE) are described based on the speech samples obtained from the read aloud and spontaneous speech tasks. In the discussion, reference to other varieties of English are made when relevant to highlight their similarities to, or differences from, PE. Since it is important to avoid prejudging the data, all possible features are considered.

3.1 Vowels

The vowels in the present study are described according to the inventory of phonemes or sound segments which contrast with each other. In this case, differences are based on the *vowel length* (long or short) or *tenseness* (tense or lax). English long vowels are usually regarded as tense

while short vowels as lax (San & MacLagan, 2009). Deterding and Hvitfeldt (1998) sustain that long vowels pertain to the duration of the pronunciation that takes somewhat longer to utter than short vowels. In this study, it appears that vowels in PE are generally reduced.

3.1.1 /i/ and /ɪ/

The data provides that speakers inconsistently realized the long, tense vowel /i/ as there were instances when it was produced as /ɪ/, /e/ or /ə/ vowels. Participants tend to preserve the tenseness of /i/ in words like *teacher* [tʃɛr], *fields* [fildz], *please* [pliz], *deep* [dip], *sheep* [ʃip] and *feast* [fist] in the reading tasks. However, speakers seemed to use its high-front short /ɪ/ counterpart in words like *these*, *believe*, *nobody*, *leave*, *degree* and *conscientious* which were heard as [ðɪz], [bəliɪv], [nobadɪ], [liɪv], [diɡri] and [kənʃɪɛnʃəs] in their spontaneous responses. Hence, long vowel /i/ is not a feature of PE in the context of this study since less than 10 pairs of speakers exhibit such speech form. This finding deviates from the reports made by Llamzon (1969), Gonzalez and Alberca (1978) and Jubilado (2016) who claim the existence of long, tense /i/ in the vowel system of PE phonology. This result also differs from the assertions made by Llamzon (1997), Tayao (2004) and Regala-Flores (2014) that /i/ is a feature of *acrolectal*, *mesolectal* and *basilectal* varieties of PE. However, it is interesting to know that this inconsistent realization of long, tense vowel /i/ is actually a trend in the ASEAN varieties of English because of the speakers' mother tongue (Kirkpatrick, 2010).

Thus, the inconsistent realization of long vowel /i/ and the frequent shift toward /ɪ/ could be an influence of the participants' native tongue since Philippine languages lack long/short versus tense/lax vowel distinctions (Jubilado, 2016). Although numerous speakers were able to realize long /i/ vowel in their speeches, it is very likely that some of them did not discriminate vowel length as they tend to shift to lax vowels like /ɪ/ and /ə/ that were probably perceived to be all the same with /i/. Another plausible explanation is the one offered by Tongue (1979, in San & MacLagan, 2009) that the use of final stops, just like /p/ and /t/ in words *deep* [dip], *sheep* [ʃip] and *feast* [fist], in this study cause the shortening of the preceding vowel. This somehow explains that in some instances, speakers were heard saying [dɪp], [ʃɪp] and [fɪst].

As regards high-front short /ɪ/ vowel, almost all pairs of speakers exhibit this feature as they produced the medial sounds in words like *dip* [dɪp], *ship* [ʃɪp] and *fill* [fɪl]. Similar result was reflected in the work of Llamzon (1969) and among *acrolect* (Llamzon, 1997; Tayao, 2004) and *basilect* speakers (Regala-Flores, 2014). This inclusion of lax /ɪ/ in the vowel system of PE is different from the finding made by Gonzalez and Alberca (1978) who reported the inconsistent realization of lax vowel /ɪ/. Its absence in the *mesolectal* and *basilectal* varieties

of PE was also reported by Llamzon (1997) and Tayao (2004). In other varieties of English, it is consistently realized by speakers of MaIE but not included in the inventory of SgE (Hung, 1996).

As Deterding (2003) explains, length distinctions in this highly globalized age are often neutralized because of the influence of the mother tongue. Vowels are now often reduced to /ɪ/, /ʊ/, and unstressed /ə/ schwa that has become a trend in all English varieties around the world (Lewis & Deterding, 2018). This global trend probably explains why speakers were able to maintain /ɪ/ aside from the fact that it is easier to produce (Hung, 2002). Moreover, the perspective of Tongue (1979, in San & MacLagan, 2009) is worth repeating here who claims that the use of final stops will cause shortening of the preceding vowel like in *dip* [dɪp] and *ship* [ʃɪp] that were frequently found in the examined tokens. All these arguments are believed to have contributed to the emergence of lax vowel /ɪ/ as a feature in this research.

3.1.2 /e/ and /ɛ/

In terms of the production of the mid-front vowels /e/ and /ɛ/, their sounds were preserved as tense and lax respectively. The mid-front vowel /e/ is a feature of all speakers that was maintained in words like *age* [edʒ], *days* [dez], *gate* [get], *base* [bes] and *stayed* [sted] among others. This speech form is also found in the list of distinctive features of SFE in Llamzon's (1969) study but not in Gonzalez and Alberca's (1978) work who reported its frequent substitution with /a/ vowel sound. Among *lectal* groups, the mid-front /e/ is said to be a feature of *acrolectal* (Llamzon, 1997; Tayao, 2004) and *basilectal* (Regala-Flores, 2014) variety of PE. Based on the results, this study maintains the existence of /e/ in the vowel inventory of PE which is also present in some of the Philippine languages as a product of American and Spanish influences (McFarland, 2009). In the ASEAN varieties of English, the vowel /e/ is not a feature in HKE (Hung, 2000) and SgE (Deterding, 2003). As a tense vowel, it is usually neutralized as vowel /ɛ/ (Hung, 2000). Also, British speakers of English frequently overlaps the production of vowels /e/ and /æ/ that may have influenced the inconsistent production of /e/ among English speakers in Hong Kong and Singapore which are former British colonies.

Just like vowel /e/, the great majority exhibits the mid-front lax vowel /ɛ/ in the context of this research. Its overwhelming occurrence is not surprising since /ɛ/ is the main variant of itself (Mesthrie & Bhatt, 2008) that was consistently realized in words like *edge* [ɛdʒ], *get* [gɛt], *lend* [lɛnd], *them* [ðɛm] and *threaten* [θrɛtən] among others. This feature is also found in the previous studies of PE phonology except in the *basilectal* variety (Llamzon, 1997; Tayao, 2004; Regala-Flores, 2014) and in the new Englishes particularly in the ASEAN region.

3.1.3 /æ/ and /a/

One of the most inconsistently distributed vowels in this investigation is the low-front unrounded /æ/ that was habitually realized as low-central unrounded /a/. This phonological situation was observed by all researchers of PE phonology (Llamzon, 1969; Gonzalez & Alberca, 1978; Tayao, 2004; Regala-Flores, 2014; Jubilado, 2016). Based on the results, a number of pairs tend to realize the low-front unrounded /æ/ as central unrounded /a/ in words *land*, *map* and *tank* that were heard as [land], [map] and [taŋk]. This use of /a/ for /æ/ has been considered as a phenomenon in PE phonology, a common occurrence in most new English varieties, except for Llamzon's (1969) SFE features. Even in the *acrolectal* variety in which speakers are known to approximate the pronunciation of inner circle English varieties, the /æ/ is excluded from its vowel inventory. Tayao (2004) thinks that in PE, the /æ/ is in free variation with /a/ primarily because of its absence from local vernaculars. Thus, the nonexistence of vowel /æ/ in the Philippine languages is a possible factor to realize it as a more central-low vowel /a/. Additionally, it is believed that the use of /a/ for /æ/ is largely a function of spelling pronunciation phenomenon in the Philippines in which /æ/ is graphically represented as <a>. Gonzalez and Alberca (1978) maintain that such linguistic occurrence is a product of reading approach in teaching the English language in the Philippines.

Given the production pattern of participants in realizing the low-front vowel /æ/, it is not surprising that the central-unrounded /a/ is fully realized across speakers of the major Philippine languages. The speech samples showed that vowel /a/ is a feature of all pairs of speakers that makes its inclusion in the sound inventory of PE goes unchallenged. Similar to the previous findings, participants of this present study were consistent in maintaining the central-unrounded /a/ in words like *mop* [map], *watch* [watʃ], *flocks* [flaks], *not* [nat], *job* [jab], *harm* [harm], *nobody* [nobody] and *hot* [hat]. As mentioned earlier, its consistent inclusion in the inventory of PE phonology could be attributed to the fact that it is present in all Philippine languages, and to its high frequency of occurrence across different varieties of English as it is one of the easiest to acquire (Hung, 2002). In addition, most words which contain the /a/ sound is also represented with <a> that may have contributed to the great preservation of its sound.

3.1.4 /ɔ/ and /o/

In terms of producing the long, tense back vowel /ɔ/ in words such as *all* [ɔl], *bought* [bɔt], *saw* [sɔ], *longer* [lɔŋgər], *for* [fɔr] and *call* [kɔl], it emerged as a feature of most pairs of speakers. This finding is the same with Llamzon's (1969) report concerning the features of SFE, and that of Llamzon (1997) as well as of Tayao (2004) as regards *acrolectal* features. In

the ASEAN region, Hung (1996; 2000) and Deterding (2003) maintain that this vowel is a feature in SgE and HKE varieties. Contrary to what Tayao (2004) claims that open /ɔ/ is among those vowels that Filipinos would usually substitute with other sounds in their native language, the finding of the present study maintains its inclusion in the sound inventory of PE. Its emergence as a feature could be a result of the speakers' familiarity with the words produced in the reading and spontaneous speaking tasks. It is assumed that speakers may have often heard the words everyday especially from the mass media or from English teachers in which, with the extra ordinary ear and power of mimicry of the Filipinos (Gonzalez & Alberca, 1978), they have picked up.

The same explanation may also be true in relation to the production of mid-back rounded /o/ which is generally maintained by the participants. Previous studies showed its absence from the vowel inventory of PE (Gonzalez & Alberca, 1978) and from the *lectal* varieties except for the *acrolect* group (Llamzon, 1997; Tayao, 2004). In the present study, the result demonstrates otherwise as it was found to be a feature of PE which is similar to what Llamzon reported in 1969. The use of simple and familiar words such as *boat* [bot], *poll* [pol], *promoting* [prəmətɪŋ], *nobody* [nɒbadi], and *mango* [mæŋɡo] may have facilitated the preservation of vowel /o/ sound in various verbal tasks.

3.1.5 /ʊ/ and /u/

With reference to the production of /ʊ/, it was generally preserved as high-back lax vowel in words like *full* [fʊl], *put* [pʊt], *poor* [pʊr], *foot* [fʊt], *could* [kʊd], *would* [wʊd], and *should* [ʃʊd]. It should be highlighted that in the previous investigations, the high-back tense vowel /u/ is used in lieu of lax /ʊ/ (Tayao, 2008; Jubilado, 2016). In the contrary, this research illustrates the speakers' preservation of /ʊ/ although there were instances in which it was realized as tense /u/ or open /ɔ/. The realization of vowel /ʊ/, that has actually become a global trend (Hung, 2002), may be due to the familiarity of the words used and to the fact that short lax vowels are easier to realize since less effort is involved in the production.

On the other hand, the long, tense vowel /u/ was inconsistently realized as participants tend to favor the use of short /ʊ/ vowel. The data showed that there were reported realizations of high-back long, tense vowel /u/ by the participants although it was not consistently preserved. It appears that speakers tend to shift from tense /u/ to reduced vowels /ʊ/ and /ə/ which is similar to the report of San and MacLagan in 2009. As Baskaran (2004 as cited in San & MacLagan, 2009) and Kirkpatrick (2010) point out, there is a greater tendency to shorten long vowels among speakers of some varieties of new Englishes as they may have viewed long and short

vowels similarly. In contrast, long vowel /u/ is a feature of HKE (Hung, 2000) and SgE (Deterding, 2003) varieties. This finding deviates from what most researchers of PE established which include /u/ in the vowel system. In this research, it is possible that participants were not conscious in their articulation of /u/ since “vowel length in Philippine English does not have any phonemic status” (Jubilado, 2016, p. 91), and they probably thought that it is just similar with /ʊ/ or /ə/ sounds.

3.1.6 schwa /ʌ/ and /ə/

In relation to central vowels, the stressed schwa /ʌ/ emerged in the speech samples obtained from the participants although it was frequently realized as full vowel /a/. Deterding (2010) maintains that the use of stressed schwa /ʌ/ is a common feature of many inner circle varieties of English. In this study, its occurrence was mostly found in the words produced from the reading-aloud tasks such as *but* [bʌt], *some* [sʌm] and *up* [ʌp] among others. However, the frequency of occurrence showed that it was usually realized as full vowel /a/ especially in words with letters <u> like *truck* and *but* which were often realized as [trak] and [bat], and *up* as [ap], and <o> like *come* and *some* that were heard as [kam] and [sam], and *once* and *company* as [wans] and [kampəni]. Since very few pairs of speakers exhibit this feature, it is excluded from the sound inventory of PE. The same report was made by Llamzon (1969), Gonzalez and Alberca (1978) and by Llamzon (1997), Tayao (2004) and Regala-Flores as regards *basilectal* features. Similar findings were also found in the studies of Deterding (2005; 2010) in SgE and of San and MacLagan (2009) in MaIE. The inconsistent realization of schwa /ʌ/ sound, and the preference toward full vowel /a/ among speakers, is probably an influence of the speakers’ mother tongue since Philippine languages do not have stressed schwa /ʌ/ except for the Waray language (McFarland, 2009), and of the spelling pronunciation phenomenon that continues to prevail in the Philippine society (Jubilado, 2016).

However, it is unexpected to discover a number of attempts made by speakers to produce the unstressed/unaccented /ə/ schwa. Although there were instances when it was used interchangeably with other full vowel sounds, its emergence as a feature of almost ten pairs of speakers is surprising since this sound is generally absent in PE and in the ASEAN varieties of English (Kirkpatrick, 2010). As already mentioned, weakening, or vowel reduction, is a significant feature in GAE variety (Burzio, 2007 as cited in Deterding, 2010) that was identified by Llamzon (1969) as feature of SFE. However, most of the studies after the groundbreaking work of Llamzon noted the absence of unstressed schwa /ə/ (Gonzalez & Alberca, 1978; Jubilado, 2016) in PE phonology particularly in the different *lectal* varieties

except for the *acrolect* speakers (Tayao, 2004). The ASEAN English varieties are also marked by the absence of reduced vowel /ə/ (Hung, 1996; 2000; 2002; Deterding, 2003; 2005; 2010; 2016; Deterding et al., 2008; San & MacLagan, 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2010). Although unstressed schwa /ə/ is not included in the vowel system, this reduced vowel could be considered as a developing feature of PE the fact that it emerged as a feature in most pairs of speakers.

By and large, the vowel features of PE are given in Figure 1.

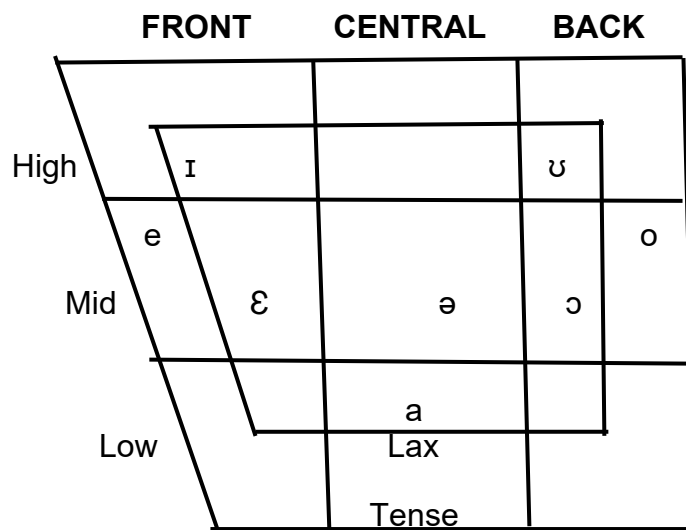


Figure 1. Vowel Features of PE Phonology.

3.2 Consonants

Generally, the consonant features of the speakers in this study are almost similar to the results found in the previous researches of PE phonology and in the other varieties of English except for very few speech forms that were distinctly realized.

3.2.1 Stops

The analysis of the data showed that PE phonology has six (6) consonantal stops: /p/, /b/, /d/, /t/, /k/, and /g/. When the sounds were narrowly transcribed, it was found that phonetically, the voiced stops /b/, /d/, and /g/ were not really voiced but are voiceless. While the initial voiceless plosives are normally aspirated (Gussman, 2002 as cited in Sharbawi, 2010), the speech samples illustrated that /p/, /b/ and /k/ sounds at the onset position were not aspirated. Aspiration is characterized by a burst of high frequency energy which is phonetically

represented as [h], so an aspirated bilabial plosive is shown as [p^h]. Aspiration is also defined as a period of voicelessness after the release of the plosive in which a puff of air rushes out just before the vowel starts. In this study, the researcher examined five words to determine the aspiration of the voiceless plosives: *perfect* [p^hɜːfɪkt], *poor* [p^hʊr], *tank* [t^hæŋk], *teacher* [t^hitʃə], and *kissed* [k^hɪst]. Based on the narrow IPA transcription, it was found that only one Hiligaynon speaker provided aspirated initials of voiceless plosives in all examined words. Furthermore, one of the Waray speakers produced an aspirated /p/ in *poor* [p^hʊr], /t/ in *tank* [t^hæŋk] and *teacher* [t^hitʃə] although the realization pattern was inconsistent as other plosives in the initial position were unaspirated. The rest of the participants exhibited a non-aspiration in the onset. Thus, aspiration of the voiceless plosives is not a feature of PE. This finding supports the claims as regards conversational speech style of Filipino speakers in English (Llamzon, 1969), speech of media personnel (Gonzalez & Alberca, 1978), and features of *lectal* groups (Llamzon, 1997; Tayao, 2004; Regala-Flores, 2014). Jenkins (2009) maintains that this unaspiration of initial voiceless plosives is a feature of the outer circle English varieties such as those of Malaysia, India, the Philippines and Singapore. Such linguistic phenomenon is attributed to the influence of the first languages of the speakers in which plosives are not aspirated in any position (Deterding, 2007). Hence, it is possible that the non-aspiration characteristics of the speakers in this study is comparable to, and apparently influenced by, the voiceless unaspirated stops in Philippine languages.

3.2.2 Fricatives

One of the most important discovery in this study is that, for the overwhelming majority, there is no evidence of a voiced and voiceless contrast. While inner circle Englishes have nine (/f, v, s, z, h, ʃ, ʒ, θ, ð/) fricatives, the participants in this study reflected only five: /f/, /v/, /s/, /h/ and /ʃ/. This means that fricatives in PE phonology are all voiceless except for the /v/ consonant. The researcher thinks that the occurrence of voiceless fricatives as PE features points out again to the influence of the Philippine languages in which fricatives are not voiced (Tayao, 2004). As regards voiced fricatives, the consonantal /z/ emerged in words like *zoo* [zu], *thousand* [θaʊzənd] and *villagers* [vɪlɪdʒəz] although not a single pair of speakers exhibit this feature. It seems that the minimal attempts to produce such sound were mainly found in words where the voiced /z/ is explicitly represented as <z>. With this, it is worthy to repeat the meaningful observation of Gonzalez and Alberca (1978) that Filipino speakers of English largely go by the spelling pronunciation. However, there were also instances when it was produced even when the target sound was not represented by <z> just like *thousand* [θaʊzənd] and *villagers*

[vɪlɪdʒə̃s] among others. But, the idea of spelling pronunciation phenomenon was strengthened when all speakers produced /s/ instead of /z/ at the nucleus and coda positions in words like *because*, *always*, *disaster*, *words*, *designated* and *affairs* that were heard as [bɪkəs], [ɔlwes], [dɪsæstər], [wə̃rds], [dɛ̃sɪgnətəd] and [ə̃fɛ̃rs]. Such observation seems to suggest that the English sound production of Filipinos is primarily based on how it is graphically represented. Still on the consonantal fricatives, there were negligible attempts in realizing palatal-alveolar fricative /ʒ/ sound as it was produced in the word *pleasure* [plɛ̃ʒə̃] by almost all speakers as [plɛ̃ʃə̃] using the voiceless /ʃ/. Such discovery strengthens the idea that /ʒ/ is not a feature of PE phonology as it is frequently replaced by voiceless /ʃ/ consonant sound. This is not a problem according to Lewis and Deterding (2018) since it is not really necessary to differentiate /ʒ/ and /ʃ/ as they have low functional load that would still be understood. During the transcription of the data, it was observed that not all speakers were able to produce a word that contains such alveolar fricative in the spontaneous tasks. Thus, the researcher considered this sound to have zero occurrence in the spontaneous verbal speech which further validates the argument of Deterding (2010) that it is the least common consonant sound in English and only occurs in a few basic words.

With respect to the interdental fricative /θ/, the speech samples showed that it frequently occurs in the speech of the participants of diverse linguistic backgrounds contrary to the popular perception that it is absent from the sound system of new English varieties. The data illustrated a number of instances in which the voiceless fricative /θ/ was produced in the initial position like in *third* [θɜ̃d] and *threaten* [θrɛ̃tn], and in the final position just like *twelfth* [twɛ̃lfθ]. The instances of /θ/ realization is probably the result of speakers' conscious effort to be better understood in the communicative interaction. This argument is in line with the claim made by Deterding and Mohamad (2016) that speakers of the outer and expanding circle Englishes try to approximate the pronunciation of the inner circle English speakers in an attempt to achieve mutual intelligibility. However, most speakers tend to use the voiceless-stop /t/ to realize /θ/ just like *thirty* [tɜ̃rdɪ], *something* [sə̃mtɪŋ], *think* [tɪŋk] and *truthful* [trũtfəl] as already predicted in the studies of PE variety and New Englishes (Gonzalez & Alberca, 1978; Tayao, 2004; Regala-Flores, 2014; Jubilado, 2016). However, this investigation negates the popular notion that the use of /t/ for /θ/ is a feature of PE phonology as it was not exhibited by at least ten pairs of speakers. Instead, this investigation highlights the inconsistent preservation of /θ/ and the frequent use /t/ substitute which is a common characteristic of almost all English varieties in Southeast Asian countries (Deterding & Kirkpatrick 2006) and of new Englishes in general (Kirkpatrick, 2010). This use of /t/ for /θ/ is said to enhance

intelligibility among speakers of Outer and Expanding Circle English varieties (Lewis & Deterding, 2018). It appears that in this research, all the pronunciation patterns as regards voiceless fricative /θ/ are aimed at achieving intelligibility. This study further argues that although this voiceless fricative /θ/ is not included in the sound inventory of PE at present, it appears to be a developing feature that needs to be investigated further.

In terms of the voiced-interdental fricative /ð/, this study sustains its inconsistent distribution since speakers frequently produced it as dental plosive /d/. The speech samples illustrated that words like *there*, *bothered* and *with* were produced by some speakers as [ðɛr], [baðə-d] and [wɪð], while most of them were heard saying [dɛr], [baðə-d] and [wɪd]. This result suggests that some participants were able to preserve the voiced interdental fricative sound because they may have strong connection with English communication being the heads of their respective offices and as someone who is in-charge of official correspondence. However for most speakers, the dental /d/ might have served as an automatic, reflex manner of pronouncing the /θ/ sound since it is readily available in the sound inventory of the participants' native languages in addition to the fact that they are actually homorganic consonants. Based on the result, this study maintains that both voiced fricative /ð/ and the use of dental stop /d/ substitute are not features of PE phonology which deviates from the popular finding on this aspect.

3.2.3 Affricates, Nasal, Liquids and Glides

In the examination of speech samples, it was found that consonantal affricates /tʃ/ in words like *teacher* [tittʃə], *actually* [æktʃəwəli] and *much* [mʌtʃ], as well as /dʒ/ in *edge* [ɛdʒ], *village* [vilɪdʒ], *villagers* [vilɪdʒəz], emerged as features of all sets of speakers. Moreover, the data provided that nasal consonants /m, n, ŋ/ like in *company* [kʌmpəni], *same* [seɪm], *him* [hɪm], *nobody* [noʊbədi], *once* [wʌns], *threaten* [θrɛtn], *mango* [mæŋgo], *thank* [θæŋk] and *long* [lɒŋ] are features of PE, as well as liquids /l/ and rhotic /r/ in words like *wolf* [wʊlf], *twelfth* [twɛlfθ], *chart* [tʃart] and *more* [mɔr], along with glides /w/ and /j/ in *wolf* [wʊlf], *twelve* [twɛlv], *usual* [juʒəwəl] and *few* [fju]. These results maintain the previous reports as regards PE consonants (Llamzon, 1969; Gonzalez & Alberca, 1978; Llamzon, 1997; Tayao, 2004; Regala-Flores, 2014; Jubilado, 2016) and in the ASEAN varieties of English (Hung, 2000; 2002; Deterding, 2003; 2010; Deterding et al., 2008; San & MacLagan, 2009; Kirkpatrick; 2010).

Therefore, based on the findings presented, a more inclusive consonantal features of PE are shown in figure 2.

MANNER	VOICING	PLACE						
		BILABIAL	LABIODENTAL	INTERDENTAL	ALVEOLAR	PALATAL	VELAR	GLOTTAL
Stop	Voiceless	p			t		k	
	Voiced	b			d		g	
Fricative	Voiceless		f		s	ʃ		h
	Voiced		v					
Affricate	Voiceless					tʃ		
	Voiced					dʒ		
Nasal	Voiced	m			n		ŋ	
Liquid	Voiced				l			
	Voiced					r		
Glide	Voiced	w				j		

Figure 2. Consonantal Features of PE Phonology.

3.3 Phonological Distribution

As Hung (2000) maintains, every language has its own constraints on what type of segments, and how many of them, can occur in which parts of the syllable: at the beginning (onset), center (nucleus), and ending (coda). The syllables in British and American varieties of English allow maximum of three (3) consonants in the onset as in *strike* and *spring*. In the coda position, such varieties allow up to four (4) consonants as in *texts* [tɛksts] and *glimpsed* [glimpst].

Apparently, many speakers of new varieties of English, including those speakers of the BrE and AmE, do not produce word-final consonant cluster (Kirkpatrick, 2010). Examples are the single consonant sounds in the final position of words such as *first* as *firs*, *East* as *Eas*, and *expect* as *expec*. Mesthrie and Bhatt (2008) report that there are three ways in which the speakers reduce word-final consonant clusters: a.) drop one of the consonants, b.) insert an

epenthetic vowel, and c.) when the initial consonant is an [s] sound, add a vowel in initial position so that, for example the word start becomes [ɪstart]. But it must be pointed out that several speakers do produce consonant clusters.

In this research, only the dropping of one of the consonant sounds was found. In the analysis of the speech samples, the frequent tendencies to delete the word-final consonants were demonstrated by the participants in the following words: *perfect* [pɜːfɪkt], *watched* [wɒtʃt], *rushed* [rʌʃt], *flocks* [flaks], *kissed* [kɪst], *fist* [fɪst], *forest* [fɒrɛst], and *thousand* [θauzənd]. The results showed the following patterns of deletion that were displayed by the majority of the participants.

a.) Voiceless plosives were deleted in word-final clusters if preceded by another voiceless consonant in *perfect* [pɜːfɪk], *watched* [wɒtʃ], *rushed* [rʌʃ], *flocks* [flak], *kissed* [kɪs].

b.) Voiced plosives were deleted if preceded by a homorganic consonant in word-final cluster in *fist* [fɪs], *forest* [fɒrɛs], and *thousand* [θauzən].

These frequent occurrences of deletion in final consonant clusters were also found in the previous studies carried out in the Philippines (Tayao, 2004), Singapore (Hung, 1996), Malaysia (San & MacLagan, 2009), Hong Kong (Deterding et al., 2008) and Brunei (Sharbawi, 2010). Importantly, the deletion of /t/ and /d/ is very widespread in Inner Circle varieties of English under certain circumstances although many people believe that it should not be encouraged in emerging varieties of English as it certainly does sometimes involve loss of important distinctions between words, and also because it can exacerbate problems with spelling (Deterding, 2010). According to Kirkpatrick (2010), speakers of the ASEAN ELF regularly do not produce word-final consonant clusters. This is not altogether surprising, as consonant cluster are difficult to pronounce, especially if they do not exist in the speaker's L1 just like in the Philippine languages.

Conclusion

This mother-tongue-based investigation on the segmental phonology of Philippine English (PE) aims to provide a more inclusive approach, the core principle of World Englishes paradigm, to describe its features. Inclusivity in this context refers to the inclusion of speakers from different linguistic and geographical backgrounds as suggested by Tayao (2004) and Gonzales (2017). This study is represented by the speakers of the 13 major Philippine languages: Tagalog, Kapampangan, Pangasinan, Ilocano, Bicol, Cebuano, Hiligaynon, Waray, Tausug, Maguindanaon, Maranao, Chavacano, and Kiniray-a. Additionally, it is an attempt to offer a decentralized illustration of PE phonology, away from a very elitist and Metro-centric

perspective, since speech samples came from people who have spent virtually all their lives in the provinces of Quezon, Ilocos, Nueva Ecija, Bicol, Pangasinan, Cebu, Antique, Iloilo, Tacloban, Zamboanga, Lanao del Sur, Maguindanao and Tawi-Tawi.

Based on the results, this research concludes that Philippine English (PE) has a smaller inventory of phonological units in terms of its vowels and consonants. Its vowel system is considerably reduced as it is characterized by weakened vowel length distinction. Moreover, this study highlights a different perspective from the previously established features of PE as it revealed the absence of long /i/ and /u/ in the vowel inventory, and the frequent tendency to shorten long vowels with the emergence of /ɪ/ and /ʊ/. Additionally, it appears that neutralization of sounds is not only evident in vowels but also in consonants as fricatives are generally collapsed. Contrary to the common perception, it is also very meaningful to discovery that the use of /t/ for /θ/ and /d/ for /ð/ are not features of PE speakers which is actually different from what previous researchers determined. This investigation asserts that Filipino speakers of English may sometimes use one, and sometimes another. As articulated by Low and Deterding (2002), there are no absolutes, just tendencies.

Thus, it can be argued that the segmental phonology of PE somehow reflects the interplay of various factors such as the speakers' mother tongue and the English language learning and teaching in the country. Since Filipinos have other languages in their repertoire, they are not solely dependent on the English language in terms of linguistic production. In this case, they come with two internalized phonology as they orally produce the English language. The same with the other Englishes in the world, most of the segmental features of PE are found in the phonological inventory of Philippine languages. Such trend could be seen as a manifestation of interlanguage performance in which the production of the second language is being facilitated by the speaker's first language. It has long been sustained that it is a natural occurrence among speakers of outer and expanding English varieties to follow the conventions of their native language to arrive at the second language production. Furthermore, this research echoes the already established notion of spelling pronunciation phenomenon, the tendency to pronounce all the letters in a word, among Filipino speakers of the English language. The spelling pronunciation characteristic of the PE speakers could be attributed to the manner in which English language is primarily taught in school by Filipino teachers who themselves have spelling pronunciation. Hence, it seems that the tradition of the said linguistic phenomenon continues, and will continue, to manifest in the English verbal production of Filipinos in the country.

In the grand scheme of things, the segmental features of Philippine English suggest that the English language is not homogenous in form but is pluralistic in nature because of the many factors involved especially when situated in a multicultural contexts. Therefore, one should not be insistent on how sounds must be realized just because it is how they are produced elsewhere.

Pedagogical Implications

As higher education institutions across the globe supports the idea of nurturing their students to become members of the international community (Lin, 2018), it is predicted that phonological variation is the norm when interacting with English language users from the different parts of the world. In this globalized society where people travel one place to another, English is the default language for international communication (De Vera & De Vera, 2018). With that said, this study implies that English teachers in the Philippines must expose themselves, along with their learner, to the features of Philippine English variety and to the other varieties of English for them to build awareness of the multiple possibilities of segmental productions. In doing such, teachers and English learners in the country would come to understand that variation comes with pronunciation. With this idea of variability in language verbal production, teachers could teach their students on the proper attitude and reaction toward differing English pronunciation that may lessen, if not totally eliminate, discrimination against English varieties that does not fit in the mold of what is perceived to be widely acceptable. Moreover, such exposure to the many Englishes around the world as spoken by people of various backgrounds will allow Filipino learners and speakers of English to be familiar with differing features that could be of help in intranational and international communication. Additionally, when one is already exposed to various speech forms, students must be taught of accommodation skills in which all English speakers must possess. One has to remember that successful communications requires that a speaker must be able to adjust to the needs of the listener.

Upon learning the segmental features of PE, the teachers in the Philippines could also gradually shift the focus in teaching pronunciation from the inner circle norm in order to accommodate the reality on the ground. In this case, teachers can now decide what aspects are important in teaching vowel and consonant sounds. As Hung (2002) argues, “a knowledge on phonological features of the local variety of English is an essential starting point for teachers of pronunciation, as it can help them focus on specific areas potentially in need of attention” (p. 6). Furthermore, teachers may consider to be less stringent in correcting the pronunciation

features of their students that are perceived to be different from the traditional norm. Moreover, teachers, curriculum makers and administrators must be able to design their lesson plans or syllabi in communication, phonetics and phonology subjects with realistic goals that are relevant and responsive to the needs of their learners.

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Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Teaching Practices in Thailand Higher Education

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Abstract

This research explores the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) teaching practices in Thailand's higher education context. A total of 25 lecturers, 61 Science Education students, and 47 Physical Education students participated in this research. The results revealed that the four steps of classroom activities design are suggested and guidelines on upgrading CLIL teaching practices to enhance students' academic learning are proposed. Quantitative results paired t-test showed that Science Education students performed better compared to Physical Education students. In conclusion, lecturers should aware of the supporting factors while they are designing their lesson plan.

Keywords: *Students' academic learning, Classroom activities, Content and Language Integrated Learning approach, Higher education, Language Triptych*

Introduction

The global proliferation of English has resulted in the speedy diversification of English use throughout worldwide nations as an international language, which derives its status as the world's prevailing language (Suntornsawet, 2019). The emergence of English as a world language is a necessary phenomenon for higher education graduates to communicate fluently with each other thus has become a prerequisite to a successful employment opportunity, especially in Asia (Kung, 2013). Globalization has given us more access to diverse resources educationally, linguistically, and financially. On top of that, English has been formally adopted as the Association of Southeast Asian Nations' (ASEAN) official language and the medium of

communication among the participating countries to encourage collaborative activities towards achieving quality education in the region, particularly in professional development programs, educational research, and other technical administrative support (Luanganggoon, Phantharakphong, Sae-Joo, & Huntula, 2018).

In the context of Thailand, regardless of her lack of direct colonial experience and the scarcity of an intra-functional role of English in the country, the significance of English use is fetching more widespread due to globalization (Suntornsawet, 2019). Although English is the first foreign language taught for not less than 10 years in formal education of Thailand, Bancha (2010) indicated that the curriculum of educational institutions failed to produce human capital with sufficient English competence to meet the requirement of employers. McKay (2009) noted that the English language teaching direction has dramatically changed from English as a foreign language to international language. Consequently, current educators and researchers in higher education institutions have to oblige to examine carefully the implicit goal of students within their specific context as a basis for determining learning goals. Hence, a reformulation is required which recognizes the pluralistic nature of English and it should not be shackled to the model of native-speaking countries as English now is an international language (Pongpairat, 2011).

On this line of reasoning, teaching approach is a key mechanism to equip graduates with professional skills and English language proficiency in Thai higher education institutions (Phantharakphong, Sudathip, Tang, 2019) so that the institutions can produce more competent graduates who are competitive in the ASEAN Economic Community and wider international market (Bunwirat, 2017). Given this context, it becomes essential for the higher education students who are attending courses using English as the medium of instruction to understand the content, and then use the English language in academic writing. This is because the average level of Thai students' English skills was categorized in the 'very low proficiency' level with a score of 44.4 percent. Besides, Thai students were reported to have tested lowest in Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) among ASEAN with an average score as low as 450 (Luanganggoon, 2017). Thus, for a student, understanding subject content largely depends on understanding the words, its form, and usage. Besides, the use of academic vocabulary in student's disciplinary area is distinct and students need to know subject-specific vocabulary becomes indispensable if a student possesses low proficiency levels (Anuradha & Viswanathan, 2019).

Although a wide variety of teaching approaches have been implemented and put to practice by higher education institutions across the world, the gap between what is taught and what is

actually needed or expected is not crucially bridged yet. Chan (2019) found that there is a great percentage of what is currently taught to university students is quite incompatible with their professional workplace needs for which they are supposed to have been prepared upon graduation. The above argument revealed that a comprehensive approach like Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) at the higher education institution level in Thailand is essentially needed to enhance student learning. CLIL is an internationally recognized approach to teaching both a language and subject content at the same time (Luanganggoon, 2017). As claimed by Coyle, Hood, and Marsh (2010), CLIL is an educational approach in which various language supportive methodologies are used to lead to a dual-focused form of instruction where attention is given to both language and content. CLIL is considered as an innovative approach that aims to improve language learning opportunities through the use of a target second language (English) in the teaching of a range of courses in the university curriculum (Goris, Denessen, & Verhoeven, 2019). It is essential to note that the CLIL approach is not a means of simplifying content or re-teaching something that students have already known in a new language. However, the CLIL approach should truly integrate the language and content to be successful and success is determined when both the subject matter and language are learned (Pinner, 2013).

The CLIL approach was introduced by the Thai Ministry of Education in cooperation with the British Council to all the classes using English as a medium of instruction since 2006 aiming to improve their students' educational outcomes (MacKenzie, 2008). This implies that the CLIL approach can meet the demands of the Thai context in terms of providing opportunities for the students to be exposed to English communication in the classroom and can increase their confidence in using English (Luanganggoon, 2019). Besides, Suwannoppharat and Chinokul's (2015) study revealed that Thai university lecturers found CLIL approach is an effective teaching approach to improve their students' English language proficiency level, possess sufficient knowledge in their subject matter, critical thinking, good communication skills, and intercultural competency skills as well as encouraging their students to use English as the medium of communication.

The overall goals of the CLIL approach include inter-cultural communication skills and diversify methods and forms of classroom practice. Ultimately, this will enhance student's motivation skills and thereby improve overall English language competency and subject-specific terminology (Dalton-Puffer, 2007). The extensive language input in CLIL classes offers additional opportunities for students to process and use English as their foreign language. Therefore, students are expected to not only learn more language for social

communication but also to develop a comprehensive range of academic language proficiency that could potentially lay a foundation for English language use in their further studies or employment (Graz, Coyle, Halbach, Meyer, Schuck, & Ting, 2013).

Effective CLIL Pedagogy

CLIL approach can be distinguished from other forms of bilingual education, immersion education, and content-based instruction on several points. Firstly, the CLIL approach is using a foreign language (English language) that is generally not used by students regularly outside of the classroom. Secondly, students are usually exposed to CLIL teaching only once they have already acquired literacy skills in their mother tongue (Thai language). Thirdly, lecturers are generally subject specialists and non-native speakers of the target language (English language). Finally, CLIL lessons are usually scheduled as regular lessons within the university curriculum (Dalton-Puffer, 2011).

According to Coyle (1999), a successful CLIL lesson should combine these four aspects, namely 'Content', 'Communication', 'Cognition', and 'Culture', so-called as 4Cs curriculum. CLIL approach advocates the need for focusing on the 4C's while framing a syllabus (Anuradha & Viswanathan, 2019). The first 'C' is 'Content' which integrates information and input from across the curriculum. The second 'C' is 'Cognition' that covers the higher-order thinking, creativity, and knowledge processing. The third 'C' is 'Communication' which is the way ideas, thoughts, and values are mediated. The final 'C', namely, 'Culture' promotes plural cultural ideas, addresses the fundamental issue of 'self' and 'others' (Coyle, 2008).

Coyle et al. (2010) stated 'The Language Triptych' of CLIL approach consists of three aspects, namely 'Language of learning', 'Language for learning', and 'Language through learning'. The first aspect of the Triptych, 'Language of learning' is students' required language proficiency to access new knowledge and understanding it when dealing with the vocabulary. Next, 'Language for learning' is the language needed by the student to operate effectively in the learning environment where the medium of instruction is English. The last aspect, 'Language through learning' refers to the language proficiency that students would develop through learning other core subjects, which are taught in English. According to Anuradha and Viswanathan (2019), CLIL lesson plans give special emphasis to terminologies the student must be familiar with while the lecturer is teaching the content. It supports a result that will assist students to assimilate the concept first before they move to the next stage of analysis and interpretation. Besides, the CLIL approach can give the scope for the new language to emerge through learning. In other words, CLIL approach paves the way for language progression.

Theoretical Models of CLIL Pedagogy

The CLIL approach that focuses on content learning and language learning, exhibits the application of the three learning theories, namely Anderson and Krathwohl's Taxonomy of cognitive learning domains (2001), Gardner's multiple intelligence (1999), and Vygotsky's scaffolding theory (1978). The basis of the CLIL approach is formed by the three theories to cater to different types of students so that there is a progression in their new knowledge, skills, and understanding (Salvador-Garcia, Capella-Peris, Chiva-Bartoll, & Ruiz Montero, 2020).

Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) published an updated version of Bloom's Taxonomy of cognitive learning domains by adding 'Creating' domain to Bloom's cognitive process. Anderson and Krathwohl's cognitive learning theory deals with the various levels of learning domains and each domain focuses on a particular aspect of learning. The first level, 'Remembering' assists students to retrieve information from what they are already aware of. The second level, 'Understanding' means students are ready to comprehend the given information. The third level, 'Applying' facilitates students to use the knowledge that they have learned. The fourth level, 'Analyzing' exhibits students' ability to segregate facts from inferences that they had drawn. In the fifth level, 'Evaluating' refers to students are checking the given input and experiment using their knowledge. In the final level, 'Creating', students design, construct, produce, and invent new information. The application of Anderson and Krathwohl's Taxonomy of cognitive learning domains to the CLIL approach is that lecturers have to prepare tasks in such a way that various levels of the cognitive learning domain are effectively addressed in their teaching.

Gardner's (1999) Multiple Intelligences theory believed that students can know the world through language, logical-mathematical analysis, spatial representation, musical thinking, the use of the body to solve problems or to make things, an understanding of other individuals, and an understanding of ourselves. The application of Gardner's Multiple Intelligences theory in the CLIL approach is that lecturers need to provide tasks that cater to each aspect as indicated before.

CLIL approach follows the theory of Scaffolding (Vygotsky, 1978) which advocates a lecturer's contribution towards students' proximal development by providing activities to support them. CLIL approach also supports similar vision on learning and knowledge acquisition. In short, CLIL approach reflects on the process of building knowledge through the idea of integration, interweaving language into the content lessons, and content into the language learning by adopting Anderson and Krathwohl's Taxonomy of cognitive learning

domain, Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligence, and Vygotsky's Theory of Scaffolding. As a result, lecturers need to consider the implications of the three learning theories while they are teaching their students to learn both the English language and subject content.

Hood (2005) introduced four alternatives to the CLIL pedagogical models that emerged in the United Kingdom. The first model is the 'Surface cross-curricular linking' which involves both language lecturers and subject matter lecturers do their lesson planning together. The second model is the 'Integrating language and recycling/deepening content' where the subject topic/syllabus adopted for teaching in the target language explores the subject and improving foreign language skills at the same time. The third model is 'Integrating language and new content' refers to re-conceptualizing the curriculum in an integrated way. The fourth model is known as 'Immersion (content approach)' where language lecturers develop a more content type approach to a theme, for instance, taking a typical topic and carrying out a comparative study between the different cultures such as eastern and western cultures.

Literature Review

CLIL originated in Europe in the 1990s, it recommends teaching the content subjects through language as a medium. A CLIL lesson is therefore not a language lesson, neither is it a subject lesson transmitted in a foreign language. As mentioned before, it is a lesson that combines the elements of content, communication (using language to learn while learning to use language), cognition (developing thinking skills), and culture (exposure to alternative perspectives and shared understanding (Arno-Macia & Mancho-Bares, 2015). According to Alfehaid and Alkhatib (2020) there is a lack in teacher-training programs and the absence of clear-cut and firmly-established programs of CLIL approach which are criticized of being rather experimental in nature.

Morgan & Alfehaid (2019) conducted an action research project to assess an ESP course and a General English course to pre-sessional undergraduate students at Imam Addulrahman Bin Faisal University, Dammam. Data was collected from interviews with 11 students, six focus group discussions, 14 classroom observations, 241 questionnaire results, 12 examples of the students' writing, and 27 transcripts, as well as 745 students' graded papers. Their results showed that students require a certain level of command of the English language to maximize the procedure's effectiveness. In addition, the language should be viewed as being on par with course content, with the needs of students being met through a constant procedure of analyzing the materials to ensure its relevance.

Salvador-Garcia et al. (2020) analyzed the impact of the CLIL approach on physical education lessons. A mixed methodological approach based on a sequential exploratory design was employed. Salvador-Garcia et al. interviewed eight teachers and four students and identified two foci, namely social relationships and physical activity. This is followed by a socio-metric questionnaire to analyze the social relationships between 49 students in a quasi-experimental design. Quantitative results showed that levels of moderate to vigorous physical activity are higher in the experimental group using the CLIL approach than in the control group. Graham, Choi, Davoodi, Razmeh, and Dixon (2018) found that language teachers are shifting to content-based instruction as a way to teach English, most commonly in the form of CLIL or English-medium instruction. Graham et al. used a systematic literature review approach to examine the current literature on the effect of content-based instruction on language and content outcomes. Their results showed that the majority of the 25 examined articles indicating positive or neutral effects of the CLIL approach of content-based instruction on student outcomes when compared with non-CLIL classrooms.

Luanganggoon et al. (2018) explored the execution of the CLIL approach aiming at the speaking skills in a purposive selected single graduate class which was a Biochemistry classroom. Their results indicated that students' speaking skills are improved after attending the CLIL lessons. The key success factors of the CLIL approach were well-designed classroom activities, moderate class size, and special attention to assessment. Besides, they found that the particular techniques used by lecturers to execute CLIL learning activities are mainly focused on research-based learning, critique, and presenting in seminar courses. However, students did not have sufficient opportunity to practice their communication skills even though they were provided the vocabularies and patterns of language. Luanganggoon et al. concluded that lecturers should be aware of the limitation of students' language proficiencies, classroom context, and culture while executing the CLIL approach for language development.

Luanganggoon (2017) examined how authentic assessment techniques utilizing the CLIL approach in a Thai public university. Twenty five lecturers attended the CLIL professional training and their course syllabi were evaluated using content analysis. Data were collected through classroom observation. The study was aimed to develop better solutions to the link between CLIL model (theory) and classroom implementation (practice). The results of the study showed that lecturers not only focused on content learning but also language learning. Besides, Luanganggoon found that lecturers use multiple forms of assessment that reflect student learning achievement, motivation, and attitudes on instructional relevant activities. The authentic assessment was designed to blend language and content learning as the overall

students' learning process. The interactions between lecturers and students, students and judges, and among students were found to be very good. Luanganggoon concluded that lecturers should blend the classroom activities and assessments in the CLIL classroom. The main contribution was to identify the selected actions that have the potential for bridging the gap between what lecturers learned of the CLIL theory from the professional development program and their teaching practices and to generate knowledge about difficulties that have to be overcome if these CLIL practices are to be implemented.

Pérez-Vidal and Roquet (2015) utilized pre-test versus post-test longitudinal design to study two groups of bilingual Catalan/Spanish participants and English is their third language. The total number of each group was 50. The experimental group had formal instruction plus a CLIL approach in a Science subject while the control group only had formal instruction. Results of their study confirmed that larger relative gains are possessed by the experimental group but not all the domains showed the same degree; relative higher gains accrue in reading not listening. Similarly, their writing ability particularly in terms of accuracy showed a higher relative gain and so do their lexico-grammatical abilities. In summary, reading and grammar aspects seemed to be mostly benefited using the CLIL approach.

Goris et al. (2019) investigated the impacts of the two constructs, namely English as a foreign language confidence and international orientation to the 11 groups of 12 to 15 years old students from 'grammar' schools in the Netherlands, Germany, and Italy. These grammar schools offer preparation courses for students to enter university. A total of 231 students, 123 students were following CLIL streams while 108 were the mainstream students. Their results indicated that all students, both CLIL and mainstream, showed a positive development on the two variables during their first two years. Their result implies that CLIL intervention seemed to produce a small added value.

On the other hand, van Kampen et al. (2018) examined the self-reported pedagogical practices of 297 teachers in the Netherlands. The respective 218 CLIL teachers and 79 regular teachers from secondary schools across the nation participated to respond to the designed questionnaire. This allowed a detailed investigation of the nature and range of pedagogies of CLIL teachers as well as differences between CLIL teachers of different subject disciplines. The results revealed that CLIL teachers are using more pedagogical approaches focusing on providing students with diverse input and scaffolding than approaches focusing on developing students' language and their knowledge of disciplinary literacies. Moreover, the subject discipline of a CLIL teacher seems to influence them to select the pedagogical approaches. Finally, there is a

notable difference between the kinds of pedagogies reported by CLIL teachers and their regular counterparts.

Smala (2013) study on CLIL pedagogies in Queensland examined those CLIL courses which use English as a second language as well as the medium of instruction to deliver mainstream subjects, such as Science, Mathematics, or History. An analysis of pedagogical considerations and domains, provoked from interviews with CLIL program directors at different Queensland schools was conducted. Smala found that there are three concepts including fields of visibility, technical aspects of program enactment, and forms of knowledge used to guide the synthesis of CLIL pedagogies and theories of bilingual education as well as a research framework. Smala concluded that the CLIL approach is a promising teaching design model as a reaction to reformed calls for language learning in Australia. However, the demands of CLIL courses require CLIL program directors and teachers to apply a multitude of pedagogical considerations; subject-specific concepts; available teaching resources in the English language; translation and simplification of materials; students' access to learning through modified language. Therefore, CLIL courses need to be supported through resources and focused on professional development opportunities.

Kewara (2016) investigated the CLIL type of classroom in Thailand among Thai content teachers. Kewara's case study aimed to identify the situation of teaching content through English in Thailand and to concrete the CLIL teacher training program. Kewara's qualitative results from the analysis of CLIL classroom observations revealed that the effectiveness of the CLIL teacher development program can produce a better model of the in-service training programs. Moreover, Kewara found that a holistic understanding of content is vital for teachers to manage their classrooms using the CLIL approach. To conduct a successful CLIL classroom, teachers ought to fulfill linguistic needs, teaching materials, and other supports. Finally, Kewara suggested that it could be useful to enhance specific aspects for successful CLIL type classroom into training and to sustainably promote English as a medium of instruction in Thailand.

Alcaraz-Mármaol's (2018) surveyed in bilingual education in Spain. Alcaraz-Mármaol found that those participants who have received specific methodological CLIL training make significant differences in terms of the teachers' opinions on CLIL and practice of using bilingual practices in their classrooms, making use of a wider variety of activities and resources. Differences were also found in the way they see their teaching, their use of their learning content, materials in the classroom, and the variety and type of activities they develop with their students.

Suwannoppharat and Chinokul (2015) studied the application of CLIL in an EFL (English as a foreign language) context, a case study in Thailand. Their study emphasized an explanation of the CLIL framework and principles and how these were implemented in Thailand as guidelines for developing EFL courses or curriculum. They further examined both advantages and disadvantages of applying the CLIL approach and the difficulties of applying CLIL in the classroom to help EFL teachers to plan their courses more effectively. Their results revealed that successful CLIL classes not only depend on active learners but also on enthusiastic teachers to facilitate in providing scaffolding for their students. Besides, they found that if the CLIL application has been well-planned and prepared for, the CLIL approach enables to production of life-long learners who learn about the real world, are motivated toward learning, and have self-confidence as strong communicators and collaborators in the real world.

Research Questions

The current higher education situation at global level shows that CLIL approach still lacks clarity with regards to integration of language and content and the means by which students' language proficiency should be developed (Arno-Macia & Mancho-Bares, 2015). It is still too early to decide whether CLIL approach can be implemented as a common feature of Thai higher education system because it is criticized of being unclear in terms of policy definition (Alhehaid & Alkhatib, 2020). Since English language is important to enhancing higher education students' employability, this research was conducted to review the possibility of using CLIL to improve student learning in CLIL courses because the English language is used as the medium of instruction. More specifically, the research was sought:

- i. To examine the key issues for CLIL classroom management and assessment between theory and practice at a higher education level;
- ii. To investigate the gaps in the content aspect of learning in terms of the 'Language Triptych'.
- iii. To evaluate and revise guidelines for utilizing the CLIL approach to enhance the academic learning of higher education students in Thailand.

Method

Research Design

A mixed-methodology research design using both qualitative and quantitative methods was employed. The researcher began with qualitative documentary analysis and interview to collect data of planning and implementing the CLIL approach for the course 'English for Teacher'.

The qualitative method offers the opportunity for the researcher to provide subtle details that outline the key issues of practicing the CLIL approach. The researcher then used assessment tools as a quantitative method to investigate the gaps in various aspects of learning content and language. This research design relegates qualitative analysis to an exploratory tool and does not maximize quantitative analysis as a tool to both explore and define the key issues of the CLIL approach and potential solutions to develop guidelines (Moss, 2020).

Qualitative research design narrative approach was employed to study the information that participants told about their experiences while taking into account social contexts and relationships (Labuschagne, 2003). The interview was employed to provide the researcher with rich and detailed qualitative data for understanding participants' experiences in their learning process, how they describe those experiences, and the meaning they make of those experiences after they had gone through the four weeks' lessons using CLIL approach (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Besides, the researcher took into consideration these existing resources such as the conditions fostering quality interviews, gaining access to and selecting participants who have experienced four weeks of CLIL approach lessons (Rubin & Rubin, 2012; Seidman, 2013); building trust (Rubin & Rubin, 2012); the length of time of the interview (Weiss, 1994), the order, quality, and clarity of questions (Patton, 2015), and the overall process of conducting an interview (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015; Patton, 2015).

Besides, document analysis procedure as another form of qualitative method in which the researcher interpreted the meaning around the preparation of CLIL lessons in the 25-course syllabus from the first target group of 25 lecturers and the related theories which were derived from a preliminary study. The researcher took a nuts-and-bolts approach to analyze the documents. Quantitative method using a vocabulary test, assignment and presentation assessment form to investigate the gaps in various aspects of learning. The quantitative method was focused on gathering numerical data and generalizing it across the two groups of students to explain the particular phenomenon (Babbie, 2010).

Population and Participants

The two target populations were the group of individuals that the intervention intends to conduct research in and draw a conclusion from, namely lecturers and fourth-year undergraduate students from the Faculty of Education, in a Thai public university. The first target group consisted of 25 lecturers who had voluntarily participated in the initial professional development program on the CLIL approach from the year 2015 to 2016. The 25-course syllabi from the first target group were referred to while the researcher was preparing

the four CLIL lesson plans for the course 'English for Teacher'. The second target group consisted of fourth-year undergraduate students who enrolled in the course 'English for Teacher' in the first semester of the academic year 2019-2020.

Purposive sampling was employed in which the researcher relied on their judgment to select samples to participate in the research. The population consisted of 250 fourth year undergraduate students and they were distributed into five different sections. A total of 108 samples or two sections were purposively selected because they were taught using the CLIL approach for four weeks, namely 47 Physical Education and 61 Science Education undergraduate students. These 108 students participated as respondents in the second phase of the research. A total of five and three students respectively from Science Education program and Physical Education program were selected to continue to the third phase, that was an in-depth interview.

Research Instruments

The lesson plan was one of the research instruments which is a lecturer's daily guide for what students need to learn, how it will be taught, and how learning will be measured using the CLIL approach. The four lesson plans helped the researcher be more effective in utilizing the CLIL approach in the classroom by providing a detailed outline to follow in each class period. The four lesson plans were designed according to the qualitative results from the preliminary study. In the preliminary study, the researcher conducted an initial exploration of 25-course syllabi designed by the 25 lecturers from the first target group using document analysis (Luanganggoon, 2017).

Additionally, there were three other research instruments used to measure the students' academic achievement during the four weeks of their studies using the CLIL approach, namely vocabulary test, assignment, and presentation assessment form. The vocabulary test was a test for knowledge of a selected list of words that were often used in research articles as part of an achievement test. The vocabulary test was used to measure students' improvement in reading comprehension, language development, communication ideas, expressing themselves in writing, and occupational success.

According to Seifert (2016), students need to understand 98 percent of the words they read to understand what they are reading. In other words, improving vocabulary skills will improve their understanding of the content of their studies. Seifert further emphasized that students who develop a rich vocabulary tend to be deeper thinkers, express themselves better, and read more. Hence, this will help to improve students' language and literacy skills and be more successful

academically and communicatively. In this line of reasoning, the researcher created the vocabulary test to assess students' abilities in identifying the appropriate vocabularies in the research articles to develop a good vocabulary base. Furthermore, students need a rich vocabulary to help them to understand the content of research articles effectively as concluded by Seifert that student's vocabulary level is the best single predictor of occupational success. The vocabulary test was used to measure students' ability in the 'Language of learning' aspect. An assignment which requires students to describe the purposes, subjects or samples, statistics, results, and conclusion of the research articles that they read was assigned as one of the assessment tools to measure students' ability in 'Language for learning' aspect. The presentation assessment form was designed to measure students' performance while they were doing their presentation. There were five components evaluated in the presentation assessment form, namely delivery, content, structure, use of visual aids, and response to questions. The delivery component consists of speed, eye contact, audibility, and tone. The content component is comprised of relevant issues, explains key terms, confident with the material, and aids understanding. The structure component includes logical, easy to follow, provides headings, each section relates to the overall purpose. The use of visual aids component encompasses uses of handout or other visual aids, relevant to the content. The response to questions component covers the willingness to answer questions and actively seeks questions. The presentation assessment form was used to measure students' ability in 'Language through learning' aspect. An interview protocol was designed by the researcher to collect qualitative data from the eight students through in-depth interviews. Firstly, the researcher ensured that the interview questions align with the research questions. This is followed by constructing an inquiry-based conversation. After the researcher received feedback on the interview protocol from the experts, the researcher piloted the interview protocol. This interview protocol refinement method can strengthen the reliability of the interview protocol used and thereby contribute to improving the quality of data obtained from interviews (Castillo-Montoya, 2016). The interview questions consisted of learning content, classroom activities that students like most, what students would like to change or improve if they were lecturers, and do they have any particular techniques to support their English learning.

Data Analysis

Qualitative results could be placed on a continuum indicating the degree of transformation of data during the data analysis process from description to interpretation (Sandelowski & Barroso, 2003). Content analysis was employed as a researcher needed a relatively low level

of interpretation. A systematic coding and categorizing approach was used to explore the large amounts of textual information unobtrusively to determine trends and patterns of words used, their frequency, their relationships, and the structures and discourses of communication as the method to analyze the students' views on the impacts of CLIL approach (Gbrich, 2007; Pope et al., 2006; Powers & Knapp, 2006). On the other hand, descriptive statistic including mean score and standard deviation and inferential statistic as paired t-test were used to examine the quantitative data.

Results of the Research

The results of this research are presented by following the research questions indicated above. The preliminary result was the development of lesson plans based on the CLIL approach by taking into account the key issues for CLIL classroom management and assessment between theory and practice at a higher education level. This is followed by investigating the gaps in various aspects of learning in the CLIL approach of teaching to higher education students. Finally, the researcher proposed guidelines for utilizing the CLIL approach to enhance the academic learning of higher education students in Thailand.

The Key Issues for CLIL Classroom Management and Assessment

The first target group consisted of 25 selected lecturers who attended the professional development program on the CLIL approach from 2015 to 2016 submitted their course syllabi. Documentary analysis was conducted to identify the key issues of CLIL classroom management and assessment whether they fulfilled the outcome-based design, for example, the learning objectives were in line with learning activities, teaching materials, and assessment. Besides, the course syllabus was analyzed according to the learning domains elucidated in the Qualification Framework for Thailand's higher education system (TQF: HEd), namely ethical and moral development, knowledge, cognitive skills, interpersonal skills and responsibility, and analytical and communicative skills. Moreover, data was also analyzed based on the rubric of 4Cs framework (Coyle et al., 2010), namely 'Content' (subject matter), 'Communication' (language learning and usage), 'Cognition' (learning and thinking processes), and 'Culture' (developing intercultural understand and global citizenship).

The results revealed that the scope of the 'Content' is the primary issue by focusing on the necessary vocabulary and concept from research abstracts or research articles which were the teaching materials of each lesson. The second issue was to identify the 'Cognition' through learning objectives which relied on the TQF: HEd (Thailand Higher Education Commission

TOHEC, 2006 and Anderson and Krathwohl's Taxonomy of cognitive learning domains (2001) as shown in Figure 1. The third issue was to identify the mapping of 'Communication' on the Language Triptych (Coyle et al., 2010), namely 'Language of learning', 'Language for learning', and 'Language through learning'. However, results showed that lecturers are having difficulties to consider the 'Culture' aspect in their lesson plans. The researcher decided to omit the 'culture' aspect when designing the four lesson plans.

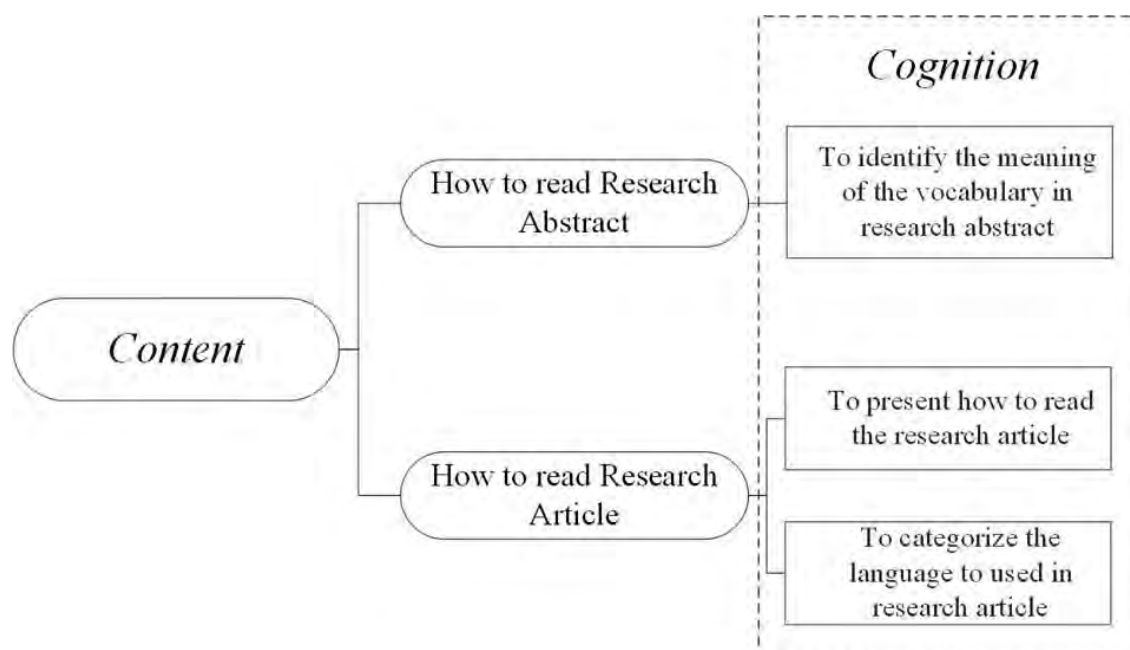


Fig. 1. Content and Cognition Aspects

The 'Language of learning' aspect was assessed using a vocabulary test by matching the meanings of 10 necessary vocabularies while students were reading the research abstracts and research articles. Figure 2 shows the results of students' ability in the 'Language of learning' aspect.

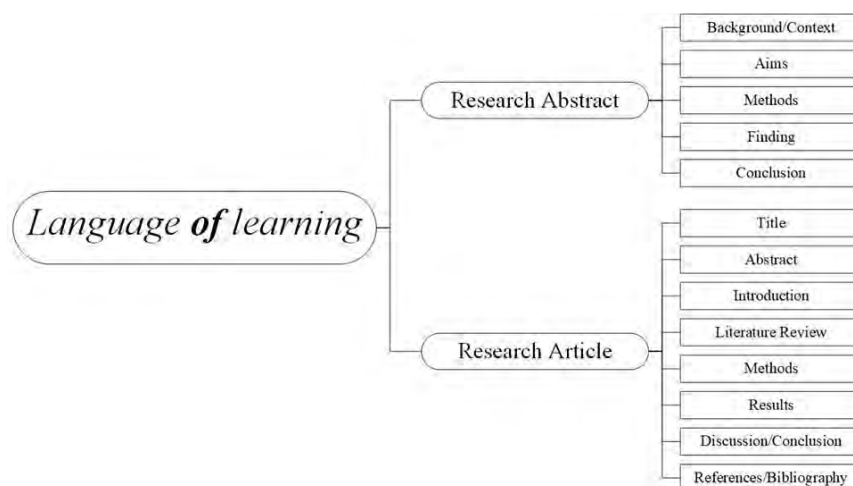


Fig. 2. Language of Learning

The ‘Language for learning’ was assessed using an assignment. Results revealed that the majority of students can describe the purpose, samples, statistics used, results, and conclusion made from the research articles correctly. This implies that students possessed the ability of the ‘Language for learning’ aspect as shown in Figure 3. The ‘Language through learning’ aspect was assessed using the presentation assessment form. Results indicated that students can present their oral presentation very well. Figures 1 to 4 show the results of the first phase.

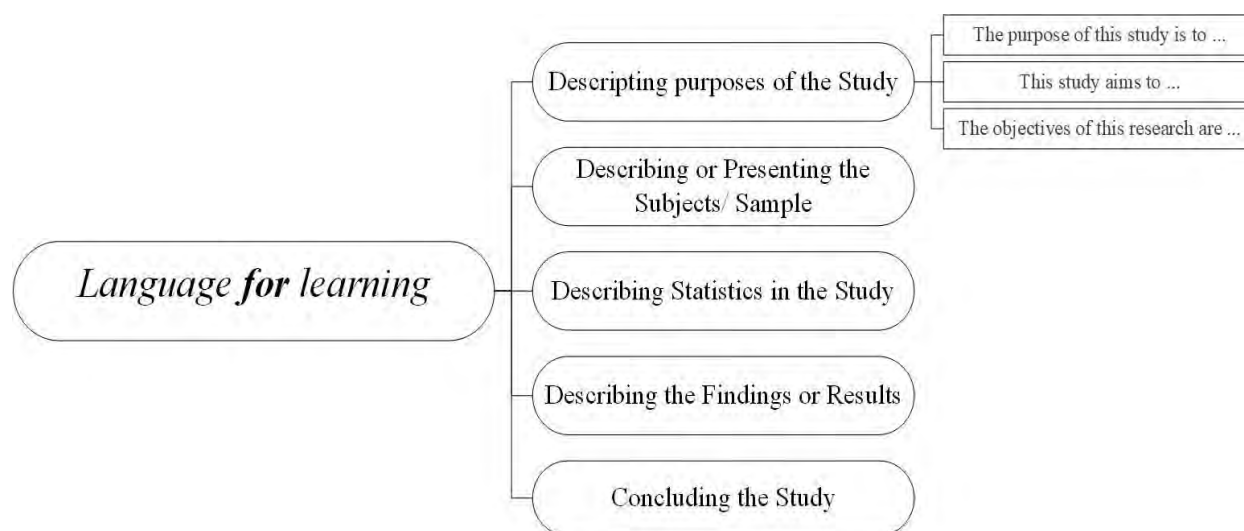


Fig. 3. Language for Learning

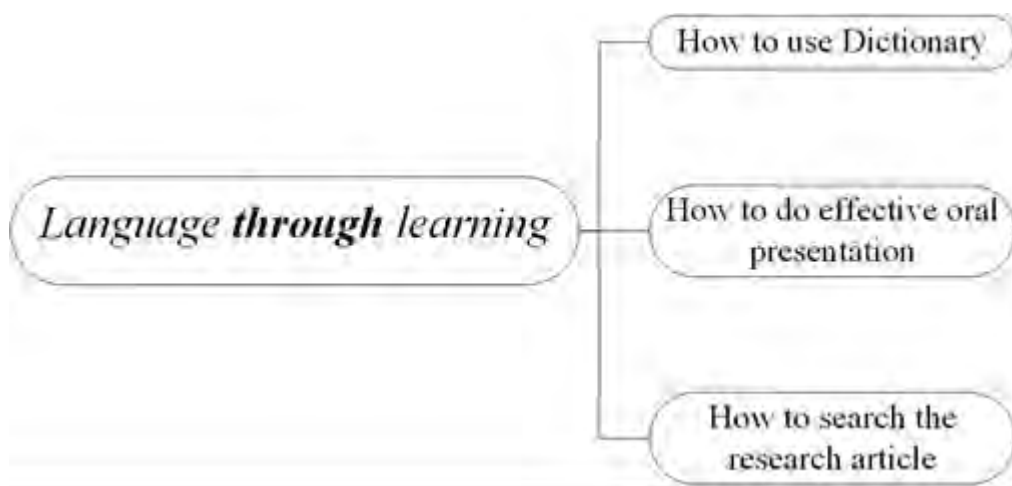


Fig. 4. Language through Learning

The Gaps in the Content Aspect of Learning Language

The researcher used four lesson plans to teach the two topics ‘Abstract Reading’ and ‘Research Article Reading’ for four weeks. The related teaching materials were designed according to the CLIL approach. The assessment tools, namely vocabulary test, assignment, and presentation assessment form were used to measure students’ achievement in the content aspect in learning the language in three aspects, namely ‘Language of learning’ ‘Language for learning’ and ‘Language through learning’ after the four CLIL lessons. The total score for each aspect of Language Triptych was 10. Quantitative results showed that Science Education students possess a better performance compared to Physical Education students in all aspects of ‘Language Triptych’. Moreover, the ‘Language for learning’ aspect had the highest mean score compared to the other two aspects of Language Triptych. Table 1 shows the average score of students’ assessments in learning ‘content’ and ‘communication’ in relation to the three aspects of Language Triptych.

Table 1

An average score of students' assessment in learning 'Content' and 'Communication' aspects

Variable	Science Education		Physical Education		Total	
	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.	\bar{X}	S.D.
Content	9.456	0.799		0.823		0.835
			9.056		9.306	
Language of learning	7.823	2.116		2.587		2.359
			6.947		7.450	
Language for learning	9.000	0.577		0.866		0.810
			8.250		8.640	
Language through learning	8.802	0.571		0.682		0.881
			7.543		8.259	

Quantitative paired t-test results of the pre-test and post-test which were conducted before and after the four lessons seemed to have greater improvement significantly either among the Science Education students or the Physical Education students ($p < .01$). However, Physical Education students (mean score differences = -4.378) improved in terms of the language of learning aspect was greater than Science Education students (mean score differences = -2.281). Table 2 shows the results of pre-test and post-test in terms of their 'Language of learning aspect of Language Triptych.

Table 2

Result of pre-test and post-test (Paired t-test)

Language of learning	\bar{X}	S.D.	t	p
Science Ed. (Pre-test)	5.702	2.299	-6.276	.000
Post-test	7.983	1.894		
Physical Ed. (Pre-test)	3.189	1.697	-10.660	.000
Post-test	7.568	1.819		

$p < 0.01$

Guidelines for Utilizing the CLIL Approach

The researcher proposes the guidelines for utilizing the CLIL approach based on the results of a documentary analysis on the 25-course syllabi followed by the outcomes of the in-depth interviews. Results of the 25-course syllabi documentary analysis reported on how to implement a CLIL approach to enhance academic learning of higher education students in Thailand requiring lecturers to focus on the four steps of classroom activities design, namely learning outcomes, classroom activities, teaching materials, and assessment. However, lecturers should be aware of balancing language and content learning outcomes. Moreover, the outcome-based curriculum by following the TQF: HEd needs to be taken into consideration while lecturers are designing the learning activities, materials, and assessment based on the identified learning outcomes. Besides, the five domains of learning (ethical and moral development, knowledge, cognitive skills, interpersonal skill and responsibility, and analytical and communication skills) as required in TQF: HEd and 4C's framework (content, communication, cognition, and culture) have to be taken into account while lecturers are preparing the learning outcomes for a CLIL course.

The main aim of the interviews was to gain information from eight selected students from Science Education (labeled S1 to S5) and Physical Education (labeled S6 to S8) on the outcomes of the CLIL lessons. The interviews were conducted from November 27th to 29th, 2019. They were informed via electronic correspondence about the objective of the research and signed a confidentiality form before their interview. Results showed that significant priority should be given to vocabulary learning activities. The researcher also found that students' motivation is the key issue in the CLIL learning environment. Moreover, the results also indicated that individual learning strategies were the factors to support their learning. To answer why vocabulary learning activities is a key factor in succeeding the CLIL approach can be identified based on the following responses:

"Vocabulary learning activities are important because I always use a dictionary to find the meaning and synonym." (S1)

"Categorize the vocabulary or phrase into the right group etc. is very helpful." (S3)

"Vocabulary learning activities help most of us to understand the meaning and how to use those vocabularies." (S7)

"I enjoy the game that assigns each group to categorize and stick the correct Phrase or Word use for each part of the research article. It recalls me of the experience of reading a research articles." (S8)

Furthermore, some students preferred the CLIL approach because teamwork spirit is developed through their learning activities. The following responses were recorded verbatim from the interview about their perceptions and experience of learning content knowledge in English:

“We learn how to share with our course mates.” (S2)

“We have more confidence in doing the oral presentation together.” (S4)

“I am very happy to do the group work on analyzing the composition of the research article as we share our knowledge and discuss it with each other. My course mates help me to translate some parts to clarify my understanding otherwise I need a longer time to digest the content of the research article.” (S6)

Moreover, S5 highlighted another factor in succeeding the CLIL approach, particularly on the learning assessment. S5 found that students have the enthusiasm to learn by themselves while they were working on finding the key answers for the given assignment. Generally, all students preferred the CLIL approach because there were more active activities than passive activities. For example, S6 stated that *“I prefer playing the game to categorize the vocabulary used in reading a research articles. If the lecturer just gives a lecture, I will feel sleepy or pay attention to my smartphone by playing games”*. The researcher concluded that lecturers should be aware of the supporting factors before they start to design the classroom activities to be succeeding in both content and language learning.

Discussion

Based on the outcome of this research, the guidelines were proposed to assist lecturers to implement English-medium programs effectively by utilizing the CLIL approach. Besides, the CLIL approach successfully attracted students with higher aptitudes or motivation toward foreign language learning and subject content at the same time (Luanganggoon, 2017). However, lecturers' roles in preparing lesson plans encompassing the four steps, namely learning outcomes, classroom activities, teaching materials, and assessment become the key factor to implement CLIL approach thus enhancing higher education students' academic learning. Students are expected to acquire knowledge, power of perception, communication, and reasoning after utilizing the CLIL approach (Dalton-Puffer, 2011).

Moreover, there is the belief that ESP language should be discipline specific, and integrated into the content so as not to hinder academic performance, with the communicative element of CLIL approach implemented in order to accomplish meaningful discipline-based tasks which meet needs (Arno-Macia & Mancho-Bares, 2015). Such an approach would implement student centered tasks, including 'Language of learning', 'Language for learning', and 'Language

through learning' activities. On top of that, the results indicated that CLIL approach is aiding students to develop the skills associated with language learning as well as the skills related to the discipline (Morgan & Alfahaid, 2019).

Quantitative results show that both programs of students either Science Education or Physical Education outperform on all aspects of Language Triptych. This outcome is generally seen as evidence of a successful CLIL approach to enhance students' academic learning. The results provide support for past research results (Goris et al., 2019; Pérez-Vidal & Roquet, 2015; Smala, 2013). On the other hand, the reason for 'how' and 'why' of utilizing the CLIL approach imply that lecturers should include a variety of different activities, which would promote not only essential knowledge of the topic but also develop students' communicative competence in the English language. The result is in parallel with past studies (Anuradha & Viswanathan, 2019; Graham et al., 2018; Luanganggoon, 2019).

The four CLIL lessons indicated that language is used as a medium to broaden students' horizons of knowledge. Students use the English language to learn about the world around them successfully if lecturers design their learning activities comprehensively (Suwannoppharat & Chinokul, 2015). Based on this result, it can be stated that CLIL lecturers will have a better understanding of students' needs when the language, and subject lecturers work together while they are designing their lesson plans (Anuradha & Viswanathan, 2019). Finally, the lecturers themselves should be provided with CLIL training if required, due to their lack of knowledge of what, by definition are idiosyncratic courses. As previously mentioned though, this needs to be relevant, so that the lecturers are trained in an adequate, critical, and theoretically valid way, and are aware of the professional skills and language in the subject to implement CLIL teaching practices (Arham & Akrib, 2018).

Conclusion

The main conclusion from this research is the CLIL approach has been proven as a unique pedagogy and its uniqueness lies to a great degree to integrate content teaching with language teaching. Moreover, the CLIL approach also leaves a greater scope of higher-order thinking skills as 'Cognition' is one of the aspects of 4C's (Salvador-Garcia et al, 2020). As claims by recent researchers Alcaraz-Mármol (2018) and Luanganggoon, et al. (2018), teaching subject-specific literacies is an aspect that needs more explicit attention in teacher education and lecturers' continuing professional development. These conclusions make researchers believe that the CLIL approach can contribute to a wider, more informed discussion about classroom pedagogies and consequently serve to further bridge the current gap between theory and

practice in the CLIL approach.

The current trend in Thailand is to attract more international students and increase University's ranking by incorporating more English taught programs to globalize their campuses. It is hoped that the results of this research could shed more light on the current CLIL courses and let more policymakers and lecturers know that encouraging English policy is good for students in Thailand, an appropriate mechanism for training professional bilingual lecturers also needs to be set up (Kung, 2013). Since the CLIL approach is not an easy option for the Thai Ministry of Education to introduce wholesale teaching of a course through English even in higher education institutions, it must equip lecturers with the language ability and teaching skills, then only will it be able to do so (Luanganggoon, 2017). It is suggested that the CLIL seminars or workshops for lecturers should be conducted from time to time so that they can implement the CLIL approach effectively.

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Communicative Translation Method in Increasing Students' Performance in Translation Class

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of communicative translation method in increasing students' performance in translation class. This study used quasi-experimental approach which involved a control group and an experiment group. Communicative translation method was implemented in the experiment group during 6

meetings. Students' performance was measured before and after the implementation of learning process. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics aimed to describe and categorize the levels of students' performance, while inferential statistics aimed to discover whether there was a significant influence of communicative method in increasing students' performance. Results show that the sig value of the experiment class is 0.00. It proves that communicative method is effective in increasing students' performance as the sig. value is lower than 0.05.

Keywords: *Communicative Method, Translation, Students' Performance, Foreign Language Learning.*

Introduction

Studies on the problems commonly faced by students in translation class have been conducted by numerous researchers (Chon & Shin, 2019; Joyce, 2018; Sun & Yuan, 2018; Nikou & Economides, 2018; Liu & Flick, 2019; Mantasiah et al., 2020). The problems among students vary, including low performance, lack of academic motivation, self-integrated learning, self-efficacy, and etc. The factors contributing to the students' problems in translation class are students' first language, metalinguistic competence, students' awareness, the process of transfer from first language to second language and vice versa, decision-making processes in direct and inverse translation, and etc. (Ma & Qu, 2018; Halverson, 2018; Cen, 2018; Ferreira et al., 2018; Akan et al., 2018). Since the problems are not specific, but general in nature, there is a tendency that other language learners from different first languages deal with the same problems.

There are some alternative ways to help students tackle the problems; one of which is to implement a learning model that is appropriate with the problems that students commonly encounter. Studies have revealed that the accuracy in opting for a learning model in translation class can have positive impacts on both cognitive abilities and non-cognitive abilities of the language learners (Li, 2019; Voit et al., 2019; Merç, 2019; Geng, 2019). Nevertheless, the most important point to emphasize is that regardless of the model and the learning method considered to be used, teachers need to adapt the model that will be implemented to the students' conditions and learning environment (Villegas et al., 2018; Mantasiah, 2018; Yusri et al., 2017; Mantasiah et al., 2018; Jufri et al., 2019).

One of the learning methods commonly employed in the foreign language teaching, especially at the university level, is the communicative method. Communicative method can be defined

as an approach that aims at making communicative competence as the goal of language learning. Studies on the application of communicative method in foreign language teaching have been conducted by Savignon (2018), Partridge (2018), Andrade (2018), Diana & Mansur (2018), Rahman & Pandian (2018). Based on the results of those studies, that communicative method can be used in an integrated way in several subjects, such as writing course, reading course, translation course, and etc. The studies also suggest that communicative method positively affect the increase of the learners' cognitive and non-cognitive abilities. However, it should be taken into account that measures to use this method need to be adjusted and adapted to the course being taught.

This study aims to investigate the effectiveness of the implementation of communicative method in translation class. This study is different from other studies because in this study communicative method was applied in two different foreign language classes which are German and English translation classes. By conducting this study, the question if communicative method can be implemented in certain foreign languages or in all foreign languages can be answered. The findings of this study are expected to give benefits in the improvement of the quality of English language learning specifically and foreign language learning in general.

Research Method

This study employed a quasi-experimental approach by involving two different experiment groups without any control group. The respondents of the research were 25 students of English Study Program in Group A and 25 students of German Study Program in Group B. The purposive sampling technique was used to select respondents; they should meet the criteria of taking translation class in both English class and German class. Data were collected by a translation test and interview. In regard to the translation test, the researcher assessed the students' performance with 4 indicators: 1) grasp of information, 2) ease of translation, 3) appropriate use of grammar, and 4) preparation. The scale 1 to 4 was used for each indicator to assess the translation; thus, the maximum score was 16 and the minimum score was 4. The scores were then categorized into 5 according to the categorization by Azwar (2010). More details can be seen in the table 1.

Table 1.

Categorization of the Students' Performance

Interval	Categorization
$X \leq M - 1,5 \sigma$	Very Low
$M - 1,5 \sigma < X \leq M - 0,5 \sigma$	Low
$M - 0,5 \sigma < X \leq M + 0,5 \sigma$	Moderate
$M + 0,5 \sigma < X \leq M + 1,5 \sigma$	High
$X > M + 1,5 \sigma$	Very High
M: Average Hypothetical Scores	
σ : Hypothetical Standard Deviation	

To explore students' responses during the learning process, an interview was conducted with students regarding the implementation of communicative method in the translation learning process. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. Descriptive statistics was performed in order to describe the average of students' performance, while inferential statistics, which was in this case paired sample t-test, was conducted in order to discover whether there was a significant influence of communicative method on the students' performance in translation class.

Results and Discussion

The study began with a pretest given to the students to measure their initial performance in both English and German translation classes. After the pre-test, the students took part in the learning process in translation class with communicative method for 6 meetings. In addition to communicative method, the researcher used other methods called *Team Group Tournament*, *Two Stay Two Stray*, *Blended Learning*, and *Problem Based Learning*. These other methods were integrated with communicative method in order to help the students avoid boredom during the learning process. At the end of each meeting, the researcher always made reflections on the students' responses which were especially related to the weaknesses of the methods to be improved in the next meeting. After 6 meetings, the students' performance in translation was measured using questions that were different from the pretest, but with the same level of difficulty.

Data on the students' performance before and after the implementation of communicative method in both English and German translation classes are provided in the following table.

Table 2.

The Results of Translation Test in English Class

Interval	Level	Pretest		Posttest	
		Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
$X \leq 7$	Very Low	0	0	0	0
$7 < X \leq 9$	Low	4	16	0	0
$9 < X \leq 11$	Moderate	20	80	10	40
$11 < X \leq 13$	High	1	4	10	40
$X > 13$	Very High	0	0	5	20
Total		25	100	25	100

In general, before the intervention was given, most of the students were categorized at the level of moderate with 80% and only one student (4%) reached the very high level. The pretest results suggest that students face problems in translation course that needs a further action. After the intervention, however, an increase in the students' performance was seen. The majority of the students were at the level of high and moderate with 40% each and 20% were at the very high level.

Table 3.

The Result of Translation Test in German Class

Interval	Level	Pretest		Posttest	
		Frequency	Percentage (%)	Frequency	Percentage (%)
$X \leq 7$	Very Low	0	0	0	0
$7 < X \leq 9$	Low	7	28	1	4
$9 < X \leq 11$	Moderate	15	60	4	16
$11 < X \leq 13$	High	3	12	15	60
$X > 13$	Very High	0	0	5	20
Total		25	100	25	100

The same results are shown in the learning process of translation in German class. Before the intervention was performed, most of the students belonged to the moderate level with 60%, while 12% were at the high level. In contrast, after the intervention, the students' performance increased in which 60% of the students reached the high level, while 20% reached the very high level. More information on the increase of the students' performance can be seen from the analysis of inferential statistics provided in the table below.

Table 4.

Paired Samples Statistics in English Class

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Posttest	12.40	25	1.414	.283
	Pretest	10.24	25	.779	.156

Table 4 illustrates that the average of the students' performance before the intervention was 10.24. The performance increased to 12.40 after the intervention was given to students. Thus, there was an increase of 2.160. However, in the German translation class, there was an increase from 10.16 to 12.76. More details can be seen in Table 5 below.

Table 5.

Paired Samples Statistics in German Class

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Posttest	12,76	25	1,508	,302
	Pretest	10,16	25	1,214	,243

To discover if the increase of the students' performance in translation class was significant, data in Table 6 and 7 can be taken into account.

Table 6.

The Results of Analysis of Paired Sample T- Test in English class

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence				
				Interval of the				
				Lower	Upper			
Posttest - Pretest	2.160	.898	.180	1.789	2.531	12.025	24	.000

The results of analysis of paired sample t-test show that the significance value was 0.000 lower than the standard of the significance value (0.05). Additionally, the t-count value obtained was 12.025, which was higher than the t-table value 1.710. Based on these data, it can be concluded that there was a significant increase before and after the learning process in translation class using communicative method.

Table 7.

The Results of Analysis of Paired Sample T- Test in German class

	Paired Differences					T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence				
				Interval of the				
				Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Posttest - Pretest	2.600	.707	.141	2.308	2.892	18.385	24	.000

The same results are obtained in the German translation class. The results of analysis of paired sample t-test indicate that a significant increase occurred after communicative method was used in the learning process in translation class. This conclusion is drawn based on the comparison between significance value, t-count value, and t-table value. The significance value obtained was 0.000 lower than the standard of significance value used in this study (0.05). Furthermore, the t-count value obtained was 18.835, which was higher than the t-table value 1.710.

Based on the results of analysis of the qualitative data obtained from an interview with students, it can be understood that the communicative method is appropriate to be implemented in translation class. One of the reasons is because this method primarily puts emphasis more on the semantic and communicative dimensions than on the grammar rules. This is considered very necessary in translation class. Besides, the objectives to be achieved by employing communicative approach better reflect the needs of students as they primarily learn a foreign language for communication. Thus, the general purpose of learning a foreign language in the perspective of communicative method is to improve students' ability to communicate (Al Asmari, 2015; Astawa et al., 2017; Zhou & Niu, 2015; Jafari et al., 2015; Suparsa et al., 2017). One of the indicator items used to assess the result of student's translation is how the meaning of the translation results can be understood properly and certainly in accordance with the meaning of the source language. By using the communicative method, students do not think too much about the grammar of the results of the translation, but students can focus on conveying the meaning of the source language. In addition, the results of the translation are very easy to read, simpler, and certainly not structural. This is consistent with what was stated by Fazal, Majoka, & Ahmad (2016) and Fu (2020).

Before conducting this research, some students tend to use semantic or literal translation methods. They focus on semantic structure and syntactic, so they try to maintain the position of words, position of clauses, and length of sentences. This causes the results of the translation to be more rigid and very structural (Putra et al., 2016). The result is that some of the meanings of the translation results cannot be conveyed properly. So the student's score in translation class obtained is not maximal, because the main poin assessed in translation class is the ability to convey the meaning of the source language.

The results of this study do not emphasize that the communicative method is better with the semantic, literal or other method of translation. However, the findings of this study emphasize that when learners are more willing to prioritize the meaning of the source language than the structural aspect, the communicative method is the right choice than some other translation methods. Conversely, when the translation process demands to maintain the structural aspects of the source language, it will be better when not using communicative methods. Several studies have used and integrated the two approaches as conducted by Shakernia (2013), Wang (2014), & Yu-yu (2007). However, the context of the research is not in the learning process. Therefore, it is still necessary to study related methods that integrate the two approaches in the context of learning in school or in college.

Conclusion

On the basis of the results of the study discussed previously, it can be concluded that translation class is considered one of the most difficult subjects in learning foreign languages and less attractive for students. This can be seen from the students' pretest scores in which most students were categorized into low. After implemented in translation class, however, the communicative method was considered to be an effective method in increasing the students' performance, especially in translation class. The results of the analysis of paired sample test show that the students' performance increased significantly in English translation class with the average value of the increase 2.160 and in German translation class with the average value of the increase 2.6. Therefore, communicative translation method is an effective alternative method that teachers can use in teaching translation.

Pedagogical Implication

The findings of this study are global in nature and quite possible to be generally implemented in learning foreign languages, such as English, German, and other foreign languages. The findings of the study are also expected to bring benefits to the improvement of the quality of English learning for non-native English speakers, and other foreign language learning. Although the study is highly concerned only on the application of communicative method in translation class, the literature studies suggest that this method can also be implemented in learning other subjects, such as writing course, reading course, and etc.

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A Needs Analysis of ESP Design for Pharmacy Students

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Abstract

The growing demand for English mastery in every field of education and occupation is quite inevitable, so that English for Specific Purposes (ESP) design appears to respond to this situation. The study aimed to analyze the needs of ESP design for pharmacy students at Indonesia Moslem University and to develop the appropriate teaching materials to have them equipped with English based on their pharmaceutical field. The study applied a qualitative research design with the questionnaire items, a proficiency test, and an interview to collect data. The information of students' needs had been gathered by means of questionnaire items as the core of data source and proficiency test for the Indonesian and English equivalences, which was then analyzed by using a mean percentage. The questionnaire was intended to discover students' English learning goals and their needs. The results showed that the students' needs towards ESP covered academic goals, such as being able to comprehend the specialized texts published in English and develop their English proficiency for occupational purposes. The need of reading to understand English written materials or references allowed the reading to be more prioritized than other learning activities. In relation to reading ability, vocabulary was placed as the highest priority to be improved over other elements. Students found equivalences in register contexts very essential to enrich in understanding English written references and engaging in conversational situation. The implementation of ESP for pharmacy students as a compulsory subject was expected to equip them with English skills for future careers as pharmacists.

Keywords: *English for Specific Purposes (ESP), pharmacy, English proficiency, register*

Introduction

Today, the importance of English is undeniable. This language is widely used both as a second language and as a foreign language wherever we are. The demand for mastering English skills continues to increase not only in countries where English is used as a mother tongue, but also in many other countries where students must use English as a medium for delivering lectures in higher education. Because of globalization, English has become the language of science and technology and most of the scientific study literatures are printed in English. Thus, it takes time to gain competencies in English to overcome the challenges of the modern era.

At present, the goal of learning English has shifted from mere prestige to being more purposeful because of the presence of English as a language of science and technology, as well as trade to be applied in every field of scientific discipline. In addition, awareness of English

language learners has increased along with the demand for mastery of English in every field of work and science. These learners can be classified into two groups. The first are those who study English for their work, such as doctors or entrepreneurs. The second is tertiary level students who need to read literature in their specialization, most of which are found in English (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Lynch & Hudson, 1991).

English for Specific Purposes (ESP), known as Special English, is far different from General English (GE). The significant difference between ESP and GE lies in the goal of learning English itself. ESP learners are generally adults who have their learning goals to achieve English language skills related to a particular profession. ESP mainly focuses on the language used in the context of the need for performance. Therefore, ESP learning is designed based on an assessment of the goals and needs of English according to the reasons for learning English. ESP is often associated with the process of identifying learners' needs and initiating goal-oriented teaching and process-oriented learning (Celce-Murcia, 2001; Nunan, 1988b; Widdowson, 1983). Specifically, ESP lectures are designed to meet the current needs of students and their future needs (Dudley-Evans & St-John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, 1999). The design of ESP teaching materials includes teacher's knowledge about the nature of students, their needs, and procedures for learning English in relation to specific curriculum contexts.

Furthermore, a large number of different professions have become a necessity for ESP specialization, all of which have certain characteristics, special needs, such as special vocabulary, specific texts and interactions, identifiable work environments, and so on (Harding, 2007). To meet special needs in teaching and learning English, ESP primarily focuses on language skills, structure, functions, and vocabulary that are definitely needed by target group members in their professional environment.

The increasing demand for learning and teaching English in the medical and health fields, such as the pharmaceutical field, which emerged in the field of English Language Teaching in the early 1960s (Orr, 2001) and continues to be an important and dynamic area, so the key issue in ESP is to do analysis of the need to determine syllabus design, material selection, methodology and evaluation of teaching and learning.

According to Iwai, et al. (1999), the term 'needs analysis' involves the activities used to gather information and with that information the design is made to meet the needs of the group of people who will learn it.

To pinpoint students' needs, several approaches were identified. The first approach is the analysis of the target situation which refers to what students need to do in the context of the

situation. This analysis includes needs, shortcomings, and desires (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). As stated by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), needs mean what students need to know and to perform in a target situation. The second approach to needs is an analysis of the current situation by attempting to identify students' current proficiency in English and their level in language at the beginning of learning (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Robinson, 1991). The third approach is an analysis of learning needs that is used to refer to what students need to do in order to learn (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Analysis of learning needs provides the skills that the students need, the learning process, students' motivation, and individual differences in students (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). The fourth approach to needs analysis is an analysis of facility. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), an analysis of facility offers data about the environment in which the ESP course will take place.

This study aims to find two main objectives: (1) to explore the needs of pharmacy students about ESP materials and (2) to design ESP materials for pharmacy students based on needs analysis.

Literature Review

English for Specific Purposes

The ESP phenomenon is not easy to define because ESP views differ. Some experts see ESP as a teaching process, for example Hutchinson and Waters (1987) see ESP as an approach to language teaching that aims to meet the needs of certain students. Likewise, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) define ESP as a movement that refers to teaching material. According to other experts such as Wilkinson (2008), ESP is a training process that is directed to learning in order to achieve knowable results. Finally, ESP is sometimes considered as a type of discourse. In this case, Ruiz & Fortanet (2009) state that ESP is a special discourse used in special arrangements by people who have the same goal.

ESP is then seen as a language course or teaching program where the contents and objectives of the course are determined by the specific needs of a particular group of students (Richards and Schmidt, 2010). ESP prepares students to use English in academic, professional, and workplace settings.

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987) in Saragih (2014), ESP is a language teaching approach in which all decisions related to content and methods are based on students' reasons for learning. Since the 1960s, as stated by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), ESP has become a vital and innovative activity in Teaching English as a Second Language and Foreign Language movement.

Therefore, the ESP course has been developed based on an assessment of goals and needs and activities that require English. An important point from ESP is that English is not taught as a subject separated from the real world (or desire) of learners, but it is integrated into the subject matter areas that are important for students. However, GE and ESP differ not only in the nature of learners, but also in the teaching objectives. In fact, in GE teaching, all four language skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing) are emphasized equally. However, in ESP it is a needs analysis that determines the language skills most needed by students, and the syllabus is designed accordingly.

ESP has a number of characteristics that distinguish it from GE. Dudley-Evans and St. John in Hossain (2013) offers a modified definition of the absolute characteristics of ESP that (1) ESP is defined to meet the specific needs of students; (2) ESP utilizes the methodology and activities that underlie the discipline it serves; and (3) ESP is focused on language skills, grammar, lexis, registers, discourses and genres that are appropriate for these activities. Then, the modified definitions of the characteristics of the ESP variable are as follows: (1) ESP may be related or designed for a particular discipline; (2) ESP can use, in certain teaching situations, a different methodology from GE; (3) ESP is likely designed for adult students, both at the college level or in professional work situations. However, it can be for students at the secondary school level; (4) ESP is generally designed for middle or advanced students; and (5) Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but they can be used for beginners.

Traditionally, ESP has two main types: English for Academic Purposes and English for Occupational Purposes (Kennedy and Bolitho, 1984) in Alfehaid (2011). This implies that ESP students are either involved in learning a particular subject in English, or following a particular job that they need in English, or both. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) in Alfehaid (2011) explain that people can work and study simultaneously; it is also possible that in many cases the language learned for immediate use in the learning environment will be used later when students take English or return to work. Thus, the two main objectives of ESP are 'study' and 'work'. Indeed, the type of ESP investigated in this study is assumed to prepare students for their academic studies and professional lives.

English for Occupational Purposes refers to English not for academic purposes, but for professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professionals in work or pre-work situations (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). Therefore, English for Occupational Purposes is closely related to students' occupations or

professions, because they are most likely required to have a certain level of English proficiency in the workplace which is an indicator of good work performance (Kim, 2008).

English for Academic Purposes is defined as teaching English with the specific purposes of helping students to learn, do research or teach in that language (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001a). Then, Todd (2003) observed that the main purpose of English for Academic Purposes is for students to communicate effectively in an academic environment. This objective focuses on developing students with specific communication skills to participate in this environment (Hyland and Hamp-Lyons, 2002). This goal is also divided into many types. According to McDonough (1984); Dudley-Evans and St John (1998); and Jordan (2002), the main subdivision of English for Academic Purposes is considered English for Science and Technology. However, it seems that this designation can be in accordance with the use of English in the atmosphere of work and academics, jobs for oil fields, engineers, etc., as well as academics when students learn physics, mathematics, and chemistry through English media (Robinson, 1980).

The Need Analysis in ESP Setting

The key stage in ESP is focused on needs analysis. According to Robinson (1991) in Rahman (2011), needs analysis is generally considered important for ESP, although ESP does not mean the only educational effort that utilizes it. Strevens (1980) suggests that needs analysis is the first step needed for teaching special purposes of languages; here scientific discourse is more important. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argue that every language course must be based on needs analysis. Hamp-Lyons (2001) also believes that needs analysis is a fundamental component for the ESP approach in terms of course design.

Hutchinson & Waters (1992) in Mitra & Matjaba (2016) define needs analysis as the basis of 'needs' and 'desires' to classify between what students must know and what they feel they need to know. This definition views language needs as a process of negotiation between students and the responsive program to be designed. In addition, Witkin and Altschuld (1995) define needs analysis as a set of systematic procedures carried out to set priorities and make decisions about programs or improvement in organization and allocation of resources.

More importantly, Brown (1995) identifies the term 'needs analysis' as the activities involved in gathering information as a basis for developing a curriculum that meets the learning needs of certain groups of students. Once needs have been identified and stated in goals and objectives, they can in turn serve as a basis for developing tests, materials, teaching activities, and evaluation strategies. The aim is to overcome the gap of what language programs do not

have. This definition draws a line between needs analysis and evaluation. Needs analysis aims to determine the needs of certain groups of people, while evaluations determine the extent to which a program meets these needs. In the same way, Soriano (1995) shows that needs analysis collects and analyzes data to determine what students want and need, while evaluations measure the effectiveness of programs to meet students' needs.

Needs analysis serves as the basis of training programs and development programs. Gardner and Winslow (1983) state that to produce information that makes the course better adapted to students' needs and parts of objects that are identified as quantitative evidence of specific needs. Analyzing the specific needs of a particular group of students serves as an important starting point in the design of ESP courses, because it determines the essence and reasons underlying ESP courses.

The needs analysis in this study has a relationship with the needs analysis as proposed by Lowe in Miyake and Tremarco (2005) as follows: (1) Situation Analysis of the Target Students: tasks and activities in which English is used; (2) Desire, Means and Subjective Analysis: personal information about students, including factors that influence the way students learn, such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for learning ESP and their expectations; (3) Current Situation Analysis: information about students' current language use skills; (4) Less Analysis: gap between Current Situation Analysis and Target Situation Analysis; (5) Learning Needs Analysis: language learning information about effective ways of learning skills and languages; (6) Linguistic Analysis, Discourse Analysis, and Genre Analysis: professional communication information about knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation; and (7) Means Analysis: information about the environment in which the course will be conducted.

Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) define needs analysis as the process of determining what and how the course is. They argue that needs analysis is not unique to the assessment of language teaching, for example as the basis of training programs and development programs, but in language training, it is unique to Languages for Specific Purposes and thus to ESP. They emphasize three aspects of needs analysis. Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998) state that the first purpose of a needs analysis is to find out students as humans, as language users and as language learners; the second is to find out how language learning and skill learning can be maximized for certain groups of learners; and the third is to know the target situation and learning environment, so that the data can be interpreted appropriately.

English for Medical Purposes

English has become an international and intranational medical language (Maher, 1986a; and Dziganova, 2002). As a result, those who wish to join the medical or health care field require English as a means to carry out their work efficiently and to further their specialist education (Kourilova, 1979). Thus, the use of English in the medical or health care field is not limited to countries where the language is used as the first language. This may be the neutral language used by non-native doctors and nurses in hospitals that do not speak English. This can also be used between countries where English is used as a foreign language or a second language.

English for Medical Purposes emerged in 1960 (Maher, 1986b) as an identifiable ESP subtype (McDonough, 1984; Maher, 1986b; Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; Hull, 2006; Antic, 2007). Maher (1986b) defines English for medical purposes as teaching English to doctors, nurses, and other personnels in the medical profession, and then explains that English for Medical Purposes: (1) is designed to meet the specific English language needs of doctors; (2) focuses on themes and topics specific to the medical field; and (3) focuses on a limited set of skills that may be needed by medical students (for example to write medical papers, prepare lectures for medical meetings).

It is important that Maher (1986b) prioritizes the need for English first. Maher's definition seems to imply that all the language needs of medical students are identical, but in English for Medical Purposes, there is sometimes an overlap in the needs of English medical learners because there are many differences between the needs, for example, dentists and nurses. Confirming this, in his investigation of the English language needs of paramedical students in Kuwait, Adams-Smith (1980) found that they had very different needs from medical students. In addition, the needs of students studying English for Medical Purposes in non-English speaking countries may be different in English speaking countries. Munby (1978) asserts that there must be important differences in English courses for non-native people who need English to study medicine in their own country as opposed to England.

Maher (1986b) suggested that there are two main types of English for Medical Purposes. The first is English for Medicine for Educational Purposes or what Dudley Evans and St John (1998) call Medical English for Academic Purposes. The second type is English for Medicine for Employment or what Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) call Medical English for Occupational Purposes. This involves language training as part of medical studies or primary health care (Maher, 1986b); students must read textbooks and articles and write short essays and clinical reports (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998). On the other hand, it is associated with active professional requirements, for example consulting skills, conference presentations

(Maher, 1986b). Here also the doctor practices reading specialist articles and preparing papers and slide presentations for conferences (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998).

ESP is a branch of teaching English and a form of English input for foreign speakers that aim to meet the specific requirements of students. It uses the strategies and activities of the disciplines concerned (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998 in Morgan & Alfehaid, 2019), in a classroom that is lively, interesting and relevant, because failure to achieve this will have a negative effect on participants in their education or place their work (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). As a result, it is an aspect of education that requires integration as opposed to marginalization (Ding & Campion, 2016). ESP language input differs from GE in terms of grammar and lexis, as well as the way of presentation. The first supports students' reasons for studying with courses designed for those who are at the tertiary level intermediate or higher level institutions. This means that it is more focused, practical and object oriented than GE (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998), and requires teachers not to have the same expertise for GE teaching that can cause problems in teaching (Hamp-Lyons, 2001).

ESP is taught widely in universities, colleges, and other institutions as a compulsory program. The idea behind the ESP program is to empower students in their respective fields of study. Experts have suggested new curricula in various ESP domains, from engineering to medical science at various universities (Alqurashi, 2016; Alfehaid, 2011). The general objective of the enhanced curriculum is to prepare Saudi youth to compete in the job market on an equal basis with graduates from other countries. The lack of technical English skills hinders the productivity of new graduates in their professional fields, because workers without these skills do not have the communicative skills needed for intercultural communication (Al-Nasser, 2015). In addition, needs analysis in language teaching and language program design refers to a systematic process that can help teachers to gather information and get an accurate and complete picture of their students' needs and preferences (Khan, 2019).

It is ideal for institutions to find out the professional skills needed by the workforce of the future, the 21st century economy which is very dynamic is currently blocking it. However, there are certain skills that are transferred between jobs (Carnevale, Smith, Strohl, 2013; Jones, 2013), such as soft skills (Clokier & Fourie, 2016) in Broido & Portman (2017), especially English language skills, which provide competencies demanded by entrepreneurs now and in the future (Jones, 2013). This is consistent with the report of the Indian National Knowledge Commission, which states that the command of English is perhaps the most important determinant of access to higher education, employment possibilities and social opportunities.

Method and Materials

The aims of the research were to know what the students need for the language skills, vocabulary/register, the English reading skill, and proficiency of the English registers. For those aims, the researchers used a typical design of three instruments to triangulate data collection. The first was a questionnaire, the second was a proficiency test, and the last was an interview. Thus, the data had been gathered with the aids of instruments. The questionnaire items for the language skills covered major skills of the language; they were listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. But, those of minor skills covered pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary (general words), register (specific words for pharmaceutical field), and grammar/language structure. The questionnaire items were also used for gathering information about the students' needs of vocabulary/register skills of the language, including meanings, spellings, pronunciations, uses, word-formation, open classes, and closed classes. Besides, the items were used for gathering the data of 20 specific skills which were required in learning the English reading skill. Another instrument was a proficiency test for getting the data about the students' proficiency of Indonesian and English equivalences. All numeric data had been prepared by using a mean score percentage. The results of analysis were classified and interpreted for gaining the research statements.

Results and Discussions

The research results and discussions in this paper consist of language skills, the English vocabulary/register, the English reading skill, and proficiency of the English registers.

4.1 Language Skills in Learning English

The language skills that the students need in learning English include major skills and minor skills. Table 1 below contains the scores and percentages of these major and minor skills of the language.

Table 1: The needs of language skills in learning English

No	Variables and Indicators	Scores	Percentages (%)
1	Major Skills	4.44	88.80
a	Listening Skill	4.35	87.00
b	Speaking Skill	4.58	91.60
c	Reading Skill	4.60	92.00
d	Writing Skill	4.23	84.60

2	Minor Skills	4.45	89.00
a	Pronunciation	4.63	92.60
b	Spelling	4.23	84.60
c	Vocabulary	4.55	91.00
d	Register	4.50	90.00
e	Grammar	4.33	86.60
Total		8.89	177.8
Mean		4.45	88.90

Table 1 above exposes the students' needs of language skills in learning English which cover the major and minor skills. The data in the table show the percentage rates in greater levels. The rates remark that these skills with their respective components are essential to notice in designing the ESP materials for the pharmacy students. The greatest rates in major skills are reading skill (92.00%) and speaking skill (91.60%), and those in minor skills are pronunciation (92.60%), and then followed by vocabulary (91.00%) and register (90.00%). However, the others are also important to do for a design of ESP materials. It is clear that needs analysis for designing the English program is crucial to do. Khan (2019) states that needs analysis can assist teachers to gather information and get an accurate and complete picture of their students' needs and preferences.

Vocabulary/Register in English

Learning each word in English covers many aspects, such as meanings, spellings, pronunciations, etc. These aspects are categorized as the indicators to measure the students' needs in learning the English vocabulary/register. Table 2 as follows contains the indicators of the students' needs in learning the English vocabulary/register.

Table 2: The aspects of vocabulary/register in learning English

No	Indicators	Scores	Percentages (%)
1	Meanings of the words	4.68	93.60
2	Spellings of the words	4.28	85.60
3	Pronunciations of the words	4.60	92.00
4	Use of the words	4.38	87.60
5	Word-formation	4.13	82.60

6	Open classes	4.13	82.60
7	Closed classes	4.08	81.60
Total		30.28	605.60
Mean		4.33	86.60

The students' needs in learning the English vocabulary/register in Table 2 indicate that meanings and pronunciations of the words take the greatest positions in designing the ESP materials (93.60% and 92.00%), respectively. The fewest level is the closed classes of words (81.60%), and then followed by the word-formation (82.60%) and the open classes of words (82.60%). Thus, decisions of language teaching materials should be based on the aims of the students' needs. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) consider ESP as an approach to language teaching which has a purpose to meet the needs of particular groups of the students. Also, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) see ESP as a movement referring to teaching materials.

Reading Skill in English

There are a number of specific skills that the students need to acquire in learning the English reading skill. Reading is one of the important aspects for the pharmacy students, for they need to understand the materials which are written in English. Table 3 contains 20 items of skills (Visit English.com/gse) that the students have stated their needs in the case of reading skill.

Table 3: The indicators of reading skill in learning English

No	Indicators	Scores	Percentages (%)
1	to recognize the letters of the alphabet	3.65	73.00
2	to recognize basic plural forms of nouns	4.05	81.00
3	to recognize familiar words on simple notices	4.30	86.00
4	to follow simple written directions	4.75	95.00
5	to understand simple descriptions of things	4.00	80.00
6	to follow basic instructions	4.08	81.60
7	to understand familiar phrases in a simple text	3.83	76.60
8	to find specific information in a simple text	4.03	80.60
9	to understand simple questions in questionnaires	4.20	84.00
10	to understand simple messages on social networks	4.23	84.60
11	to get the gist of short, simple narratives	3.95	79.00
12	to understand simple instructions on equipment	3.80	76.00

13	to understand the general meaning of simple texts	4.23	84.60
14	to read a simple text and extract factual details	4.00	80.00
15	to understand short, simple personal emails	4.10	82.00
16	to identify specific information in brochures	4.03	80.60
17	to understand reports of travel delays	3.88	77.60
18	to understand rules and regulations	4.35	87.00
19	to extract key information from academic text	4.05	81.00
20	to make basic inferences from a short text	4.15	83.00
Total		81.66	1,633.20
Mean		4.08	81.66

The mean score of specific skills that the students need to acquire in learning the English reading skill is 4.08 with the percentage rate of 81.66%. This percentage rate indicates that the pharmacy students need to acquire the above specific skills for their reading aspect development. Among the 20 items of skills, the need to follow simple written directions takes the greatest position in reading (95.00%), meaning that this skill takes the first attention in ESP design for reading aspect. However, other skills are also important for the purpose of designing the English reading materials for the students. Thus, the next skills after the simple written directions are the skills to understand rules and regulations (87.00%), the skills to recognize familiar words on simple notices (86.00%), the skills to understand simple messages on social networks (84.60%), the skills to understand the general meaning of simple texts (84.60%), the skills to understand simple questions in questionnaires (84.00%), the skills to make basic inferences from a short text (83.00%), the skills to understand short, simple personal emails (82.00%), and so forth.

The information stated in Table 3 gives specific information of the students' needs for reading skill in learning English. These results are supported by Gardner and Winslow (1983) who state that to produce information makes the course better adapted to students' needs and parts of objects. Analyzing the specific needs of a particular group of students serves as an important starting point in the design of ESP courses.

Proficiency of the English Registers

Proficiency of the English registers refers to the equivalences of the English and Indonesian words. The contents of Table 4 below cope with problems as the test items and the answer key as the equivalences of the Indonesian words.

Table 4: The proficiency test items of the English registers

No	Problems: Answer Keys/Equivalences (a number of correct answers)	Scores	Percentages (%)
1	Jahe (<i>Zingiber officinale</i> Rosc): b. Ginger (32)	8.00	80.00
2	Bawang Merah (<i>allium cepa</i> L.): a. Onion (34)	8.50	85.00
3	Alpukat (<i>Persea Americana</i> Mill): b. Avocado (37)	9.25	92.50
4	Buah pinang (<i>Areca catechu</i> L.): c. Betel palm (23)	5.75	57.50
5	Rumput laut lawi-lawi (<i>Caulerpa lentillifera</i>): d. Green Caviar (22)	5.50	55.00
6	Kayu beta-beta (<i>Lunasia amara</i> Blanco): a. Sanrego (11)	2.75	27.50
7	Buah Pare (<i>momordica charantia</i> L.): d. Bitter Melon (13)	3.25	32.50
8	Lada Putih (<i>Piperis Albi Fructus</i>): c. White Pepper (38)	9.50	95.00
9	Lada Hitam (<i>Piperis Nigri Fructus</i>): a. Black Pepper (37)	9.25	92.50
10	Kedondong (<i>Spondias dulcis</i>): b. Ambarella (19)	4.75	47.50
11	Paliasa (<i>Kleinhovia Hospita</i> L.): a. Guest Tree (12)	3.00	30.00
12	Terong (<i>Solanum torvum</i>): c. Eggplant (35)	8.75	87.50
13	Kelor (<i>Moringa Oleifera</i> L.): d. Moringa (26)	6.50	65.00
14	Wortel (<i>Daucus carota</i> L.): a. Carrot (33)	8.25	82.50
15	Sawo Manila (<i>Manilkara zapota</i> L. P. Royen): b. Sapodilla (17)	4.25	42.50
16	Daun Bidara Arab (<i>Ziziphus Spina-Christi</i> L.): d. Christ's Thorn Jujube (20)	5.00	50.00
17	Kacang gude (<i>Cajanus cajan</i> (L) Millsp): b. Pigeon pea (25)	6.25	62.50
18	Teripang Pasir (<i>Holothuria Scabra</i>): a. Sandfish (23)	5.75	57.50
19	Bunga Cengkeh (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i> L.): c. Clove Flowers (36)	9.00	90.00
20	Sambung Nyawa (<i>Gynura procumbens</i> Merr): b. Longevity Spinach (20)	5.00	50.00
21	Galing-galing (<i>Cayratia trifolia</i> L.): a. Bush Grape (12)	3.00	30.00
22	Ceremai (<i>Phyllanthus acidus</i> (L.) Skeels): b. Gooseberry (21)	5.25	52.50
23	Ginseng Bugis (<i>Talinum Paniculatum</i> (Jacq.): d. Fame Flower (20)	5.00	50.00
24	Adam Hawa (<i>Rhoeo Discolor</i>): c. Oyster (18)	4.50	45.00
25	Pedada (<i>Sonneratia caseolaris</i> L): b. Mangrove Apple (7)	1.75	17.50
26	Buah naga merah (<i>Hylocereus polyrhizus</i>): a. Dragon fruit (35)	8.75	87.50
27	Daun Mangkokan (<i>Nothopanax scutellarium</i> Merr): a. Shell-leaf (25)	6.25	62.50
28	Apel (<i>Malus domestica</i>): c. Apple (40)	10.00	100.00
29	Kayu manis (<i>Cinnamomum burmannii</i>): b. Cinnamon (20)	5.00	50.00
30	Kenari (<i>Canarium Indicum</i> L.): d. Java Almond (23)	5.75	57.50
31	Semangka (<i>Citrullus lanatus</i>): d. Watermelon (34)	8.50	85.00
32	Pala (<i>Myristica fragrans</i> Houtt): b. Nutmeg (26)	6.50	65.00
33	Sirsak (<i>Annona muricata</i> L): c. Soursop (19)	4.75	47.50

34	Bintaro (<i>Cerbera odollam</i> Gaertn): d. The suicide tree (15)	3.75	37.50
35	Pacar kuku (<i>Lawsonia inermis</i> L): a. Henna (36)	7.20	72.00
36	Nangka (<i>Artocarpus heterophyllus</i> Lam): b. Jackfruit (32)	8.00	80.00
37	Bidara (<i>Ziziphus Mauritiana</i> Lam): c. Indian Jujube (10)	2.50	25.00
38	Turi (<i>Sesbania grandiflora</i> L): d. Vegetable Hummingbird (9)	2.25	22.50
39	Jamblang (<i>Syzygium cumini</i> (L.) Skeels): a. Java plum (1)	0.25	2.50
40	Kurma Ajwa (<i>Phoenix dactylifera</i> L. Var. Ajwa): b. Ajwa Dates (26)	6.50	65.00
Total		233.70	2337.00
Mean		5.84	58.42

Based on Table 4 above, it can be said that among 40 test items there are 58.42% as the mean percentages of the students' proficiency of the equivalences of the English and Indonesian words in pharmaceutical field. All selected samples know the equivalence of 'apel' (*Malus domestica*) in Indonesian with 'apple' in English (100%) because their spellings are almost the same. This case also happens to the word such as 'alpukat' (*Persea Americana* Mill) with its equivalence 'avocado' (92.50%). Another case is that the students have prior-knowledge of word meaning or word translation, so that they know the key answer as the word equivalence, such as 'lada putih' (*Piperis Albi Fructus*) with 'white pepper' (95.00%), 'lada hitam' (*Piperis Nigri Fructus*) with 'black pepper' (92.50%), 'bunga cengkeh' (*Syzygium aromaticum* L.) with 'clove flowers' (87.50%), and 'buah naga merah' (*Hylocereus polyrhizus*) with 'dragon fruit' (87.50%). The students already know the names of colors that 'putih' and 'hitam' are 'white' and 'black' in English. They also know the English word of 'bunga' with 'flowers' and that of 'buah' with 'fruit'. On the other hand, the students have low proficiency of the other words because the Indonesian words cannot be associated with their equivalences in English, for examples: 'kayu beta-beta' (*Lunasia amara* Blanco) with 'sanrego' (27.50%), 'pedada' (*Sonneratia caseolaris* L) with 'mangrove apple' (17.50%), 'turi' (*Sesbania grandiflora* L) with 'vegetable hummingbird' (22.50%), and 'jamblang' (*Syzygium cumini* (L.) Skeels) with 'java plum' (2.50%). It can be inferred that the equivalences of Indonesian words with their English words are crucial for pharmacy students.

Table 4 above describes the specific words for pharmacy fields (registers) which make ESP different from GE. Dudely-Evans and St. John in Hossain (2013) offers a modified definition of the absolute characteristics of ESP. It is exposed that ESP meets the specific needs of students, activities that underlie the discipline it serves, and the focus on language skills, grammar, lexis, registers, discourses and genres.

Conclusion

What the students need in learning English includes many aspects; they are major skills and minor skills. Among the four language skills, the English reading skill is of importance because they want to increase their knowledge by reading the pharmaceutical texts in English. They of course need vocabulary in general and register in particular because the recognition of the texts might be determined by their proficiency of the English words. Lexical words have definite meanings in context. So, in designing the ESP materials these concerns are very crucial. Then, the specific skills that the students need to acquire in learning the English reading skill cover a number of indicators. These concerns are also crucial to know by a designer of ESP materials. In the case of the students' proficiency of the equivalences of the Indonesian words with the English ones in pharmaceutical field, a designer of ESP materials are also recommended to do so. Thus, the research findings can be applicable to a global SLA audience in many cases, such as ESP materials design, the needs for the English language skills, and proficiency of Indonesian and English equivalences for pharmaceutical field. The pedagogical implication of the research is to enrich the students with the registers about pharmacy for academic and occupational purposes.

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**Lecturers' Attitude on Blended Learning-Based Instruction
in Teaching English for Business in Indonesian Vocational
Higher Education**

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Abstract

This paper focuses on the lecturers' attitude on Blended Learning-based instruction in teaching English for Business in vocational higher education. It employs case study utilizing online survey research to gather data on lecturers' attitude on Blended Learning within the lecture's classroom interaction. Research result indicates that there were marked differences in the way the lecturers' perceived on Blended Learning in teaching English for Business in Indonesian Vocational Higher Education. These differences influence their classroom teaching practices. The interconnection of the lecturers' attitude on Blended Learning instructions towards their classroom led to the 3 categories of lectures such as (1) Rich Interactive Blended Learning (RIBL), (2) Moderate Interactive Blended Learning (MIBL) and Poor Interactive Blended Learning (PIBL). What is evident is that the more positive of the lecturer toward Blended Learning instruction in classroom, the better the performance they have on Blended Learning Instruction in teaching English Business in Indonesian Vocational Higher education. This study has sought to expand scholarly understanding of Blended Learning instruction in teaching English for Business in Indonesian Vocational Higher Education.

Keywords: *Blended Learning, lecturers' attitude, Indonesian Vocational Higher education*

Introduction

The examination of educator's attitudes can help in recognizing the challenges instructors face while actualizing curricular advancements in the classroom and can help in setting up the most suitable sort of help that is required in in-service teacher improvement Breen in (Karavas & Doukas, 1996).

Since the instructor impacts learners' motivation and enthusiasm in lessons, it is critical for an EFL instructor to have a positive attitude on the English language and to reflect this attitude in his or her classroom. In addition to this, a positive attitude can be an a marker of enthusiasm to teach a particular language, which may add to the execution of convincing methodologies and procedures to build students' motivation to learn a foreign language and may help students to create a more positive attitudes(Gursoy, 2012).

Despite the criticalness of educators' perspectives in deciding the effective implementation of innovatory thoughts and in understanding instructors' classroom behavior, teacher attitudes have been excused in second language classroom research (Karavas & Doukas, 1996).

Attitudes toward a foreign language have been of important to numerous of educators and researchers. However, most of the research has been directed with language students. There is an absence of review concerning the attitudes of teachers toward the language they are or will be teaching (Gursoy, 2012). Corresponding to teacher's attitude on Blended Learning, (Ozkan, 2008) expressed that there is insignificant research on instructors' and students' attitudes toward in Blended learning environments. Accordingly, this exploration is intended to contribute to filling this gap by examining the teacher's attitude on Blended Learning.

For further investigation on the Blended Learning in Indonesian Vocational higher education, researcher establishes the following research questions. The issue that the authors expected to address in this study are the educators' attitudes on Blended learning implementation considering demographic (gender, age, years of teaching experience, subject taught and educational stage) and the challenges could the teachers experience when they apply blended learning approach in teaching Business English.

Literature Review

Teacher Attitude

The researcher discovered negligible researches of teacher attitude toward Blended Learning has been carried out. (Capan, 2012) who explores Turkish EFL teachers' attitudes towards ICT use in Blended Learning found that high computer skills, good cultural perceptions and computer accessibility at home and in campus are crucial components affecting EFL teachers' attitudes.

(Martinsen, 2017) led exploration in Australia and discovered that instructors perceived blended learning improves teaching practice, advancing individualization, join effort, organization, involvement, real-fact relevance, and student-focused learning.

In Indonesian context (Cahyani & Cahyono, 2012) found that the instructors have positive attitudes towards the utilization of technology in the language classrooms. The strong attitudes are indicated by their conviction that language classrooms ought to have different sorts of innovation and that the instructors should utilize them to build up students' language skills and competences. This is on the grounds that students, as the teachers believe, will have an option to learn second language better by utilizing technology.

Another research of teacher's attitude towards ICT and its utilization in education in Indonesian context also conducted by (Habibi, Razak, Yusop, & Mukminin, 2019) which included 138 educators from three Indonesia higher education institutions. The discoveries of the research revealed that Indonesian EFL instructors have a high mean of positive attitudes review towards ICT and its utilization in classroom. They expressed that computerized innovation would be favorable for the suitability and efficiencies of teaching and learning process on the ground that millennials or Generation Z can't be segregated with the innovation of technology on the everyday practice; web-based social networking, web-based systems administration, websites, Wikis, mobile phones, and Personal Computers (PCs).

However, a study conducted in Jordanian public school teachers' attitudes toward teaching English found that there is no measurably critical relationship coefficient between the educators' attitudes and their classroom practices (Al-ghazo, 2013).

Research also uncovers several instructors have a negative attitude or impervious to be identified to the implementation of blended learning for example time-consuming, troubles in locating important resources (Benson, Anderson, & Ooms, 2011;(COHERE, 2011).

Blended Learning (BL)

Blended learning in education originally appeared around 2000 and has become very fashionable these days, particularly in business setting and higher education context. The terms 'blended,' 'hybrid,' 'technology-mediated instruction,' 'web-enhanced instruction,' and 'mixed-mode instruction' are as often as possible used reciprocally in today's research literature (Sharma, 2014). Hybrid e-learning or Blended Learning unites conventional learning with digital learning to oblige the present improvement innovation technology era as Industrial Revolution 4.0 (Syam, Basri, Abduh, & Patak, 2019).

People have various recognitions about blended learning and it alludes to as both blended and hybrid learning, with zero difference in the noteworthiness of the terms among most educators. It mixes online delivery of instructional content with the best features of classroom interaction and live instruction to personalize learning, allow thoughtful reflection, and differentiate instruction from student to student across a diverse group of students.

Blended learning has been understood in various ways and frequently associated with simply combining traditional classroom learning with e-learning activities. (Graham, 2006) defines Blended learning as frameworks which consolidate face-to-face instruction with computer-mediated instruction.

Blended learning is straightforward however confused. At any rate troublesome, blended

learning is the attentive blend of classroom face-to-face learning experiences with web learning experiences. There is a noteworthy interest in consolidating the characteristics of synchronous and asynchronous learning practices (D. R. Garrison & Kanuka, 2004).

(Bath & Bourke, 2010) defines Blended Learning as ways of coordinating ICTs with course design to improve the teaching and learning for both learners and educators. With the blending, the learners can achieve better learning experiences and outcomes. A combination of delivery modes with teaching strategy will create more efficient teaching.

Blended learning is a systematic design approach that transparently accesses and coordinates the qualities of face-to-face and web based to address beneficial learning objectives. Blended learning is the thoughtful fusion of face-to-face and online learning experiences which opens a wide opportunity to remodel the conventional classroom activities (D. Garrison & Vaughan, 2008).

In a similar way, (Innes & Wilton, 2018) characterize blended learning as a term that is applied to the practice of providing teaching and learning encounters through the combinations of face-to-face and online learning. During the this online technology- learning experience, learners can be virtually connected through online communities.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the easiest definition of blended learning is the combination of traditional classroom or face to face and online learning experiences.

Benefits of Blended Learning

Blended Learning is beneficial for students, teachers, and administrators. The benefits of Blended for students are it improves the students' accessibilities to materials and promotes individualized learner (Sulisworo, 2018), it enhances students' enjoyments, engagements, motivations and appreciations to learning (Tosun, 2015), it also increases the achievements and learning results (Innes & Wilton, 2018). The key benefits of blended learning for students according to (Innes & Wilton, 2018) are; it opens the opportunity to collaborate virtually, improves flexibility, enhances students interactivity, assists students' higher accomplishment and improves students digital mastery skills in order to become virtual communities, In general, research has discovered that BL results in improvements of students' achievements and fulfillments (Dziuban, Graham, Moskal, Norberg, & Sicilia, 2018).

For teachers, with blended learning, they can save time (Al Zumor, Al Refaai, Bader Eddin, & Aziz Al-Rahman, 2013), they can also improve proficient and appropriate teaching strategy (Garbe & Louloudi, 2018). Blended Learning enables teachers to create teacher professional development programs, allocates time to redesign face to face teaching materials

into Blended Learning (Koohang, Britz, & Seymour, 2006). For academic staff, Blended Learning provides broad access of information and global connection which facilitate the creation of communities of inquiry (Tshabalala, 2014).

Challenges of Blended Learning

As any other approach, in addition to its benefits, Blended Learning has its challenges. More specifically, there are particular elements connected with Blended Learning which are demanding and often problematic. One of the most challenging issues is the increased time required for its preparation and production. Even though the course itself is flexible on how the participants use their time, the actual time needed for teachers and students to prepare themselves is more than in regular face-to-face or e-learning courses (Garbe & Louloudi, 2018).

(Innes & Wilton, 2018) adds challenges of Blended Learning such as technological requirements, ICT knowledge and abilities and absence of self-facing and self-direction. Other challenge according to (Schmidt, 2007) is the resistance of teachers to use Blended Learning environments.

Materials and Methods

The materials in this study are research instruments in the form of an online survey and interview protocol. Online questionnaires were sent to collect all quantitative data via Google Form, which were compiled and adjusted in accordance with the study objectives.

Questionnaire items were constructed to suit the objectives of the study. The structure of the questionnaire consists of three sections:

1. Section One requested background data of lecturers, including gender, ages, length of teaching experiences and education level.
2. Section Two is to gain information about teacher's ICT training, to measure their computer literacy or ICT knowledge, their preparedness, and their familiarities on the use of specified ICT tools in Blended Learning. Their frequency of using blended learning is assessed by a four-point Likert scale format (1= never use, 2=rarely use, 3=sometimes use, 4=often use).
3. Section three is constructed to obtain information about teachers' attitudes, strategies, and challenges in implementing Blended Learning in their teaching practices.

The other instrument used in this study is the interview protocol contains the interview guidelines. The interview part of the study is in the form of open-ended questions, which are

related to the questions on the online survey session. The data collection for this study was conducted using quantitative and qualitative method.

Participants

The study was carried out with a small scale 9 of Foreign Language instructors, who are currently teaching Business English in Business Administration Department at State Polytechnic of Ujung Pandang Indonesia

Data analysis

The quantitative data were descriptively model and the qualitative section of the data were analyzed thematically. This means the data of the qualitative forms were placed according to theme appeared in the quantitative data.

Findings and Discussion

Participants' demographic information

Table 1 Demographic information about the participants

Category	N	%
Gender		
Male	2	22,2
Female	7	78,8
Ages		
31-40	5	55,6
41-50	2	22,2
51-60	2	22,2
Years of teaching experience		
5-10	3	33,3
11-15	2	22,2
16-20	4	44,4
Education Level		
MA	8	88,9
Ph.D	1	11,1

As seen in Table 1, 2 of the participants are male, and 7 female participants comprise the remaining part of the participants. The age of the majority of the participants, 55,6 %, is in the

age range between 31-40. Years of teaching experience vary amongst the participants, yet a high proportion of the participants' years of teaching experience, 44,4%, is between the range 16-20. 88,9% of the participants hold an MA degree and one of the participants a Ph.D degree. These demonstrate that most participants in this study are well-experienced lecturers who have actively involved in their lecturers' professions.

The ICT training and Blended Learning Familiarity

Most of the lecturers (81,8 %) have been prepared with the ICT and the remaining of 22,2% of the participant have not. In terms of Blended Learning familiarity, the data demonstrated that 55.5% of the participants have strong familiarity with Blended Learning which means that they possess digital literacy (Atmanegara, Sherly, & Desi, 2013), information literacy (Malik, 2018). They are able to design, apply and combine of teaching tasks through Blended-learning. Remarkedly, they can manage and administer all related BL activities relating to their teaching. There were 22,2 % of participants who are familiar and 22,2 % of the participants who less familiar with the BL, but they have basic understanding about the utilization of the Internet and ICT related activities. This data implies that lecturers in this category have utilized ICT application moderately.

Teacher's familiarity on ICT will influence their classroom practice as stated by (Hine, 2011) that the successful integration of ICT into the classroom will rely upon the capacity of instructors to structure the learning environment in new ways, to merge new technology with a new pedagogy, to develop socially active classrooms, encouraging co-operative interaction, collaborative learning and group work.

The Advantages of Blended Learning in Teaching Business English

Based on participants' responses, there are three categories of usefulness of Blended Learning: high advantageous, advantageous and disadvantageous. This implies that the Blended learning is beneficial for educators. Lecturers find that Blended Learning allows and offers a platform to facilitate greater interactivity between students, as well as between teachers through the use of emails, discussion boards, and chat rooms. Blended Learning could also enhance learning and improve student's engagement and help students achieve higher and more meaningful levels of learning. The teachers use Blended Learning to manage their teaching, organize material and resources, manage thier interaction with students. They perceived that the utilization of the technology in Blended Laerning using help me to reduce their work effectively.

The degree of Blended Learning Use

Lecturers in this study have used Blended learning in their teaching and learning process in different categories; Rich Interactive Blended Learning (RIBL), Moderate Interactive Blended Learning (MIBL) and Poor Interactive Blended Learning (PIBL). The highest degree of participant (55,5%) use of Blended Learning in teaching Business English in all their teaching stages; planning, implementation and evaluation. The participant are able to search, filter, and develop and adapt online Business English materials and resources to use in a blended learning environment, 22,2 % employ Blended Learning for half of their teaching and the rest of 11,1% as the lowest degree of using blended learning merely in accessing to the internet to search useful information and giving assignment via email to students as she considers that using Blended Learning is time consuming.

The data above implies that the highest degrees and moderate degrees participants use Blended Learning in all teaching stages; preparation, teaching practice, and completing assignment, task, and assessment or evaluation. The teaching preparation may consist of searching required references and supplementary materials, searching for online authentic material, preparing syllabus and kinds of assignment, and preparing models and strategies for teaching Business English. The teaching practice includes the delivery of the lessons, students' business presentation via distance e-learning model. In this case, the teacher use online video conference platform such as Zoom, Google Meet, and Jitzi, upload and download the teaching materials provided in the blended learning system. The assignment section can involve submitting assignment, asking the types of assignment, reading and understanding assignment's instruction. Finally, the evaluation activities include grading students' assignment, giving feedback, and comments on students' progress.

In implementing Blended Learning, participants use application such as Edmodo, Macromedia flash, Web-based learning, video-conference E-learning, Mendeley application, Online journal system, Spada (long distance online learning), Moodle, and Google Classroom. They also use any types of social media such as Facebook, WhatsApp application, Line, and Instagram, Resource Sharing such as YouTube in the Blended Learning Class under the consideration that those application are more attractive and more flexible. In the implementation of Blended Learning, Flipped model is teacher's dominant choice. This flipped classroom was able to achieve the balance between knowledge delivery and learners' autonomy, focusing on

developing students' critical thinking skills during class time while affording individual learning outside the boundary of physical classes(Nhat, Lee, & Dung, 2019).

The challenges of the Implementation Blended Learning

There are some serious challenges that hindered the adoption of blended learning were perceived by the lecturers. The majority of participants 44,4% perceived the limited internet connection as the major challenges in applying Blended Learning in vocational higher education. The second challenge is that inadequate technological knowledge and skills perceived by 33,3 % of participant; they merely have basic understanding on the ICT. Insufficient of Blended Training is the third major Challenge. Professional development here is urgent because many teachers need to develop their technological and pedagogical skills to teach in a blended format. They require technical support when they prepare, design, produce, revise, and distribute appropriate materials for their BL courses. Those who have not mastered the required technical skills will be disadvantaged in accessing course materials, engaging with course content, and otherwise participating in BL. The fourth challenge is the ICT infrastructure which marked by limited bandwidth or poor connection. These limitations should be genuinely considered by institutions in utilizing Blended Learning (Al Zumor et al., 2013). Institutions which is seeking to implement BL must provide the core technological infrastructure required for an effective course management system that is user friendly for teachers and students.

The fifth challenge is the lack of institutional policy about the adoption of Blended Learning in their school. The teachers apply Blended Learning in activity level because their institution of higher education does not create models for blending at an institutional level. The institutional policy is crucial in providing the guidance for implementation of Blended Learning. It highly contributes to the success or failure of implementation of Blended Learning. The eighth challenge is that of the teachers have bad quality of hardware and software which are incompatible with Blended Learning.

Conclusion

Teachers' positive attitudes and perception about Blended Learning benefits could affect the high frequency of use of Blended learning in their classroom practice. Lecturers in this study have implemented Blended learning in their teaching and learning process in three different categories; Rich Interactive Blended Learning (RIBL), Moderate Interactive Blended Learning (MIBL) and Poor Interactive Blended Learning (PIBL).The highest degree of

participant (55,5%) use of Blended Learning in teaching Business English in all their teaching stages; planning, implementation and evaluation.

It can be concluded that the more positive of the lecturer toward Blended Learning instruction in classroom, the better the performance they have on Blended Learning Instruction in teaching English Business in Indonesian Vocational Higher education. This study has sought to expand scholarly understanding of Blended Learning instruction in teaching English for Business in Indonesian Vocational Higher education.

Pedagogical Implication

This study has important implications for educational policy at institutional level regarding the adoption and implementation of blended learning in the Indonesian Vocational Higher Education context. The teachers' positive attitudes towards Blended Learning which is characterized by the highest percentages of Blended Learning use in teaching Business English requiring institutional support. The institution should provide teachers with ICT knowledge, competences and skills, ICT infrastructure and institutional policy as a guide for more successful implementation of Blended Learning.

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A Study on Arabic Speaking Students' Attitudes towards Group Work in the EFL Classroom

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Abstract

This research study identifies the different opinions of Saudi female students concerning the advantages and disadvantages of group work (GW) in the classroom. This study investigates factors which contribute to willingness to communicate, as it manifested from moment-to-moment observation in the EFL classroom. The research was conducted on 48 university students to shed some light on students' behavior in group works in an EFL classroom as some students in the groups participate more than others. To examine the reasons behind students'

behaviors and their perceptions of the effect of group work activities, a questionnaire was completed anonymously and its results were submitted by the respondents. Then, 10 students from the participated students in filling the questionnaire were chosen and interviewed to gain as valid and reliable data as possible for the results of the study to be authentic. The findings from both instruments revealed that the majority of the participants have positive attitudes towards participating in group work in EFL classes. In the contrary, less than a third of participants do not like to take part in group work in EFL classes, since they perceive it a waste of time, they prefer to work alone or they feel shy.

Keywords: *group work, EFL classroom, Saudi university, female EFL learners, attitudes*

Introduction

According to Gomleksiz (2007) cooperative learning is when students work together to achieve specific goals. A more comprehensive definition for cooperative learning is reported by Wichadee (2007) in her study of the effect of cooperative learning on students' English reading skills. Wichadee states that cooperative learning is a pedagogical approach that encourages student-student interaction by working in small groups to intensify their learning and reach their intended objective. Considerable research shows that cooperative learning results in higher achievement and more positive relationships among students (Wichadee, 2007). Group work also depends on the attitude of the students. Hashemi (2005) states that attitudes towards something is the extent to which students accept the subject and their opinion towards it while the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005) defined attitudes as 'the way someone thinks and feels about somebody or something' (p. 85).

Johnson (2005) describes cooperative learning as being a teaching strategy where students of different levels form small groups to work on activities that will eventually enhance their understanding of the subject. Every student is responsible of his/her learning and of helping other group members' learning. Students work together to complete the assignment successfully. The small group discussion method adopts a face-to-face free exchange of ideas within groupings of three to five learners giving more equal opportunities for group mates to quality communication (Lowry et al., 2006). It can be deduced that small group discussion engenders oral interaction and is a method of increasing opportunities and the frequency for speaking. In the same vein, Tan et al. (2020) posits that small group work increases the eagerness and confidence of a student to express thoughts orally. Zhang et al (2012) contends that small group discussion offers fewer opportunities to disengage mentally from the

discussion compared to big classes. In this face to face communication, students are learning to collaborate with their peers. By applying such a learning strategy, students are developing both their cognitive learning and interactive skills. They are exposed to new ideas and information, to different perspectives and approaches. Learners are in a process of discussing, questioning and organizing, which facilitates the comprehension and internalization of critical concepts and new information. As they are learning to justify and clarify their own points of view when exploring an issue or solving a problem, they are reinforcing their linguistic competence as well as their overall communicative language competence (Jiang, 2009). Thus, the small group discussion approach is a potent method in fostering interactive communication amongst students. When done properly, i.e. topics are carefully designed (Morita 2000), it brings additional different knowledge, experiences and talents that are shared and built upon by the participants in a relaxed learning environment where passiveness is turned to activeness. In light of all this, Kang (2005) proposed a new definition: "willingness to participate in small group activities is an individual's volitional inclination towards actively engaging in the act of communication in a specific situation which can vary according to interlocutor(s), topic, and conversational context among other potential situational variables"(p. 291).

Much of the literature has been conducted in ESL contexts, very little research has been conducted in English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts. As Clarke (2003) and Taqi and Al-Nouh (2014) argued that data taken from students in one culture cannot be over-generalized to a completely different culture. Thus, it is important to find out how students from a different culture engage with group work. A little attention has been paid to the real attitudes of the Saudi female students especially the ones who study English as foreign language to find out their ideas about group work. In fact, many studies have presented the positive attitudes of specialists and professional teachers concerning group work inside the classroom such as (Harmer 2007; Suwantarathip and Wichadee, 2010). However, as mentioned above the quantity of the real attitudes of the EFL students is still somehow insufficient. Thus, it is important to find out how students from a different culture perceive group work. Therefore, the aim of this research study is to investigate female university students' attitudes concerning group work in EFL classrooms in Makkah region in Saudi Arabia. Thus, to achieve this aim, the following questions must be addressed:

Research Questions

1. Do Saudi female students like to work in groups to learn English?
2. What are students' positive attitudes towards group work?

3. What are students' negative attitudes towards group work?

Methodology

It was decided to take two groups of female EFL university students as a sample to obtain their true attitudes towards group work. Therefore, a questionnaire was the most appropriate tactic to be adopted because it was the quickest method to gather and assess true attitudes of this number of students. Along with the questionnaire, a semi-structured interviewing tool was also employed to collect trustworthy data as much as possible.

Participants

The participants in this study were 48 EFL undergraduate students from the faculty of business administration. Their levels are intermediate and high beginners in speaking English based on their results of Oxford Placement Test. Thus, the type of sampling is purposive as students have already experienced group work along their first year of university.

The response rate was 100% and students were very enthusiastic to answer the questions included in the questionnaire. As the questionnaire was not very time consuming students were able to answer it quickly. However, the number of the interviewed students in this study was 10 students chosen randomly from the 48 respondents participated in filling the questionnaire.

Data Collection

In this research study, a Likert scale questionnaire is utilized to collect as much data as possible in a short time. It consists of eighteen items that are based on the observed behavior of students in the classroom while working in small groups. The questionnaire was handed out at the end of the second semester to allow students to reflect on their own experience. It was especially important to view the ideas of the students who had the chance to work in groups. The questionnaire was anonymous which could give the students a secure atmosphere to answer the questions very frankly. This could be crucial as it may help the EFL teachers to be creative in practicing group work inside the classroom.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted on the phone with 10 participants in the questionnaire in order to clarify and justify their answers. This type of interviews increase the comparability of the answers from the respondents and help the researcher to gain complete answers. Furthermore, such type of interview is effective as it helps the researcher to access students' real feeling about the aspect being investigated (Othman and Murad, 2015).

Moreover, this type of interviews increases the ability of the researcher to realize the reasons behind participants' answers in order to logically organize, analyze and interpret data.

Results and Discussion

The students' perceptions of collaborative work revealed both positive and negative impressions of the processes. In order to determine whether group work is preferred by EFL learners, the following table shows quantitative analysis of students' attitudes.

Table (1): Results of the Questionnaire statements

No.	Survey items	Strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	Strongly agree
1	I like small group work activities in the EFL classes	1	0	9	28	10
		2.08%	0%	18.75%	58.33%	20.83%
2	I prefer to work alone in the EFL classes	12	22	8	6	0
		25%	45.83%	16.66%	12.5%	0%
3	Small group work is a waste of time	16	17	10	4	1
		33.33%	35.41%	20.83%	8.33%	2.08%
4	Group work creates a comfortable relaxing learning atmosphere	1	2	5	25	15
		2.08%	4.16%	10.41%	52.08%	31.25%
5	Group work enable all learners to practice class activities better and faster	2	1	2	29	14
		4.16%	2.08%	4.16%	60.41%	29.16%
6	Group work offers more time for each learner to practice the target language (TL)	0	4	5	18	21
		0%	8.33%	10.41%	37.5%	43.75%
7	GW gives more opportunity for exchanging ideas	0	1	3	23	21
		0%	2.08%	6.25%	47.91%	43.75%
8	GW improves learners' FL when they communicate together	0	4	5	15	24
		0%	8.33%	10.41%	31.25%	50%
9	In GW students offer more help to each other	1	0	7	18	22
		2.08%	0%	14.58%	37.5%	45.83%
10	In GW students learn more how to divide work and responsibilities	1	6	7	18	16
		2.08%	12.5%	14.58%	37.5%	33.33%
11	GW improves the FL fluency of the learners	0	8	7	15	18
		0%	16.66%	14.58%	31.25%	37.5%
12	GW helps learners to feel more confident speaking the TL	0	4	6	22	16
		0%	8.33%	12.5%	45.83%	33.33%
13	GW is interesting	1	1	9	22	14
		2.08%	2.08%	18.75%	45.83%	29.16%
14	Usually I feel nervous when I have to communicate with my group members	18	18	6	4	2
		37.5%	37.5%	12.5%	8.33%	4.16%
15	I understand the subject better when I explain it to my group	0	2	7	11	28
		0%	4.16%	14.58%	22.91%	58.33%
16	I do not feel satisfied or comfortable in GW activities	15	15	12	4	2
		31.25%	31.25%	25%	8.33%	4.16%
17	I feel shy to ask for assistance from my group peers	17	18	4	8	1
		35.41%	37.5%	8.33%	16.66%	2.08%
18	I often feel responsible when I participate in GW	2	4	10	13	19
		4.16%	8.33%	20.83%	27.08%	39.58%
AVG		10.06%	14.69%	14.11%	32.64%	28.23%

The red numbers are percentage of each choice per total of choices of each item. •

AVG is the average of percentage of each single choice for all statements. •

The students did not always perceive group work positively, as Alfares (2017) affirms that most public schools in Saudi Arabia use teacher-centered approaches. Therefore, collaborative classroom work was a new learning style for most of them. Table (1) illustrates that most of the participated students corresponding to 58.33% like GW tasks in the EFL classes, as they provide them with fun chances to share their ideas, additional opportunities to give and receive feedback, and improve the accuracy of their target language (TL). This can be seen in the 52% of participants who agreed and 31.25% who strongly agreed that GW creates comfortable and relaxing learning atmosphere. It is also become obvious when 60.41% of participants agreed and 29.16% strongly agreed that GW enables them to practice class activities better. These results are in agreement with Othman and Murad (2015) who argue that students in groups communicate enthusiastically with each other. They learn how to communicate and share ideas. Moreover, group work gives confidence to students to become skilled through discussions. 37.5% of the students agreed that in GW they learned more how to divide work and responsibilities, and 39.58% strongly agreed that they often feel responsible when they participate in GW. This coincide with Jiang's (2009) assertion that group work provides students with the opportunity to be good teachers, good helpers, good speakers and good listeners.

Furthermore, 47.91% agreed and 43.75 strongly agreed that GW provides more opportunities for exchanging ideas. Burdett and Hastie (2009) also argue that working in groups creates a kind of supportive atmosphere where ideas and opinions are developed as it is wheeled from a member to another in the group. Likewise, 50% of students agreed plus 31.25% strongly agreed that GW tasks improved their FL when they communicate together, again 31.25% of respondents agreed plus 37.5% strongly agreed that GW activities enhanced their TL fluency. These findings are in line with Ibnian (2012), who revealed that group work technique was useful in developing Jordanian university EFL students' attitudes towards learning English by allowing them to express their ideas and opinions freely. In addition, 45.83% of participants agreed and 29.16% strongly agreed that they were interested in GW, also 33.33% strongly agreed plus 45.83% agreed that they felt more confident while speaking the TL. Yet, 58.33% of the participated students strongly agreed plus 22.92% agreed that they understood the subject content better when they explain it to their group. Likewise, 35.41% of students strongly agreed and 37.5% agreed that they do not feel shy to ask for assistance from their group members. In the same vine, Yazedjian and Kolkhorst (2007) assume that group discussions deepened students' understanding of topic content. Students became more active and more confident. These results still concur with Ababneh's (2017) assertion that "extrovert,"

students have positive attitudes towards using group work. Moreover, Yassi (2020) asserts that learners are getting more and more confident in speaking English. Small GW eventually increases learners' speech habit and speaking in English becomes automatic and spontaneous (Yassi, 2020).

However, it was also accompanied by some negative responses. For instance, in an EFL context like ours, our education system values individual contribution over cooperative work (Alfares, 2017), which might explain some students' favoring of individual work, as 12.5% of the participants preferred to work alone in the EFL classroom, whereas 16.66% were neutral. Further, 8.33% admitted that GW is a waste of time and 20.83% were in the middle. They believed that working with students from different linguistic competencies made collaboration challenging. They also mentioned that not everyone contributed equally and not everyone's contribution was considered trustworthy, since in an EFL culture the teacher is usually seen at the center and students are waiting for the teacher to provide them with knowledge. In such a culture, students may choose not to exert an effort in GW activities as they do not trust each other's' answers. Moreover, depending on the students' proficiency, group work was uncomfortable for some students 4.16%, and 10.41% were hesitant to be in either side (neutral). The less proficient students (8.33%) did not feel confident enough to give feedback. Also, 8.33% agreed and 4.16% strongly agreed that they feel nervous when they have to speak in the TL. These responses are in agreement with Taqi and Al-nouh (2014) who reported that if students did not feel comfortable, they would prefer to listen only, as a third of their participants preferred to do the task on their own. Once they were done, they would show their answers to their group. In this case, they would miss the discussion within the group. "Introvert" learners do not like to take part in group work in EFL classes (Ababneh, 2017). These results are also on line with Yang's (2005) study's findings, which revealed that discovering new meanings through group work activity were the strategies least used by Chinese EFL learners.

Contrarily, most participants 25% strongly disagreed plus 45.83% disagreed to work alone, 33.33% strongly disagreed plus 35.41% disagreed that GW is a waste of time. Yet, most of the participants 31.25% strongly disagreed and 31.25% disagreed that they felt dissatisfied or uncomfortable in GW activities. Also, 35.41% strongly disagreed and 37.5% disagreed that they felt shy to ask for assistance from their group peers. Further, 37.5% strongly disagreed and 37.5% disagreed that they felt nervous when they have to communicate with their group members. Students believed that working with friends and people they feel comfortable working with is the key to a successful group work. In addition, many felt that if the group was

friendly, they would not hesitate to give their opinions openly. It is obvious from this comparisons between percentages of positive and negative attitudes of the participants of this study that the majority have positive attitudes towards GW activities in the EFL classroom. These results support several studies on students' perceptions of group work that pointed out that students enjoyed and benefited from working in groups, as students reported more engagement and discussion in groups, better understanding and constructing of new knowledge. They also had positive attitudes towards collaborative tasks. (Greenop, 2007; Yazedjian & Kolkhorst, 2007; Li et al., 2010).

Conclusion

This study aimed to investigate Saudi female university students' attitudes concerning group work in EFL classrooms. It revealed that the advantages of group work perceived by the students were more than the disadvantages. The development of the language skills through GW tasks was reported by the majority of the respondents of the questionnaire. Students perceive a number of benefits of group work, including positive social interactions, besides learning and achieving as a group, owing to the fact that they offer help to each other. This concurs with Jiang (2009) who argues that group work activities can build greater learner confidence and self-esteem than is likely in a competitive environment, so collaborative activities can provide a more comfortable and relaxing learning atmosphere. However, the minority of students' experiences of group work were unsatisfying as they were nervous, shy and uncomfortable. Taken together, these results suggest that Saudi female students have shown a mixture of student-centered and teacher-centered preferences of classrooms together, possibly because of the fact that they were previously taught in a teacher-centered style (Alfares, 2017). Moreover, it could be because of their lack of experience of group work (Taqi and Alnough, 2014), or they might be introvert learners (Ababneh, 2017). Thus, this research study has successfully identified the opinions of Saudi female university students regarding group work in the EFL classroom.

This research has highlighted some steps in need of further attention. A few steps could be taken when forming groups, as participants believed that the first step that should be considered when starting group work is choosing the members. Furthermore, cohesiveness, seating arrangements, group size and group composition could affect the process of group work (Alfares, 2017). Thus, groups could be formed earlier in the beginning of the semester to give students a chance to familiarize themselves with their peers and become more comfortable to engage in any discussion. Group work is argued to be one of the best learning strategies, since

EFL students could learn the target language through GW activities as they provide them with greater opportunities for independence (Harmer, 2007).

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Terms of Kinship in Kazakh and Chinese Languages in the Context of Popular Gender Linguistics and Contrastive Analysis

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Abstract

Comparative language analysis is often used to describe a common language or a given language in a typological system and is used for translation or teaching languages. Comparative linguistics emerged from the need to teach languages. It is closely related to language teaching and provides a theoretical basis for improving language-teaching methods. Multilingualism leads to people's need for communication. Communication between different linguists requires the contrast of the language, so the difference in language is due to the need to communicate between many languages (spoken language). In this article, the authors have revealed differences and analogs via a contrastive (comparative) approach to gender differences in the Kazakh and Chinese languages.

Keywords: *Comparative Study; Gender Difference; Kazakh and Chinese Languages*

Introduction

The contrastive analysis most often compares the mother tongue of a researcher and a language foreign for him/her. As the theory and practice of language life shows, some units, which are present in one language and are absent in another language, represent a lacuna (Alzeebaree & Hasan, 2020). For example, a concept and a term of kinship in the Kazakh language, when compared to those in the Chinese language, appear not to have equivalent Chinese units. There are national peculiarities of the communicative behavior of Kazakhs. The concepts designating people to reflect a fundamental feature of the communicative behavior of Kazakhs; therefore, they represent the object of subsequent systematic gender-related linguistic research.

The peculiarities of male speech (male speech behavior) and female speech (female speech behavior) are perceived differently in different societies and this plays an important role for the speakers of each literary language in a multilingual society. Global psychological linguistics, social linguistics, gender linguistics, and other branches of linguistics are developing rapidly and have a certain impact on Kazakh linguistics. Three main factors of the emergence of gender linguistics are as follows: first, the internal language structure; the second one is a social factor affecting the language system (Nguyen, 2020); thirdly, the national factor. All this is language grammar, method of using language, national factors, traditions of lifestyle, national mentality, and national perspective (Khassanuly, 2005, p. 267).

The paradigm of linguistics in the new era is aimed at a comprehensive understanding of the language. Human existence is, in itself, symbolic and linguistic. Language affects the development and progress of humankind. A person achieves this via his/her natural abilities formed in the language environment. Language is not only a tool of denotative (symbolic) nature but also a means of communication. The development of the social functioning of language is the only requirement of linguistics in the XXI century (Shokim) (Shokym, 2009, p. 4).

Materials and Methods

Male and female speech behavior was not the object of a systematic study of Kazakh and Chinese linguists. However, there are some ideas and observations of scientists, poets, and writers about this. For example, in the Kazakh oratorical speech, the notion "qatın tili" (woman's speech) is encountered. Nevertheless, in the dictionaries of the Chinese language, the expression "qatın tili" (woman's speech) has not been found until today. For example, one of the Kazakh poets once said: *Erdiñ qunı esepsiz ketpes degen, Qatın tilimen jalşıñdı ura*

berme... (Literal translation: They say that the price of the young man is not lost without consideration, do not continue to beat the mercenary when listening to the woman's speech). The difference between the so-called masculine and feminine speeches is the object of gender linguistics, which, as an independent scientific field, took shape in the 1970s. Linguistic phenomena associated with native speakers of different sexes within the same language have a peculiar meaning, which has long been represented in Kazakh speech behavior. The specificity of male and female types of speech is reflected in the Kazakh folklore and the works of Kazakh aqyns and jiraws. In this regard, the authors emphasize that this implies the formation of Kazakh popular gender linguistics in the distant past.

Results and Discussion

As is known, the "History" of the ancient Greek historian Herodotus (V century BC) is the strongest source in the early history of Greece and the East. The "History" has a lot of interesting materials related to the gender of speakers that reflect the social and cultural fields of activity of men and women. The following is an excerpt from the book. Two young women, Arga and Opis, arrived at Delos. They carried to Eileithyia the sacred gifts promised for quick and easy childbirth. As reported, Arga and Opis arrived from the Hyperborean country along with the deities themselves (Apollo and Artemis), and the Delots also pay homage to them. Delos women collect gifts in their honor. In the hymn composed by Olen the Lycian, women call them by name. The inhabitants of other islands and Ionians adopted this custom from the Delots: they also sing a hymn, call for Opis and Arga, and collect sacred gifts for them. This Olen came to Delos from Lycia and composed other ancient hymns sung in Delos (Herodotus, 2004, p. 223). By the way, the Hyperboreans are fabulous people living in the Far North. Eileithyia is the goddess of childbirth. In Ancient Greece, a hymn is a solemn song in honor of gods and heroes. In a broader sense, it is a song of praise, a solemn poetic or musical work. Olen, as used by Herodotus, along with the hymn, literally corresponds to the Kazakh öleñ, which means a song, verse, poem. The authors believe that this is not a coincidence. Olen (öleñ) came to Delos from another country (Lycia); the Hyperboreans were his creators; among the Hyperboreans, there were those wandering all over the earth with an arrow in hand. Poets and singers from the Kazakh clans and tribes who lived in the far north of Greece could be the first creators and glorifiers of öleñ. The authors believe that the Greeks had their hymn but, despite this, the Kazakh öleñ contributed to the creation and development of the ancient

Greek female speech behavior. It should be noted that in Chinese, 诗歌 corresponds to the Kazakh öleñ.

The ancient Kazakh clans, tribes, and tribal unions were at the origins of the formation of the Kazakh ethnic group and the Kazakh language. The Wusun was one of them and had their state. For example, the main biy (ruler) of the Wusun state was Maykı bi Manulı (178 BC - 89 AD), who was at the origins of Kazakh oratory. He said, “Söz bilgen atañ ata-aq, Aytqanı qalar jattalıp” (Asyl, 2009, p. 12). (Literal translation: A grandfather who can speak eloquently is a real grandfather. Everything he said will remain memorized). In this case, “söz bilgen ata” means “grandfather's speech.”

Grandfather's speech like that of Asan Qayǵı (XIV-XV centuries), Jirenşe şeşen (XV century), Jänibek bi Koşkarulı (XVII-XVIII centuries), and others are often sung.

Asan qayǵı, Jirenşe
Söylep ötken qazaq til,
Jänibek pen Qoylıbay
Sıylap ötken ğajap til.
Ata-anamız äldilep,
Watqan bizdi baba til.
Osı tildi jek körgen,
Dünieden qalar qur.
Bağala saq şınımen
Baba tili asıl- dūr.

Literal translation:

Asan Qayǵı and Jirenşe
Passed through life and spoke Kazakh,
Jänibek and Qoylıbay honored wonderful language.
Parents were lulling us,
Calming down with grandfather's speech.
Anyone who dislikes this speech –
remains empty in this world.

If you appreciate sincerely.

The language of the ancestors is, undoubtedly, the noblest one) (Qojabergen jıraw, XVI-XVII centuries) (Shaimerden & Tileshov, 2009, p. 74).

The linguistic and cultural concept *ata* (grandfather, father), as a mental unit, is actualized in the minds of Kazakhs. Kazakhs say "*Ata-balağa sınşı*," i.e. the father is the judge for his son. When raising the topic of the terms of Kazakh kinship, reference should be made to their place in the development of Kazakh oratory. For example, the famous Kazakh *biy* and *batyr* *Sırım Datulı* (1712-1802), at the age of 26, visited, with his friend, the house of *Nuralı Khan*, where he spoke with *Karaman Malaysarı*. *Khan* greeted simply: "*Balalar, aman ba!*" (Hello, children!). Then he drew attention to them and continued to talk. At this time, *Sırım* loudly said to his friend: *Jür, keteyik, bular bizdi adam dep otırğan joqqoy* (we are leaving, they did not take us for people). At this moment, *Malaysarı* speaks with his eyes fixed on them: *Ata turıp ul söylegennen bez, ana turıp qız söylegennen bez. Sırnayday sarnağan mına bala kimedi?* (When the father speaks, the son does not speak, and when the mother speaks, the daughter does not speak. Who is this baby that is so stingy?). Then *Sırım* says: *Ata turıp, ul söylese, erjetkeni bolar. Ana turıp, qız söylese, boyjetkeni bolar. Ata balağa köldeneñ tursa, kerı ketkeni bolar* (If the son speaks with the elders, it means that he has matured, and if the daughter speaks with the mother, it means that she has matured. If the elder disallows the son from speaking, it means that he does not have a chance). *Sen tolğan ekensiñ, men tozğan ekenmin, dep Malaysarı sonda Sırımdı qasına şaqırğan eken* (You have grown, and I am old, said *Malaysarı* and invited *Sırım*).

When raising the topic of the term "*ata*," reference should be made to the fact that this term has the following meanings:

- 1) (Paternal) grandfather, ancestor. For example, *arğıata* means a distant ancestor;
- 2) *Qayın ata* (husband's father);
- 3) Clan, phratry: *atası basqa* (man of another clan);
- 4) Generation. *Jeti atasın bilw* (to know one's ancestors going back seven generations); *olar altınşı atadan* (their kinship goes back to the sixth generation);
- 5) Progenitor;
- 6) Respectful form of address used for a very old man (granddaddy).

For example, in Chinese, there is a concept "*九族 jiǔzú*," that is translated to Kazakh as *jetı ata, ata-baba, ürim-butaq, ören-jaran* which means seven generations of a clan, ancestors, progenitors. In the era of feudal society, such measures were taken as the destruction of all

seven generations of the clan, in which someone was politically accused of murder or violated the law otherwise. In Chinese, there are such words as 高祖 gāozǔ, 曾祖 zēngzǔ, 父祖 zǔfù, 父亲 fùqīn, 自己 zìjǐ, 儿子 érzi, 孙子 sūnzi, 曾孙 zēngsūn, 玄孙 xuánsūn, translated to Kazakh as Arǵı atası, Ulıatası, Ulı äkesi, Özi, Ulı, Nemeresi, Şöberesi, Şöpşek (great-grandfather, great-great-grandfather, father, son, grandson, great-grandson). Another dictionary has such words as 父族四 fùzǔsì (four relatives on the father's side), 母族三 mǔzúsān (three relatives on the mother's side), and 妻族二 qīzǔèr (two relatives on the wife's side) (Han, 1995, p. 2442-2443). Some of the concepts relate to the politics of rooted feudal society, for example, “株连九族 zhūliánjiǔzú.” The Chinese word 九族 jiǔzú is incompatible with the word "seven" in the Kazakh language. There are many different Chinese traditions and customs, and, therefore, different terms of kinship. China has a vast territory and, therefore, depending on different regions, there may be different versions of a given family name.

There are such expressions: Ataña ne isteseñ, aldiña sol keler (The way you treat your parents is the same your children will treat you); Ata jolı (saltı) - 门风 Ménfēng (fathers' traditions); Ata käsip - 祖业 Zǔyè (ancestral profession inherited from the father); Ataqonıs = meken - 祖居 Zǔjū (homeland, land of fathers, native land); ata mırpa - 祖产 Zǔchǎn (paternal heritage) (Naiman, Kurmanbaiuly, Malbakov, Shoibekov et al., 2006, p. 1077, 2218). Ata til (parent language); Ata = baba - 祖辈 Zǔbèi, 世祖 Shìzǔ (ancestors) (Naiman, Kurmanbaiuly, Malbakov, Shoibekov et al., 2006, p. 2218, 1476). Atay - 老大爷 Lǎodàiyé (a respectful designation and form of address used for a very old (senior) man); Atayı (famous, well-known (archaic); Atayı erdiñ tuqımı (descendant of a famous hero) (Abikenuly, Orazbek, Kobdenova, Oshan, et al., 2010, p. 105). A relative, a man who has a common ancestor (going back from three to seven generations) with someone is called atalas - 同一家族的人, 本家, 同宗 Tóngyī jiāzú de rén, běnjiā, tóngzōng (Abikenuly, Orazbek, Kobdenova, Oshan et al., 2010, p.106). Atalastıñ atı ozǵanşa, awıldastıñ tayı ozsın (远亲不如近邻 Yuǎnqīn bùrú jìnlín in Chinese) is translated as “It is better if the fellow villager is surpassed by a sheared one than by a horse of a (not close) relative),” i.e. the people with whom you communicate daily are closer than relatives living far away). If the “-tıq (atalastıq)” affix is added to a word, it means the kinship going back to the third to the seventh generation.

In the communicative behavior of the Kazakh people, the Kazakh tradition called "jeti ata" (seven generations) is a lacuna for the Chinese. What is "jeti ata?" There is the expression *jetinasınan beri* - 世代 *Shìdài* (hereditary (the literal translation is “going back to the seventh generation of ancestors”)) (Naiman, Kurmanbaiuly, Malbakov, Shoibekov et al., 2006, p. 1475). To get married, each Kazakh must know his father’s kin going back to the seventh generation that is called *jeti ata*. Those who have a common ancestor back to the seventh generation are called *atalı* - 有爷爷的 *Yǒuyéyéde* (Abikenuly, Orazbek, Kobdenova, Oshan et al., 2010, p.106). There is the expression *altı atalı әлемniң balaları* (people whose kin relations go back to the sixth generation). An exemplary village is usually called *atalı awıl*. There are many interesting expressions with the word *atalı* such as *Atalı sözge arsız talasadı* - 不要脸的人才无理狡辩 *Bùyàoliǎnderéncáiwúlǐjiǎobiàn* (only a shamelessly person quibble over the fair word) (Abikenuly, Orazbek, Kobdenova, Oshan et al., 2010, p.106). *Atalı söz* is translated into Chinese as 宏论 · 有分量的话 *Hónglùn, yǒufènlǐàngdedehuà* (solid, weighty word (meaningful speech)) (Abikenuly, Orazbek, Kobdenova, Oshan et al., 2010, p.106). By the way, "*atalıq дәwir*" is translated from Kazakh as patriarchate (Syzdykova & Khussain, 2002, p. 79-80). In conclusion, among the many other language units with the word *ata*, the following units should be noted:

Ata ğurpı - 祖制 *zǔ zhì* (ancient custom, tradition, habit);

Ata дәstüri - 祖制 *zǔ zhì* (ancestral tradition);

Ata дәwleti - 祖产 *zǔchǎn* (ancestral wealth);

Ata duşpan - 宿敌 (ancestral enemy);

Ata jolı - 门风 (ancestral custom, ancestral traditions);

Ata jurtı - 祖居 *zǔjū*, 祖籍 *zǔjí* (old settlement);

Ata tegi - 祖先 *zǔxiān* (pedigree);

Ata saltı - 祖制 *zǔ zhì* (ancestral custom) (Naiman, Kurmanbaiuly, Malbakov, Shoibekov et al., 2006, p. 1077, 1551, 2218).

The word *atabek* designates a person engaged in the education of children of major officials in the Middle Ages but also means a person who rules the people and troops in the Middle Ages (Uali, Kurmanbaiuly, Malbakov & Shaibekov, 2013, p. 117-119). In the Kazakh language,

before and after the appearance of "ana tili" with the meaning of "mother tongue," this words also had the meaning of "mother speech" (female speech).

Kazakhs have great respect for women and glorify them. Many female ritual songs that manifest Kazakh female speech should be noted. For example, Kazakhs have ritual songs such as sîñsw and betaşar. "Sîñsw" (aytw), which means the lament, is a crying song that the bride sings on the day of the groom's departure to the village. This song is about the farewell to family and motherland. The worries of the bride, often burdened by the consciousness that she marries against her will, gave rise to sincere and exciting crying songs, in which she bade farewell to her family and village and expressed her sadness. For example:

Altın da meniñ bosağam,

Attap bir şığam dep pe edim?

Işñe sıyğan anam - aw

Sırtıña nege sıymadım?

Betaşar (揭面纱歌 Jiēmianshāgē) is a rite of introducing the bride to her husband's kin that is traditionally held at a Kazakh wedding. In ancient times, the face of a bride, who arrived at the house to her father-in-law, was not shown to anyone; her face was covered with a large shawl. The singer-improviser (jırşı) begins to sing a song called betaşar in which he introduces the bride to her husband's parents and relatives. The bride greets each of them with a bow. The betaşar is also an instructional song that lists the duties of the young bride to her husband's parents.

"Sîñsw" is translated into Chinese as "哭嫁 Kūjià" (Naiman, Kurmanbaiuly, Malbakov, Shoibekov et al., 2006, p. 901). The Chinese people also have the rite where the bride cries and wails before leaving for the groom's family. For centuries, the Chinese family was a community headed by the father of a family, to whom all family members were obliged to obey. From their very birth, girls in Chinese families were considered to be "a cut-out piece," because after a girl got married, she would forever go to her husband's family. A girl could return to her parental family only in the event of the death of her husband. The parents could have made the decision to marry their daughter at any time, even before the birth of their daughter. The opinion and desire of the future bride, as well as that of the groom, was never asked. The main factor in the creation of a married couple was the financial status of the future husband, as well as the relationship between the clans of future relatives. As a rule, a matchmaker mediates all communication between the two families of future relatives. Before the wedding, the future bride spends time with her close relatives and friends, who sing songs

about the upcoming separation from her parents. The Chinese people considered the farewell cry of the bride as respect for traditions.

Qız uzatw toyı is a wedding and solemn feast at the house of the bride's parents. Jar-jar (出嫁歌 Chūjiàgē) is a Kazakh ritual pep song (Abikenuly, Orazbek, Kobdenova, Oshan et al., 2010 p. 410). Jar-jar aytw means "to sing a jar-jar." Jar-jar is sung at the wedding during the send-off of the bride. The main content of the song is the admonition for a girl who leaves for foreign lands. They wish her to be a friendly hostess in a new home, have children, live a happy life. The Chinese people also have such a ritual song (ishi ge). It is performed at the marriage; the newlyweds are wished to know neither hunger, nor cold, nor thirst, and to live in contentment and joy.

Qız böri - 狼刁姑娘 Lángdiāogūniáng (national game);

Qızdıñ balasınday - 可爱的 Kě'àide, 可亲的 kěqīnde;

Qız kăde - 小伙子初见未婚妻时青年人的聚会

Xiǎohuǒzichūjiàn wèihūnqīshíqīngniánréndejùhuì (the evening of the young, where the future groom meets the bride for the first time).

Qız tanısw - 姑娘在出嫁时和亲人告别仪式 Gūniángzàichūjiàshíhéqīnréngàobiéyíshì;

Qız qaşar 送给协助挑婚者的礼物 Sònggěixiézhuìtiāohūnzhèdelǐwù (first meeting of the bride with the groom);

Qız qwar - 姑娘追 Gūniángzhuī (the pursuit of a girl (national game));

Betaşar - 揭面纱歌 Jiēmiànshāgē;

Jar jar - 出嫁歌 Chūjiàgē (Abikenuly, Orazbek, Kobdenova, Oshan et al., 2010, p.771, 1074, 216, 410).

Words like Qız böri, Qızdıñ balasınday, Qız kăde, Qız tanısw, Qız qaşar, and Qız qwar do not have the exact equivalent in Chinese.

According to B. Khassanuly (2005), the mother tongue (ana tili) is an ethnic category: any natural language of which the internal structure differs from all languages existing in the world and which historically belongs to a given ethnic group (tribe, nationality, people, nation) regardless of its size. It is enshrined in the consciousness of an ethnic group, is used by it in various spheres of life (at least in family life). It is common means for the full satisfaction of ethnic needs for all members of an ethnic group without regard to the place of residence,

gender, age, religion, beliefs, profession and occupation, social status or material circumstances. As other scholars note, “ana tili” can be represented as a set of language objects of oral or written language that a particular person used, uses or can use since the concept of a mother tongue is always associated with a particular individual and individuals are native speakers (Suleimenova, Shaimerdenova, Smagulova & Akanova, 2007, p. 184). B. Khasanuly published a book titled “Ana tili-Ata mura” (“Mother tongue-Father's heritage”) in Almaty in 1992 and was the creator of the term.

Ana tili is not a gender value but a nationwide one. The proof of this is that there is a nationwide newspaper called “Ana tili,” etc. By the way, in the Kazakh language, a linguistic term “ata tili” means “parent language.” In addition, some linguists explain the "native language" as "the language of one's homeland that has been spoken since childhood" (Ozhegov & Shvedova, 1999, p. 681). In Chinese, the mother tongue is also “母语mǔyǔ” where “母mǔ” means “mother” and “语yǔ” means “language.”

A poem by S. Smakhanuly (Bagdaulet, 2011, p. 54-55) entitled "Anamnıñ tili–ayawlı üni" (Mother's tongue is a dear and sweet voice) is widespread in Kazakhstan:

Ömirge keldim,
Anamdı kördim,
Dedi ol: janım,
Araylı tañım.
Samal bop jelpip,
Jırımen ertip,
Üyretti tınbay
Bal tilin, änin.
Anamnıñ tili – aybınım meniñ,
Anamnıñ tili - ay-künim meniñ!
Süyemin baytaq elimdi twğan,
Süyemin mäñgi – ömirdi dwman.

Literal translation:

When I was born,
I saw my mother.
"You are my soul, the morning dawn," she said.

After all, her songs were a pleasant breeze.
 The honey language and songs have not fallen silent.
 Mother speech is my valor,
 Mother speech is my sun and moon.
 I love my immense home country,
 I love forever my cheerful life.

In the Kazakh speech culture, there is the expression *sözdiñ atası* (the father of the word) and *sözdiñ anası* (the mother of the word) (Adambayev, 1992, p. 40). For example, they say, *Söylemese sözdiñ atası öledi* (If you do not speak, the father of the word will die); *Tügel sözdiñ tübi bar, tüp atası–Mayqıbı* (The original source, the ancestor of all words, the founder is one) (Adambayev, 1992, p. 16, 17).

Koteş aqın (1745-1818) said, *Ata tilin almağan aram uldı Awzı tükti kăpirden kem demeñiz* (Foul son not listening to grandfather's language is considered no better than an unbeliever) (Magauin & Baidildayev, 1989, p. 109). Kazakhs consider a son respecting grandfather's language to be equal to a literate mullah: *Ata tilin sıylağan adal uldı xat oqığan moldadan kem demeñiz* (Magauin & Baidildayev, 1989, p.131). It can be seen from the above that in Chinese, there are words similar to the word "ata" but there is no word alternative to "ata tili."

The Kazakh "qız" is a concept, while it is translated to English as "girl, maiden, or bride." However, despite the femininity of the Kazakh word "qız" and the English word "girl," their gender roles are different (Ozhago & Shvedova, 1999, p. 156). Both words signify a female person at the age of transition from adolescence to youth (Syzdykova & Khussain, 2002, p. 493).

In Chinese, "女Nǚ" means girl or woman. Other words such as 姑娘Gūniáng, 妞niūniū, 女儿Nǚ'ér, 妮子Ní zi, 少女Shàonǚ, 女孩Nǚhái, 闺女Guīnǚ are also translated as a girl (Naiman, Kurmanbaiuly, Malbakov, Shoibekov et al., 2006, p. 581, 1159, 1168, 1143, 1408, 1168). When looking at the origin of the hieroglyphs, a picture of a woman sitting on her knees and hugging with both hands can be seen (Figure 1).

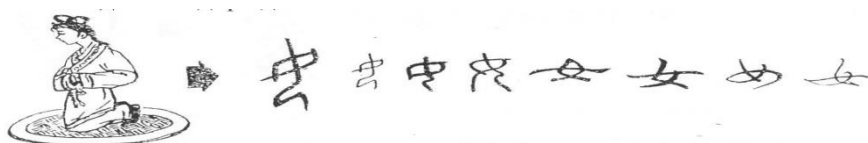


Figure1. Hieroglyph designating a girl

The long line in the hieroglyph “女” gives a feeling of beautiful appearance. Chinese has many characters with the grapheme “女 Nǚ” that has many meanings. Hieroglyphs having a grapheme “女Nǚ” depict the woman as pleasant and unpleasant. For example, the hieroglyphs 奸 Jiān (woman of easy virtue), 妨 Fáng (to be an obstacle), 妒 Dù (jealousy), 妓 Jì (prostitute), 婬 Biāo (prostitute), 嫉 Jí (be jealous), 姘 Pīn (adultery), and 婢 Bì (slave) have unpleasant meanings. Hieroglyphs such as 妍 Yán (beautiful), 妙 Miào (wonderful, artistic), 姝 Shū (beautiful girl), 娟 Juān (beautiful, wonderful), 娥 É (cutie), 婧 Jìng (talented woman), 媛 Ài (dear), 婷 Tíng (amazing) have pleasant meanings (Sun, 2010, p. 38, 39).

In addition to “女 Nǚ” there are other graphemes denoting woman. For example, “妇 Fù, 姑 Gū, 嫂 Sǎo, 妈 Mā, 姐 Jiě, 妹 Mèi, 奶 Nǎi”. Some hieroglyphs with a grapheme “女Nǚ” mean gender discrimination. For example, the word “耍 Shuǎ” (to play, to mock), consists of the characters “而 Ér” (beard) and “女Nǚ” (woman). 而+女 means “man's beard fell on a woman's face,” in other words, “耍” means to mock a woman. “妾 Qiè” (second or younger wife (when the first wife is alive)) consists of the characters “立 Lì” and “女Nǚ.” The logogram “立 Lì” comes from the word that means “knife or sword,” that is “妾 Qiè,” (second or younger wife) literally means “knife on the neck of a woman.” In “奴 Nú,” the characters 女 and 又 means “slave or servant.” The logogram “又 Yòu” come from the word that means “hand,” i.e. “奴” means “to arrest a woman.” “嫂 Sǎo” (sister-in-law) consists of “女Nǚ” (woman) and “灾 Zāi” (difficulty). “又 Yòu” means “to experience difficulties, not to get rid of difficulties” (Sun, 2010, p. 37-41).

In Chinese, there is a word “女儿酒 Nǚ'ér jiǔ” that means “girl's wine.” The wine was kept from the moment of the birth of the daughter until her marriage, and it was served to the guests when the daughter was given in marriage. This word is a lacuna for the Kazakh language. This word means a person who has reached puberty but has not yet entered into marriage.

The Kazakh word “qız” does not mean the young maid (servant), i.e. a maid in a master's house. In addition, Kazakhs use the word “qarindas” (sister) as a form of address for a young girl. “Qarindas” has the following meanings:

- 1) A younger sister or female cousin (in relation to the brother but not sister); for example, Ol Nurlan nıñqarındası (She is the younger sister of Nurlan);

- 2) A form of address for a girl used by an older man;
- 3) Relatives; for example, “ağayın–qarındas” (distant relatives).

The word “qarındas” is translated to Chinese as “妹妹Mèimei”:

1. 同父母而年龄比自己小的女子 Tóng fùmǔ ér niánlíng bǐ zìjǐ xiǎo de nǚzǐ (younger sister).

For example, 姐姐做鞋, 妹妹学样 Jiějiě zuò xié, mèimei xué yàng (if the sister sews shoes, the younger sister learns from her).

2. 同族同辈而年龄比自己小的女子 Tóngzú tóngbèi ér niánlíng bǐ zìjǐ xiǎo de nǚzǐ (younger kinfolk’s woman). For example, 我有个叔伯妹妹 Wǒ yǒu gè shūbai mèimei (I have a younger sister on the father's side) (Commercial Press Dictionary Research Center, 2000, p. 855). In Chinese, the word “妹妹 Mèimei” can be related only to a woman; it does not fully correspond to the Kazakh word “qarındas” (sister). For example, when Asan qayǵı said that there is no good from relatives, the poet Şalkıız says that relatives understanding your state are true friends (Zhunisuly, A., 2001, p. 81). In the above example, the word “qarındas” (sister) does not mean a woman but means relatives in general.

When raising the topic of the communicative behavior of the Kazakh people, it should be noted that in Kazakh there are words such as qız – 女 Nǚ (girl) and qızbalası, qızalaq - 小女孩 Xiǎo nǚhái, 小姑娘 Xiǎo gūniáng, 小闺女 Xiǎo guīnǚ (female child) used in the meaning of "girl".

The Kazakh word “qız” has a serious independent concept as evidenced by the following interpretation: Qızǵa qabaq şıtpa, ol waqıtşa jürgen qonaǵıñ (The girl should not be bothered because she is your temporary guest).

In Chinese, there are the expressions such as “女大了须出嫁·想留也留不住 Nǚ dàle xū chūjià, xiǎng liú yě liú bù zhù” (When a woman is too mature to marry, she wants to stay but can't stay); “女儿大了理当嫁, 女大不嫁人笑话 Nǚ’ér dàle lǐdāng jià, nǚ dà bù jià rén xiàohuà” (If the daughter matures, then she must get married, otherwise she will become people’s laughing stock); “嫁出去的女儿泼出去的水 Jià chūqù de nǚ’ér pō chūqù de shuǐ” (The girl went out of the cage); “女生外向 Nǚshēng wàixiàng” (The daughter is a stranger because she gets married and goes into another family); “少女的心, 七月的云 Shàonǚdexīn, qīyuèdeyún” (The girl changes in a variety of ways); “男是冤家女是债

Nánshìyuānjiānǔshìzhài” (if a son is born, he becomes the master of the house; if a daughter is born, it causes a debt) (Sun, 2010, p. 128, 130).

There are also expressions such as Atağa qız - qonaq (The daughter is a guest of parents); Qız - jat jurttıq (The daughter belongs to another tribe, she is a cut-out piece); Qızğa qırıq üyden tıyım, ulğa otız üyden tıyım, Oñ jaqtağı qız (the literal translation is “The girl is on the right side” (i.e. in the right side of the father's yurt, at the entrance to the right)); Qızım üyde, qılığı tüзде (The daughter is in the house but her coquetry is outside the house); Qızım meniñ- tüz kisi, qızıma keldi jüz kisi (The daughter is for strangers and a hundred people are wooing her (taken from a lullaby)); Qızın qıyağa, ulın uyağa qondırdı (Someone married his daughters and sons (i.e. all his children are set)); Qızdan twğan qııqsız (the grandchild born to the daughter is not strange but familial) (Syzdykova & Khussain, 2002, p. 557).

There is an expression called girlish speech (qız sözi) in the Kazakh language. For example, it was used by the Kazakh poet Kobylan Baribayuly (1760-1840): Qıtıqsız qız sözine senip aytam, Isine aq, ädeppen jönine aytam (I say with conviction; girlish speech does not tickle me; I speak competently without stepping beyond the bounds of decency) (Magauin & Baidildayev, 1989, p. 219). In Kazakh, there is the concept "bala tili" that means "childish speech." Kazakhs say, Ananıñ süti - bal, balanıñ tili - bal (mother's milk is honey and baby speech is honey).

There is no such expression as “girlish speech” in Chinese but it can be translated as “女孩的话语Nǚhái de huà yǔ”.

Once, Shal aqyn (Tilewke Kwolekewlı, 1748-1819) used the expression bala sözi (childish speech):

Eger de toqsan barsañ jatqanıñız,

Mıljıñdap bala sözın aytqanıñız

(If you live to be ninety years old,

You speak like a child (Magauin & Baidildayev, 1989, p. 131).

Kazakhs say Balağusap söyledi (to speak like a child). “Bala sözi” (childish speech) can be translated into Chinese as “孩子的话语Háizi de huà yǔ.”

The Kazakh “jigit” (a young man, mature guy), when attached to love affairs, expresses his emotional attraction and strong, heartfelt feelings secretly from the girl's parents and others. The speech of lascivious people or of a man and a woman having premarital sex (oynasqorlar in Kazakh) is also hidden and secret. The word “oynasqorlar” is translated into Chinese as “狎

妓Xiáji, 狎客xiá kè”. Kazakhs have the word “jigitilik” (love craze) that can be translated into Chinese as 小伙子气Xiǎohuǒzi qì, 男子汉气概Nánzihàn qìgài, 青年人的气魄Qīngnián rén de qìpò, 勇气Yǒngqì, 胆量dǎnliàng.

In Chinese, “男Nán” means a guy (jigit). When considering the origin of the hieroglyph "男Nán," it can be noted that it consists of the characters such as “田Tián” (field) and “力Lì” (strength). In ancient China, work in the field was men's task. Therefore, the "field" and "strength" meant the word "man."

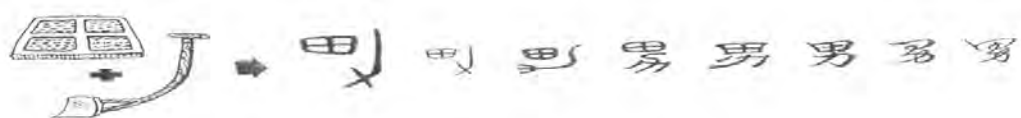


Figure 2. Hieroglyph designating a guy.

Besides, the words such as “男儿Nán'ér, 男丁Nán dīng, 男君Nán jūn, 男人Nánrén, 男士Nánshì, 男性Nánxìng, 男子Nánzǐ, 男子汉Nánzihàn, 小伙子Xiǎohuǒzi, 壮丁Zhuàngdīng, 壮夫Zhuàngfū, 壮Zhuànghàn, 壮士Zhuàngshì, 好汉Hǎohàn” mean “guy, man, citizen” (Naiman, Kurmanbaiuly, Malbakov, Shoibekov et al., 2006, p. 1131, 1132, 1797, 2180, 2181, 612).

There is a proverb in Chinese, “好汉做事好汉当Hǎohàn zuòshì hǎohàn dāng” translated as “a man who has done something himself is courageously responsible for what he has done” (er jigit qolmen istegenin moynimen köteredi in Kazakh). There are also the proverbs such as “男主外, 女主内Nán zhǔ wài, nǚ zhǔ nèi”; “男子走州又走县, 女子围着锅台转Nánzǐ zǒu zhōu yòu zǒu xiàn, nǚzǐ wéizhe guōtái zhuǎn”; “好男不离书房, 好女不离绣房Hǎo nán bùlí shūfáng, hǎo nǚ bùlí xiùfáng”; “好汉挑得青山走, 好女能绣石上花Hǎohàn tiāo dé qīngshān zǒu, hǎo nǚ néng xiù shíshàng huā”; “男勤耕, 女勤织, 丰衣又足食Nán qín gēng, nǚ qín zhī, fēng yī yòu zú shí”; “男儿看地边, 女儿看布边Nán'ér kàn de biān, nǚ'ér kàn bù biān”; “女人爱针线, 男人爱锄头Nǚrén ài zhēnxiàn, nánrén ài jué tóu”; “男为一春, 女为一冬Nán wéi yī chūn, nǚ wéi yī dōng” (Syzdykova & Khussain, 2002, p. 129). The meaning of these

proverbs is that women's tasks are mainly related to housework (e.g. cooking and sewing winter clothes), while men did hard work such as spring planting and autumn harvesting.

The words designating people among Kazakhs include ağa that means 1) older brother; 2) older relative; 3) older person; 4) senior (by position). The word “ini” means younger brother.

Kazakhs, when comparing older brother to younger brother say “Ağası bardıñ jağası bar, inisi bardıñ tınısı bar” (He who has an older brother, has a support and he who has a younger brother, has an assistance); АҒАНЫ көріп іні өсер, апаны көріп сіңлі өсер (the brother sets an example for his brother and the sister sets an example for her sister (the literal translation is “the younger brother looks at the older brother when growing up; the younger sister looks at the older sister when growing up”); Aғanıñ üyi aqjaylaw (the older brother's house is like a spacious summer highland pasture (i.e. it is always nice there). In the past, Kazakhs had ağalar alqası (council of elders) and ağa sultan (an administrative rank and position of chief district officer in Kazakhstan in 1822-1868).

In the Kazakh language, 25 word formations, paired words, and phrases are made with the word ağa. Four word formations and derivative word are made with the word ini (Magauin & Baidildayev, 1989, pp.15-17, 997).

In Chinese, there are several phrases associated with the word “brother” such as 哥哥 gēgē, 哥 gē, 哥子 gē zi (āga, āgay in Kazakh). The word 昆 kūn is translated to Kazakh as 1) āga, āgay (cousin, brother); 2) urpaq, äwlet, jurağat, nemere, şöbere (generation, dynasty, descendant, grandson). The word 兄 xiōng is translated to Kazakh as 1) āga, āgay; 2) dos-jar, āgayın, dos (friend, brother). The word 兄長 xiōngzhǎng is translated to Kazakh as āga, āgay, dos-jar, dos-jaran, āgayın, (Naiman, Kurmanbaiuly, Malbakov, Shoibekov et al, 2006 pp. 524-525, 918, 1834).

In Kazakh, the word kelin (daughter-in-law) designates the wife of the son or younger brother, or younger relative with respect to his parents or other older relatives (Syzykova & Khussain, 2002, p. 366). There are the expressions such as “Kelinin ker bolsa, jer bolasin” (if your daughter-in-law is arrogant, you will be disgraced); kelinin sırım törkini bilei (the unseemly character of the daughter-in-law is known by her relatives).

Kazakh daughters in law greet the father or older relatives of the husband by crouching on the left leg and putting both hands on the right knee (it is called kelinin sälemetwi).

In Kazakh, a young married woman is called kelinšek. There are folk expressions such as “kelinšek, bolma, sirä, erinšek” (the young girl, do not you be lazy); “Kelin küewine söylewi mümkin – enesi kelinine söylemeydi” (The daughter-in-law can grumble at her husband but

the mother-in-law does not grumble at her daughter in law). The mother-in-law says to her daughter-in-law, “qızım sağanay tam, kelinim, sen tñnda” (I call you my daughter; listen to me, my daughter-in-law).

In Chinese, there are also phrases associated with the word “daughter-in-law.” The words “媳 xí, 媳妇 xífù, 媳妇儿 xí fu er, 儿妇 er fù, 儿媳 ěr xífù” mean kelin (daughter-in-law) (Naiman, Kurmanbaiuly, Malbakov, Shoibekov et al., 2006, pp. 418-419, 1742). In Chinese, there is the proverb “多年的媳妇熬成婆 Duōnián de xífù áo chéng pó” that, in ancient times, meant that the mother-in-law was leading her daughter-in-law. As soon as the daughter-in-law crossed the threshold of her husband's house, she had no will and freedom. Only after the death of the mother-in-law, when she marries her children and becomes the mother-in-law herself, she will be able to live freely. Today's meaning of this proverb means that in order to achieve some success, you have to work hard. The proverb “两姑之间难为妇 Liǎng gū zhī jiān nán wèi fù” means that the daughters-in-law's life with her sister-in-law and mother-in-law will be hard (Sun, 2010, p. 128).

In Kazakh, a married couple is called erli = zayıptı, erli = baylı (husband and wife). “Erli = zayıptıññ arasına esiketken tüsedı” is translated as “Only a fool interferes in a dispute between husband and wife.”

In Chinese, the word 夫妻 Fūqī consists of two characters with the meanings “husband and wife:” 夫妇 Fūfù, 配偶 Pèi'ǒu (married couple). 鸳鸯 Yuānyāng means Sarala qaz (goose, duck) or Erli-zayıptılar (married couple). 鸳侣 Yuānlǚ also means Erli-zayıptılar (Naiman, Kurmanbaiuly, Shoibekov et al., 2006, p. 2015). 鸾凤 means erli-zayıp, jubay, qosaq (married couple, spouse) and 鸾凤和鸣 Luánfènghè míng means tatw tätti jubaylar (sweet spouses) (Sun, 2010, p. 1031).

Since, in Chinese, there is no single designation for an elderly married couple or a young couple, it is a lacuna in terms of kinship for the Chinese language.

At present, the words qatın and äyel are used to designate a woman in the Kazakh language. In Chinese, “妇 fù” refers to a woman. The origin of this character can be traced back to the image of a woman with a broom in her arms sitting on her knees and carrying out cleaning (Please, see Figure 3).



Figure 3. Hieroglyph designating a woman.

It is not difficult to see the division in terms of housework when looking at the above hieroglyphs. The main task of women was housework. The word “妇fù” (woman) is in tune with the word “服Fú” (obey, abide), that is, before marriage, the daughter obeys the parents and after marriage, she obeys the husband and his parents (Slyshkin, 2002, p. 129). The expressions “懒妇思正月 · 谗妇思寒食 Lǎn fù sī zhēngyuè, chán fù sī hánshí, 懒妇Lǎn fù” are translated as a lazy woman; “谗妇chán fù” is translated as a gossip. The all above words have an unpleasant meaning regarding women.

In Chinese, it is seen that there is a difference in hieroglyphs where they reflect gender and that women are more discriminated. The word “Äyel” is used as a more polite form, while “qatın” is used as a more rough one (in the sense of "a broad, elderly woman," sometimes also "wife"). Female compassion (äyeldik meyirim) is peculiar to Kazakh women. Kazakh female speech, as well as the Chinese one, differs from men’s speech by conspicuous politeness. In Chinese, there are the expressions such as “母爱Mǔ’ài” (maternal happiness), “母亲所特有的爱护儿女的感情Mǔqīn suǒ tèyǒu de àihù érnǚ de gǎnqíng” (Maternal feelings and caresses); “他从小失去了母爱Tā cóngxǎo shīqùle mǔ’ài” (He was deprived of maternal love since early childhood) (Commercial Press Dictionary Research Center, 2000, p.888).

Conclusion

The enhancement of international relations, the acceleration of globalization, the continuous expansion and improvement of the theories of various language disciplines, as well as the development of applied disciplines such as foreign language teaching and translation contributed to the development of comparative linguistics that covers the entire language system. In particular, it should be noted that the need for language teaching, intercultural communication, multinational, multilingual phenomena, and international relations significantly influenced the formation and development of comparative linguistics.

Also, necessary to take into account the fact that in various languages there can also be transformed uses of certain words and expressions, the objects of which were people and words that became a kind of regulatory mechanism in social relations. In the study of genderlects within each language, a contrastive method is used, with which the similarities and differences between the compared languages are revealed. The results of the confrontational method are used in the formation of contrastive linguistics, including the creation of comparative grammar and bilingual dictionaries. The authors consider that these results are necessary for the training of specialists in bilingualism and trilingualism.

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Mobile Learning in Business English Course: Adoptability and Relevance to Saudi EFL Students' Learning Styles

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Abstract

This research explored the connection between the use of M-learning and the preference of Saudi EFL students for their empirical analysis in business English. The study employed a systemic method for analyzing correlations. The data were taken from 125 Saudi EFL students randomly collected from a population of students enrolled in the English Business Class at Qassim University in Saudi Arabia (KSA) with cell phones. The research modified the Visual Thinking Style Preference (PLSPQ) and Venkatesh et al. (2003) systematic questionnaire. A unified theory of technology acceptance and use (UTAUT). The findings show that M-learning in a Business English course is strong and that the usage of technology suits the core learning (visual) type tastes of the participants. This study has theoretical and educational consequences.

Keywords – *Business English, Saudi EFL learners, Learning styles, M-Learning Adoption, Mobile learning, TAM*

Introduction

Every emerging and industrialized nation in the world needs to concentrate specifically on the learning of business English; Saudi Arabia is no exception. English currently dominates the global market, which challenges language professors to find efficient ways and means to teach business English between universities (Alrefaee, Mudkanna, & Almansoob, 2020; Al-Ahdal, 2020). The current trend of economic flow, together with technological progress and development, has brought society into an approach based on knowledge. A significant study void in this report is an urgent need for language professors to develop the relationship between learning habits and the adoption of mobile learning at an elected university in Saudis. The research offers an overview of mobile learning and the gap in the personal education of Saudi EFL students. This is therefore necessary to understand how students use M-learning to apply Business English to their human achievements and to tailor their levels to their own models. The educational climate has changed enormously since the advent of emerging technology. The new educational model, education 4.0, enables teachers and students to learn the latest techniques that can help in the performance of education. The use and implementation of technology in education have been a prerequisite in the modern school system. In accessing laptops, devices and workstations young people redefine and redesign the traditional path to the curriculum with open and limitless learning opportunities for pupils.

Mobile learning (ML) is a new education trend that stimulates educational scholars to investigate its effectiveness and adequacy in educating environments (Al-Ahdal & Shariq, 2019; Al-Emran, Elsherif & Shaalan 2016; Lu & Yang, 2018; Salloum et al. 2019; Shorfuzzaman et al. 2019). M-Technology offers access to research and decision-making data for university students and educators (Almaiah & Alismaiel, 2019; Althunibat, 2015; Rad, Nilashi & Dahlan, 2018). The versatility of mobile learning is integrated, omnipresent, private, shared and responsive; and offers instantaneous knowledge that allows learners to experience the pleasure of genuine learning at their speed and time (Christensen & Knezek, 2017; Crompton, Burke & Gregory, 2017). The writers argued that M-learning is an essential primary or supplementary learning resource that enhances education by providing ample learning opportunities (Ozdamli & Uzunboyly, 2015; Peck, Deans and Stockhausen, 2010). M-learning is a possible modality of learning to improve the methods of teaching (Al-Hunaiyyan & Al-

Hajri, 2018; Berking, & Haag, 2015). Many higher education programs around the world also have M-learning in operation.

Though M-Learning is common, its potential benefits will not be optimally achieved when students fail to apply it in learning, because purposeful and realistic learning is characterized by the active involvement of learners in self-regulated learning (Bartholomew et al., 2018; Carrasco, Behling & Lopez, 2018; Comer, 2018, Sun, Xie & Anderman, 2018; Therefore, it is important to explore further in this study how students show their recognition of M-learning and how it relates to their commercial interests in English learning. This attempts to demonstrate the contradictions in Saudi EFL students' previously identified learning styles; and, thereby, helps in consolidating their commitment to M-learning adoption. Previous studies have indicated the significant driver of learning as influencing one's behavioural attitudes, inclinations and preferences (Al-Ahdal, 2020; Maseleno et al., 2016; McKenna et al., 2018; Tams, Thatcher, & Grover, 2018; Truong, 2016). We still have a different level of technology penetration for different learners of various inclinations and preferences (Lemay et al., 2018; Panigrahi, Srivastava & Sharma, 2018; Park et al., 2019; Roszkowska & Wachowicz, 2019). This eventually helped to establish the link between the preference for learning and the realization of M-learning in business language learning.

What is the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)?

This study is based on TAM (Technology Acceptance Model). This philosophy of information technology discusses how people use systems based on their utility, ease of use, quality of application and enforcement (Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw 1989; Alalwan et al . 2018). As TAM is secure and transparent, this is one of the leading models for assessing adoption and acceptance in mobile learning systems (Dwivedi et al., 2019; Hansen, Saridakis & Benson, 2018; King & He, 2006). This article addressed the usage of mobile learning in the Saudi EFL market English course and the dimensions of TAM. It will increase the learning performance of students by effectively integrating simulated learning in language courses. It will also provide the language teachers with the required tools to successfully implement M-learning into the classroom with the highest student participation. The way Saudi EFL students interpret technology's utility and simplicity determine their computer and engineering skills in order to gain lifetime and global skill. Consequently, higher education institutions are able to generate skilled and skilled human capital in order to better explain the impact of student special recognition and learning before technology development initiatives are introduced. The need to assess the successful usage of M-learning will help universities to recognise contributing

factors promoting their use and use for progressive students (Akour, 2010; Bozorgian, 2018; Donaldson, 2010; Jabeen, Khan and Ahmad, 2018; Sulaiman & Almuhammad, 2018).

A large number of recent research has shown that mobile education encompasses various linguistic, technological, medical and social sciences fields from nation to country and its advantages in new schools (Arain et al. 2018; Avella et al., 2016; Bernacki, Greene & Crompton 2019; Crompton & Burke (2018), 72 research papers published in well-know They also pointed out that language learning is the most crucial topic ever examined with M-learning using a variety of teaching approaches. Although free education is needed to promote academic success, a lack of M-learning study is still not adequately addressed. The current research has influenced the current information set on the application of these two variables to the business context of English learning.

Overview on Learning Styles

The current study investigated how the preferences of students for learning styles relate to adoption of M-learning. The style of learning was seen as a significant contributor in learning and acquiring English, which affects the outcomes of research (Hwang, Hsu, & Hsieh, 2019; Marzulina, Pitaloka, & Yolanda, 2019; Murray & Christison, 2019; Reid, 1987a, 1995b; Toyama & Yamazaki, 2019; Wang, Mendori & Hoel, 2019; Yousef, 2019). Sun & Teng (2017) states that learning priorities require students to effectively perform learning activities that meet the needs of particular students. The evaluation and discerning differences among students should enable them to improve their skills in the best way possible. Reid's (1987) preference for a consistent style of learning is one of the leading learning styles and is divided into visual, group, person, auditory and kinesis. These learning styles are the most popular and accessible forms of language training as well as systematic methods. Their acceptance and effectiveness relies on their ease-of-use, their validity (Leite, Svinicki & Shi, 2010; McKenna et al . , 2018; Wieland et al . , 2018).

In this context, an accurate definition of the learning pattern will allow language teachers to address language teaching by developing methods that focus on learners. Therefore, a restricted knowledge of the learners' attributes, especially their learning styles, does not promote enhanced learning interactions, motivation and performance. Today, second-language literature analyzes and development approaches remain insufficient and need more work into human and cultural backgrounds (Ellis, 2012; Huang, Hoi & Teo, 2018). There are also minimal research on how students adjust their modes of learning as they have information (Anderson, 2016; Hatami, 2012; Kumar & Pande, 2018). By comparison, social computing

observational research remains minimal (Lu & Yang, 2018). This research explored how the mechanical behaviours of students react to mobile technology adoption.

English is currently the world's dominant language, which provokes language teachers to find successful ways and means of teaching English in business across universities. In combination with technical development and prosperity, the latest developments in economic dynamics have taken society into the market approach to information. Product and service growth, creativity and promotion require modern market strategies from all sectors of modern life and can not do so without a successful global contact network. Saudis consider the road to the future as one that requires expertise in English (Pan & Patel, 2018; Xie, 2019).

Statement of the Problem

Saudi EFL Online learning has been tested for emphasis previously. Huang (2017) said that teachers still refuse to do M-learning in college education. In another study, Guo & Benson (2017) reported that M-learning provided Saudi students with better communication and collaboration. As a result, Mei, Brown & Teo (2018) confirmed that the use of e-learning to learn foreign languages in China is strongly connected to making resources and technology more convenient. Earlier Saudi context studies have highlighted that language education is helpful with m-learning (Al-Emran, et al, 2018; Al-Hujran, Al-Lozi, & Al-Debei, 2014; Nassuora, 2012; Shorfuzzaman, et al, 2019) have reported that Saudi EFL students have an important choice for visual learning, auditory learning and tactile learning modalities among studies dealing with Saudi EFL students. According to Sit (2013) Saudi EFL students prefer silent, passive and rote education. These studies showed inconsistencies in the learning style of Saudi EFL students and therefore the idea is deemed to be essential for a review. There is a major research gap, because language teachers need to connect mobile learning and to study in a selected university in Saudi Arabia. The research gives an overview of mobile learning and the gap in Saudi EFL's personal education. It further acknowledges and appreciates how students utilize M-learning in a company English course and how they follow various approaches to gain their desired abilities and development.

Significance

This study illustrates the close interaction between the application of M-learning and student types in Saudi English, which incorporate mobile devices that are omnipresent, intimate, competitive and social. This increases the need for a better understanding of TAM, which

means that the expectations of adoptive technology in training 4.0 are linked to the profile and personal characteristics of the students.

Justifications of the Study Implications

The outcomes of this research should have practical and educational implications. This study shows a connection between M-learning and learning among Saudi EFL students. The consequences are as follows : (1) guidance for business English language teachers to match student learning styles with M-learning modalities; (2) regular enhancements to the developed program and business-language application; (3) The College's Faculty Training Program should also cover the instruction of language teachers to use

Objectives of the study

(1) How did Saudi EFL students see their Business English courses as accepted by M-Learning? This paper sought to find answers to the questions of the study;; (2) Is M-learning substantially different from gender and age clustering? ; (3) What are the learning expectations of the students? ; (4) Are there significant variations between gender and age-defined learning interests? ; and (5) Does M-learning have a meaningful link with the preferred style of students in business English?

Materials and methods

Research Design

The analysis is a systematic association analysis that explores the connections between mobile learning and interests for students in a business English course. The concise qualified describes the adaptability of students to mobile knowledge and their favourite modes of learning. Examination of the importance by using informative cross-sectional correlative analysis findings showed that the relationships between variables were one of the most common approaches used to create significant trends for systematic correlation testing (Creswell & Poth, 2016; Creswell, 1998a; 2002b; Lune & Berg, 2016). The use of descriptive correlational research method on mobile learning and learning styles highlights a meaningful relationship among the variables being studied (Cheng, 2015; Chung, Chen, & Kuo, 2015; Datu et al., 2018; Hamidi & Jahanshaheefard, 2019; Milošević et al., 2015; Ren et al., 2017; Sabah, 2016).

Research Participants, Sampling Procedure and Ethical Considerations

A full 125 Saudi students studied at a Business English School of Foreign Languages in a university participated in the research. The average population age was 21.7 years, with an EFL average of 8.9 years for all participants. The allocation of the classroom was based on the following participation criteria : (1) an applicant must be a daily business language student at the College of Foreign Languages, and (2) during the semester he must be trained and introduced to M-learning. The researcher has employed stratified random samples of a total of 125 students enrolled in the Business English class to ensure equal representation of the participants. Raosoft was used to measure sample size of 125 with a 5 % error margin, 95% confidence and 50% answer distribution. This weblink <http://www.raosoft.com/samplesize.html> accessed Raosoft online apps. In order to avoid Type, I and TypeII mistakes, the use of Raosoft as the sampling package provides power values of given sample size and alps (Omair, 2014; Wang et al . , 2013; Wilson, 2016). Afterwards, systematic sampling methodology was used. Prior to administration of the instruments, the researcher received clarification on the intent of the analysis and ensured the privacy of the respondents and the organization.

Research Instruments

This study adopted two modified research tools to answer the research queries of the survey: Mobile Learning Questionnaire (MLQ) and Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ).

The Mobile Learning Questionnaire (MLQ)

To test student acceptance of MLQ, the instruments were modified from previous M-learning studies (Al-Hujran, Al-Lozi & Al-Debei, 2014; Tan et al., 2012; Venkatesh et al., 2003; Yang, 2005). Nevertheless, this adoption was based primarily on the UTAUT questionnaire used by Venkatesh et al. (2003). The instrument consisted of 24 items distributed equally across the cinq fields: utility of M-learning, current trends in society to tech, acceptable M-learning, perception of pleasure, ease of use. The respondents in MLQ responded with a five-point Likert scale with one strongly disagreeing and five strongly approving. The instrument has an alpha of 0.85 Cronbach.

The Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ)

To test respondents' personal style expectations, the Perceptual Personal Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ) was used by Reid (1984). The instrument contains 25 statements, five questions on the learning styles visual, group, individual, auditory and kinesthetic. The PLSPQ has been researched and consistently and accurately by various scholars (Lee, Yeung & Ip, 2017; Soodmand Afshar & Bayat, 2018; Taleb Doaei, Sarkeshikian & Tabatabaee, 2017; Wintergest, DeCapua & Itzen, 2001). The instrument responded again on a five-point Likert scale.

Procedure

This research was carried out over a span of three months. The university administrators were therefore asked to be permitted and authorized to conduct their work before the formal conference. After obtaining the corresponding permission, for a week the researcher identified the respondents by using the inclusion criteria established in the study with two business language teachers at the College of Foreign Languages. Similarly, a date and invitation for another formal meeting were submitted within a week. The participants were directed by study goals and priorities. The results were finally analyzed, translated and written, a procedure that lasted a month.

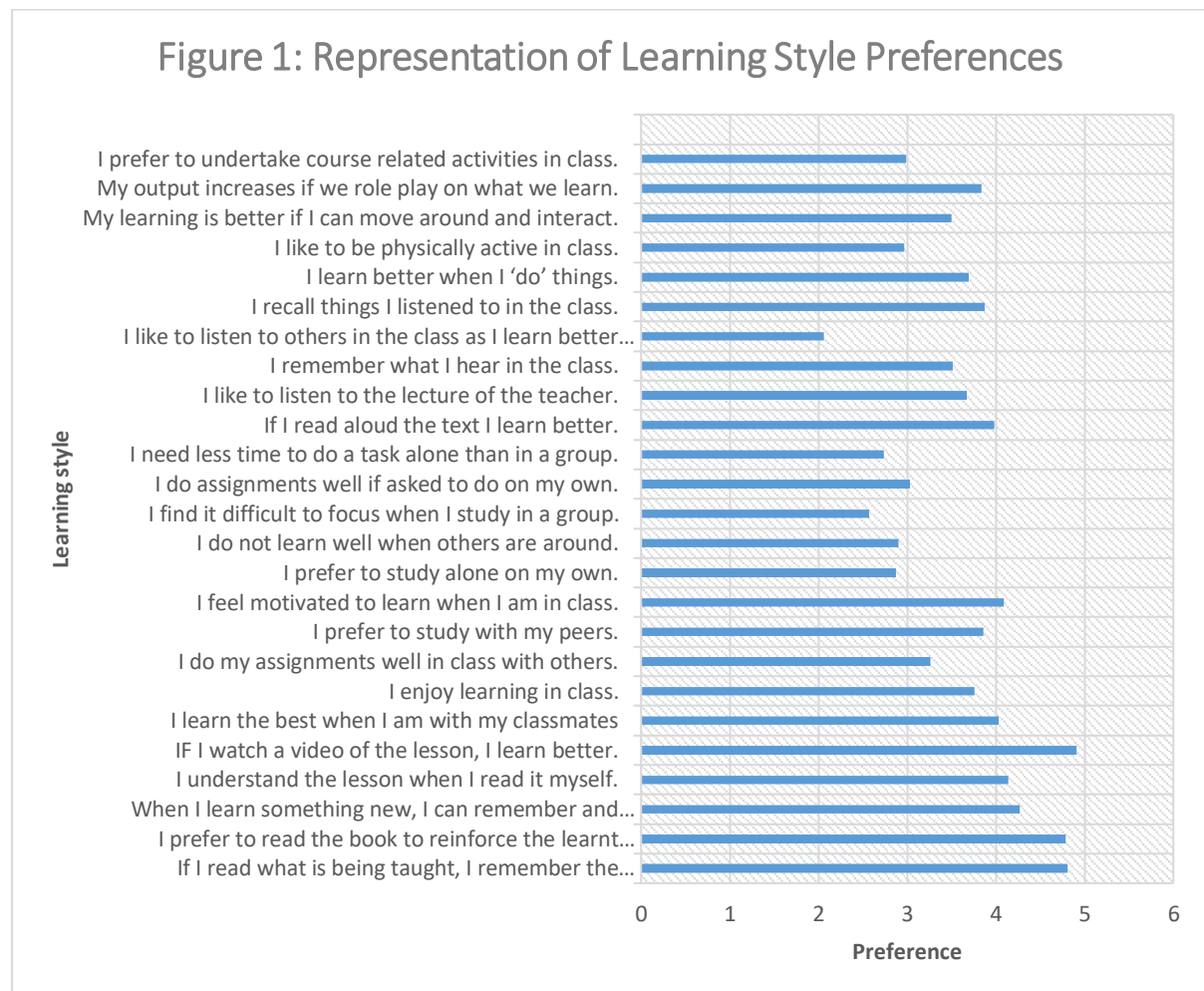
Data Analysis and Discussion

The study's quantitative results were analyzed using basic descriptive statistics. The HSD test was used later to determine whether a significant variation is detected by respondents and their generation's learning patterns when implementing the M-learning system, as it shows exactly where the variations are located (Abdi & Williams, 2010; Brown, 2005). Finally, the Pearson correlation coefficient may be used to track the significant link between M-learning and the preference of students for the visual form of learning (Bonett & Wright, 2000; Eisinga, Te Grotenhuis & Pelzer, 2013; Wiedermann & Hagmann, 2016). We used normal and variable variance measures to describe the participants' regular learning habits. Table 1 below shows the participants' preference for perceptual learning. The questionnaire's items are stacked as follows: visual (2, 6, 12, 16, 21), group (1, 5, 9, 22, 25), individual (3, 7, 11, 14, 18), auditory (4, 8, 13, 17, 23) and kinesthetical (10, 15, 19, 20, 24).

Table 1: PLSPQ responses

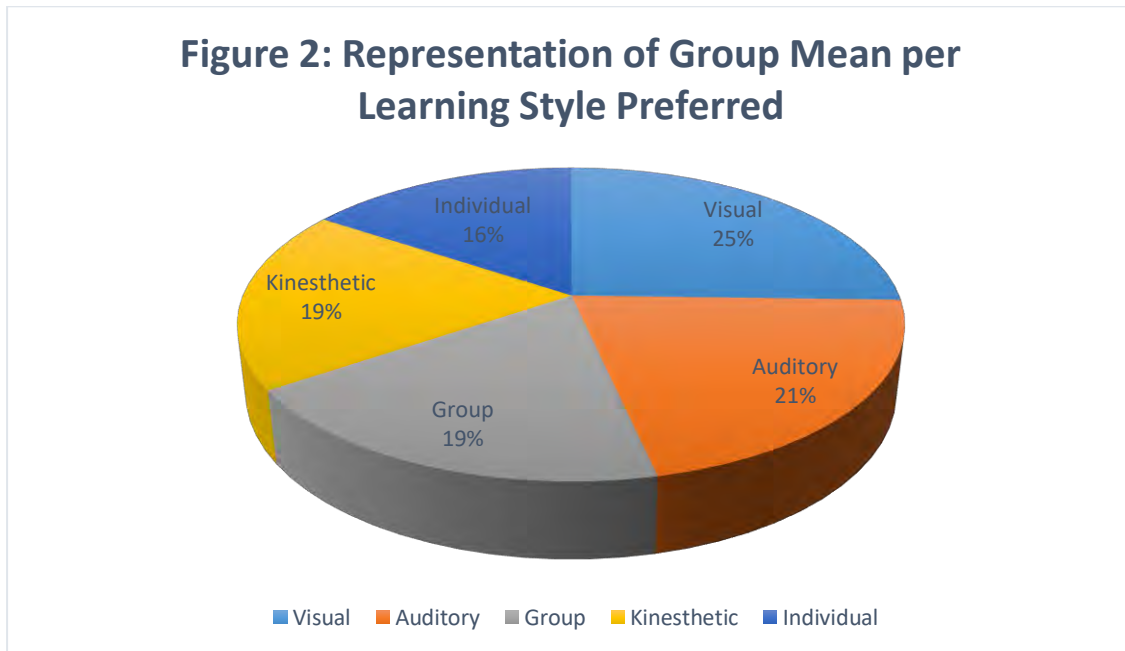
No	Statement	Mean	SD
1	If I read what is being taught, I remember the information better.	4.81	0.37
2	I prefer to read the book to reinforce the learnt material.	4.79	0.64
3	If I know something new, whether I see something on the screen or watch, I will remember and understand it more.	4.27	0.54
4	I understand the lesson when I read it myself.	4.14	0.71
5	IF I watch a video of the lesson, I learn better.	4.91	0.46
6	I learn the best when I am with my classmates	4.03	0.68
7	I enjoy learning in class.	3.76	0.51
8	I do my assignments well in class with others.	3.26	0.48
9	I prefer to study with my peers.	3.86	0.57
10	I feel motivated to learn when I am in class.	4.09	0.61
11	I prefer to study alone on my own.	2.87	0.59
12	I do not learn well when others are around.	2.90	0.42
13	I find it difficult to focus when I study in a group.	2.57	0.64
14	I do assignments well if asked to do on my own.	3.03	0.65
15	I need less time to do a task alone than in a group.	2.74	0.73
16	If I read aloud the text, I learn better.	3.98	0.57
17	I like to listen to the lecture by the teacher.	3.67	0.59
18	I remember what I hear in the class.	3.51	0.63
19	I like to listen to others in the class as I learn better then.	2.06	0.64
20	I recall things I listened to in the class.	3.87	0.39
21	I learn better when I 'do' things.	3.69	0.57
22	I like to be physically active in class.	2.97	0.55
23	My learning is better if I can move around and interact.	3.50	0.62
24	My output increases if we role-play on what we learn.	3.84	0.57
25	I prefer to undertake course-related activities in class.	2.99	0.53

Graphically, in figure 1 below, the higher number of preference is reflected for the visual learning style.



From the data, it is apparent that the most preferred learning style is the visual mode with a group mean of 4.58, followed by Group learning style at 3.8, Auditory at 3.41, closely tailed by Kinesthetic at 3.39 and least preference shown for Individual learning style at 2.82. This data is also graphically represented in Figure 2 below for ease of use and comprehension.

Figure 2: Representation of Learning Style mean for the group



To evaluate the attitudes of the group to the use of technology in learning, we used the following UTAUT questionnaire, of which most items are borrowed from Venkatesh et al. (2003). However, certain required modifications have been made in the language of the statements to suit the specialized needs and environment of the current study. These are tabulated in Table 2 below as UTAUT Questionnaire

Table 2: UTAUT Questionnaire with Mean responses and SD

1. Performance	Mean	SD
1.1. Using technology enables me to finish a task faster	4.72	0.49
1.2. Technology use increases the scope of my learning	3.97	0.52
1.3. With technology, I spend less time on routine tasks like making notes	4.58	0.59
1.4. I am perceived as being more competent if I use technology in my learning	3.69	0.48
2. Effort		
2.1. It is easy for me to use the system	4.93	0.40

2.2. The use of technology gives me flexibility in learning	4.87	0.52
2.3. I can use the technology to my benefit	4.06	0.55
2.4. I am confident of using the system for a better learning experience as it is fun	4.95	0.48
3. Social influence		
3.1. My peers and teachers think I should use technology in my studies	3.74	0.51
3.2. People who are important to me think I should use technology	4.72	0.48
3.3. Using technology adds prestige to my course	4.93	0.44
3.4. In general, my University supports and encourages the use of technology	4.90	0.53
4. Facilitating conditions: There is		
4.1. Availability of instruction manual and instructor	3.87	0.59
4.2. Compatibility of technology with my courseware	4.89	0.47
4.3. Ease of use of the technology	4.72	0.43
4.4. Previous knowledge of the usage	4.86	0.52

The participants' responses to the adapted UTAUT questionnaire reflect positive attitudes to technology use in the current courseware with average responses to the four sections being more than 4.3 in all cases. It may be pointed out that the five points Likert Scale response pattern was used in seeking the reverts. Thus, a mean score of more than 4.3 translates to a near-perfect score.

Conclusions

Business English classrooms in Saudi Arabia are well equipped with the latest technological tools at the disposal of the teachers and learners alike. We understand that the PLSP questionnaire demonstrated a preference for the visual learning style among the participants. The introduction of technology to these learners is conducive to their learning styles and tallies with their disposition towards tech use in classrooms. It is, therefore, apt that the Business English courses in the University encourage a greater shift to M Learning for optimum benefits to the learners, in addition to the full utilization of the resources.

Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Further Research

The current paper has drawbacks and can be used for further analysis and confirmation. The study's data was based first and foremost on the self-report of the respondents from a University in Saudi Arabia, which constitutes a significant limitation to the study. For further education, there is a need to increase the number of participating universities; as well as, of the samples for more conclusive findings. Secondly, gender and age variations were not covered in the study, as it has been conducted with a uniformly aged all-male group. Thirdly, the use of a hybrid research method and a quasi-experimental research design is also encouraged for future investigations.

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Stress between Myth and Facts: A Unified Critique

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Abstract

Stress is a seamless property of many human languages. The issue of stress in Arabic has been investigated by many linguists and orientalists who showed a remarkable variation in their arguments about the existence, assignment and role of stress in Arabic. Some non-Arab linguists detected stress factors in the Arabic language while others logically argued and rejected the presence of stress in Arabic. This paper revisits this hotly debated issue and presents it from different theoretical and practical perspectives with a goal to provide a unified critique on all the surveyed perspectives.

Keywords: *stress; stress-timed languages; syllable-timed languages; prosodic phonology.*

Introduction

Language is the unique phenomenon that distinguishes humans by its characteristics from other creatures. Therefore, this is a phenomenon is worthy of careful scientific study to understand its mechanisms and reveal Its richness. This phenomenon increases in importance when it is studied in Arabic language where studies of the different aspects of Arabic phonology are meager. Stress is one of the most important aspect which are in need to be scholarly addressed in Arabic phonology.

Stress is a prosodic feature in many languages often described as stress languages or stress-timed languages. Cross-linguistically, there is a growing body of research which sheds light on the optimal location of stress in a word. It is asserted that stress tends to be attracted to syllables located near the edges of grammatical units, especially the initial syllable. Final syllables are exempted from stress in many languages, initial and pre-final syllables are, “by far, the best places of stress, followed by stress on the second and final syllable”. McCarthy (1979: 445) finds out that there are three grounds that control the close connection between stress and syllabification. Primarily, the idea of “heavy syllable” in a number of languages raises a disjunction of syllables involving a long vowel or diphthong and syllables with a short

vowel but closed by a consonant. Second, though heavy syllables often invite the stress, they occasionally deny it or attract it and this is bound to some confines, say, distance from a boundary. Last, a certain language may have several weight of syllables that could be under certain circumstances. Anyway, several languages may be called tone languages. Those languages do not exploit stress as a crucial prosodic property but it is a tone that plays that role and the manipulation in tone is phonemic in those languages. Consequently, this difference between the prosodies of languages result in another issue in prosodic phonology that is concerned with the classification of languages whether they are stress-timed languages or syllable-timed languages.

Statement of the Study

One of the most familiar distinctions in phonology is that between stress-timed and syllable-timed languages. As far as the Arabic language is concerned, it is well-documented that it is categorized as a stress language or a stress-timed language. It has also been viewed that Arabic language has two types of syllables one is closed and another is open. Open syllable ends with short or long vowel sound where closed syllables end with consonants. It is also sometimes thought that Arabic can be either stress-timed or syllable-timed depending on the variety of Arabic used in one Arab country or another though this cannot applicable to standard written Arabic. However, there are some contradictory views which attempted to argue against that prosodic property in Arabic. The current study attempts to revisit this controversial issue and aims to reveal the question whether the Arabic language is a stress-timed language or not through comparing/contrasting the linguistic contradictory views along with the suggested evidence in that concern. More importantly, this study adds the researchers' view which supports what they call a unified critique in that issue and shows why and what is the logic beyond that.

Arabic as a Stress-Timed Language

The phonological study of single syllables requires a study in terms of vocal system and its characteristics, as sounds are subject to certain rules in their places to each other, their connections, and their locations. The study of stress requires the study of phenomena that are not only related to syllables themselves, but to the phonological set in general, such as location, accent, and toning. That is to say, the study if its behavior within the structure. This study pays attention for both the behavior of the syllable in the word and the stress within the syllable in Arabic language. As a result of following the traditional categorization of languages into two

categories: stress-timed and syllable-timed languages, there are many linguists who argued that Arabic is a stress-timed language.

Abercrombie (1967) is one of those linguists and he is the first linguist whose hypotheses will be presented here. This is because of the crucial role of his hypotheses and their connectedness to the central contradictory claims provided in Roach (1982), who argues that Abercrombie's claims fail to make that distinction apparent between languages as far as their prosody is questioned.

Abercrombie (1967:97) claims that "as far as is known, every language in the world is spoken with one kind of rhythm or with the other . . . French, Telugu and Yoruba . . . are syllable-timed languages, . . . English, Russian and Arabic . . . are stress-timed languages'. Abercrombie (1967, 98) in the same work assures two claims that according to him can distinguish between stress-timed languages and syllable-timed languages. He claims that there is significant difference in syllable length in a language spoken with stress-timed rhythm while in a language spoken with a syllable-timed rhythm the syllables seem equal in length. Then, he finds, in syllable-timed languages, stress rhythms are unequally spread out.

Al-Ani (1970:87-8) deals with utterance stress and demonstrates that the syllables of an utterance are not produced with the same degree of loudness. To him, the term stress means the amount of power distributed over the syllables of each utterance. As far as word stress is concerned, Al-Ani claims that Arabic stress is predictable on the lexical level; therefore, it is not phonemic. There are three levels of stress: primary (marked by '), secondary (marked by ,) and weak (non-marked). Every word has an 'inherently-stressable' syllable, potentially and this stress is primary. Its placement and distribution are influenced by the number and kinds of syllables involved in the word-syllable sequences. The primary stress comes with a monosyllabic word when in isolation. Secondary and weak stress is associated with disyllabic and polysyllabic words as well as the primary stress.

McCarthy (1979: 445-6) assumes that Classical Arabic, like many other languages, is a stressed language where stress attracts a heavy syllable regardless of the remoteness of a boundary. Citing Harrell (1957), McCarthy refers to Cairene Arabic and supports three principal stress rules for this dialect, along with a few morphological exceptions. McCarthy (2005: 9) also indicates that the Cairene stress system assigns moraic trochees from left to right. McCarthy attaches great significance to the role of stress in Arabic in general and its varieties in particular. His application of the theoretical assumptions is based on the idea that since there is no pandialectal tradition for stressing Classical Arabic in many regions, the colloquial stress rule is applied to Classical Arabic forms (for more details, visit McCarthy, 1979, 2005).

Firth, J. R. (1948) he demonstrates in "Sounds and prosodies" that possibility of stressed syllables to be heavy can be found in Arabic. According to this perspective Arabic language is taken as an example of stress-timed languages.

Watson (2002) discusses stress in Arabic with specific reference to Cairene and Sanʿani varieties of Arabic. She (2002: 79) even claims that "Arabic is a language with word stress" and that while in words of more than two syllables in Sanʿani (optionally also in words of two syllables where the leftmost syllable is heavy and the rightmost syllable superheavy) one or more of the remaining syllables receives secondary stress, secondary stress is not perceived in Cairene.

Ryding (2005: 36-37) suggests that stress in Classical Arabic depends on the length of the word. According to him, stress never comes on the final syllable, but normally on the penultimate syllable if that syllable is strong (CVC or CVV), and on the antepenultimate if the second syllable from the end of the word is weak.

Al-Moosawy (2007: 128-33) assures that Arab linguists differ about the existence of stress and its placement. He cites opinions of some Arabic linguists and orientalists, such as Henry Flesh, who indicates word stress as unknown by Arabic grammarians completely even they do not have the word stress because it does not show a key role in Arabic prosody. Al-Moosawy (2007) also refers to Abd Al-Tawwaab, who argues for the lack of stress in the Arabic language. He indicates to the linguistic growth by time and the effect of other people on the Arabs since they transmit their linguistic tradition to the Arabic language like stress and its position in the word.

Halpern (2009) indicates that word stress in both Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and the dialects is non-phonemic and claims for some rules of stress and vowel neutralization in Arabic stating that we have to stress the last superheavy syllable, the penultimate if it is heavy or if the word is disyllabic. Otherwise, stress the antepenultimate. As for the neutralization rules, he argues that we have to neutralize long vowels except for the one nearest the end, neutralize final long vowels but never neutralize stressed vowels.

Arabic as a Syllable-Timed Language

In contrary with the views and arguments presented in the last subsection, there are views which argue that Arabic language is not a stress language. It is argued here that all those traditional arguments considered the pronunciation of Arabic, whether MSA or its varieties, from the point of view of a linguist who is a non-native speaker of Arabic. That is to say, most

of those studies investigated the phonology of Arabic with presumptions generated either by the rules and ideas they have acquired through their study of linguistics or by trying to draw similarities between their mother-tongues (mostly English) and the way they ‘hear’ Arabic (both MSA and its varieties) pronounced. While English is a highly stressed language, MSA in fact, is not.

Ferguson (1956:384-5) indicates that Classical Arabic has ‘no word stress at all, either phonologically significant or automatic as a function of the syllabic structure of the word’. MSA gives equal prominence to all syllables of a word. In terms of pronunciation, there is no difference in prominence between syllables in a content word or a function word. Regarding the relationship between stress and varieties of Arabic, the majority of these varieties do not attach great importance to stress either, and even if certain varieties (e.g. in Egypt or Hijaz or the North African countries) show what may be perceived by non-native speakers as stress, it is safe to claim that no two words in MSA or its various varieties are differentiated on the basis of stress. Differences between varieties lie in terms of tonality even when speakers of different varieties use MSA in the spoken mood; however, this difference in tone does not entail difference in meaning.

Alkumet (2013:91) maintains that there is no evidence for Arabic stress as it was in the initial Islamic ages because there is no ancient grammarian who has dealt with it. Generally, there is a special law for Arabic stress. Alkumet (2013) cites Al-Hamad (2002), who illustrates the agreement of scholars about the lack of studies about stress by modern Arabic grammarians and the scholars of Islamic studies. Perhaps, the fact that Arab grammarians did not discuss stress in their studies does not show any evidence that stress can be found to differentiate between words on the phonemic level. Arabic does, however, have its prosodic means which are manifest in terms of intonation and pitch. All syllables in Arabic receive equal prominence by speakers and the melodic effects are realized in terms of intonation and pitch.

Stress in Arabic Re-Visited

Nespor (1969) asserts that stress-timing is an important element of many languages including Arabic. In this paper, we argue for some other view which we claim provides a unified and plausible argument. This view is originated in Albert (1960) and Roach (1982). Albert (1960) has an answer to what lately has been argued for in Alkumet (2013) about the lack of stress in Classical Arabic. Albert (1960) suggests that the classic grammarians’ negligence of stress does not mean that they were unable to comprehend or recognize this phenomenon or that it is not found in the Arabic language at all. The matter is that Arabic stress is nondiscriminatory

and it has no effect on meaning. While Arabic stress can be easily heard and perceived, scholars have found it difficult to determine.

Mitchell (1969) argues that there is no language which is totally syllable-timed or totally stress-timed – all languages display both sorts of timing; languages will, however, differ in which type of timing predominates. Second, various sorts of timing will be shown by the same speaker on dissimilar situations and in different settings. Last, the stress-timed/syllable-timed uniqueness tends currently to basically rest on the intuitions of speakers of various Germanic languages which are thought to be stress-timed; investigation of the subjective feelings of speakers of languages usually categorized as syllable-timed have to be deeply examined if the distinction is to be maintained as a suitable part of phonetic theory.

As far as Abercrombie's view is concerned, Roach (1982) has another revolutionary view on the distinction between stress-timed and syllable-timed languages. He argues that it is much more difficult to set out clear rules for assigning a language to one of the two categories. That is, according to him, because a test based on native speakers' responses to auditorily presented material would not be a practical means to providing an answer to the query 'how can you tell whether a language is stress-timed or syllable-timed?'. The single impartial method of solving the problem has to be on the basis of criteria drawn from acoustic or articulatory information. Roach proposes that this matter can be phonetically examined by carrying out some experiment. Variability can be simply measured by standard deviation of the syllable length.

In a well-conducted experimental study, Roach (1982) concluded that syllable duration is more different in stress-timed languages and it is not simple to find out the reasons for syllable length being equal in a syllable-timed language. It can be understood that a language in which realizations of vowel phonemes showed few differences, but which had phonemically long and phonemically short vowels. This language could then include syllables that varied significantly from each other in length, but it would not as a result have to have the 'regular stress beat' that is normally attributed to stress-timed beat.

Roach's experimental test conclusions went against Abercrombie's (1967) claim, which is presented above. Abercrombie's claim has been tested by calculating a Pearson correlation coefficient for the association between percentage deviation (as set out above) and the number of syllables per inter-stress interval for each language. The results of this test proved that this claim again is not plausible. The measured inter-stress intervals did not show marked regularity in English. Pike (1945) and Hockett (1955) think that Spanish is to be syllable-timed. However, Pointon (1973, 1980) contended against that claim. [Alvarez de Ruf (1978) showed that the

label “syllable-timed” is not suitable for Chilean Spanish. Balasubramanian (1980) came up with similar results about Tamil.

Consequently, we can recall again our claim after Albert (1960) and Roach (1982) that it is not possible to separate the two groups of languages on this basis because the phonetic acoustics give no support to the idea that one could assign a language to one of the two categories. As a consequence of the failure of the acoustic values to show that categorization, Roach assumed that it necessary to consider possibilities such as that languages known as syllable-timed can be likely to have simpler syllable structure (following Smith (1976) who demonstrates this as a feature in the case of Japanese and of French), and that languages recognized as stress-timed tend to include vowel reduction in syllables which are unstressed.

Discussion

Regardless of those views which assured that some languages like Arabic are termed as stress-timed languages while others like French and Telugu are syllable-timed languages as a result of a two-way categorization, it seems reasonable to assure some conclusions presented in some prior works on the same issue. There are many linguists who argued that Arabic is a stress-timed language. Abercrombie (1967), tried to distinguish between stress-timed languages and syllable-timed languages through the considerable variation in syllable length and stress pulses. Therefore, Arabic languages in such a case falls into “stress-timed” and not “syllable-timed”. Arabic is consequently categorized as stress-timed, where stress plays an essential role in the phonological structure of Arabic language. This paper takes a stand in-between. Al-Ani (1970) dealt with utterance stress and demonstrated that the syllables of an utterance are not produced with the same degree of loudness. McCarthy (1979); Watson (2002) and Ryding (2005) pointed that Classical Arabic, like many other languages, is a stressed language where stress attracts a heavy syllable regardless of the remoteness of a boundary. Al-Moosawy (2007) assured that Arab linguists differ about the existence of stress and its placement and cited opinions of some Arabic linguists and orientlists. Halpern (2009) argued for a slightly similar view when he indicated that word stress in both Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and the dialects is non-phonemic and claims for some rules of stress and vowel neutralization.

On the contrary, there are views which argued that all those traditional arguments mentioned above considered the pronunciation of Arabic from the point of view of a linguist who is a non-native speaker of Arabic. Ferguson (1956), for example argued that Classical Arabic has ‘no word stress at all, either phonologically significant or automatic as a function of the syllabic structure of the word’. Al-Hamad (2002) and Alkumet (2013) illustrated the agreement of the

scholars about the lack of studies about stress by the modern Arabic grammarians and the scholars of Islamic studies.

In this paper, we follow Mitchell (1969) who argued that there is no language which is totally syllable-timed or totally stress-timed - all languages display both sorts of timing but they differ in which type of timing predominates. Second, various sorts of timing are displayed by the same speaker on dissimilar situations and in different settings. Eventually, the stress-timed/syllable-timed distinction are likely currently to basically rest on the intuitions of speakers of a number of Germanic languages which are thought to be stress-timed. The view that we follow here has been supported also by Pointon (1980) and Alvarez de Ruf (1978) who showed that the label “syllable-timed” is not appropriate for Chilean Spanish and Balasubramanian (1980) who came up with a similar conclusion for Tamil. Phonetically speaking, Albert (1960) and Roach (1982) concluded that it is not possible to get a clear cut categorization of languages into two groups on the basis of either stress-timed or syllable-timed because the phonetic acoustics give no support to the idea that one could assign a language to one of the two categories. As a consequence of the failure of the acoustic values to show that categorization, Roach assumed that it necessary to consider possibilities such as that languages classed as syllable-timed may tend to have simpler syllable structure (following Smith (1976) who suggests this as a factor in the case of Japanese and of French), and that languages categorized as stress-timed tend to have vowel reduction in syllables which are unstressed.

However, the phonological awareness can also be helpful for those working in the field of education as teachers. This conclusion matches the view of Wang, Ching-Wen (Felicia) (2019), who concludes that as the amount of research focusing on raising phonological awareness increases, it will emerge out of the realm of cognitive linguistics into the practical teaching arena.

Conclusion

The conclusion reached here is that all the languages can be partially syllable-timed and partially stress-timed in the sense that every language embrace both types of timing where one them can be less or more displayed and this is what was practically concluded about Arabic languages out of all the existing scholarship on the topic. Moreover, a variety of timing can be embraced by the same speaker on dissimilar situations and in different settings. The arguments in this paper have been important theoretical grounds for wider discussions to be opened up on the topic above and to draw the attention of researcher interested in Arabic phonology. The

scope of this paper was limited to address the existing perspectives on the subject matter and bridge the gaps between the available stands.

In conclusion, this paper was an attempt to add to the existing literature about Arabic phonology and draw the attention of scholars interested in Arabic phonology to address the topic from different perspective even rather than the phonological, such as the philosophical and other aspects. This study was confined to compromise the different already existing theoretical perspectives and come up with a single approach that bring all the available perspectives together in one study. Therefore, this paper paves the way for further studies based on data analysis and in depth studies on the topic under study. It is also recommended that a further study is to be conducted to tackle the issue if there are differences in terms of stress-timed or syllable-timed between the variety of Arabic dialects.

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An Analysis of Chemical Engineering Students' Needs on Text Types and Reading Topics for English Reading Materials Development

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to investigate Chemical Engineering students' responses of text types and reading topics for English reading materials development. This is inspired by the fact that English reading materials used by students of Chemical Engineering at Polytechnic ATI of Makassar were only taken from textbooks or in other words there were no text types variations, and some of the reading topics were not related to Chemical Engineering

Department anymore. Qualitative research design was used in this study with quantitative data collection. Data were only collected through questionnaires and were analyzed with descriptive statistics (the interpretations of frequencies and percentages). The questionnaires consisted of 2 sections. The first section aimed at analyzing the Chemical Engineering students' responses on how important reading text types are for English reading materials development. The second section aimed at analyzing the responses of Chemical Engineering students of how important reading topics are for their English reading materials development. The results of the study revealed that "textbooks (81,7%)", "journals (78,3%)", "procedural account (71,7%)", "articles (71,7%)", "magazines (65%)" were the most important text types of English reading materials for Chemical Engineering students. The rests of text types such as "procedure (61,7%)", "discussion (51,7%)", "exposition (50%)", "factual recount (46,7%)", "explanation (45%)", "factual description (41,7%)" and "information report (36,7%)" were also very important but the percentage of each text type was lower than other text types. Another results of this study also showed that "the chemical future of coal (83,3%)", "how gas is made (83,3%)", "oxygen (83,3%)", "methane gas (81,7%)", "basic chemistry (78,3%)", "basic laboratory work (76,7%)", "hydrogen (76,7%) and "the atom (75%) were the most five important reading topics for English reading materials development chosen by Chemical Engineering students. The other reading topics such as "liquid air (73,3%)", "liquid waste (71,7%)" and "solid waste (66,7%)" were also considered very important by Chemical Engineering students as reading topics for English reading materials but the percentage of each reading topic was lower than the other five reading topics.

Keywords: *Keywords: Chemical Engineering, text types, reading topics, reading materials*

Introduction

Reading is very important in both our daily life and academic environment. Through reading, people can develop knowledge and information around the world. Although reading is considered as one of receptive skills, however, it has a significant role to connect people to people through written text. In other words, reading is not a simple process as the reader pictures. According to Iskandarwassid and Sunendar (2008, p. 246) that reading involves how to get meaning from written codes, know the language used in the codes, and activate a set of cognitive mental process system. Furthermore, Kirsch and Guthrie (1984) in their study with adult readers found that reading has significant contributions to job success, development of someone's career and skill to respond to change (as cited in Annamalai & Muniandy, 2013).

Therefore, reading is also an important skill to be taught and developed at school in particular higher education level in order to gain students' English reading competence for their future employment.

In relation to students' reading abilities, most of vocational institutions students in particular technical-vocational students have poor reading competence in English but good at technical performance. In other words, technical-vocational students performed very well for their core subjects and in practical skills but cannot understand well the written instructions given in English. Students of technical-vocational institutions have important role in contributing to the development of economic country. Most of the overseas contract workers are technically skilled workforce, therefore; they must be good at English in order to communicate more effectively from different group of people around the world. Additionally, most of communications, instructions, documentations are in English language (Pilar, 2017). In addition, one of important roles of vocational education as one part of national education system is to foster skillfull workforce in a national level. Trilling and Fadel (2010) propose that the 21st century instructional design shall result in "innovative, inventive, self-directed, creative problem solver to confront increasingly complex global problems". Referring to Law No. 20, 2003 about National Education System, vocational school students are prepared to work in specific field after completing their study. Students at this type of school are required sufficient skill training and knowledge transfer for their future job market and advanced education (Reynaldo & Martinez, 2007). Moreover, the presence of ASEAN Economic Community require people to have good English both written and spoken whether those who are from English background or not, English has become an obligation for them (Hasanah & Mufidatunnisa, 2019). Students at Polytechnic ATI of Makassar have the same situation. As a vocational higher education under the Ministry of Industry, students are required not only to be well performed for their theory and practice core subjects but they also need to have good English both written and spoken. Therefore, lecturers should provide good teaching materials which are based on students' needs so that students learn reading more confident.

Developing reading materials is very important because one of essential aspects of learning reading is the availability of teaching materials in addition to syllabus, methods, learning activities and evaluation. There are several considerations of the need to develop English reading materials in Polytechnic ATI of Makassar especially for Chemical-Minerals Engineering department. First, English reading materials have been used for more than 10 years since TPML (Quality Control Technique and Industrial Environment) and TKI (Industrial Chemical Engineering) Study Programs and have never been changed. Second,

English reading materials provided by English lecturers are only description texts and there are not any text variations for Chemical Engineering students. Third, the reading topics used today based on the lecturers' perceptions and may not be related to Chemical Engineering students' needs for their future career. Based on the problems, this study aims to identify Chemical Engineering students text selection in particular text types and reading topics for English reading materials.

Literature Review

A. Need Analysis

The term need analysis refers to a technique of collecting and assessing information when design a course. It is a way to establish the how and what of course should be like (Hyland, 2006, p.73). Similarly, Brown (1995, p.36) explains that need analysis is an important information can be used to establish curriculum. He further describes the information can be obtained from the target group for example students, teachers, and/or administrators; the audience such as teachers, teacher aids, program administrators, and supervisors; the need analysts namely consultant, member of faculty; and the resource group that is parents, financial sponsors (Brown, 1995, p.37).

According to Basturkmen (2010, p.19) need analysis is the process of developing a course. The process links to language and skills that students are going to use in the present and future situation.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987, pp.54-63) divides types of needs namely target needs and learning needs. Target needs are what learners need to do in target situation. Target needs are divided into three they are necessities, lacks, and wants. There are several questions involved in target need such as (1) why is the language need?, (2) how will the language be used?, (3) what will be the content areas be?, (4) who will be the students use the language with?, (5) where will the course take place?, (6) when will the course take place? (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, pp.62-63).

The learning needs cover what students need to do in order to learn. The questions includes in learning needs for example, (1) why are students taking the course?, (2) how do students learn?, (3) what resources are available?, (4) who are the students?, (5) where will the course take place?, (6) when will the course take place? (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, pp. 62-63).

B. Materials Development

Materials refer to anything can be used to facilitate language learners to learn. The materials could be in the form of a textbook, a video, a workbook, a newspaper, a photocopied handout, Youtube, emails etc (Tomlinson, 2011).

Teaching materials are the aids used by a teacher to help him/her deliver their lesson effectively. Learning materials are the aids used by the learners to help them learn effectively (Chanda, Phiri, Nkosh, & Tambulukani, 2001). Likewise, Darwis and Wanci (2019) explain that a lecturer needs not only a good strategy in teaching English but he/she also should have appropriate teaching materials for his/her students. They further clarify that a lecturer should notice the importance of teaching materials for teaching and learning process due to the material of a subject is able to be a variable that can inspire students' interest in learning.

According to Azarnoosh, Zeraatpishe, Faravani and Kargozari (2016) materials development is a real task that involves the production, evaluation, adaptation and exploitation of materials designed to the easiness of language acquisition and development. Besides as a practical undertaking, materials development is also an academic field of study which investigates the principles and procedures of the design, writing, implementation, evaluation and analysis of learning materials.

C. Reading and Text Types

Reading is a process which readers apply high strategy to construct meaning through kinds of strategies, for example activating background knowledge, checking and clarifying, predicting, drawing inferences, questioning and summarizing (Roit, 2015). He further explains that people who read strategically think what they read, develop reading strategies and skills, and learn to implement those strategies and skills to get meaning from different texts. There are kinds of texts and it depends on their purpose, structure and language features. One of the most common used classification text materials is that based on the purpose and meaning of the texts. According to Farvardin and Biria (2011) that there are two types of texts based on psychological genres of text comprehension: narrative and expository. Narrative texts are texts which the purpose is to entertain and expository texts are texts that the main purpose is to inform (Weaver & Kintsch, 1991). Similarly, Alderson (2000) claimed that both narrative and expository texts attract most researchers' attention due to the big differences between them. Narrative texts often use description, while expository texts frequently include all writing domains aspects.

D. Research Questions

Based on the introduction explained before, this study aimed to address the following research questions:

1. What types of texts do Chemical Engineering Students consider important for English reading materials?
2. What reading topics do Chemical Engineering Students consider important for English reading materials?

Methodology

A. Research Design

One of the most essential stages of research study is when it comes up to select the appropriate methods, whether using quantitative or qualitative research and perhaps the combination of both methods will offer the best study result. In other words, both have advantages, according to Patton (1990) that the advantage of a quantitative approach is that it is possible to evaluate the responses of lots of people with a set limited questions, as a result, facilitating judgment and statistical collection of the information. However, qualitative method normally generates a wealth of detailed data about a small number of groups and cases. Furthermore, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) stated that both qualitative and quantitative inquiry as tools of telling ideas and findings to others by using variety of forms, media, and means of communication. In this study, the researcher has opted for one testing instrument that is a survey questionnaire. In other words, the researcher chose quantitative approach as her research design due to the large number of research participants in her study.

B. Setting and Research Participants

All of the research participants involved in the study were 60 Chemical Engineering students in Polytechnic ATI of Makassar. All of them were students of semester 2 and 6 who have studied Practice Technical English 2 subject. They were taken through simple random sampling. The research was conducted at Polytechnic ATI of Makassar.

C. Research Instruments and Technique of Data Collection

Data were only collected through questionnaires. The questionnaires consisted of three sections. The first section aimed at gaining Chemical Engineering Students' General Information such as gender, age, last education and semester. The second section aimed at analyzing what Chemical Engineering Students consider important text types to be included in

English reading materials for Practice Technical English 2 subject. There were 12 questions in this section related to type of texts. The last section aimed at analyzing what Chemical Engineering Students consider important reading topics for English reading materials for Practice Technical English 2 subject. There were 13 questions about important Chemical Engineering reading topics in the last section of questionnaires.

In collecting data, the questionnaires were distributed to 60 students (two classes) of Chemical Engineering at Polytechnic ATI of Makassar during class hour on 7 and 14 of May 2019 and collected after the class hour.

D. Data Analysis

The questions of the questionnaires were analyzed by using SPSS 18,0. The analysis of data was based on the interpretations of frequencies and percentages of Chemical Engineering students' considerations whether the text types and reading topics were very important, moderately important or not important for English reading materials development of Practice Technical English 2 subject.

Results and Discussions

A. Results

The results of Chemical Engineering students general information shows that most of the research participants were 46 female (76,6%) and 14 male (23,3%). Most of the respondents of the study were under 20 years old (41 students) and between 20 – 25 years old (19 students). None of the students were above 25 years old. 83,3 percent (50 students) graduated from High School, Vocational High School were 15 percent (9 students) and only one student graduated from Religious School. Then, most of students who became the research participants of the study were still in semester 2, while the rests were Chemical Engineering students who were in semester 6.

1. Chemical Engineering students responses on important text types for English reading materials

The results of Chemical Engineering students preferences towards the most important type of text for Practice Technical English 2 as follows:

Table 1. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Factual Description

		Factual_Description			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	5	8,3	8,3	8,3
	Moderately important	30	50,0	50,0	58,3
	Very important	25	41,7	41,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 1 above shows that 25 (41,7%) of Chemical Engineering students considered Factual Description were very important text types to be included into reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject. While, 30 (50%) of Chemical Engineering students thought that “Factual Description” was moderately important and there were 5 (8,3%) of students who considered “Factual Description” was not important to be counted in Practice Technical English 2 subject reading materials.

Table 2. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Factual Recount

		Factual_Recount			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	5	8,3	8,3	8,3
	Moderately important	27	45,0	45,0	53,3
	Very important	28	46,7	46,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 2 above shows that there were 28 (46,7%) of Chemical Engineering students considered “Factual Recount” were very important. 27 (45%) of Chemical Engineering students thought “Factual Recount” were moderately important and only 5 (8,3%) of students considered not important.

Table 3. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Information Report

		Information_Report			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	6	10,0	10,0	10,0
	Moderately important	32	53,3	53,3	63,3
	Very important	22	36,7	36,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 3 presents Chemical Engineering students’ responses on “Information Report”. There were 32 (53,3%) of students responded that “Information Report” was moderately important to be included as English reading materials for Practice Technical English 2 subject. There

were 36,7% (22) of students answered that “Information Report” was very important and only 10 percent (10) of students said not important.

Table 4. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Procedure

		Procedure			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	3	5,0	5,0	5,0
	Moderately important	20	33,3	33,3	38,3
	Very important	37	61,7	61,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 4 shows that most of Chemical Engineering students (61,7%) agreed that “Procedure” was very important to be included as reading materials for Practice Technical English 2 subject. There were 33,3% (20) of students considered “Procedure” was moderately important and there were 5% (3) said not important.

Table 5. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Procedural Account

		Procedural_Account			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	4	6,7	6,7	6,7
	Moderately important	13	21,7	21,7	28,3
	Very important	43	71,7	71,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 5 shows that most of Chemical Engineering students (71,7%) responded “Procedural Account” was very important text type to be included for reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject. There were 13 (21,7%) of students answered “Procedural Account” was moderately important and only 5 (6,7%) of students said not important.

Table 6. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Explanation

		Explanation			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	7	11,7	11,7	11,7
	Moderately important	26	43,3	43,3	55,0
	Very important	27	45,0	45,0	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 6 shows that percentage of Chemical Engineering students responded “Explanation” was very important and moderately important almost have equal frequency and percentage that is 27 (45%) and 26 (43,3%). Only, 7 (11,7%) of students answered not important.

Table 7. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Exposition

		Exposition			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	5	8,3	8,3	8,3
	Moderately important	25	41,7	41,7	50,0
	Very important	30	50,0	50,0	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 7 illustrates that 50% (30) of Chemical Engineering students answered that ‘Exposition’ was a very important text type for reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject. Then, 25 students (41,7%) responded “Exposition” was moderately important and there were only 5 students (8,3%) said it was not important.

Table 8. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Discussion

		Discussion			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	12	20,0	20,0	20,0
	Moderately important	17	28,3	28,3	48,3
	Very important	31	51,7	51,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 8 illustrates that 31 (51,7%) students of Chemical Engineering responded “Discussion” text type was very important and 17 (28,3%) answered moderately important for reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject. There were 12 (20%) students said that “Discussion” text type was not important.

Table 9. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Magazines

		Magazines			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	9	15,0	15,0	15,0
	Moderately important	12	20,0	20,0	35,0
	Very important	39	65,0	65,0	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 9 shows that “Magazines” was chosen very important by most of Chemical Engineering students about 65% (39 of 60). There were 12 students (20%) of 60 chose “Magazines” moderately important and 15% (9 of 60) not important text type for reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject.

Table 10. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Journals

		Journals			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	1	1,7	1,7	1,7
	Moderately important	12	20,0	20,0	21,7
	Very important	47	78,3	78,3	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 10 shows that “Journals” was the vast majority choice of Chemical Engineering students about 78,3% (47 of 60) agreed it was very important. There were 12 (20%) students considered “Journals” moderately important and only 1 student (1,7%) chose not important to be included as reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject.

Table 11. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Textbooks

		Textbooks			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Moderately important	11	18,3	18,3	18,3
	Very important	49	81,7	81,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Based on the results of Chemical Engineering students questionnaire, table 9 shows the vast majority of Chemical Engineering students considered “Textbooks” was very important text type about 81,7% and 18,3% answered moderately important for reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject. None of the students chose not important for “Textbooks” as reading materials.

Table 12. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Textbooks

		Articles			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	1	1,7	1,7	1,7
	Moderately important	16	26,7	26,7	28,3
	Very important	43	71,7	71,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 12 illustrates most of Chemical Engineering students 71,7 percent responded that “Articles” was very important text type for reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject, 16 (26,7%) answered moderately important, and only 1 (1,7%) of student said not important.

2. Chemical Engineering students responses on important reading topics for English reading materials

Table 1. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Seaweed

Seaweed					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	18	30,0	30,0	30,0
	Moderately important	33	55,0	55,0	85,0
	Very important	9	15,0	15,0	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 1 shows most of Chemical Engineering students 55 percent or 33 students answered that “Seaweed” was moderately important reading topics for reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject, 9 (15%) said very important and 18 (30%) of student said not important.

Table 2. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Hydrogen

Hydrogen					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Moderately important	14	23,3	23,3	23,3
	Very important	46	76,7	76,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 2 shows that “Hydrogen” was a very important reading topic to be included into reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 for Chemical Engineering students. This can be seen from the vast majority choice of Chemical Engineering students about 76,7 percent (46) considered it very important and 14 percent (23,3%) students also considered it moderately important to be included as reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject. There were not any Chemical Engineering students chose “Hydrogen” was not important as a reading topic.

Table 3. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Methane Gas

Methane_gas					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Moderately important	11	18,3	18,3	18,3
	Very important	49	81,7	81,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 3 presents “methane gas” as the “very important” reading subject for Chemical Engineering students. It can be seen from percentage students choices were 81,7 percent or 49 students considered it very important to be included into reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 of Chemical Engineering Department. 11 (18,3%) of students also thought that “Methane gas” was “Moderately important” as their reading materials and none of students believed that “Methane gas” was not important reading topic.

Table 4. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on The Chemical Future of Coal

The_Chemical_future_of_coal					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Moderately important	10	16,7	16,7	16,7
	Very important	50	83,3	83,3	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 4 illustrates that the reading topic of “The Chemical Future of Coal” was considered very important by Chemical Engineering students about 83,3 percent or 50 students and only 10 (16,7%) of students thought it was moderately important. None of Chemical Engineering students thought it was not an important reading topic to be included into reading materials of Practice Technical English 2.

Table 5. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on How gas is made

How_gas_is_made					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Moderately important	10	16,7	16,7	16,7
	Very important	50	83,3	83,3	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 5 presents percentage of Chemical Engineering students who chose “How gas is made” as a very important reading topic for reading materials. About 83,3 percent (50 of 60) of Chemicals Engineering students considered “How gas is made” was very important reading topic and 16, 7 percent (10 of 60) of students believed it was moderately important. None of students thought “How gas is made” was an important reading topic for reading materials.

Table 6. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Oxygen

Oxygen					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Moderately important	10	16,7	16,7	16,7
	Very important	50	83,3	83,3	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 6 shows that the vast majority of Chemical Engineering students believed that “Oxygen” was a very important reading topic for reading materials and this can be seen from the percentage (83,3%) and frequency (50 of 60) of Chemical Engineering students choices on “Oxygen” reading topic and only 10 of 60 (16,7%) students considered “Oxygen” as moderately important. While, none of students thought “Oxygen” was not an important reading topic.

Table 7. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on The Cell

The_cell					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	6	10,0	10,0	10,0
	Moderate important	35	58,3	58,3	68,3
	Very important	19	31,7	31,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 7 shows that “the cell” reading topic was moderate important to be included into reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 for Chemical Engineering students. This can be seen from the vast majority choice of Chemical Engineering students about 58,3 percent (35 of 60) considered it moderate important and 31,7 percent (19 of 60) students also considered it very important to be included as reading materials of Practice Technical English 2 subject. There were only 6 (10%) students chose “the cell” was not important as a reading topic.

Table 8. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Liquid Air

Liquid_air					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	1	1,7	1,7	1,7
	Moderately important	15	25,0	25,0	26,7
	Very important	44	73,3	73,3	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 8 illustrates that the reading topic of “liquid air” was considered very important by Chemical Engineering students about 73,3 percent or 44 students and 15 (25%) of students

thought it was moderately important. Only 1 (1,7) of Chemical Engineering students thought it was not an important reading topic to be included into reading materials of Practice Technical English 2.

Table 9. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on The Atom

The_atom		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Not important	1	1,7	1,7	1,7
	Moderately important	14	23,3	23,3	25,0
	Very important	45	75,0	75,0	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 9 presents percentage of Chemical Engineering students who chose “the atom” as a very important reading topic for reading materials. About 75 percent (45 of 60) of Chemicals Engineering students considered “the atom” was very important reading topic and 23,3 percent (14 of 60) of students believed it was moderately important. Only 1 (1,7%) of students thought “the atom” was not an important reading topic for reading materials.

Table 10. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Liquid Waste

Liquid_waste		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Moderate important	17	28,3	28,3	28,3
	Very important	43	71,7	71,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 10 shows that the majority of Chemical Engineering students believed that “liquid waste” was a very important reading topic for reading materials and this can be seen from the percentage (71,7%) of Chemical Engineering students choices on “liquid waste” as a reading topic and only 17 of 60 (16,7%) students considered “liquid waste” as moderaly important.

Table 11. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Solid Waste

Solid_waste		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Moderately important	20	33,3	33,3	33,3
	Very important	40	66,7	66,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 11 presents percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses who chose “solid waste” as reading materials. About 66,7 percent (40 of 60) of Chemicals Engineering students considered “solid waste” was very important reading topic and 33,3 percent (20 of 60) of students believed it was moderately important.

Table 12. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Basic Laboratory Work

Basic_Laboratory_Work					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Moderately important	14	23,3	23,3	23,3
	Very important	46	76,7	76,7	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 12 illustrates that the reading topic of “Basic Laboratory Work” was considered very important by Chemical Engineering students about 76,7 percent (46 of 60) and 23,3 percent (14 of 60) responded it was moderately important.

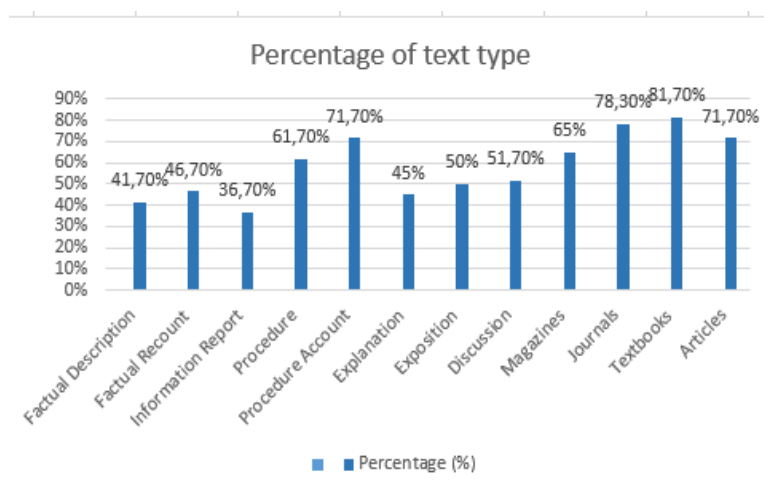
Table 13. Percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on Basic Chemistry

Basic_chemistry					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Moderately important	13	21,7	21,7	21,7
	Very important	47	78,3	78,3	100,0
	Total	60	100,0	100,0	

Table 13 presents percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses who chose “Basic chemistry” as reading materials. About 78,3 percent (47 of 60) of Chemicals Engineering students considered “Basic chemistry” was very important reading topic and 21,7 percent (13 of 60) of students responded it was moderately important.

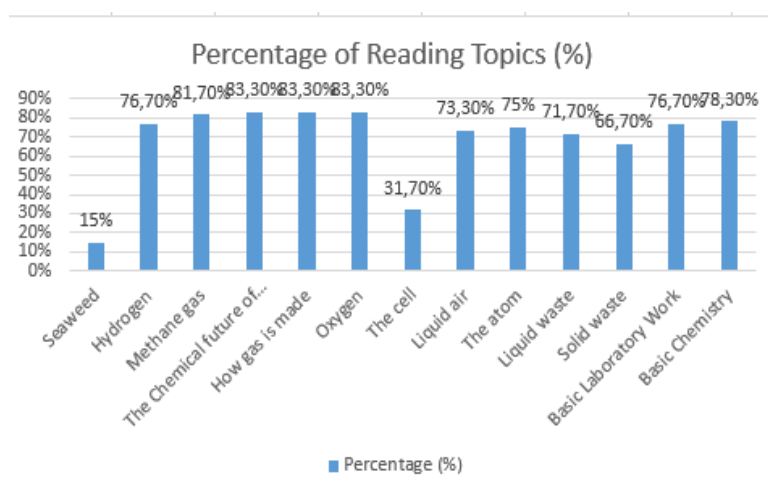
B. Discussions

Figure 1. The percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on text type



This section reveals that the analysis of Chemical Engineering students' needs on text type and reading topics for English reading materials development. The first bar chart shows that the vast majority of Chemical Engineering students respond that "textbooks" are the most important text type to be included into their English reading materials. This can be seen from the single bar chart that the number of Chemical Engineering who chose "textbooks" about 81,7 percent. It is the highest percentage of text type choices from students. Then, the second most important text type goes to "journals", it is approximately 78,3 percent. It means that Chemical Engineering students still consider that "journals" are also very important to be included as reading materials. Then, both "procedural account" and "articles" get 71,7 percent of students' responses who think that these two type of texts are very important as reading materials for Practice Technical English 2 in Chemical Engineering Department. Moreover, some other students also argue that "magazines" are also very important text type for English reading materials. The bar chart shows that sixty-five percent of Chemical Engineering students responses go to "magazines" as text type for English reading materials. Then, it is followed by the percentage of responses for choosing "procedure", "discussion", and "exposition" which are lower than magazines that is 61,7 percent, 51,7 percent and 50 percent. The four lowest important of Chemical Engineering students responses on text types for English reading materials are "factual recount", "explanation", "factual description" and "information report". The bar chart presents the percentages as follows 46,7 percent, 45 percent, 41,7 percent and 36,7 percent.

Figure 2. The percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on reading topics



The second bar chart presents the percentage of Chemical Engineering students responses on the importance of reading topics for English reading materials. The chart shows that “the chemical future of coal”, “how gas is made” and “oxygen” are the three highest percentage of reading topics that is 83,3 percent. It indicates that the three reading topics are the most important reading topics to be included into English reading materials for Practice Technical English 2 based on students’ needs analysis. The chart also reveals that Chemical Engineering students also consider other reading topics are also very important as reading materials for Practice Technical English 2 such as “methane gas (81,7%)”, “basic chemistry (78,3%)”, “basic laboratory work (76,7%)”, “hydrogen (76,7%)” and “the atom (75%)”. “Liquid air (73,3%)”, “liquid waste (71,7%)” and “solid waste (66,7%)” are also considered very important by Chemical Engineering students for reading materials development although the percentages of students’ responses are not as much as other reading topics mentioned before. The two lowest important of reading topics chosen by Chemical Engineering students are “the cell” is about 31,7 percent and “seaweed” is 15 percent.

C. Conclusion

This study aimed at investigating Chemical Engineering students responses of text types and reading topics for English reading materials development at Polytechnic ATI of Makassar. Based on the percentage of students’ responses, the five most important text type chosen by Chemical Engineering students are “textbooks (81,7%)”, “journal (78,3%)”, “procedural account (71,7%)”, “articles (71,7%)” and “magazines (65%)” as English reading materials for Practice Technical English 2 in Chemical Engineering Department. The rests (procedure,

discussion, and exposition) are also very important but the percentage of each text type is lower than the five text type considered the most important by Chemical Engineering students.

Futhermore, based on the results and discussion, the highest percentage of reading topics considered the most important by Chemical Engineering students for English reading materials are “the chemical future of coal (83,3%)”, “how gas is made (83,3%)”, “oxygen (83,3%)”, “methane gas (81,7%)”, “basic chemistry (78,3%)”, “basic laboratory work (76,7%)”, “hydrogen (76,7%)” and “the atom (75%)”. The other reading topics (liquid air, liquid waste and solid waste) are also considered very important by Chemical Engineering students but the percentage of students’ responses are lower than other reading topics mentioned before.

The findings of this research have a pedagogical implication. A designer or a lecturer can make use of the findings of the study to redesign and develop new English reading materials that fit to chemical engineering students’ needs at Polytechnic ATI of Makassar. With new English reading materials, chemical engineering students can improve their reading comprehension skills due to the variations of reading texts types during reading comprehension activities. Also, chemical engineering students of Polytechnic ATI of Makassar can advance their knowledge and horizon through the chemical engineering reading topics that match with their educational background. However, it needs to be considered that this study only employed questionnaires as its data collection. It is recommended that future research may employ mixed research methods that it is not only the result of questionnaires used as primary data, but also the result of interview from students and English lecturers. It is also recommended that future studies may investigate a large sample of chemical engineering students from other universities or educational institutions so that the findings of this future study can be used not only in Polytechnic ATI of Makassar but also for all of chemical engineering students from other universities.

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The Function of L1 and L2 Working Memory (WM) in the Reading skill of Saudi EFL Learners

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Abstract

Reading is a creative, complicated method with several components based on a variety of different skills, whose aim is to establish the meaning of the term based on working memory. The merging study adds to the dearth of literature regarding the roles of L1 and L2 Working memory to reading comprehension skill. Primarily, the present study is a descriptive correlational research venture to explore the role of L1 and L2 working memory and processing of Saudi EFL learners to their level of reading comprehension. The respondents of the study were 86 Saudi EFL learners from Qassim University in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). It utilized the three necessary research instruments: Reading Span Test (RST) for Arabic and English, and a reading comprehension test, which is story-based. Results revealed that between the L1 and L2 storage abilities of the students, no significant difference is seen. It is also known that WM ability plays a vital role in reading skill. Finally, the L2 reading span is closely related to the inferential reading comprehension of the students.

Keywords – *Reading Comprehension, Working memory, Decoding, Inferential, Language Learning, Saudi EFL Learners, Qassim University*

Introduction

Reading is a sophisticated cognitive awareness dependent on several mechanisms. It involves conscious processes, word-level method. The primary skill to understand texts is to create coherent mental representations. Such capacity puts intense demands on both the working memory retrieval and storage roles (Baddeley, 1986; Baddeley, Hitch, & Allen, 2019; Repovš & Baddeley, 2006). In keeping with this opinion, inadequate comprehension was found to perform more badly in storage and retrieval activities that involve coordination. In contrast, sound and weak comprehend comparable in standard short-term memory research. The reading comprehension takes place in working memory (Argyropoulos et al., 2017; Elsayyad et al., 2017; Grabe & Stoller, 2019). Literature has demonstrated the linked between working memory and reading comprehension in the first language (L1) (Daugaard, Cain, & Elbro, 2017; Nouwens, Groen & Verhoeven, 2017; Wang & Lin, 2019).

Work memory takes a significant part of learning. It helps readers to carry out all the read activities. Working memory is the method of store and control knowledge momentarily (Baddeley, 2017). Researchers agree that short-term memory is essential for understanding comprehension. Working memory capability improves with age and is based on brain frontal lobes growth (Di Rosa et al., 2017). The brain can not process and store knowledge unless it is properly established. In other terms, a balance occurs between interpreting terms and understanding what they say. The brain will do both, just not both (Price, Catrambone & Engle, 2017). Considering that reading is a creative, complicated method with several components based on a variety of different skills, whose aim is to establish the meaning of the term based on encrypted information. The useful analysis is rendered because the user's previous experience incorporates interpreted text information into three principal operations. The comprehension of textual content, the conversion into sentences, sentences and paragraphs and the integration of prior knowledge of text content. The potential of human learners to influence the experience of reading, like work memory, is a complex learning power.

Theoretical Grounding

This study is anchored to the theory of information processing (Kieffer & Christodoulou, 2020; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). The information processing model is described by the processing series of visual knowledge, including auditory, phonological and episodic memories, to be

understood by the semantic system finally. The training that takes place at any stage is required to be perfected and the degree calculated by two criteria: precision and automaticity. Consistency of findings needs attention for processing; not at the motorized stage. Experimental methods are established for measuring the degree of automaticity in perceptual and associative learning study. Hence, This research examines the function of Saudi EFL students' working memory and perception in their level of reading comprehension of both L1 and L2.

Analysis has shown that work memory capability (WM) in both 1st (L1) and 2nd (L2) languages are very challenging and that it does not have a linguistic central relationship (Frank, Trompenaars & Vasishth, 2016; Jung, 2018; Osaka, Osaka & Groner, 1993; Shekari & Schwieter, 2019). It indicates that high-span reading oriented people are more exposed to their language than low-span reading individuals (native or foreign). A minor correlation between L1 and L2 capacities has been identified in several other studies (Indrarathne & Kormos, 2018). These findings indicate that L1 and L2 usually use the same WM approaches. As the above studies have been performed with expert, it cannot be verified that the relationship between L1 and L2 to WM capabilities affects the level of competence of L2. The need to assess WM performance in L1 or L2 is a fundamental question for determining the relationship between WM capability and L2 comprehension. Recent research on the relationship between WM and L2 nevertheless indicate that although L2 WM's effects are apparent, L1 WM's are not evident at all.

Students that can not understand texts can not appreciate reading. Furthermore, a loss of comprehension may be attributed to several factors. EFL students who have a foreign-language problem appear to have multiple issues in interpreting the language-related reading materials. Therefore, previous information (schemata) allows students to grasp resources for reading and to create understanding (Nozen et al., 2017). Past reading comprehension findings indicate that several conditions impede students' perception of reading such as low level of phonemic awareness (Taibah & Haynes, 2011; Tibi & Kirby, 2018), moderate levels of vocabulary skill and early literacy skills (Fernandes et al. 2017; Suggate et al., 2018).

Another critical aspect that influences students' ability to learn work memory (WM) (Argyropoulos et al., 2017; Elsayyad et al., 2017; Friedman et al., 2017; Joh & Plakans, 2017; Martin et al., 2019). A rather robust memory allows writers to retain short-term thinking abilities. Therefore, by remembering what is read, the student may understand and activate prior awareness about a topic or determine the significance of a term in context. Rezaei and Jeddi (2020) also stated that readers could not remember ordered details specifically relevant

to the phonological memory systems. In learning, phonological knowledge processing is essential. There is also a secure connection between work memory, reading comprehension and students' academic performance (Alloway et al., 2009; Peng et al., 2018).

Several studies conducted in the Arab context with regards to language skills particularly on reading comprehension were carried out, Korat et al. (2013) explored the connection between storybook reading and home literacy, finding that mothers have a significant role in reading and literacy. AL-Sobhi, Rashid and Abdullah (2018) found out that the positive relationship between reading skill and attitude. In like manner, Mahmoud (2015) reported that language teaching including of that reading in the Arab world should be culture-sensitive while Al-Awidi and Ismail (2014) recognize the role of teachers in computer language learning in enhancing the reading skill of Arab students. Moreover, studies conveyed the need for curriculum interventions to focus on the development of communicative competence of Saudi EFL learners towards global competencies in English language (Al-AHda & Al-Awaied, 2014; Al-Ahdal & Alfallaj & Al-Awaied, 2014; Al-Ahdal et al., 2015).

Limited studies delved into the function of WM in the reading comprehension of Saudi students. Hence, factors such as cognitive capacity, text sophistication, quality of the context may decide the degree of reading comprehension. It is often assumed that if the students have adequate L1 and L2 working memory may predict their reading comprehension. This research aims to explore the role of the first and second languages towards working memory and processing of Saudi EFL learners to their level of reading comprehension.

Objectives of the study

The following research questions were examined: (1) Will the quality of tasks production and the storage space between L1 and L2 period tasks vary greatly? (2) Is there a relation between the reading comp spans in L1 and L2? (3) Are human variations in L1 and L2 readings related to students reading comprehension?

Relevance to International Context

Reading is marked by meaning. In most countries, bilingual literacy and English learning are now a big focus for citizens, education and national growth and globalization. English is still commonly spoken worldwide. None will dispute that in Asian countries it is a second or foreign language popular. Skills in English include jobs, education and domestic development gatekeepers. It means the critical position of Asia's and Philippines' English language education. The study suggests that EFL students experience speech disorders that can be

overcome by introducing remediation steps into their educational paradigm. Many language disabilities will be discussed, along with the opinions of students and instructors on these disabilities. In conclusion, the report would provide policymakers in Saudi Arabia's education system with suggestions to make improvements to address this issue.

Materials and methods

Respondents

Participants were 86 Saudi EFL students presently enrolled in Qassim University in Saudi Arabia. They were successful at the university's English literacy test, as shown in their TOEFL paper and pencil scores. They also received extensive oral skills training. As presented in Figure 1, most of the participants were female, ages 26-30. They were deemed to be able to employ high- understanding techniques with minimum competence in TOEFL and sufficient reading ability in Arabic.

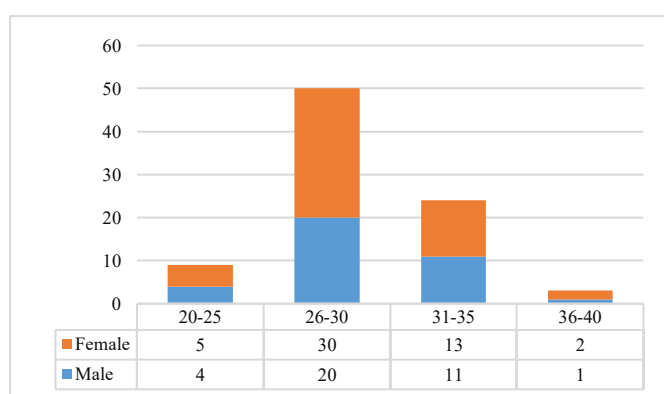


Figure 1. Sampling Characteristics of Respondents (n=86)

Private information and details received by the researchers have been handled confidentially depending on the ethical study criterion. A formal request was submitted and accepted by the authority prior to the registration, recognition and screening of the participants. The respondents have followed the data protection agreement application. Data protection agreement form.

Research Instruments and Procedures

The following are the research instruments of the study:

The Reading Span Test in Arabic and English

It has been adopted from Danish and Carpenter (1980) initial research where the Harrington and Sawyer (1992) guidelines have been included (Cunnings, 2017; Nouwens, Groen, & Verhoeven 2017). The measure consisted of four stages from two to five, with five acts at each point. The RST contained a grammatical comprehension check to insure the participants should not only focus on final words but also evaluate each phrase for grammar. There were 35 grammatical phrases and 35 unintentionally arranged ungrammatical phrases. Each paragraph existed only once. On the same sentence sets, participants were tested. After reading all five sets in one point, they went to the next level 1. The researchers took the RST one in Arabic ($\alpha=.83$) and one in English ($\alpha=.87$) with a period of three weeks for the two administrations. The tests were conducted in a simulated laboratory which were done automatically, with all sentences in a series being shown at intervals of seven seconds, one sentence after the other. Throughout the recording of sentences, one of two electronic keys was pushed by participants to signify that a specific phrase was grammatical or ungrammatical. Whereas the participants' judgements on the morphological quality of the sentences became the duration of understanding measurements, the total amount of the completed sentences correctly reported was used as the focus measure. The test scores were calculated by translating word alert, and sentence rating to z rating and their mean (Larigauderie, Guignouard, & Olive, 2020; Peng et al., 2018; Waters & Caplan, 1996).

Reading Comprehension Test

Delmore Schwartz (1978) American short story with 2270 characters was used in decoding reading comprehension in L2. The book 'In visions tend to be responsible' is an autobiographical story that takes place at the beginning of the 1900s in New York City, as immigrants struggle to look for ways towards the new world. The competing challenges are prosperous sector and economic growth and social issues generated by significant financial changes in modern society. The plot describes a newly rich man's thoughts and actions to marry a lady.

Due to a memorandum prejudice correlated with specific recall activities (Alptekin, 2006; Chang, 2006; Shin, Dronjic, & Park, 2019; Javidanmehr & Anani Sarab, 2019; Grabe & Jiang, 2013), a multiple-choice evaluation assessed the participants' comprehension of the text (Pearson and Johnson, 1978). The study included a total of 20 queries, half of which were evident in writing, and the other half were ambiguous in text or scripture. Questions were not classified by type; they followed the story. In brief, simple descriptive questions tested readers'

fundamental comprehension such that their responses could be directly drawn from the text. It was hoped that the listener would understand the author's meaning by extracting a context from sentences, mixing concepts and phrases, and rendering the text more consistent with accurate inferences. Conversely, textually or scripturally tacit questions assessed inferential knowledge, which involved a broader reading of the text by moving into the language-based to create the scenario model. Inferential questions primarily focused on two forms of inferences: connective and comprehensive. For the former, various texts were coupled with prior awareness of the subject to define the expected context of the speaker, whereas the latter had to move outside the textbase to create a theoretical model of the entire language.

Results

L1 and L2 reading span test (rst) results

The participants reported better performance for L1 for both processing and storage tasks (Table 1). The mean-variance between L1 and L2 is nevertheless small, with more significant variability as regards the disparity in processing activities in them. The average performance of both language processing tasks (L1 and L2) is higher than other languages for storage activities. Post-hoc analyses indicate that the processing activities are done higher than storage activities by the participants.

Table 1. Descriptive Results of L1 and L2 Reading

	<i>Mean (n=86)</i>	<i>Standard Deviation</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>
L1 processing	62.45	5.67	65	65
L1 storage	47.65	6.45	42	63
L2 processing	57.27	4.34	34	65
L2 storage	47.22	8.34	36	75

Relationship between L1 and L2 reading span measures

In Table 2, it presents the significant relationship between RS in the first and second languages (L1 and L2) to WM. A strong correlation was revealed for L1 and L2 storage capacities. Tasks of the same type appear favourable. So, since people have large storage capacity in L1, the storage capacity in L2 will be smaller. The precision of task execution in L1 also suggests that task management is accurate in L2. The function of recovery and storage, on the other hand, is negatively associated with L1, although there is no association between the two tasks in L2. Composite L1 and L2 WM scores are generally helpful in contrast, but the correlation between processing and storage is not as strong as observed.

Table 2. Relationship between the Language ANxiety and Disorder Factors

	<i>L1 Storage</i>	<i>L2 Processing</i>	<i>L2 storage</i>	Grand Mean L1 Working Memory Capacity	Grand Mean L2 Working Memory Capacity
L1 processing	-.453**	.345**	-.345**	.454**	.079
L1 storage	-	.446*	.567**	.367**	.412
L2 processing		-	-.254	2.93	.325**
L2 storage			-	.653	.654**
Grand Mean L1 Working Memory Capacity				-	.341*

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .001$

Test of Relationship between L1(Arabic) and L2 (English) Working Memory Capacity capacities with L2 reading comprehension

The first language processing, first language storage and second language data values do not provide a clear or inferential meaning related to L2 comprehension. The inferential definition was the only significant connection between inference and L2 and inferential and comparable L2 WM scores. Through measuring these relationships, partial correlations have been formed, taking into consideration the primary correlations between L1 and L2 and the composite values. After evaluating the interaction between L1 and L2, the association of inferential familiarity with L2 processing was diminished significantly. The mixture of inferential perception with L2 WM composite values declined marginally, after the association between L1 and L2 WM ratings were taken into account. These findings show that WM's abilities play a significant role in detecting inferential interpretation, but not in actually reading. The inferential awareness of L2 corresponds primarily to the capacity of L2 WM instead of L1 WM.

Discussion

The first analysis, which finds that WM's specific and broad capabilities vary from L1 to L2, indicates that L2 users can function more effectively in L1, although both L1 and L2 have identical data capacities. Such findings, therefore, refute the reports of previous studies about the handling of the L1 as opposed to the L2 (Nowbakht, 2019; Serafini & Sanz, 2016; Shekari, 2020). Nevertheless, in general, they accept the opinion that WM ability correlates with language competence because of the less essential variances between L1 and L2 in the case of competent L2 users (McDonald, J. L. (2006; Christoffels et al., 2006; Marini, Eliseeva, & Fabbro, 2019; Bartolotti & Marian, 2017; Sagarra, 2017).

The second research query, which focuses on the correlation between L1 and L2 WM capabilities, has been found out positively correlated. The results reveal a close relationship between L1 and L2 processing tasks on the one side and L1 or L2 storage tasks on the other. But when composite values are compared, the association between L1 and L2 WM scores

decreases. The findings of these studies support the association between L1 WM potential and L2 WM capability through languages (Chang et al., 2019; Ellis et al., 2019; Indrarathne & Kormos, 2018; Joh & Plakans, 2017; Larigauderie, Guignouard, & Olive, 2020; Malachi, 2019; Miyake & Friedman, 1998; Pae & Sevcik, 2017; Shin, Dronjic, & Park, 2019).

The adverse association of processing and storage in L1 indicates the reconstruction of the WM elements of processing and storage (Cowan, 2017; Denmark and Carpenter, 1980; Goller, Banks & Meier, 2020). This discovery poses questions about the close ties between processing and retraction in subjects that consider the more unbiased elements that most frequently perform the retrieval method (Conway et al., 2005; Kanerva et al., 2019; Nouwens, Groen, & Verhoeven, 2016). There is a somewhat unexpected, but not unavoidable, relation between processing and storage in the L2, as agreement can only be achieved if the working memory is not fully exhausted by processing (Towse, Hitch & Horton 2019). Participants who take RST in their L2 usually invest far more on their cognitive capital than on L1 because L2 is more automatic than L1 (Dronjic, 2013; Liu, 2009). Also, the findings of this study indicate a slightly lower mean for processing precision in L2 than in L1. It is to be claimed that L2 processing puts higher pressure on the WM, which allows participants to move from processing to storage task specifications. The absence of a substantial connection between processing and storage in the L2 thus indicates that workpieces are handled and deposited separately while work is performed in the second language (Ferrara & Panlilio, 2020; Tam et al., 2010; Zhang & Joshi, 2020). The retrieval aspect of the function causes time to be lost because of a lack of knowledge dependent on interruption. Nevertheless, processing also dictates how long knowledge has to be processed and lost in the brain (Baddeley, 2007) for a thorough review of the processing-storage relationship).

Significant findings were obtained on the third research problem concerning the relationship between the differences in the reading span of L1 and L2 and reading comprehension in L2. First of all, the specific experience did not lead to any WM power estimation. This indicates that functional comprehension as a tool dependent on data basically relies on linguistic capability and surface-reading characteristics (for example, decoding, syntax parsing), and thus does not impose a strong cognitive 'intrinsic' burden in WM performance, that is, the burden of the underlying reading difficulties (Gawad et al., 2020; Paas, Renkl, & Sweller, 2003; The highly qualified L2 consumer will use high quality of automatic production at equal standards of microstructural and macrostructural operations. In other terms, it is not an essential task for WM to reflect the linguistic and propositional properties of a text with competent L2 readers.

Despite the absence of competition for unnecessary managed management activities, there are no substantial criteria for WM capability executive focus trials (Yeo & Tzeng, 2020).

For more inferential presentation, L2 processing is not related to L2 storage. This observation is in line with the suggestion from Waters and Caplan (1996), that 'the Spanish-specific aspect of processing accounts for much of the regional discrepancies between phase-specific tasks and read-understanding tasks. Still, the recovery period provides a limited yet significant contribution. Working memory performance testing activities will often tap similar, if not identical, reading (Crossley et al., 2017; Koda, 2007). Computer processes used in reading RST phrases will then be the WM capacity of the better writers, allowing residual control of the sentence-end duration, processing calculations for WM and reading capacities the same.

Multi-choice questions certainly checked the reader's capacity to cope with challenges and thought objectively regarding a current text. We are also suitable for making inferences. In the other side, it can not be concluded that people whose reading performance is measured by recall tasks have correctly assessed their readability.

Furthermore, remembering activities fails to adequately evaluate inferential comprehension as they depend on "thinking bias" (Park & Nassif, 2014; Tamrackitkun, 2010) which equates memory to understanding, contribute to confusion on how well text elements are recovered and how much information is extracted from the previous source of knowledge. Further, the focus on the key problems in the document is hindering strong inferences, often at the expense of less precise items, because it is not possible to link the associated textual facts with the applicable information without too detailed indirect descriptions (Alptekin & Erçetin, 2011; Erçetin & Alptekin, 2013; Erten & Razi, 2009). A further finding concerns the composite L2 WM power values which are favourable for inferential interpretation.

This finding is compatible with the claim of Waters and Caplan (1996) that WM capability is a more accurate indicator of reading comprehension, provided that composite tests require documentation. This may be a warning that syntactical sorting and lexical comprehension is important for less cerebral reading processes. Most precisely, it illustrates how inferential analysis is considerably most cognitively demanding and requires reasoning within the text and a strong comprehension of its meaning.

Inferential comprehension, therefore, places added strain on the WM. They were ensuring that adequate text data are retained in an appropriate and usable sense, thus avoiding redundant data. Extensive concentration controls will fail and hinder perception if inferential criteria exceed the upper limit. The depleted World Cup can not retrieve knowledge from the 'long-term memory' (Ericsson & Kinsch, 1995; Cain, Oakhill & Bryant, 2004) which provided a

better comprehension of the wording⁴. The analysis concludes that the strength of L2 and the effects of L2 processing are comparatively declining as compared to the inferential encryption of L2. In the absence of an acceptable interaction between the L1 WM and the unequal interpretation, this finding will help the assertion that the output of the L1 WM is not impaired directly by the L2 readability but by the mediation of the L2-2 readability. Nonetheless, as mentioned above both constructions appear to rely on the same or identical cognitive constructs that are used in inferential rather than indirect reading (Miyake and Friedman, 1998; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Révész, 2012).

Conclusion

Reading is an innovative, dynamic approach based on a variety of techniques, and the aim is to evaluate the meaning of the term based on working memory. This research adds to the scarcity of literature on the interaction between L1 and L2. This research is, therefore, a concise association analysis undertaking that examines the role of L1 and L2 in the working memories and perception of Saudi EFL students in their reading comprehension. 86 Saudi EFL students from Qassim University in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) were the research respondents. He used the three primary research instruments: Reading Spanish Test (RST) in English; Reading Spanish Test in Arabic; and Story-based English Reading Knowing Test. Results revealed that there is no significant difference between the L1 and L2 students' storage capacity when it is observed that WM strength plays an essential part in Saudi EFL students' perception of reading. Finally, the reading range of L2 is strongly related to the perception of L2 inferential.

The article has a lot to do with potential research. First, the study of the WM capacity feature in L2 measures WM functionality in L2, rather than L1. Although the reading period L1-L2 is essential, the reading period L2 tends to be more directly related to L2. Second, such plays can be focused on both the primary and inferential aspects of reading independently and not on the comprehension reading as a global context, since WM's capacity appears to be correlated with these two aspects of readability. Finally, the absence of a connection between WM's ability and a practical understanding of potential users can clarify why reasonable comprehension is better for these individuals.

Interestingly, there is a significant relation between L2 WM and the actual readings of less qualified L2 users and, if so, how it influences the relationship of L2 WM to L2. The operation of professional development for language art teachers, based on the merits and advantages of reading comprehension, is part of the current KSA educational model. Having achieved the

specified objectives of this research, this research has numerous drawbacks that could impact on future studies. The analysis is restricted only to a specific sample size of Saudi EFL learners, which may be a limiting element in measuring discrepancies.

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