LILA '17 / IV. INTERNATIONAL LINGUISTICS AND LANGUAGE STUDIES CONFERENCE

CONTENTS

INITIAL EXPERIENCE REPORT ABOUT THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TO A BLIND STUDENT

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Abstract

The research and extension project "Expanding Horizons; Decreasing Barriers: English as Foreign Language for Visually Impaired" was designed to cater to a demand presented by a student of the journalism course of the Federal University of Tocantins who requested help in relation to material for English language learning in Braille. During an initial conversation, the student reported that she sought to learn the language in English Courses and autodidactically, however, she realized that the study through listening and speaking activities did not consider an integral learning of the language, as it happens to students without disabilities. From the demand presented, great uneasiness and questioning emerged, such as, the process of teaching English, principally in Braille written, considering many peculiarities of the language, especially in relation to the pronunciation of words which writing differs from its diction. In addition, it is highlighted the lack of specific training to work with students with disabilities in the classroom, particularly with regard to L2 learning. Thus, considering the need to foster social inclusion, a subject widely discussed in academic circles and understanding the teaching-learning of a foreign language as conducive to better opportunities for students to be put in the labor market, as well as a way of the individual to be placed in the world, this work aims to present the experience report about the initial work developed with the student and a reflection about the teacher's action on how to teach English to students with visual impairment.

Keywords: Teaching- learning; English language, Braille, Visual impairment, Experience

Introduction

Although the accessibility issues presented by the Inclusion Brazilian Law of Disability People (nº 13.146/2015) that is intended for assuring and promoting, in equality conditions, the rights and the fundamental liberty to the disability people focusing the citizenship and the social inclusion, we can observe as pointed by Sá (2014) that the Brazilian legislation still lacks ranks of assistance, since the fundamental rights have not yet been properly ensured for people who are at risk or at social vunerability aggravated by disability. The author states that it is necessary to create favorable environments that work positively in the formation of mentalities, values and principles that incorporate differences as a natural condition of the human being, affirming that if the laws were fulfilled, the access to and the permanence in school and in the world of work, as in other sectors of society, would certainly be more satisfactory.

From this point of view, in the case of English that becomes more widespread in the world and has become the international lingua franca (Modiano, 1999), as pointed out by researchers such as Araluc (2005) and Doley (2002), the foreign language needs of visually impaired students have been ignored and they have been marginalized and isolated from the foreign language classroom atmosphere.

This way, considering the need to foster social inclusion, this paper aims to present the initial experience report about the teaching of English to a blind student and a reflection the teacher's action about the work developed. The interest for the thematic came out of the demand presented by a student of the Federal University of Tocantins (UFT) that in an informal conversation reported she wanted to keep on studying English, however, this time learning the four skills of the language – listening, speaking, reading and writing - as happens to students without disabilities.

The visual impairment and the teacher formation

The visual impairment encompasses the universe of blindness and low vision people and it is due to problems of different orders such as congenital, acquired, genetic and degenerative.

According to the World Health Organization (2012), the number of visually impaired people in the world is known to be 285 million, that's it, 39 million are blind and 246 present low vision.

In Brazil, as reported by the Brazilian Institute of Geography and Statistics (IBGE, 2010), there are 6,5 million a visually imparied people, being 52.000 blind and 6.000.000 with low vision.

In Tocantins state, specifically, as stated in the report of the school census (SEDUC, 2015), there are 1.599 students presenting low vision and 111 are blind. In Palmas, the capital of the state, according to the census, there are 170 low vision students and 8 blind students enrolled at schools.

At the Federal University of Tocantins, there are 04 blind and 43 low vision students.

Despite of the high numbers presented above, the number of visually impairment people in the field of ELT is still unknown and as pointed out by Arluc (2005) the blindness can not hinder foreign language learning, recomending that teachers ought to accept their visually impaired students in their classes the way they are, realizing their potential, personality and interests.

The point presented by Arluc is crucial, however, although the Law of Directives and Basis for National Education (BRASIL, LDB, 1996) nº 9.394/94, in chapter V that deals with the Special Education, in the article 59, item III asserts that people with disability should have speciallized attendig, as well as, trained teachers to integrate them to regular classes, but as pointed by Leffa (2008) the universities, so far, have not been able to train competent and sufficient professionals to meet the needs of the labor market.

I agree with Leffa's thought and add that neither have universities trained teachers to teach foreign languages to those students, causing a lack in their formation, nor are schools prepared or equipped to receive them.

The project Expanding Horizons; Decreasing Barriers: English as Foreign Language for Visually Impaired
 The project was designed to cater to a demand presented by a student of the Journalism course of the Federal University of Tocantins who requested help in relation to material for English language learning written in Braille. During an initial conversation, the student reported that she sought to learn the language in English Courses and autodidactically, however, she realized that the study through listening and speaking activities did not consider an integral learning of the language, as it happens to students without disabilities and that she wanted to know how to write and read English in Braille.

From the demand presented, I started questioning myself about the process of teaching English, principally in Braille written, considering many peculiarities of the language, specially in relation to the pronunciation of words which writing differs from its diction, even because, as several profissionals, I was not trained to work with such public.

Toward from these uneasiness, I proposed her to develop a project where we could work and learn together the Braille in English language. The project was designed and was submitted to the Ethics Committe to be authorized.

Being conscious of the need to promote social inclusion and understanding that the teaching-learning of a foreign language is something that provides better opportunities for students to enter the labor market and as a way of the individuals stand in the world, and knowing that lack of teacher's formation, the project aims to know how the professor learns to teach English to a impaired student and how the Braille literacy process in English takes place to both.

The Participants
The Student
Caroline[1] (Carol) is a student of the seven term of the Journalism Course at UFT. She is blind in consequence of problems when she was born. She was literate in Portuguese Braille. She studied English in regular schools and in English Courses, however, the skills worked were only listening and speaking.

The Professor
I am undergraduated in Portuguese-English Languages and graduated in Applied Linguistics and Language Teaching. During my Mastering and PhD Courses I worked with the continuing teachers' formation. I have been teaching English since 1996, however, as pointed before, during my formation, I wasn't trained, as still happening nowadays, to work in regular classes with people with disabilities and I had never had contact with Braille before the project.

The report of the work
After having the project approved by the Ethics Committee, we had a meeting to talk about the project and it was that moment I could already have my first and wonderful experience of being in touch with a blind student. While I was trying to describe the triangle of activity (as showed below), I observed that she was trying to rebuilt it in the palm of her hand. When I noticed that, I asked if I could reproduce the figure, which she readily accepted. To me, it was a unique experience, although I wasn't sure if what I was doing would be

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[1] The student's name was not ommitted since she gave authorization to use it.

corrrect. As I was describing the figure, I was observing her facial reactions, the broad smile demonstrated that I was in the right way and that she was following the description. This security came at the end with her speech "I could get all the picture".
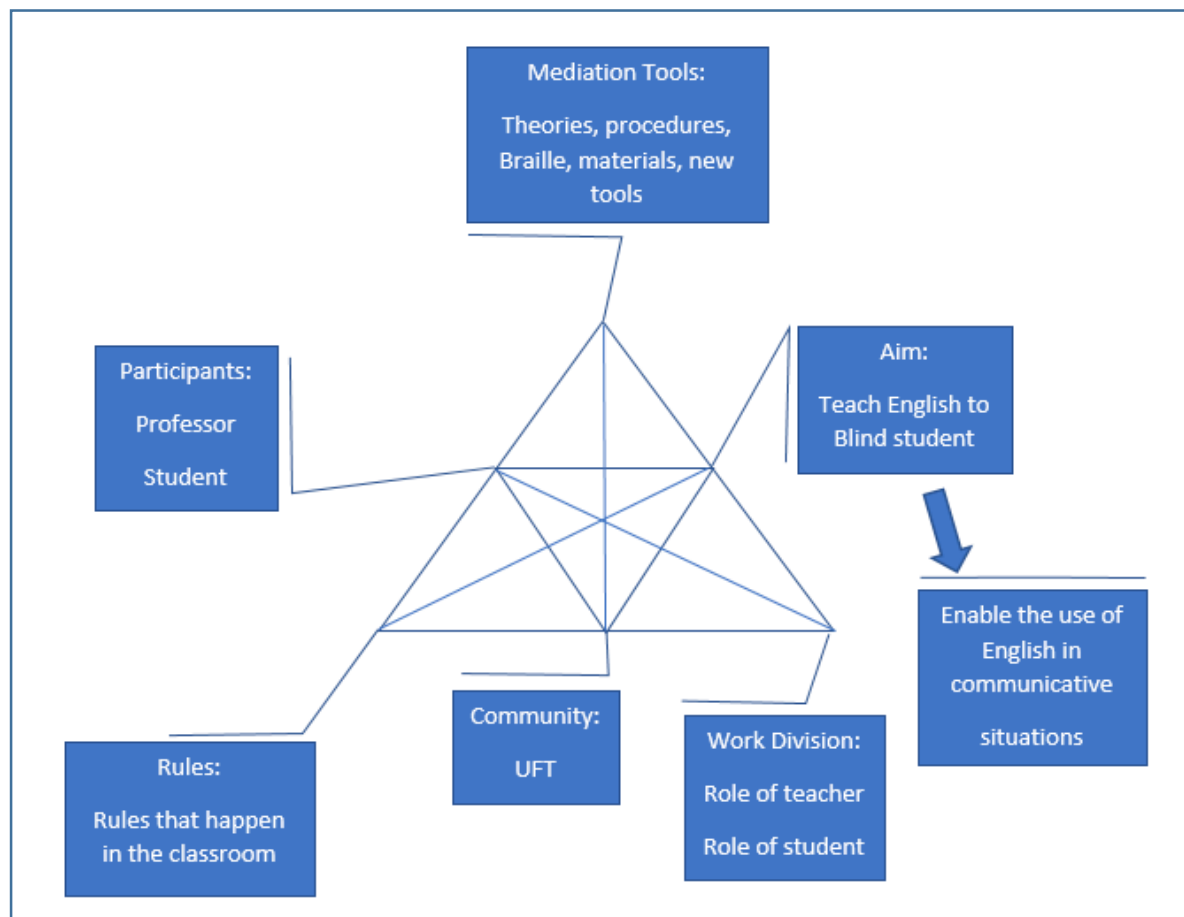
Figure 1. Activity Triangle

My next question was "Where to begin with?". I wasn't sure about the way I should follow, since I was able to print materials in braille because the only braille printer at the university wasn't working. So, I decided to start the classes working about "Points of Articulation of vowel and consonants sounds".
The material was prepared manually, using EVA, a rubbery material to draw the face and inner part of the mouth, and jewelry gemstones used to write the phonetic symbols in Braille.

Figure 2. Points of Articulation Material

During the work, the surprise was that Carol was interested about the colors used in the material and even how the sounds of "th", "sh", between others, were represented phonetically to me.
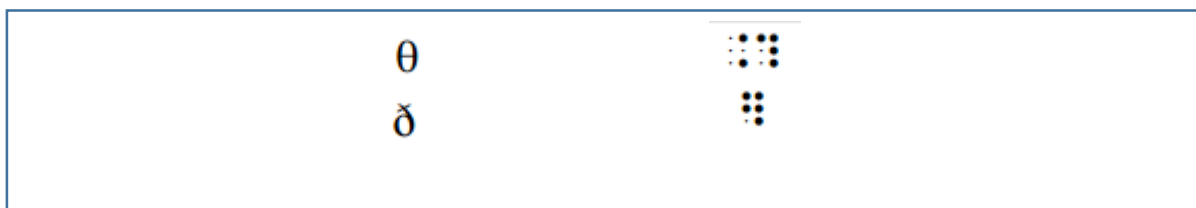
Figure 3. Glyph X Braille Glyph

The next step was to prepare the material for the classes. As I knew Carol had studied English for some time before, I asked her how she would like to start the work. She answered me to start from the beginning, that is, from the verb To Be.

From this point, I started searching on internet for materials that we could use in the classroom. The first difficulty found was to get the authorization from the author. Althought I had explained about the project and that I would only use part of the lesson, the author didn't give the authorization to translate the lesson to Braille. Towards this, I searched for some videos on You Tube and after having chosen some I started to translate the speech of the characters.

Carol lent me her Braille machine, this way, I could type the material. As it would be my first time working with written Braille, I worked with an online Braille Translator and with the Unified English Braille (UEB) manual.

Considering that Carol was literated in Portuguese Braille and that she has proficiency on it, I chose to work with Grade 2[2]. The work started very slowly, since, while translating I was learning the system and highlighting the cells that were contratcted, for instance, to explain to her during class.

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[2] Grade 2 braille was introduced as a space-saving alternative to grade 1 Braille. In this grade, a cell can represent a shortened form of a word. Many cell combinations have also been created to represent common words, part or whole word contractions, entire words and so on.
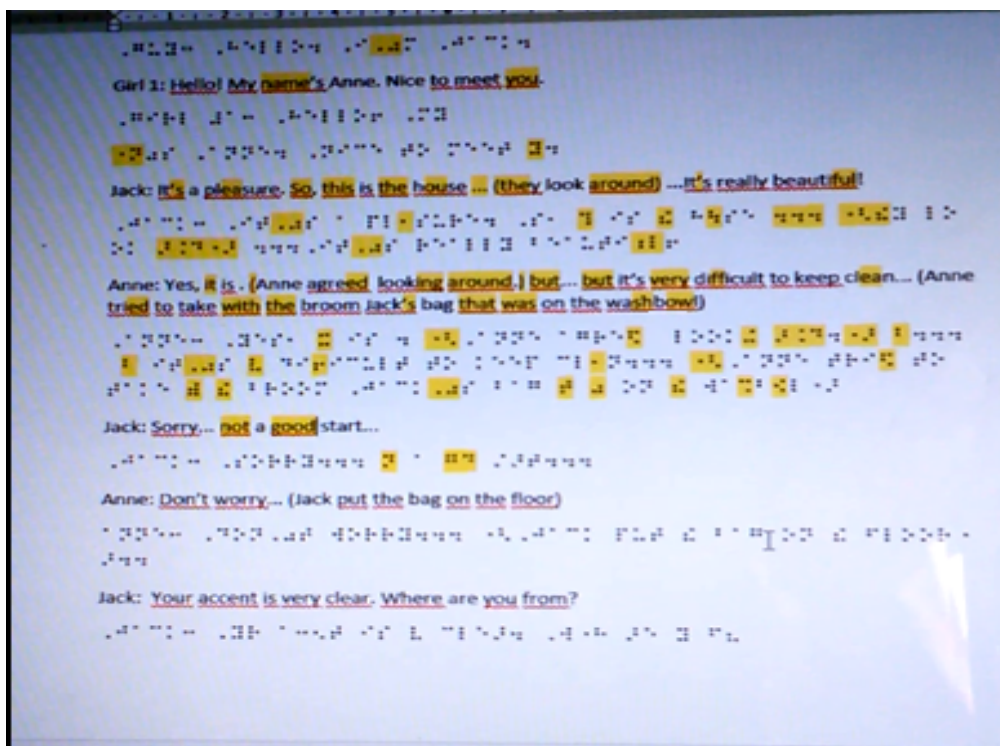
Figure 4. Material Translated

While I was preparing the materials and during my proccess of literacy, I realized, at some point, that was making some mistakes, that is, I was bandying some representations, such as, "d", "f", "h", "m", "p" , "s" and "t". Maybe these errors happened because of the proximity of the dots combination.
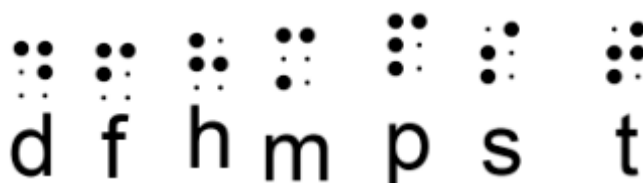
Figure 5. Glyphs Bandying

 In order to understand the errors during my process of learning, I found Soares (2004) who states that the insertion in the world of writing is through the acquisition of a technology, and through the development of competences (skills, knowledge, attitudes) of the effective use of this technology in social practices involving written language (literacy). As pointed by Tfouni (2010), literacy should be understood as a social-historical process, and that it would be, therefore, the cause and consequence of the development.

To enlarge the understanding, I found in Corder (1967) and Brown (2007) who approached errors as a natural process of learning and state that they provide an insight about the process of de acquisition, what strategies or procedures the learner is employing that is, erros must be considered as part of cognition.

On March 15, I met Carol for the class. That moment, I explained about my choice to work with Grade 2, so, I prepared a chart of the UEB with the words that appeared in the lesson. The aim was to put her in touch with the grade before starting effectively the lesson.

This strategy was positive because during the work Carol showed the strategies she was employing to learn English Braille. Firstly, she compared English and Portuguese representation, pointing differences and similarities.

Indicators	UEB	Portuguese Braille
Capital Word		
Numeric		
Comma		
Letter		
Semicolon		
Opening inner quotation mark		or
Closing inner quotation mark		or

Figure 6. Differences and Similarities between English and Portuguese Braille

During the work with the lower groupsigns, she showed the way she "got how the system was built" by saying:

> Ah! I sussed what they do! Like that, the letters are the reverse way. For example, in "f" the representation is 124, right? The representation here is 235. It is the "f" in reverse way. (Carol's reflection)

Alphabet	Lower Groupsign
f	ff

Figure 7. Carol's Reflection of Representation

It's important to clarify that, although she used the work "reverse" work to show how she was understanding the system of combination, and that could takes us to think that the representation was on the other side (145), the reflection was in the use of upper (124) and down (235) dots to represent the letters.

After class, I asked Carol to evaluate the process. During her reflection she states that she misses to work with Braille because the professors at university ask her to send the homeworks by email, and this way, she does not write in Braille so much anymore, and that she was very happy with my effort and happy with the opportunity.

> I am thrilled with your initial effort (...) Despite the mistakes (...), I consider it a huge achievement for both of us. First because I'm learning here, now, and secondly, because we're learning together, so this has no return to me. More rewarding than that? I am very happy! (Carol's reflection)

On March 22, we started working with the video – The American Guy. I explained to her the context of the vídeo and played it to her. As I could realized, she did not show trouble with listening but she showed interest to know the colours of an object (mask) that appeared on video.

Only when she asked me about it, I realized that I haven't stopped the video to describe the objects. My reflection on that moment was that I needed to pay more attention on what could be important for the

description of the events. So, I started to describe the Mexican hat, however, she was interested about the mask. I started describe it was a mask of a monkey face and the color was brown and beige. While I was describing the mask, I was drawing on her face where each color was. Her facial expression showed me that she could understand the description.

When we started working with writing, I realized that the process was slow and hard. Although Carol knows the alphabet and can identify them easily, the reading was too slow because of the representations of the contracted words such as "that" "for", "of""from", and soon.

It is important to say that she could easily identify the new representations were a contracted form of a word, although she could not tell them at the beginning, but during the reading she recognized them faster.
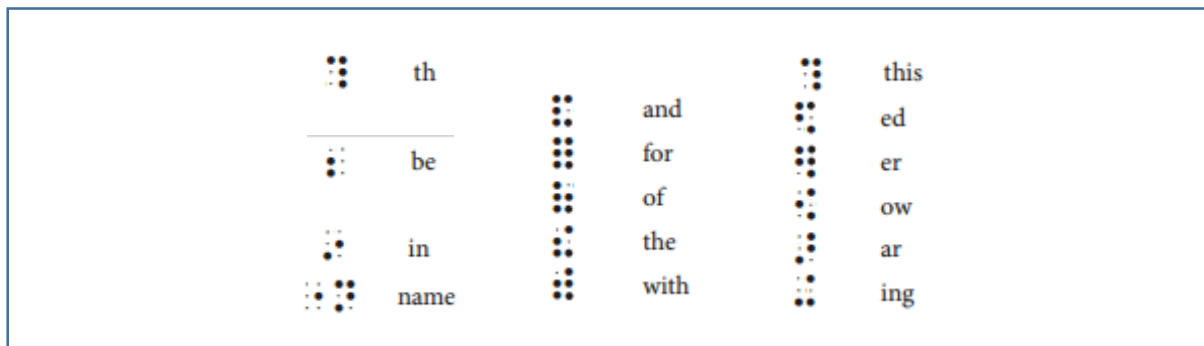
Figure 8. Unified English Braille

After class, I asked Carol to reflect and evaluate the work. Her answer confirmed my impressions during the class, that is, that it was not also easy to her either.

> Teacher, how hard! I'm thinking it´s hard! That is, it's new! It is novelty, it is a matter of adaptation, but in the beginning it's even difficult. (...) It's a challenge because I have to keep these things a lot. (Carol's reflection)

After her speech, I emphasized that if it was too difficult we could change to grade 1, but I stressed that grade 1 she would not have problem and would not be so difficult because she knows the alphabet. She agreed with me, telling that we could do a test using grade 1 next lesson, although she has consciouness of the need to know grade 2 also.

> We could do a test later. We finish this lesson and do a lesson with grade 1, just to see how it will be, right? (...) But…If I run into it and just have it ... But it's difficult, very difficult! But it's not impossible ... it's a matter of keeping. (Carol's reflection)

Concluding Comments

Reflecting on the work realized in a vygotskian view, although it is in an initial process, it is possible to understand that the blindness represent only the lack of one of the possible ways of connecting the individual with the environment, and that the eye can be replaced by another instrument, such as another person through speech that can play the role of an instrument (Vygotsky, 1995).

Analysing Carol's reaction during classes, it was important to make me understand how she compensates her lack of vision and the interrelationship between the developmental processes of language and cognition. It was also possible to notice how blind students are better equipped (aural sensitivity and memory) for learning a language than sighted students.

Regarding to teaching-learning, this work has afforded me a self-confront of my practice, providing an understading and transformation of my action, as well as allowing a reflection on the English teaching for visual impairment in regular schools.

Concerning the rights of disability people and the social inclusion, we can check up on Brazil advanced in the elaboration of legal documents and in the implementation of public policies   in attempt to offer better conditions of social insertion of these people in our society, however, we can observe that it still having ranks of assitance (Sá, 2014) and that the acessibility is happening in an arduous and slow process.

To sum up, it is important to realize that as pointend by Arluc(2005), blindness is not a barrier to full cognitive development and that the learning of a foreign language – all skills, should be relevant for the blind students, as it could widen their future professional opportunities.

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SOCIAL MEDIA AND ARABIC: CODE-SWITCHING AMONGST ALGERIAN STUDENT IN UK

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ABSTRACT

This paper explores the concept of individual identity construction and code-switching amongst Algerian students living in the UK. By adopting social media as the main context because although code-switching tends to only occur in spoken language, social media use tends to have moved into informal language use similar to that of the spoken rather than the written form. The interest and rationale lies in understanding the evolvement and the globalisation of language through immigration and also access to global communication media.

In this respect, a triangulation approach to research is followed to capture the data required. In parallel, an interpretivist approach is used to explore the type and prevalence of English language code-switching that occurs, through social media interactions amongst a group of Algerian students. Moreover, a sample size of 15 participants are recruited to send their post, tweets and conversation over the course of three month period. At the outset of the research each participant will complete a detailed questionnaire to provide a profile of individual identity including gender which is then further explored in their subsequent use of code-switching if and where it occurs. Finally a sample of code-switching users will be interviewed to explore perspectives on how and why this phenomenon is occurring, what purpose it serves, and to establish whether there is a link to identity and code-switching use.

The outcomes are aimed at contributing to academic discussions on the evolvement of Arabic as a language, the link between gender and Arabic code-switching and also the influences of social media on Arabic language use.

Keywords: Code-switching, Arabic/English, Gender, Identity Construction, Social Media

COLLABORATIVE WRITING IN ARABIC AS A SECOND LANGUAGE (ASL) CLASSROOMS: STUDENT AND TEACHER PERCEPTIONS

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Abstract

Collaborative writing research has increasingly gained grounds in English as a foreign/second language contexts. However, very little is known about its impact on Arabic as a second language (ASL) contexts regarding teachers and students' perceptions. This study investigated two teachers and 64 Arabic students' perceptions in two classrooms. Employing a quasi-experimental design with a mixed methods approach, the author compared the perceptions of students using a collaborative writing approach (experimental groups) and those working in traditional group work (control groups). The study also examined the teachers' perceptions of collaborative writing activities. The findings showed that there was qualitatively difference between the experimental and the control groups. Further, teachers and students from the experimental groups found the collaborative writing experiences beneficial for their second language (L2) learning. Overall, the students gained significant impact on their writing skills

Keywords: Collaborative writing, Quasi-experimental research, Arabic as a second language (ASL) contexts, Second language learning.

Introduction

Collaborative writing (CW) as a potential means for developing second language (L2) writing ability is based on a social constructivist view of learning. This view derives from the work of Vygotsky (1978), who hypothesized that human development is driven by social activity. Being informed by a Vygotskian sociocultural framework, Swain (1995, 2005) argues that writing as an instance of language output can be viewed as a way to develop learners' skills in the L2. The written modality of language may equally contribute to L2 learning achievement, as L2 learners master language for literate purposes (Alshammari 2011; Kern and Schultz 2005). In other words, learners' writing skills can enhance their L2 competence (Harklau 2002). Thus, writing is an essential means of L2 learning and can be a major source for L2 learners to improve their L2 proficiency.

Collaborative writing in L2 classrooms

Working collaboratively on writing tasks can benefit learners during the whole process of writing, creating a positive impact on learners' writing outcomes (Storch 2011, 2013; Wigglesworth and Storch 2012a). Generally, working together in pairs and small groups facilitates learners' interaction to achieve group goals in learning (Gillies 2014; Johnson and Johnson 2014). In other words, through interaction, learners can negotiate different views of their own learning so that they can learn from one another. Therefore, being supported by Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural framework, CW is considered an effective approach to improving L2 learners' writing outcomes (Storch 2013).

Given its learning potential, a lot of research has been conducted on CW (Fernández Dobao 2012; Fernández Dobao and Blum 2013; Fong 2012; Kuiken and Vedder 2002; Shehadeh 2011; Storch 2001, 2005, 2011, 2013; Wigglesworth and Storch 2009, 2012a, b). However, this research has mainly focused on English as a second or foreign language; limited attention has been given to CW in other second or foreign language contexts. For instance, very few studies have investigated the use of CW in the context of Arabic as a second language (ASL).

Collaborative Writing in ASL Classrooms

In the past two decades, interest in learning ASL has grown exponentially in many countries around the globe in multiethnic, multilingual, and multi-religious communities (e.g. Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Australia, United States, United Kingdom and some European countries) (Al-Rajhi 2013; Aladdin 2010; Brosh 2013). The growing importance of Arabic can be understood from the fact that it is the fifth most commonly spoken language in the world. The interest in Arabic is not restricted to Muslim countries only where the language is

used for prayer and reciting religious texts (e.g. the *Qur'an* written in Arabic) (Dahbi 2004); it is also increasingly used in globalised marketplaces (Crystal 2010). Moreover, Arabic is the language of a petroleum-based global industry which is at the centre of geopolitics (Karmani, 2005). The teaching and learning of Arabic has been part of the security strategy for a number of Western countries since 9/11 (Brecht & Rivers, 2012). Thus, there is a widely perceived need to learn Arabic in schools and universities in many countries across the world. This justifies paying research attention to the teaching and learning of Arabic as an L2.

There are many challenges for ASL learners when it comes to learning and practicing Arabic in their daily life compared to other commonly taught languages such as English, Spanish or Chinese. These challenges are related to not only insufficient resources such as curricula, instructional materials and teaching and assessment strategies, but also to divisive cultural and political issues between people in western countries and in Muslim societies. In particular, these issues relate to the assumptions that the western and Islamic cultures are not compatible (e.g. veiling school girls in Islamic education and polygamy issues are exaggerated by politicians and the press). More recently, there have been misperceptions that the Islamic world is a threat to the West. As a result, learning ASL is not as popular or common as other international languages. Thus, one of the solutions to meet the challenges in learning Arabic may be to develop its own theory and pedagogy. Arabic needs to be taught and learned on its own terms (Wahba et al. 2013). This calls for research on the teaching and learning of ASL in different contexts.

While there are many aspects of ASL that need to be learned in order to be proficient in the language, writing is one of the most difficult skills for ASL learners. This is because Arabic has complex morphological and syntactical systems that are highly inflected compared to, for example, English and other European languages (Wahba et al. 2013). According to Jassem (1996), the most notable difficulty in writing for ASL leaners is Arabic grammar (e.g. the use of Arabic tense, subject-verb agreement, verb phrases, mood, and voice). Nevertheless, writing may also provide L2 learners opportunities to use their existing linguistic resources and produce new language knowledge.

Research on ASL writing skills is currently at its initial stage. Only a handful of studies have investigated ASL learners' compositions to understand their deficiencies in their writing (Salim 2000; Shakir and Obeidat 1992). Shakir and Obeidat (1992), for instance, investigated cohesion and coherence in ASL leaners' essays. They found substantial incoherence in their text production, which was attributable to their inadequate knowledge of cohesive devices. Similar findings were reported by Salim (2000) who studied writing processes and strategies used by American learners of ASL and evidenced their poor performances in writing tasks. In order to make writing tasks more effective, ASL learners, in particular, should be able to use a variety of writing strategies in the process of planning, generating ideas, reviewing, and revising writing texts. Their choices of writing strategies may affect the level of their writing performance (Salim 2000). Given that collaborative writing strategy has been found beneficial in English as an L2 writing contexts as evident in many relevant studies (Sajedi 2014; Storch 2013; Wigglesworth and Storch 2012b), it is important to investigate whether and to what extent the use of CW in the context of ASL would be effective in developing ASL learners' writing skills.

Research on Collaborative Writing: Teachers and Students' Reflections

Teacher's perceptions

Teacher perceptions, expectations, and instructional materials strongly influence learners' writing performance in a classroom (Barkaoui 2007; Dornyei 2001). According to Williams (2003), teachers should engage their students so they see writing tasks as useful tools to promote effective learning processes. Moreover, when teachers set goals and strategies in writing classrooms, they have to involve students in deciding which strategies they can use to reach different learning objectives. Teachers, for instance, can encourage students to work in pairs or small groups to provide constructive feedback on each other's writing performance. In addition, teachers should be able to design appropriate writing assessments that have been acknowledged by students before they begin to write their tasks. In this way, teachers can measure and evaluate students' progress in writing tasks so that they can identify areas in the students' writing that need to be improved.

Studies on teacher's attitudes and perceptions are crucial in designing classroom instructions. Teachers' instructions are strongly related to their perceptions, beliefs, and motivation level (Chacón 2005; Ghasemboland and Hashim 2013). In other words, their perceptions of tasks that they design to facilitate the learning process have a direct impact on teaching practices. However, little research has examined how teachers perceive the implementation of particular instructional strategies in the classroom such as CW activities.

One study conducted by Blair (2008) found that teachers perceived themselves to play a significant role in the development of their students' writing self-efficacy during the six week collaborative writing activities. Even

though this study only involved high school English teachers, they believed that learners could benefit from the CW activities with regards to their overall writing skills.

Other studies have also revealed that teachers' beliefs and practices on peer feedback play a vital role in L2 writing classes (Shulin 2013; Zhao 2010; Zhu and Mitchell 2012). However, Shulin (2013), for example, found mixed results. Her study focused on teachers' perspectives regarding peer feedback. She found that some teachers viewed peer feedback as mainly useful for spelling and grammatical errors. Teachers found only few students commented on structure and content of the writing. In their practice, although some teachers believed that peer feedback influenced their students' writing performance, some were questioning the effectiveness of peer feedback in writing and practiced what they believed was more suitable.

Based on these studies, it can be concluded that teachers' beliefs and perceptions may influence their capabilities not only in designing instructional materials and managing classrooms particularly in applying the CW approach, but also their students' achievement.

Learners' Perceptions

Learners' perceptions of collaborative writing activities in ESL and EFL contexts have been examined in a number of studies. The first study addressing this issue is by Storch (2005). Her study involved five learners who completed writing tasks individually and in 18 pairs. Most of the 18 pairs involved in the study responded positively in the interview sessions about collaborative writing tasks. Writing in pairs gave them opportunities to collect their resources, observe and learn from each other, particularly in voicing their opinions. Moreover, CW activities allowed them to learn grammar and demonstrate gains in the size of their L2 vocabulary. Nevertheless, two learners found a writing activity more as an individual task than pair work that is suitable for oral tasks. Even though 36 learners were very positive about the CW, five of them were reserved due to their lack of confidence in their language proficiency and critical thinking skills.

Similarly, another study conducted by Shehadeh (2011) found that most of 18 learners participating in jointly writing tasks were very positive of the experience. It benefited them in many ways (e.g. helped them in generating ideas, planning the structure, negotiating, and providing feedback one to another). Moreover, this activity enhanced their self-confidence in expressing opinions and criticizing others.

Learners' attitudes toward the CW activities have been investigated in different learning contexts. Fernández Dobao and Blum (2013), for example, explored fifty-five learners of Spanish as a Second Language (SFL) regarding their attitudes and perceptions on CW activities. They were divided into two groups: half of them worked in pairs and the rest were in groups of four. While most of the learners reacted positively to the experience, four of the 55 learners tended to work individually. Further, learners who worked in pairs found this activity beneficial since it allowed active participation, whereas those in groups could gain a better understanding of CW due to knowledge sharing and language development, activities that assisted them to develop both their lexical and grammatical skills. In summary, although there have been some studies that have investigated teacher and student perceptions of CW, these studies have mainly focused on English as an L2.

Against the background of the theoretical and empirically verified benefits of CW, the present study examined CW in the context of ASL in Saudi Arabia to substantiate its effectiveness as reported in the literature by drawing on a language other than English. In particular, the following two research questions were formulated for the purpose of the study:

1. How do Arabic learners perceive collaborative writing after a 12-week treatment in collaborative writing tasks?
2. How do Arabic teachers perceive the implementation of collaborative writing approach?

Method
Participants

Sixty-four male ASL students participated in the study. In the sampling process, participants' willingness and availability to be part of the study (Creswell 2015) were taken into account. Thus, convenience sampling was employed in the study. They were enrolled in Arabic language preparation programs in an Arabic language institute which is a part of a public university situated in Makkah, Saudi Arabia. Based on their program entrance examination scores, they were considered to have a high-intermediate level. They ranged in age from 20 to 23 years old. Since the student participants did not share the same native language background, Arabic was the only language instruction used during classroom activities. Two Arabic teachers, which were in their late 30s, also participated in the study.

Table 1. Research Design

Class	Condition	Learning Approach	Groups	Teacher
1	Control	Traditional Group Work	1, 2, 3, 4	A
2	Control	Traditional Group Work	5, 6, 7, 8	A
3	Experimental	Collaborative Approach	9, 10, 11, 12	B
4	Experimental	Collaborative Approach	13, 14, 15, 16	B

As shown in Table 1, the study was conducted in four parallel classes. Each class consisted of sixteen students. The four classes were randomly assigned as control and experimental groups. That is, both control and experimental classes had thirty-two students each. Control and experimental classes were taught by two different teachers who used the same syllabus and materials provided by the course textbooks. While control classes were involved in traditional group work (cooperative learning), experimental classes implemented collaborative writing approach. In each class, the student participants were then divided into small groups which consisted of four students.

Procedures

Employing a quasi-experimental mixed methods research design, the data collection techniques in this study involved the use of different research instruments, including pre- and post-tests, observations, and semi-structured interviews with learners and teachers. In particular, while the students' pre- and post-test constituted the quantitative data for the study, the observations and semi-structured interviews were elicited to provide qualitative data on teacher and student perceptions of CW.

Pre- and Post-Tests

Means of a pre- and post-test design was used to collect quantitative data in order to examine the effect of the given treatments. Prior to any treatment (week 1), both control and experimental classes were asked to write a 500-word descriptive text in Arabic language. They were prompted to describe their own country in 50 minutes. At the end of the treatments, they were also asked to write a 500-word argumentative text about their views on cooperative/collaborative writing in 50 minutes.

Writing Tasks

During a 12-week intervention, all participating classes were given three types of writing tasks: descriptive, narrative, and argumentative texts. Each task (500-word text) was completed in three weeks (i.e. 50 minutes per meeting each week). During the classroom observation, the researcher examined how learners actively participated in co-constructing the writing tasks that they were given. This process included brainstorming, planning, drafting, and revising.

Table 2. Writing task prompts

Week	Prompts	Activities
Week 1	Pre-test: *Describe your own country in 500 words.*	The students completed the test in 50 minutes individually.
Week 2-4	Task 1 (Descriptive Text): *Describe your first day in Makkah (or you can choose your own topics)*	Brainstorming, planning, drafting, and revising
Week 5-7	Task 2 (Narrative Text): *Narrate your visit to Madinah (or you can choose your own topics)*	Brainstorming, planning, drafting, and revising
Week 8-10	Task 3 (Argumentative Text): *What do you think about marriage during study period or after graduation? (or you can choose your own topics)*	Brainstorming, planning, drafting, and revising
Week 11	Post-test): What do you think about cooperative writing and/or collaborative writing?	The students completed the test in 50 minutes individually.
Week 12	Semi-structured interviews with the students and the teachers	

Semi-Structured Interviews
In order to elicit teacher and student perceptions of traditional group work and collaborative writing experiences, a semi-structured interview was administered. Basically, there were four parts to the interview questions (see Appendix 2). Firstly, both teacher and student participants were asked about their background information when teaching and learning Arabic. Then, they were asked about their perceptions of collaborative writing and traditional group work and their experiences doing writing tasks in groups. The last part of interview questions related to the challenges or opportunities in collaborative writing and traditional group work practices. The anonymity of the participants' responses was guaranteed in order to encourage them to express their viewpoints with total freedom.

Data Analysis
Both pre- and post- tests were scored based on an analytic scoring rubric for writing which includes six criteria: topic development, organization, details, sentences, wording, and mechanics on a 1-4-point scale (see Appendix 1). The writing rubric was used to determine the difference in the students' writing performance between the two groups on the pre- and post-tests. The rater was the first author who is an experienced native speaker of Arabic. He had also taught Arabic language skills at the institute for over seven years. To ensure the consistency of the scoring, inter-rater reliability was conducted (i.e. the consistency of a measure evaluated by two different raters) for both students' pre- and post-test essays. In particular, the researcher together with another rater marked the essays. It was found that there were very similar results between the two raters. All of the data obtained from the tests were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) Version 23.

Results
Research Question 1
The first research question of the current study was related to the students' perceptions of traditional group work and collaborative writing experiences. Of sixty-four student participants, sixteen students from both control and experimental (8 each) were available for one-on-one semi-structured interviews with the researcher a week after the post-test. For this purpose, the researcher analysed the students' responses to the

main six interview questions, comparing the responses provided by those writing in traditional group work and those writing collaboratively. In this section, the researcher summarizes and highlights the main findings.

From the control groups being interviewed, most of the participants felt quite positive about writing in traditional group work (cooperative writing). They found the writing activities useful in many ways even though some students had not experienced writing in groups. They used to study Arabic focusing on its grammar aspects. For instance, Yasen said: "The course was mainly focus on Arabic basic grammar. But it was given in traditional way. The course teacher couldn't speak Arabic. He just knows the rules." Irufan added: I haven't learnt how to write Arabic in a professional way before. I just start learning when I enrolled in this institute (three semesters ago)." He further mentioned that: "Back in Seychelles, we used to learn Arabic as a subject of rote memorization. But when we came here we realised language learning is a natural process. And cooperative learning took this natural process to a whole new level." In other words, the Arabic subject had been one of the compulsory subjects they needed to pass at their schools. When it came to writing class, it was more to do with individual writing tasks. Having participated in traditional group work in completing writing tasks, most students in the control groups felt that their writing skills have much improved. For example, Tijani stated: "My writing is much improved grammatically. I prefer writing in a large group because there would be much more ideas and discussions, compared to writing individually or in pairs. I noticed that the more I participated the more I benefited. And some friends are very supportive to other students. I think I have built up confidence in writing all types of writing after this experience of TGW." Then, Sajid said: "Incorporating more writing classes is very important in teaching Arabic language. Through writing classes even pronunciation mistakes can be identified. Because if students cannot differentiate between sounds, they will make mistakes when writing letters that represent those sounds." Therefore, involving them in cooperative writing allows them to engage in language deliberation and practice their language skills.

However, only one student (Ayez) in the control groups interviewed felt that writing cooperatively did not benefit him very much. He considered the activities were time consuming. He explained that: "it takes too much time to complete one piece of writing. For example, it took one whole week to complete the descriptive writing. The brainstorming session ran on for two days. I think it wastes a lot of time. In our normal (previous) classes we used to write our essays within 3 days. He then added: "to some extent, most of the discussion time was taken by Shihab. We got very less opportunity to express ourselves." He preferred writing individually to cooperatively. Interestingly, even though Maumoon felt quite positive about the cooperative writing, he tended to write in pairs rather than in small groups. Maumoon said: "I prefer writing in pairs is more useful. When writing in pairs it would be highly conspicuous if you were not participating. But in a large group you can stay passive not noticed by others."

All students interviewed in the experimental groups, on the other hand, responded very positively about their collaborative writing experiences. They felt that CW is very beneficial not only to enhance their writing skills, but also to provide them opportunities to develop their Arabic language particularly grammar knowledge and their vocabulary size. In other words, CW enables them to generate ideas and pool them together in order to write a joint text. For instance, Ujang said: "my writing is much improved grammatically. I now use new vocabularies and most of these vocabularies I learned from my friends when we were doing CW. Each task has got its own way of writing. So the range of vocabularies also differed." His response was in line with Redaullah saying that: "obviously we all have learnt more things in this CW experience. This method boosts language acquisition. We have learnt when verbs are written in nominative case or in accusative case or in jussive case. Also we have learnt all the rulings regarding adjectives. And amazing thing is we learnt it from students." His statement was supported by Najeeb explaining that: I think I have made great improvements in terms of vocabulary and decrease in grammatical errors. Before I used to have many ideas on topics but I could not express those ideas. When we did CW when I briefly mention my ideas, my friends helped me to put those ideas into words." Nevertheless, though he liked worked in small groups, he felt that working in pairs was more beneficial. He added: While I experienced large group and I like it, I personally believe working in pairs is much better as it gives me more chances to interact and discuss and practice my language." Overall, the students' responses in the experimental groups during the interview sessions show very positive attitudes toward CW activities.

Research Question 2

Regarding the second research question, the study analysed teachers' views on traditional group work and the collaborative writing approach. As stated earlier, there were two teachers involved in the study. The interviews with these two teachers were conducted after completing the student interviews. There were mainly 18 questions asked to the teachers. Below is the highlight of the main findings from the teacher interview.

When questioned about their previous experiences about implementing traditional group work and collaborative writing approaches in writing classes, both teachers responded that it was their first experience teaching Arabic writing employing these two approaches. Although they felt very optimistic about the effectiveness of these approaches, the implementation of these approaches were quite challenging for them. In particular, both teachers found it difficult to prepare and manage the writing classes due to the students' different cultural background and language proficiencies. Teacher A, for instance, said that: "I spent about five hours. The heterogeneous nature of the classes concerned me most. There are some new batches where students can barely speak in Arabic. So distribution of students for groups will be a tall order." Teacher B added: "students differ in their abilities, cultural backgrounds and ideologies."

Despite the challenges, both teachers believed that these two approaches were beneficial to some extent. In particular, Teacher B who taught in the experimental classes noticed that the students in these classes enjoyed the collaborative writing tasks. Teacher A also responded that: "I think collaborative writing helps in engaging students in the lesson. When students attempt to write a joint article, they learn from one another. Along the way, sometimes they discuss the grammar points they come across while writing. Expert students benefit from the teaching aspect of collaborative writing. Novice students get the opportunity of one-to-one learning which fosters quick learning." This is because Teacher A observed the novice students in the control groups did not discuss grammar as much as those in the experimental groups did. Teacher A felt that in the control groups, the students were individually responsible for their own work. As a result, they did not have much time to discuss their ideas when drafting their texts so that the students may not produce well written jointly texts. To conclude, Teacher A considered both approaches are feasible to be implemented in the institute. He further said: "we can implement cooperative learning for the third and fourth semester. And for the first and second semester we could implement collaborative learning.

Discussion

With respect to the first research question, most of students' interview responses from both groups demonstrated that they were very positive of traditional group work and collaborative writing experiences. In particular, in the control groups, while one student felt pessimistic about the group work, another preferred working in pairs to small groups. Indeed, Fernández Dobao and Blum (2013) found a similar result that some learners felt better if they worked with less people or even alone because they could not see the effectiveness of working together. On the other hand, all students interviewed from the experimental groups were very supportive of CW tasks. The results were consistent with other studies (Lin and Maarof 2013; Shehadeh 2011) showing that the student enjoyed the CW experience and felt a positive influence of collaboration on their writing abilities.

Regarding the second research question about teacher perception of CW, both teachers believed that CW could be a powerful tool to enhance students' writing skills. Of course, teachers play an important role in CW tasks to prepare, manage, and facilitate the activities in order to encourage students to actively participate in the collaborative work. However, there are some aspects that should be taken into account when assigning collaborative tasks in the writing classrooms, such as the choice of topics and the students' language proficiency.

Conclusion

CW provides them with opportunities to engage in meaningful interactions. They can generate and pool ideas while drafting their jointly written texts. Further, with regards to the qualitative findings, both teachers and students had overall very positive views on their CW experiences. Nevertheless, this claim still need further research. The study also had some limitations such as the small sample sizes and limited time. Considering these limitations, the generalizability of the research results should be interpreted with caution.

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ENGLISH TO NON-ENGLISH UNDERGRADUATE MAJORS AT FLSHR: A NEEDS ANALYSIS STUDY

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Abstract
This paper is part of a larger project that examines the teaching of English in the language and communication module to non-English majors at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences, Rabat. From the official objectives set on Law 01.00, its implementation at the Cahier des Normes Pédagogiques Nationales (Book of Pedagogical Guidelines), to the teachers' practices in the classroom, the teaching of English to non-English majors suffers of many shortcomings: definition of clear objectives, content and teaching methodology, human resources required, logistics, and the degree of readiness and motivation of the students themselves. The present paper deals with undergraduate students' attitudes, degree of readiness and primarily needs of English language learning. A large number of students from various departments at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences in Rabat were asked to fill in a questionnaire eliciting their motivations and needs. Results demonstrate that students are highly motivated and significantly ready to learn English language within their curriculum. The findings also showed the existence of an immense gap between students' needs and the lack of courses in the target language.
Key Words: Students' needs, Motivation, Higher Education, Non-English majors, Language skills.

1. Background of the study

Except for some social sciences that are taught in Arabic, French has always been the language of instruction in higher education. Moroccans' interest in English has grown in the recent years as this language is increasingly acquiring an international status. Recently, Lahcen Daoudi, former Moroccan Minister of Higher Education and Scientific Research, underscored the importance of acquiring English as the Language of scientific research, to the point of making it a requirement for the doctorate degree and for the access to some teaching job positions, especially in health, engineering, economics, and management (Circular 2014). Former Minister Daoudi corroborated his decision by citing Spain, Portugal, and Romania as countries where English is the sole language of instruction in higher education and hoped that Morocco will follow in their steps.

Currently, English is taught as a foreign language in Morocco at some middle schools (third grade) and all public high schools. As far as primary schools are concerned, only private schools include English as of the first grade. Apart from formal education, a great number of private[3] English language centers have been flourishing to cater for the learners' demands.

As far as Higher Education is concerned, the situation is quite complex. In the Book of Pedagogical Guidelines (2004), in addition to ICT, Language and Communication covers 15 to 25% of the global volume of the first four semesters. In the third year, Language and Communication is allocated 10 to 15% of the global volume within a Skills Module[4]. In the latest Book of Pedagogical Guidelines (2014), there has been a radical change at the level of the said module. Language and Communication is replaced by Language and Terminology with the same allocation of 15 to 25% of the global volume for the first two semesters. In quantitative terms, the volume of the teaching of a language other than the language of instruction, which may or may not be English, has decreased from seventy-two hours in 2004 to forty eight hours in 2014.

The case of UM5 Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences in Rabat is no exception. Before the new reform, English was included within the complementary modules of all the departments. The difference was depicted in the number of semesters assigned to the learning of the English language. Some studied English for three semesters while others had it only for two semesters. Currently, except for French, Italian, and German studies, virtually all the departments have dropped out the teaching of English altogether. Those, which have chosen to keep it, have opted for only twenty-four hours a semester in the first academic year.

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[3] Namely American Language Center, British Council, Amideast, BPEC Academy and the Language Workshop, among others, are the leading language centers in Rabat.
[4] It is important to highlight that at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences, English is only taught to non-English majors. The distribution of Language and Communication module may also include French and Arabic depending on the Department's objectives.

As far as the teaching objectives are concerned, the French Studies department promotes the understanding and deployment of familiar expressions on a daily basis and for specific purposes, the ability to interact in an easy way and produce language in both written and spoken forms. The German Studies department, on the other hand, puts stress on fostering basic linguistic knowledge: grammar, writing, and speaking.

As of Fall 2016, the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences in Rabat has included English classes for some departments at the level of graduate studies including sociology, geography, Islamic studies, French and German. These departments are trying to implement the decision by including 24-hour English courses in semesters 1 and 2. Instead of establishing accurate syllabi for these classes, based on a needs analysis for example, ESP content was proposed, leaving the details of implementation to the teachers. Not surprisingly, faced with multiple level classes among other issues, the teachers find themselves struggling, sometimes from scratch, to teach rudimentary general English classes rather than follow the departments' guidelines (Al Ghadi, Biddou & Boukanouf, 2016).

2. Statement of the problem

Students at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences recognize the need of mastering English language for research and professional development. However, they are caught in a vicious circle. They are willing to learn the language but are faced with the absence of opportunities in this regard. In fact, as of Fall 2016, only two departments out of fifteen have maintained the teaching of English as a Language and Communication element in their curricular and only for the first year.

Students at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences in Rabat are put in a very confusing situation. The fact that they are given classes of French and Arabic language communication does not interest them at all. They see no benefit from going through these two languages again after they had them for 12 years. English does represent for them a better alternative that will help them advance in both their academic and professional paths.

3. Objectives

The article aims at investigating the extent of the students' motivation and readiness to learn the English language in the light of the recent decision made by the Ministry of Higher Education (May, 2016). The article also addresses the skills students at the Faculty of Letters in Rabat are more interested in learning. In addition, it seeks to identify the students' purpose of learning English.

4. Research Questions

The present study seeks to answer the following research questions:
a) To what extent are students motivated and interested in learning English in the light of the recent decision?
b) Which skills are the students more inclined to learn?
c) Is the students' purpose of learning English merely academic?

5. Hypothesis

In the light of the recent official statement of the former Minister of Higher Education, students at the Faculty of Letters in Rabat have become more anxious yet interested in learning the English language especially that it has become a requirement for academia.

6. Research methods and procedures

We have opted for a quantitative approach. To collect statistic data, we devised a questionnaire to answer our three research questions. Our population consisted of 852 students from various departments of the Faculty of Letters in Rabat, representing the 3 first years of undergraduate studies. Some of the respondents had previous English classes either as part of their curricular at the Faculty, in high school or in private language centers. A detailed description of the respondents is provided in the data analysis and findings section.

Al Ghadi, Biddou and Boukanouf (2016) report as one of their findings the teachers' complaint about the students' lack of motivation to study English at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences in Rabat. Consequently, we have found it necessary to check this claim and approach the teaching of English from the students' perspective.

The questionnaire covered four main sections: linguistic level, interest and readiness, language objectives, and linguistic skills. This questionnaire was meant to elicit students' needs and interests, degree of readiness to learn the language, as well as the skills they would like to improve. The data collection took place during Spring 2016 for a period of three weeks during which we approached the students on regular class days.

During the data collection phase, we observed students' reactions to the questionnaire's content and noticed their keen interest in learning this language. In fact, students informally expressed their desire to learn the language while they questioned the absence of the language element in their curriculum. In addition, we also observed that students are insistently demanding to learn the language especially that the data collection phase coincided with the official issue of the decision to adopt English as one of the criteria to obtain the doctorate degree.

6.1. Population

The study population consisted of a large number of students from the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences in Rabat with an overwhelming majority of females (53.5%). Their age varied between 20 to 30 years old. Except for the English department, the 852 surveyed students belonged to different language and humanities departments (Table 1) distributed among three different levels (Table 2).

Department	Number of Respondents	Ratio %
German	82	10%
Arabic	78	9%
Spanish	38	4%
French	160	19%
Islamic Studies	78	9%
Italian	33	3,90%
Portuguese	17	1,90%
Geography	81	9,90%
History	50	5,80%
Philosophy	50	5,80%
Psychology	54	6%
Sociology	131	15,70%
Total	**852**	**100%**

Table 1: Population distribution by department

	Female	Male
Students	456	396
	53.5%	46.5%
Age	20 - 30	
Level	1st	42%
	2nd	34%
	3rd	24%

Table 2: Population distribution by gender, age and level

As shown in Table 2, the largest proportion (42%) of the participants was in their 1st year, against 34% in second year and 24% in 3rd year. 69.8% reported they never took English classes before attending university (Table 3). However, 45% claimed they had English classes between a year and three. As to studying English at the Faculty, 60.5% of the respondents declared never having studied English within at the Faculty. Those who had English as part of their curriculum (39.5%) studied it for no more than two semesters (22%).

Taken English Classes before	*Yes*	30,2%
	Never	69,8%
Years of learning English	*3 years or more*	25%
	1-3 years	45%
	Never	30%
English within LC	*Yes*	39,5%
	No	60,5%
Duration (LC)	*1 semester*	15%
	2 semesters	22%
	More	3%
	Never	60%

Table 3: Population distribution by English learning experience

6.2. Self-reported level of English
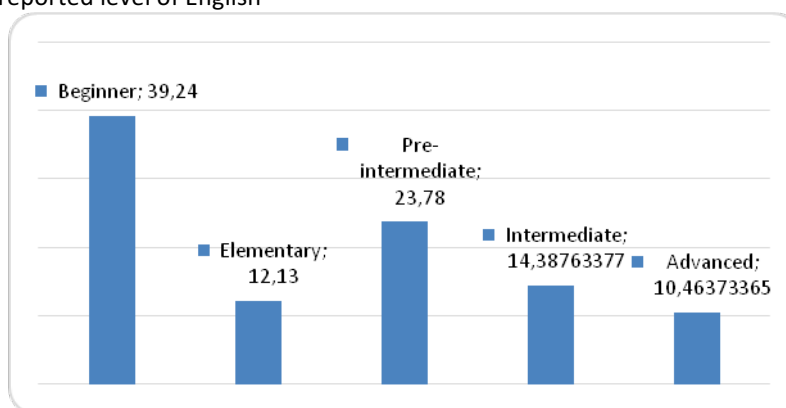
Figure 1: Self reported level of English

As part of their English level self-evaluation, 40% of the 852 respondents rated their level as beginner, 23.78% pre-intermediate, 14.5% intermediate, 12.13% elementary and only 10.5% as advanced. The participants were also asked to provide their self-evaluation with regard to the four skills. Overall, the majority of the respondents leaned towards the beginner (24.5%) and pre-intermediate (26%) levels. Only a few reported they were intermediate (23%) or advanced (15%).

7. Data analysis and findings
7.1. Participants' Interest and readiness towards English

Throughout the data collection process, we have observed among the students an intense eagerness when filling in the questionnaire and a certain curiosity as they wondered if and when their wishes concerning the teaching of English would come true. Though they come from different majors (Table 1), their willingness to learn English was nonetheless of the same intensity.
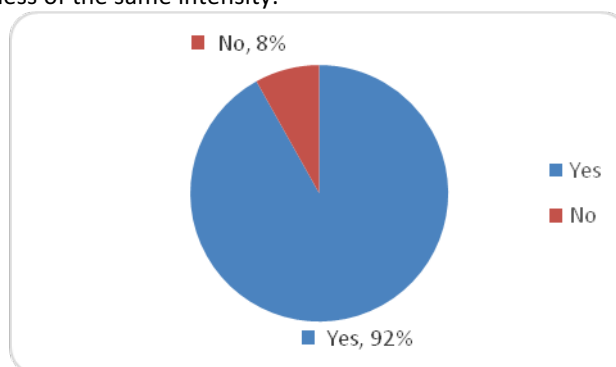
Figure 2: Are you interested in learning English?

When asked about their interest in learning English, the vast majority (92%) are motivated. Even so, English language learning was perceived as more important than French language by 50%. About 38.5% believed that learning English is as important as learning French while 11.29% claimed that English is less important than French.
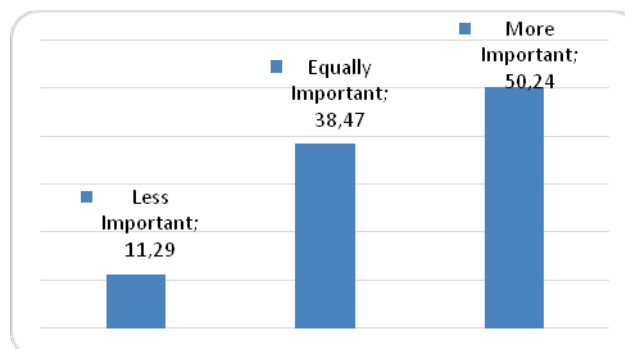
Figure 3: The importance of English compared to French

Students' readiness to learn English is very high. In fact, they welcomed learning English as part of the official schedule but outside teaching hours. Most of the respondents were in favor of studying English in accordance with different levels, scheduled twice a week, even when attendance is mandatory. However, in their responses, students insisted they were willing to pay neither for classes nor for costly manuals provides a more detailed account of the degree of their readiness:
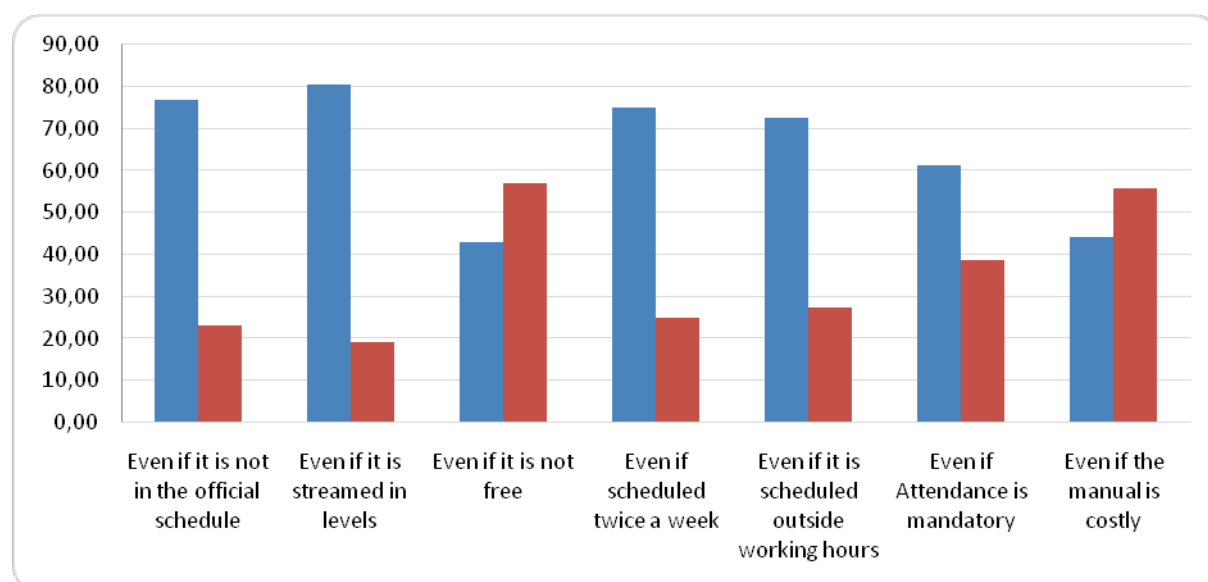
Figure 4: Students' readiness to learn English Language

The respondents' interest in learning English is bound to their motivation to first be able to speak and communicate with a fluent pronunciation. Second, they believe that learning the English language will give them access to the job market. A number of them claimed that their interest in learning English was to enrich their vocabulary in general and that of their field of study in particular. Others seek to develop the remaining language skills. Some report other needs such as learning a new language, doing basic research, travelling abroad, becoming familiar with English speaking cultures, understanding native speakers and lastly having better grades.
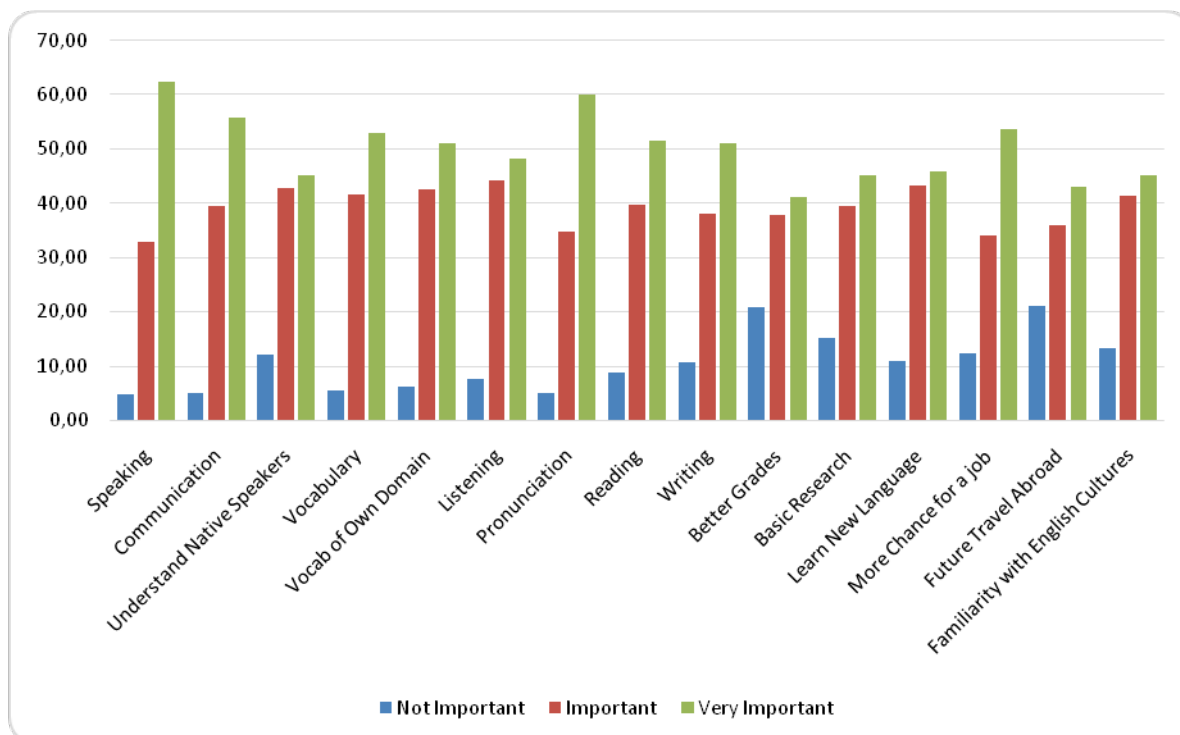
Figure 5: Students' general self-reported needs of learning English

We can infer that a great number of the respondents recognize the importance of learning English as the interest in learning French language is declining. Their readiness and high interest in English language learning could be explained by their different needs and motivations that incline more towards the use of English for communication, enriching vocabulary, and finding job opportunities regardless of their majors or fields of interest.

7.2. English language learning needs analysis

The questionnaire was also designed to identify the English language skills that the students are more inclined to learn and/or develop. The results show that more than 70% of the students at the three different levels gravitate towards the speaking skill. Speaking at international conferences, delivering presentations, and using the English speaking skill for touristic purposes, and in meetings rank high among their priorities. As far as the reading skill is concerned, about 44 % of the respondents did not find it "very important" although admitting its importance especially in their own studies and academia. On the other hand, listening is described as important as the reading skill. 45% of the respondents revealed that listening is very important for them to follow the teachers' explanations, and understand TV, films, and news while it is only important (49%) in cases of presentations, reports and conferences. Finally, writing was ranked, as the least needed language skill with 53% of the respondents claiming they only need it for translation purposes. Others stressed its role in writing emails, reports, and note taking. Figure 6 and 7 display the highest ranked skill and the lowest in terms of the four skills.

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	Speaking to Tourists	Speaking to Mates	Speaking on Phone	Speaking at Meetings	Speaking at International Conference	Speaking at Presentations	Small Talk	Long Travel Abroad	Speaking at Hotels Travel Abroad
■ Not Important	9,35	12,46	25,57	14,96	17,01	13,29	19,11	19,51	16,77
■ Important	46,04	49,58	42,70	43,43	36,82	45,17	40,02	39,27	39,13
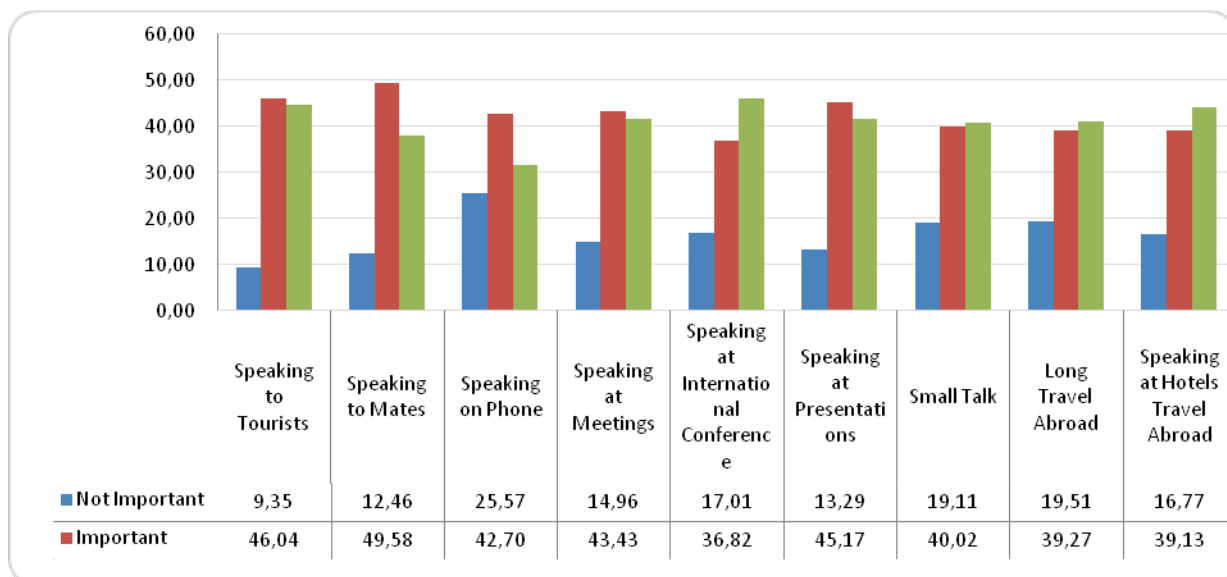
Figure 6: Students' self-reported speaking needs

	Writing Reports	Writing Email	Write Business Letters	Writing Monograph	Write Article Summary	Writing Academic Articles	NoteTaking	Translating
■ Not Important	20,44	17,48	19,39	15,29	17,80	19,51	18,73	8,86
■ Important	47,32	49,76	46,46	46,36	45,98	42,68	47,86	38,35
■ Very Important	32,24	32,76	34,15	38,35	36,22	37,80	33,41	52,78
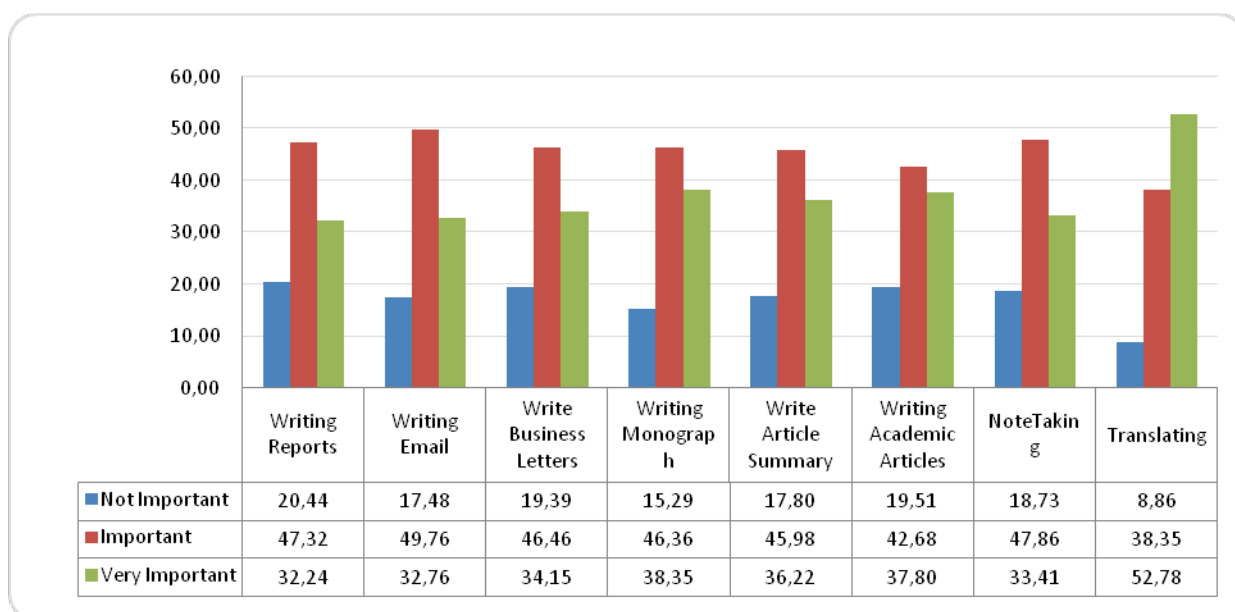
Figure 7: Students' self-reported writing needs

8. Conclusion and recommendations

As per the findings above, we conclude that students at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences in Rabat are very motivated and significantly interested in learning English for various reasons independently of the recent decision issued by the Ministry of Higher Education. Indeed, a great proportion of students would like to learn English to develop their communication skills, enrich their vocabulary and be able to interact interculturally. Only a few attribute their desire to learn English to the decision making it a requirement to access academia. This difference in interest is primarily dependent upon their choice of the field of study. For instance, students from humanities departments, namely sociology and psychology, need English to access academic research, reviews, and attend or take part in conferences, unlike other language departments, which incline towards the practical application of the language. Their motivation behind learning the language is mainly to pave the way to their career goals. The fact that the students lean towards the speaking skill explains their needs in terms of speaking and communicating fluently. Their ultimate objective is not to produce research papers with the language but to understand it when attending conferences or reading research materials. All in all, students' purpose of learning English at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences in Rabat is neither academic nor recreational.

Departments at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences are urged to include English as part of their curricula since the vast majority of students are desperately in need of learning this language. Their motivation exceeds the expectations we put forward in this article. Yet, many of them see costly books and course fees as major obstacles to attaining their goals. We believe that students from the above-mentioned departments must sit for a placement test once registered at the Faculty and only then we could place them according to their language level. The Faculty Council should consider instituting intensive English language classes as part of the students' curricula for the freshman year for about 60 hours per semester in order to allow the students to develop and enhance their general English language before they can access specialized courses in their fields of study in English. Students then will be exposed to English for three years and thus prepare those who are interested in pursuing graduate studies to access master and doctoral programs. As for those who will be pursuing career goals, they will master the language of their field of interest. Only this way will the Faculty Council ensure the implementation of the decision issued by the Ministry of Higher Education.

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AIDA MODEL: A SOURCE OF ATTRACTION IN PROMOTING CHILDREN PRODUCTS' ADVERTISEMENTS

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Abstract
The aim of the study is to look for the presence of AIDA (attention, interest, desire, and action) Model in children products' advertisements. It was also seen that, how ad makers are using AIDA Model to gain the attention of children. AIDA Model is a powerful tool to analyze ads and their credibility. This is a qualitative research. Eight children products' advertisements have been chosen randomly. Discussion has been done by keeping AIDA Model in mind. The researchers have looked for attention, interest, desire and action which can be awakened through advertisements. Ad makers are using bright colours to attract the attention of children. They are using powerful language, celebrities and doing repetition to give them awareness and provoking them for action. Something which is noticeable is the use of fictitious men characters then women characters in advertisements to make them more appealing. It can be said that all advertisements are successfully utilizing AIDA Model in order to make their product successful.
Keywords: AIDA Model, Advertisements, Language

Introduction
Formerly the advertisements were made by captivating information on radio, old televisions, and billboards. This was the age of ideal advertising, when the efforts were considered as a part of society.

Advertising and marketing were used as a medium to increase sales. Now a day's Advertisement is considered as one of the significant features for customer service. The first advertisement was displayed on television screens in 1941 in the United States of America.

Different Characters were built around the products' to create an impression of connection between spectators and brands, and famous faces were introduced to sell everything from washing machines to wines. With the rapid growth of communications, effective advertisement can produce value for consumers. The commercial can create together worthwhile relationships with customers and suppliers that will result in mutual benefits of both the customer and the seller. The purpose of effective advertisement is to change the approach of customer in term of awareness and behavior. It another aim is to inform, persuade, brace relations and endorse interactions through advertising.

For better understanding how advertising works and to grasp the attention of public, advertisers try to outline and describe the customer's buying process by using diverse models theories. AIDA is among other marketing model and focuses customer that describes hypothetically how customer transfer through the communication network and intends to buy a particular product or service.

These theoretical models used for determining effects of advertisement on potential of customers that helps in setting the objectives, construction and examine the impact of the conveyed message. Through the hierarchy of effects models AIDA Model is used for determining the effectiveness of advertisement on the customer behavior. This model of hierarchy of effects symbolizes a process through multiple stages that describe customer's unawareness of a product to awareness, establishing specific preferences for purchasing a product, and potentially developing loyalty for the brand. For effective selling of products' and to attract the customers it is very important for a seller to efficiently recognize these hierarchical steps and detect for each case. AIDA model describes four steps which drive the customer from starting with awareness, interest, desire and action.

Research Question
How AIDA Model is used in making children product's advertisements attractive?

Literature Review
Role and Importance of Advertising
Now a day the l role of advertisement are not being covered in depth. Most of the big businesses are somehow related to the advertising and marketing business structure. A lot is spend on advertising businesses, their goals is to indicate the importance of advertising. Appropriateness and efficiency of an advertisement is a key issue in the area of advertising because most of the electronic and print media (newspapers and magazines, radio and television) networks have their major share through the revenue they earn by advertising and commercial businesses.

Purpose of an Advertisement
Each advertisement has its own objective and a purpose in mind to persuade the target audience to buy the product or to offer money for an environmental cause. Another purpose can be to vote for a political candidate etc.

According to Calvert (2008), features or attributes, which are greatly focused in children's television advertisements, includes action and movement, rapid pacing, sound effects, and loud music.

How Children Process Advertisements
To be effective, an eye catching approach should be used by the children for understanding the message. Children are supposed to have desire for a certain product and recognition of a product. They ought to remember that product, and buy it then. Moreover, children's understanding and appeal for a certain ad will determine the success of that particular ad.

Attention
Advertisements, which are made to attract and hold the attention of children, are characterized by vigorous actions, sound effects, and loud music. These things would easily set up an impact on the mind of children. The animated character The Tiger, for example, bursts onto the screen, proclaiming that whoever will eat Tiger biscuit will have the energy of Tiger, gains and holds the attention of children.

Recognition and Retention
Children are apt to remember things which have visual and auditory appeal or where there is repetition. According to a research, preschool, kindergarten, and second-grade children remember food products advertisements presented audio visually or visually far better than products presented in an audio version only. Advertisers use catchy auditory features like jingles, songs or rhymes which replay in children's mind, and by their repetition children tend to remember them longer.

How Advertising Works: Models of advertising
According to Bovee et al. 1995, advertisers are continuously trying to classify and model how advertising works. They often pick meaningful communications objectives through these defined models.

DAGMAR is one of the initial and significant models an acronym for Defining Advertising Goals for Measured Results, a book that was first published in 1961 (Colley 1984), it is also commonly known as the AIDA model. Awareness, comprehension, conviction, and action are the four stages of communication upon which the model was built.

AIDA model has been presented by Elmo Lewis in about 1906. The first model in the series of effect model was proposed in 1897 (Strong, 1925) and included three steps. First step that a sales person should guide his customer: to grab the attention, hold the attention and create desire. Another step was added in the process and that was action. This first model was known as advertising literature as AIDA and was developed from its earlier form by Strong (1925).

AIDA model is designed for determining the effectiveness of an advertisement to promote the products' among people. This model consists of four steps: first step illuminates and fascinate attention which means that before you sell something to final customer you should attract the attention of people. Attention of people could be grasped by several ways. Such as embellished captions, controversial or startling content can to appeal the customers through promotional messages. (Barry and Harward,1990,p.119)

Second step involves in developing the interest in the people. Which demonstrates product's features and benefits, people start how their interest in the product. Striking Music and fancy language and statements should be appropriate with the attitudes of customers. Moreover it should be kept in consideration while in promoting the product and designing the promotions the language to communicate with target customers, the

layout and content of the promotional material must also be correct and standardized. (Barry and Harward, 1990, pp. 120-122)

Third step which is used to create desire in the people that is a key element of AIDA model. Advertiser must be aware how to target the clients and their thinking through the advertisement. Seller of the product must be able to persuade customers and assure them that their needs will be fulfilled. (Barry and Harward ,1990,pp.121-122)

Fourth step is the final step to motivate the customer for taking final decision for the purchase. By this time, the client you want will be able to know about purchasing, and would have taken the final decision to complete the process. It is of utmost importance for the advertiser of the product, must be able to provide them support that their choice was accurate. People should be able for reference marketing by using words and advertised content in their social circle. (Bendixen, 1993, pp. 19-20).

Whatsoever the diversity, a hierarchy of effects models is rooted on the assumption that firstly people learn something from advertising, then exhibit their feelings about the product in question, and lastly take action (for example, purchasing a product). This arrangement of stages is often called the learn-feel-do sequence (Bovee et al. 1995).

Methodology

For this research, AIDA Model has been used to analyze the advertisements of children's products'. Researchers have looked for the attention, interest, desire, and action, which are aroused through advertisements. This is a qualitative research. Discussion has been done on the basis of 8 randomly selected advertisements.

Figure 1. AIDA Model

Discussion

AIDA model is a very prominent and impressive model for an advertisement. It captures all the elements of a successful advertisement. It looks for awareness, interest, desire and action an ad can arouse among its target audience.

Figure 2. Dettol

Figure 3. Safeguard

Figure 4. Tiger Biscuit

Figure 5. Prince Biscuit

All the ads above have super heroes, branded characters or celebrities which children admire. Like first advertisement has Shahid Afridi a well known cricketer along with three main characters of a popular Pakistan kids movie Teen Bhadur. They all represent power and they are the representatives of Dettol which attracts children to buy Dettol. The backdrop of the ad says "Dettol Worriers" which means that all of these characters are fighting against germs. The second ad is of Safeguard. It again has a masculine character which represents power and common children which represents common population of children. This ad states "Mission Clean Sweep" which also motivates children to buy this soap and be the part of this mission. The first two ads gives awareness to children about being clean and hygienic buy giving interesting logos, bright colors and most importantly persuading characters. Third ad is of Tiger Biscuit which has the monogram of Tiger. The slogan of the ad is "Eat Tiger Biscuit and Become a Tiger" which itself is a self explanatory and a metaphorical statement. Tiger is one of the most powerful animal and this biscuits arouse desire among children through its powerful play of fictitious character and wording that a child will have the power of a tiger after eating it. The last ad is also of a biscuit. This ad has made up the character of a prince as a hero and the main character of the product. The character of prince also provokes the attention of children and suggests that this biscuit would take them to fantasy world.

Figure 6. Gluco Biscuit

Figure 7. Cocomo

Figure 8. Lifebuoy

Figure 9. Horlicks

All of the above advertisements are of different products' and each of them represents different things in terms of message but the very purpose of all of these are to attract children and provoke them towards action. The first ad is of a biscuits "Gluco" which has been derived from the word glucose. Its slogan says "Strong Bano,

Smart Raho" which indicates that this biscuit will give children power and keep them smart. The fictitious character used in this ad is from a popular movie of children "Teen Bahadur". The relevance of the movie characters with biscuits shows the strong relation of this biscuit with power. Second ad above is of a biscuit "Cocomo". It can be seen that the biscuit is designed in round shape but different characters have been printed on them. These characters are related to children and they attract them to buy it and enjoy. Third ad is of Lifebuoy. Presence of Hulk (a famous fictional superhero) depicts that usage of this product will give special powers to children. It can also be seen through the picture that the arm of the boy is similar to the arm of Hulk due to the usage of lifebuoy liquid hand wash. The last ad is of Horlicks, which is an energy drink. A dramatic picture of milk coming out of the glass as masculine arms shows that this drink will give a special sort of strength to children and will make them strong. The graphics of the ad attracts children and motivates them for action. This ad is also attracting parents in a manner that the slogan states that "Horlicks increases the Power of Milk". Every parent knows the importance of milk in a child's life and if this energy drink will make that milk more effective, they would definitely go for it. Vivid colours, attractive language and use of fictitious characters make these ads eye catching and grab the attention of children.

All the ads analyzed represent different age groups. Brilliant and attention-grabbing colours have been used in all ads to seize the attention of children. Language used is fitting the scenario of ads and it is also inspiring children for action. Most of the ads are giving awareness to children about health and being strong. There is a lot of repetition in the ads as well. Repetitions include the drilling of slogan, message or tag line of the ad. This technique makes children aware of the product, makes them remember it and affects purchasing power too. It is totally seen that the ad maker has kept his target audience in mind. It was also found that, most of the ads show men superheroes, branded character, celebrities or men fictitious characters in spite of female characters. Males are more dominant in children products' advertisements. It was also found that AIDA Model is completely and successfully used in all ads to attract children.

One of the limitations of the research is that the researchers were not able find a variety of ads pertaining to children's products'. Ads catering to children products' are mostly of eatables or things related to hygiene or health. Further research needs to be done on the existence on female fictitious characters in children products' advertisements.

Conclusion

It has been found that AIDA Model is entirely present in children products' advertisements. It was observed that, most of the ads show men superheroes, celebrities, branded characters or men fictitious characters in spite of female characters. Males are more dominant in children products' advertisements. Female fictitious characters are not found and the researchers can investigate on the existence of such characters in children products' advertisements. Use of luminous colours, vivid vocabulary, repetition, free prizes and attention grabbing messages attract children and motivate them for action, gives them awareness, arouse their interest and stirs up their desire to buy or use the product. This marketing strategy also make product to stay in their memory and influence their purchasing choice.

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LANGUAGE DILEMMA IN ALGERIAN HIGHER EDUCATION PRE-UNIVERSITY SCHOOLING IN ARABIC AND MEDICAL STUDIES IN FRENCH

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Abstract

This paper attempts to show a language dilemma related to higher education in Algeria. The question tackles 'baccalauréat' holders' choice of university courses: though basic knowledge is acquired in Standard Arabic, the official language of instruction in Algeria in high school diploma, a number of university streams are provided in French, only taught as a foreign language. Freshmen interested in medicine, for instance, are faced with learning difficulties if they do not master French. An investigation of a group of medical students, undertaken in Tlemcen, has revealed some of these issues, in particular the low academic achievement from the part of the students. The study also deals with their attitudes towards French, usually positive among those who have a good command of the language, but negative among others. We also touch upon the issue of language policy in the Algerian education system as some students have expressed the desire of pursuing medical studies in Arabic.

Introduction

The long and complex historical events Algeria has been through mainly because of its geographical position have shaped a complex and quite rich linguistic situation attested in the present use of dialects with all their diversity throughout the country as well as bilingualism, resulting from a long-term colonization, and diglossia (Ferguson, 1959) that can be seen in every day speech. The educational system is also a reflection of this rich linguistic diversity and has been affected by it and sometimes not without negative side-effects that have created the dilemma which this article tries to reflection on. The present article does not try to present actual solutions to the presented dilemma but mainly to shed light on a given problem some students might have with the coexistence of two languages in the educational system.

1. The Algerian educational system

The structure of today's Algerian pre-university educational system is a 5 + 4 + 3-year model, five years in primary school, four years in middle school and three years in secondary school. These nine years constitute the compulsory basic education phase. The ministry of education is responsible for the primary and secondary school and the ministry of higher education is responsible for university studies. In the first five years of basic education pupils attend class for 27 hours a week the basic language being Arabic for all domains. French is taught as a second language only from the third year. At secondary school level, French has the same status, as it is taught as a second language.

1.1 Bilingualism and education

In the traditional conception of language, being a bilingual was considered to be debased, as only classical languages were seen as prestigious and only the language of the powerful was meant to be the standard and the one spoken language in a country. Bilingualism was a trait of only invaded countries and barbarous people. It was also believed that being educated in more than one language was a disadvantage for the learning process as it could slow it down or confuse the learner. Modern linguistics and new investigations, however, have shown that bilingualism can indeed be very beneficent for the learner and for the development of cognitive abilities.

Indeed, it has been shown that bilingual children can perform better than monolingual children at certain learning tasks. Bilingual students have greater abilities in solving problems as they develop their cognitive level, learning things in two different languages can develop flexibility. These are among the multiple advantages bilingualism has in education.

1.2 Bilingualism and language planning

One primary aim of language policy is to attempt to unify a country to create a monolingual nation, in particular when the state in question was under colonial rule, as is the case of Algeria and the whole Maghreb, for example. The objective, of course, is to establish the most prestigious language as the official language and

to implement it as the language of administration, national administrative sectors, and most importantly as a medium for education. Schiffman (1996:i) writes in this regard: *"The language policies and rules that nations draw up dictate which form of language will be taught in schools and used as the official tongue of the nation"*.

It is in the nature of language, as modern linguistics has already proved, to change over time influenced by social and geographical factors. But as nations are geo-politically limited with borders, and as a nation is usually faced with the challenge of unifying its various communities and ethnic groups under one national identity, this determination to distinguish one's identity has pushed over time politicians and decision makers to impede the natural tendency to change, which language possesses, and to select a unifying form of the language which becomes the country's standard.

Throughout history, great nations and empires have always had policies for their languages in order to keep a solid nation's identity or when colonizing other areas to spread their languages and power. As a matter of fact, language policy is present in virtually every country whether it is monolingual or multilingual, as expressed by Schiffman (1996): there's *'no such thing as no language policy'*. Language policy is always present as all nations are in search of identity and unity, to have control over its people's language and over language in different institutions.

In multilingual settings, it is essential for politicians to decide which languages represent the country, or which language is official, or how many languages can become official. In general, it has always been government and decision makers who decide about language implementation in a given multilingual country. Even in the apparent monolingual settings, language policy is present as those countries might be called monolingual but they actually possess a lot of dialects and a standard form of the language.

In France, for instance, Parisian French, the prestigious dialect of Ile-de-France was codified in its spelling grammar and vocabulary and decreed by François the 1 st by mid-16th century as the only official language and for the sake of standard use. That variety used in the King's Court was imposed on the whole nation, while all other French dialects were excluded from formal uses and education. This form of standardization was undertaken through the *Académie Française* (1635). Standard English, also the dialect of the King's Court, did not go through the institution of an academy. Another form of codification occurred in the case of Arabic as we shall see below.

The point is that it is the nation's language policy which favours a given language or language variety, usually the one used by the powerful, to become the standard form of the country. Such policy leading to language planning - or 'language management', as Spolsky (2005) prefers to call it - may be explicit, written down in the form of texts or laws, or implicitly established by the authority. In this regard, Spolsky (2004: 8) says that *"Language policy exists even where it has not been made explicit or established by authority. Many countries and institutions and social groups do not have formal or written language policies, so that the nature of their language policy must be derived from a study of their language practice or beliefs."*

We believe that the language policy in Algeria has been established implicitly, and this is precisely the nature of language decisions in the Arab world, taken on the basis that Arabic is the language of the *Qur'an*, the sacred book of Islam. Thus, it is the so-called modern form of Classical Arabic, Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), which has become the official language of the 22 Arab countries.

Language policy is also important in post-colonial countries, mainly to decide whether to keep the colonizer's language or to recover the native language. Indeed, a number of countries formerly colonized by the French and the British have maintained the language of the colonizer as the official language; e.g. French in Senegal, English in Nigeria, etc.

Language policy, in general, can simply be stated as the actions undertaken by the government to promote a national language or to favour or discourage the use of a given language or dialect. Language planning is often associated with language policy, thought it can be undertaken by non-governmental organizations. It has been defined by Cooper (1989:45) as *"deliberate efforts to influence the behaviour of others with respect to the acquisition, structure and functional allocations of their language codes."* Language planning exists in two forms, 'status planning' and 'corpus planning', the former meaning the change of the function of a language or a variety increasing or decreasing its status; the latter involves developing a variety of a language or a language in order to standardize it.

2. Medical studies in Algeria

The Algerian educational system includes learning French from the third year of elementary school as it can be beneficent for the future of some learners due to the fact of the massive existence of the French language in administrations and scientific domains. However, it is worth noting that in the Algerian educational system French is not learned side by side with Arabic which would imply learning all matters in both languages, but it is rather added to Arabic as a second language. What we obtain in this sense is a subordinate bilingualism. The

aim in this article is to wonder if this language policy serves all students and if learning French as a second language may help developing cognitive abilities and if it serves learners in their future careers.

It is obvious that bilinguality can have a positive effect on the learning process. But does it have a positive effect in an educational system where French is only taught as a second language while all other matters are taught in Arabic? Meanwhile, once at university in all scientific fields, French is the only language used. Is the way French is taught, as a second language, beneficent for all students, or do some of them have difficulties? These are some of the questions that we try to answer.

A series of questionnaires have been distributed to a group of students in medicine to establish whether learning everything in French was an advantage or a disadvantage to them, more exactly if this sudden switch in the language of education has a negative or a positive effect. It has been established that learning in two languages can have a positive effect on the cognitive development; however this sudden switch can be harmful for some students as their answers have shown.

The questionnaire was administered to a group of students to determine their different skills in both Arabic and French, their preference of use and the language they prefer to use in their daily life as well as the language they think they master or understand better.
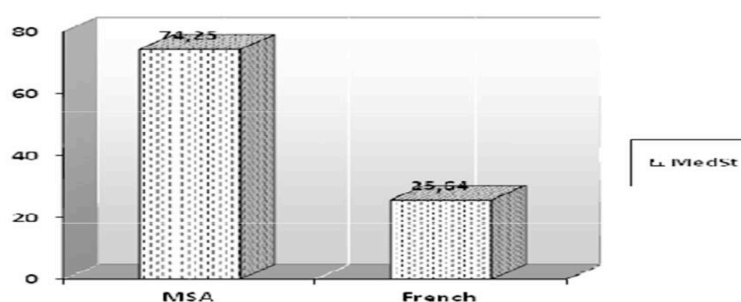
Figure 2.1 The speaking skill in MSA vs. French

Among 100 students, 74% affirmed mastering MSA and only 26% said they mastered French more. These results are quite obviously due to the nature of the Algerian education system in which all the studies are in MSA before university while scientific fields are taught in French at the university. As for those who state that they speak French better, they are probably encouraged by their parents who wish their off-spring to become doctors, and thus are likely to have higher motivation for learning French.

However, such language mismatch is indeed a problem for so many students who struggle to have an acceptable level in their studies. In the questionnaire, we gave the students a question to check whether they actually suffer from the language they study in.
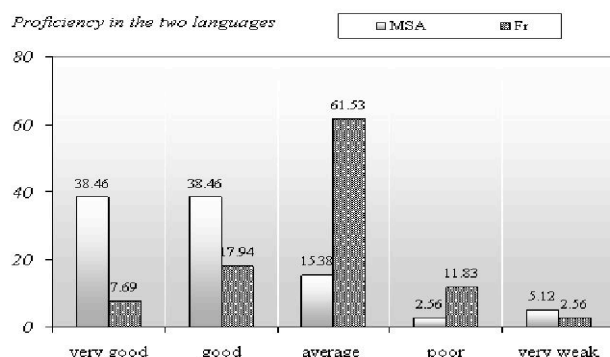
Figure 2.2. Students' proficiency in MSA and French

One aim of the research was to discover whether the students favour learning medicine in Arabic rather than in French. Indeed, the proficiency results in the table above show that 77% are more proficient in MSA and only 25 % are good in French, the language in which more than 14 % are poor. Thus, the acquisition of intellectual development would be better if he lectures were delivered in Arabic. As a matter of fact, almost 57 % of the students stated that they would prefer medical studies to be given in Arabic.

In another question, the students were asked in which language they prefer to watch different programs on TV and which they generally use while surfing on the web. We have intentionally chosen those activities as they are not necessarily related to their studies in order to show, in case there are different responses, that their different linguistic behaviour is related to other factors, mainly the different attitudes they have towards the two languages. The results are shown on the charts below:

Qu. 4: In which language do you prefer watching T.V programmes and using the Internet?
 – ISc (Islamic sciences):

	Movies	News	Programs	Docs	Internet
Arabic	23	42	40	35	31
French	9	2	1	5	10
Both	5	4	7	8	5
No answer	12	1	1	1	3

Table 2.1 Language preference in watching TV and using internet among ISc students.

The graph represents clearly the results obtained:
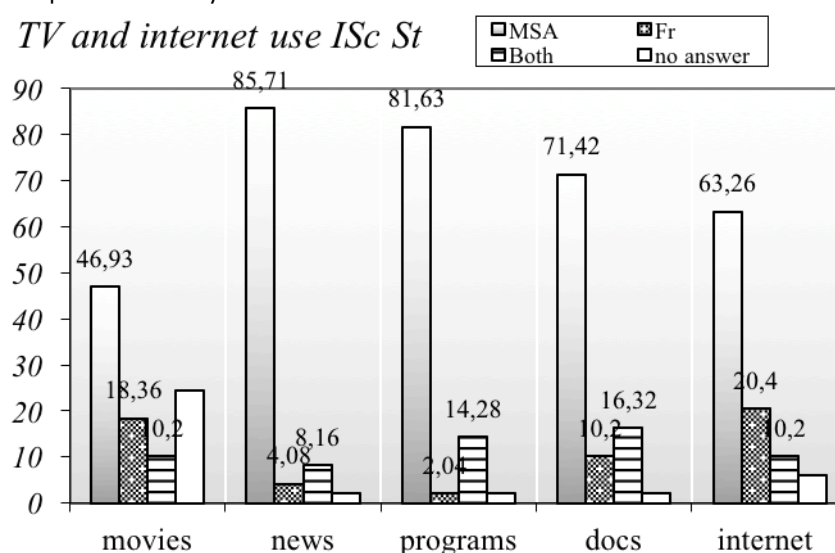
Fig. 2.3. ISc Language choice in TV and Internet use

The difference in the use of MSA vs. French appears clearly when we consider the Med respondents:
 – Med (Medecine Students):

	Movies	News	Programs	Docs	Internet
Arabic	16	23	19	18	8
French	17	14	14	17	29
Both	6	2	6	4	2

Table 2.2 Language preference in watching TV and using the Internet among Med students
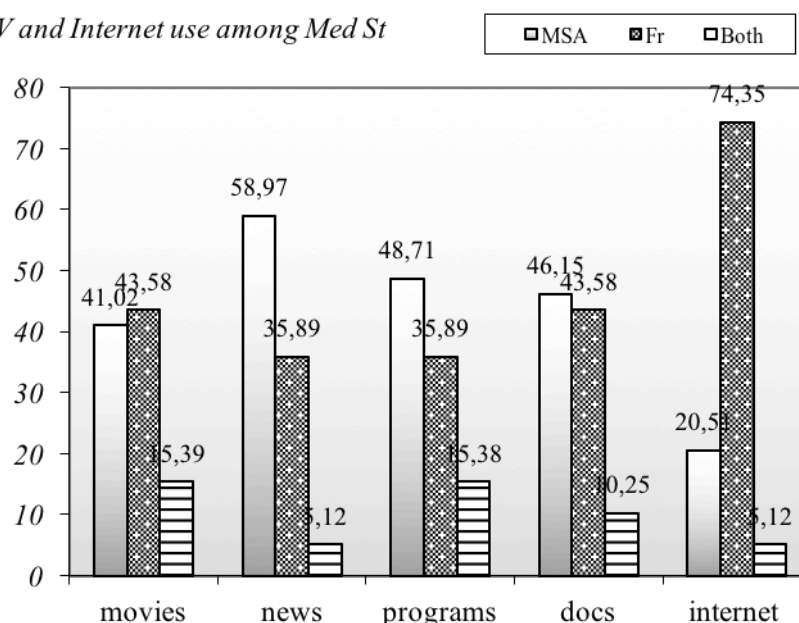
Fig. 2.4 Med Language choice in TV and Internet use

The most salient fact that can be drawn when observing the two graphs is the excessive presence of Arabic among students' choice in the Islamic department in watching TV and exploring the net, whereas the more balanced presence of Arabic and French among medicine students suggests that the two groups may be said to belong to different communities of practice (Eckert 2000) on the basis of language choice. We believe that Eckert's definition of 'communities of practice' fits our two groups of students in relation to the degree of Arabic and French practice and their attitudes towards the two languages, though they belong to the same speech community.

Here's one characterization of a 'community of practice' that Eckert (2000:13) puts forward:

A community of practice is an aggregate of people who come together around mutual engagement in some common endeavor. Ways of doing things, ways of talking, beliefs, values, power relations - in short, practices - emerge in the course of their joint activity around that endeavor. A community of practice is different as a social construct from the traditional notion of community, primarily because it is defined simultaneously by its membership and by the practice in which that membership engages.

We might well consider then that our informants have chosen to study either medicine or Islamic sciences on the basis of the value they give to the language of their studies, among other incentives of course, which leads to distinct linguistic behaviour, not only in university settings but also in everyday practices.

A few questions arise: Since news, movies, docs, etc. are available to both groups in Arabic and French, why are there many more students in medicine who prefer to do those activities in French than there are in the department of Islamic sciences? Do these motivations have an impact on language use? Are those motivations telling us something about their different conceptions of the two languages? Do they see Arabic and French the same way? Are different attitudes toward the two languages responsible for the different choices we can witness?

In fact the data presented above show that we can find more students in the department of Islamic studies that have a positive attitude toward Arabic than with the Med students, whose opinions are more balanced. This can be partly due to the different levels of skills they have shown in the first questions, but most importantly, as already mentioned many times, to attitudes towards a language.

In the last question the students of the two settings were asked whether they find difficulties in the respective language of their studies.

- Do you find difficulties in the language of your studies?

Table 2.3   Difficulties in the study language

	Yes	A little	No
ISc	2	8	39
Med	7	22	10

The graph below gives us the results in percentages:

Difficulty in the language of studies
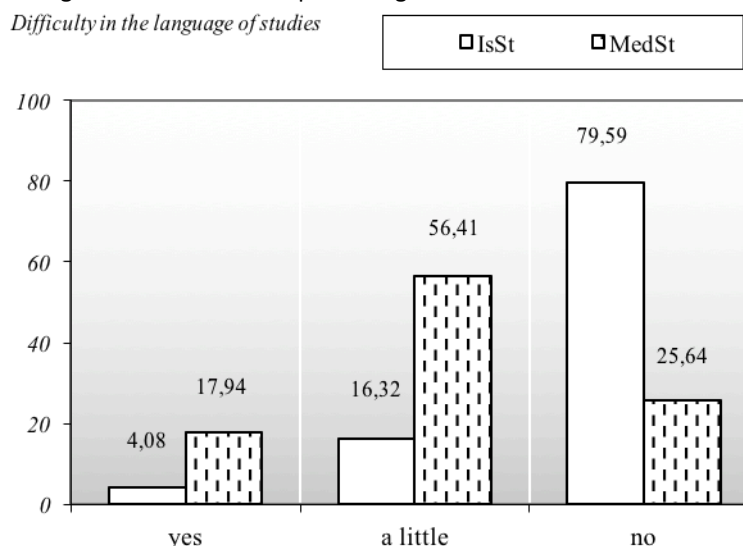
Fig. 2.5 Difficulties encountered in the study language

The table and graph show that for the larger part of the students in Islamic sciences department, Arabic causes no problem to the advancement of their study, which confirms their high skills in MSA. This is of course due to their motivations as the nature of their studies requires a good mastering of that language. This also can suggest, from a psychological point of view, the positive attitudes they have toward Standard Arabic. The small number of answers showing that they find difficulties in Arabic might be due to the natural difficulty such language can represent. It might represent a number of students who were not really interested in the study of Islamic sciences.

As for the Med students, and far from what one can expect, there is quite a considerable number of those who find difficulties in their study language, though the number of those who said they have no difficulty in French is greater. The difficulties encountered among medicine students in their study language simply lies in the nature of today's education system which, as pointed out earlier, is obliged to keep French for higher studies in scientific fields. In fact, pupils do all their pre-university studies in Arabic, and once they have chosen a scientific field, the language of studies suddenly changes, which can affect students' abilities. We believe that the 17% are demanding the government to revise the educational system and that they are in favour of the study of medicine in Arabic. Still, on the other hand, there are 25% of students for whom there is no difficulty, or problem in studying in French, which once again suggests a positive attitude. This confirms our hypothesis which stipulates that scientific fields, and medicine more particularly, have always been somehow associated with the French language in Algeria, and this, as mentioned earlier, has its causes in the fact that it was during colonialism that modern sciences developed quickly and were brought to Algeria. But even after independence, mostly because of the lack of proficient teachers of sciences in Arabic, the only language available for scientific studies is still French despite the huge effort of Arabisation.

Other questions are presented to the students in the form of what is called open-ended questions, as students are allowed to give their own opinions and points of view. In such questions, it is the qualitative results which matter most.

Students were asked in fact to give their own opinions and impressions they had toward a speaker who masters French very well, as opposed to one who masters MSA. All the questions asked were direct questions in which answers and facts are obtained from the quantitative results, where we could get an idea about the non-negligible differences in skills and language use found in the two university settings. Those quantitative results also gave us a hint of the possible different attitudes found in the two departments. This implies that the two questions 8 and 9 that we will analyse in the next chapter, are crucial in relation to the other quantitative questions, since they are a space where students can express themselves freely and where we can collect qualitatively significant data. These two questions are in fact crucial as they allow us to understand the different attitudes students have towards the two languages, mainly attitudes towards their interlocutors.

3. Conclusion

This article is an investigation into the extent to which Algerian bilingualism in the educational system can help or be difficult for Algerian university students in some scientific branches. The question asked was whether all

students were equally ready to the sudden switch of the language of education from high school in MSA to university studies in French. The results have shown that not all students were ready, as for some students, the use of French in their courses was a major difficulty that had serious negative effects on their academic level. Other students, however, were ready and needed no more lectures in French as they mastered it quite well. Some of them even thought that it would be preferable to study a scientific branch in the French language while others proposed that it would be helpful to study medicine in Arabic. This shows the dilemma in the use of bilingualism in the Algerian educational system and raises some questions on the possibility of some changes in this system.

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ASPECTS OF PHONOLOGY/ MORPHOLOGY INTERFACE IN ARABIC

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Abstract

The present article attempts to shed light on some aspects of the interaction between phonology and morphology in the Arabic linguistic system,. Such interface has not only revealed some subtle and highly complex characteristics in the grammar of this language, but also led many researchers towards far-reaching investigations and new theoretical implications. Such developments often bring explanations to long-lasting problems, but also expose new issues at an abstract level. Indeed, the complex morphological structure of Arabic, based primarily on non-concatenative patterns, in addition to concatenative affixation, has certainly been a powerful incentive for the development of recent morphological theories, including McCarthy's root-and-pattern morphology (1979) in particular, but also Koskenniemi's two-level morphology (1983) – encompassing what is considered by linguistics as morphology but also phonology, in the sense of morphophonemics – and prosodic morphology (McCarthy and Prince 1986 *et seq.*). One reason for the interest shown by linguists and computer scientists in Arabic is that this natural language is characterized by a number of morphological features non-extant in other languages.

Introduction

Our goal in this paper is first to provide a brief picture of the variety of shapes taken by Arabic words, particularly in verb moulds, or *'awzaan*, the organisation of which is based on a templatic system that presents motivating challenges to universal morphology, on the one hand, and to computational linguistics, on the other.

Then, section two introduces a few patterns which show how underlying phonological representations and morphological processes are mutually influenced. We will also touch upon some principles proposed in Prosodic Morphology, described in McCarthy and Prince (2003:1) as *"...a theory of how morphological and phonological determinants of linguistic form interact with one another in a grammatical system."* In the last section, we will look at some instances of phonological/morphological interface in Arabic in the light of the *Optimality Theory* framework proposed in Prince and Smolensky (1993, *et seq.*).

1.   Aspects of Arabic Morphology

The Arabic language is known for its highly inflexional morphology, particularly illustrated by vowel infixation, a process wherein vowel quality is used to distinguish between morphological categories. In this process, basic consonantal roots consisting of (mainly) three consonants interspersed with a vowel 'melody' that produces a given template or category – and vowel 'melodies' are combined according to a predetermined number of canonical shapes to generate fixed patterns, also called 'templates' (Cf. McCarthy's 1979), used to express the various lexico-morphological categories.

1.1 Arabic Verbs

Playing a predominant role in the language, the Arabic verb is formed on the basis of a tri-consonantal root-morpheme – referred to by traditional Arab grammarians as *maadda*, meaning 'matter' or 'substance' – interspersed with what may be considered a vowel morpheme, 'melody' consisting of vocalic elements called *ħarakaat* (literally, 'movements', vowels that make consonants 'move'). The two morpheme sets, consonantal and vocalic, are intercalated according to fixed patterns and word configurations that make Arabic morphology of the non-concatenative type.

Such a complex and regular process allows for the generation of a large number of basic verbal variants from which derived forms are obtained by means of affixation. To set up a programme based on a computational treatment of Arabic morphology, Soudi *et al.* (2001:3) describe the processes of affixation in Arabic as follows:

In addition to prefixation and suffixation, inflectional and derivational processes may cause stems to undergo infixational modification in the presence of different syntactic features as well as certain stem consonants.

Following the conventional root {f.ʕ.l}, the morpheme {ktb}, which carries the notion of writing, produces various patterns according to the vowel melody applied: {a-a} produces the template /k**a**t**a**b/ in the active form, 'he wrote', while passivization obtains by way of the regular vowel pattern {u-i} giving /k**u**t**i**b/ 'It was

written.' Reciprocity, on the other hand, is expressed by means of the vocalic sequence {aa-a} that yields /k**aa**ta bahu/, 'corresponded with him'.

In the imperfective, the active/passive distinction in /jafʕal/ is achieved by means of the inversion in the vocalic pattern, i.e. /j**a**ftaħ/ vs. /j**u**ftaħ/, 'He opens vs. It is opened'.

The overall Arabic verbal morphology thus shows, in subtle ways, the relationship between verb templates and syntactic operations, on the one hand and lexico-phonological interfering, on the other, shown in cases of infixation where phonological elements are added in the root or prefixation as in /**ʔista**ktab/ 'to ask someone to write', to obtain diverse but semantically related lexical items. In the morphological shape of verb form II /faʕʕal/, as in /qa**tt**al/, meaning 'to overkill or to exaggerate in killing', the C_2 gemination, represented by the *ʃaddah* ّ in Arabic, clearly embodies intensity which conveys a semantic feature of the form.

Other types of verbs which display interesting cases of morpho-phonological interaction are those consisting of 'weak' radicals which we touch upon in the next sections along with other interesting instances of phonological/morpho-syntactic interface.

1.2 Arabic Nouns

Arabic nouns too are governed by a complex set of canonical patterns which reveal phonological/morphological interactions that are worthy of attention, in particular because of the fact that many are usually derived from verbal consonantal roots. In addition, the plural of many nouns is not formed by suffixation, as it occurs with 'sound plurals' to which the suffix morphemes masculine {-uun} or feminine {-aat} are attached, e.g: masc. /muʕallim**uun**/ vs. fem. /muʕallim**aat**/, 'teachers'. 'Broken plurals', much more widespread in the language, have a more complex and appealing morphological structure because of the internal alteration they are characterized with. The modification of the singular stems occurs in a great number of canonical plural patterns. In words like /kitaab/, the stem itself is subjected to change by means of the vowel melody alteration yielding the plural form /kutub/, 'books'.

A comprehensive categorization of pluralisation in Arabic is indeed so arduous, but so attractive at the same time, that it requires the devising of a computer-based bank of pluralisation. In fact, only with the development of a computational model that can handle Arabic morphology generation as a whole, on the basis of the recent theoretical proposals, can we reach a better appreciation of the Arabic grammar system in terms of its overall structure and the interference of its components.

In the next sections, we consider cases that reveal how Arabic verb templates as well as noun patterns 'behave' in the overall grammar of the language. But it is essential and attention-grabbing at the same time to point up the important roles that short vowels play in the language. In fact, this is another specificity of Arabic that is illustrated in the functions assigned to vowels, as illustrated below.

1.3 Arabic Vowels

While consonants in Arabic appear to be associated with lexico-semantic concepts – e.g., {ktb} is the consonantal root or substance for 'writing'–, vowels are responsible for functions such as verb or noun categorization and syntactic marking, as we will attempt to show in the following.

- First, it is worth mentioning the fact that the final short vowel, V_3, of each word in a sentence and the 'nunation' (*tanween*), a marker of indefiniteness, tend to be dropped in pause form, usually at the end of an utterance, even in the language of the Qur'an with its status as the most formal type of Arabic; final vowel drop is attested even within an utterance in Modern Standard Arabic, and practically at the end of each word in Dialectal Arabic. For instance, in the first Quranic verse of chapter 112 /qul huwa llaahu ʔaħad**un**/, 'Say "He is Allah, the One"', the last word is read out [ʔaħad] in pause; and /ʔuktub ismak**a**/ 'Write your name', is realised [ʔuktub ismak].

But this does not mean at all that final vowels have no function in the language. As a matter of fact, they are phonological elements serving as syntactic markers, for they are used to distinguish, for instance, between a nominative that ends with a *ďamma* (a rounded vowel) and accusative which must carry a final *fatħa* (an open vowel); e.g. /ʔakala l walad**u** ttuffaaħat**a**/, 'The boy has eaten the apple'. Native speakers are of course supposed to have learned these vocalic patterns, with *iʕraab* rules, at school.

- Root-internal vowels, i.e V_1 and V_2 in a three-consonant template, also have functions to carry out in terms of morphological information, in particular bearing semantic weight by means of derivation and inflection processes: e.g., *χalaqa* vs. *χaliqa* 'to create vs. to get worn-out'; *fataħa* vs. *futiħa* 'He opened' vs. 'It was opened' (active vs. passive, respectively).

2.   Phonology/Morphology Interface

Although individual components of a grammar can be examined in isolation for specific purposes, it is now admitted that more insightful accounts can be obtained through the analysis of how such components are inter-related and how they function in harmony in language systems. The rules operating within a given level, as documented in traditional morphology and phonology (Chomsky and Halle 1968), may influence or be influenced by rules related to the 'contiguity' of grammar components.

The point is that a fruitful exploration of the Arabic language requires that its grammatical organisation be considered as an entity, not in terms of separate levels. Bird and Blackburn (1994: 1) write in this respect:

One model which looks particularly attractive in this regard considers the traditional modules of grammar (i.e. syntax, semantics and phonology) not in series where the output of one feeds into the input of the next, but rather in parallel, where each module exerts independent constraints.

Linguistic structures are indeed better handled in terms of integrated entities to be analysed simultaneously from different perspectives, taking into account two or more levels at the same time. A good example of such interface is obvious in the English plural morpheme {-s}: the allomorphic variation, [-s], [-z] and [-iz] as in *book*[s], *boy*[z] and *bus*[iz], are clearly accounted for with reference to phonological processes, here the preceding segments being the assimilating elements; in *boys*, /s/ →[z] **/** [+voice] _ . Such cases of assimilation may be regarded as instances that result from the natural unconscious tendency of speakers to 'make' speech production as harmonious and as easy as possible.

Other relevant examples that reveal interactions between phonology and morphology are relatively easy to come across in languages. In fact, native speakers of any language are linguistically competent as they 'know' how to combine phonological, morphological and syntactic processes.

2.1 Vowel harmony

A similar allomorphy to the English plural {-s} occurs with the Arabic suffix pronouns {-hu, humaa, hum, -hunna} (possessive, object or genitive case). The vowel [u] in [kitaabu**hu**] 'His book', [daraba**hum**] 'He hit them' or [qul lah**u**maa] 'Tell them (dual)', is realised as [i] allomorph as a result of the high front vowel or the unvowelled glide [j] that precedes [h], as in [b**ihi**], 'with it', and [ʔila**jhim**], 'to them', and not *[bihu] or *[ʔilajhum]. Here, the phenomenon is more complex than that of the English {-s} allomorphs because the final vowel is realised so as to satisfy harmony even though the influencing distinctive features [-back, +high] are not adjacent to the influenced element. A morpho-phonological rule can be stated thus: the high back vowel [u] undergoes fronting to [i] in the clitic 3rd person possessive and object pronouns {-hu}, {humaa}, {-hum} and {hunna} when these are preceded by the high front vowel [i] or by the semivowel [j]. The long back open vowel of the singular feminine morpheme suffix pronoun {-haa}, however, is not subjected to the same influence, most probably for the sake of preserving gender distinction.

A comparable phenomenon of vowel influence occurs with the 1st pers. possessive pronoun suffix {-ii} when attached to nouns or to a number of prepositions such as {maʕa}, {qabla} and {baʕda}, 'with', 'before' and 'after'. But not only is the influence here regressive, for the underlying phrase /maʕa+ii/, 'with me' is realised [maʕii] and /kitaabu+ii/→[kitaabii], 'my book', but it also results in overwriting and deletion of the final vowel to which the pronoun {-ii} is attached, and therefore to resyllabication, in order to avoid the unacceptable and prosodically-undefinable syllabic structure CVVV], and to satisfy the final open heavy syllable – CVV]. It might be worth noting that the Algerian Arabic form [mʕaja] corroborates this view: there is no need to drop the vowel in question as the {-ii} pronoun here is not realised as a long vowel but as {-ja} and thus the syllable –cv] is satisfied. The same occurs with the noun phrase [χu**ja**], 'my brother', in the dialect as opposed to MSA [ʔaχ**ii**].

These and other instances can be used as evidence for the tight relation between morphological structures in Arabic and prosodic features or the syllable make-up, on the one hand, and syntactic/semantic structures, on the other. Bird and Blackburn (ibid.) clearly illustrate these relations with reference to the morpheme, for example, which, as they say, *"may be represented as a complex consisting of a semantic expression, a constraint on morpho-syntactic distribution, and a phonological description"*.

The model referred to as Optimality Theory, and developed by Prince and Smolensky (1993/2004), attempts to explain interrelated grammar structures in terms of constraint influences on surface forms or outputs resulting from various phonological morphological and syntactic processes. Because of its highly complex and rich structures, Arabic has been regarded as a fascinating candidate for theoretical advances. One process that is relevant to our study has been pointed out by McCarthy (2007:263) who argues that *"In Arabic or German, every syllable must have an onset, tout court, and [ʔ] is epenthesized whenever it is needed to ensure that outcome."*

2.2 Vowel Epenthesis

In this kind of morphology/phonology interface, Arabic has recourse to vowel insertion before initial consonant clusters to satisfy the onset constraint, as words cannot begin with two or more consonants. In the imperative mood, for example, the stem /ktub/ can only be rendered by means of vowel epenthesis giving [**u**ktub]; but as a Arabic does not allow onset-less syllables, a further epenthesis, that of a glottal stop (*hamzat u lwaşl*), is necessary to have the 'optimal' output [**ʔu**ktub]. Similarly, citing the example *alqalam* (the pen), for which the definite article *al* necessitates a glottal epenthesis after a pause in Arabic to obtain the output [**ʔ**alqalam], Prince and Smolensky (1993:24) acknowledge that *"Arabic syllables must be of the form CV(X); epenthesis ensures that the obligatory onset is present, whatever the input configuration."*

If the onset constraint is raised, that is, when the items in question are not found in initial position, then *hamzatu l waşl*, [ʔ]-epenthesis, does not apply, as in [ˋχuði ⌢qalam(a) ˋθumma ⌢ktub ⌢ismak(a)] 'Take the pen, then write your name'; (the symbol ⌢ is used here to represent the juncture, the position at which [ʔ]-drop occurs (or a whole [ʔ+vowel] haplology in the case of the imperative). What is noteworthy here is the interference between the phonological process and the prosodic featuring as it leads to an overall resyllabification in the utterance: [ˋχu . ðil ˋqa . la . m(a) ˋθum . mak . tu . ˋbis . mak].

Another glottal stop, called *hamzatu l qaţʕ*, does not undergo the same process because of its status as part of the root or the stem as in the causative verb /ʔadχala/ 'to cause to enter', or in the broken plural template *ʔafʕaal* as in /ʔaţfaal/ 'children'. This type of glottal stop in such cases is realised in all phonetic environments; compare [wadχul], 'and come in', with elision of the epenthetic [ʔu] with [wa **ʔ**adχili l **ʔ**aţfaal], 'and let the children in', where [ʔ] is not epenthetic, but part of the stem.

Final unvowelled consonants *(saakina)*, which occur with a number of particles like /min, man, law…/ ('from, who, if', respectively) become vowelled under the effect of the next word, in particular with the definite article {ʔal-}, as in /mi**n**albaħri/ 'from the sea', as opposed to /mi**n** hunaa/ 'from here'. A similar vocalic harmony occurs with the 2nd person imperative verb form as in /χuð, kul, daʕ…/ ('take, eat, let), though here the final consonant of the verb takes on the high front [i] as in /χuð**i**l kitaab/ 'Take the book' vs. [/χu**ð** kitaabak/ 'Take your book'.

Vowel epenthesis is also attested when the 2nd pers. masc. singular pronoun suffix {-tum} is followed by object pronoun suffixes such as {-nii, -hu, hum…}. For an easier pronunciation, a morphonological rule applies: the long [-uu] is inserted in-between to yield forms like /saʔaltum**uu**nii/ 'You asked me' or /raʔajtum**uu**hu/ 'You saw him'.

A phonological rule related to the definite article {al-} in Arabic concerns the total assimilation of /l/ to the next consonant if it is one of the 13 coronal obstruents (called *alħuruuf aʃʃamsiyya* 'the solar letters' as opposed to *alħuruuf alqamariyya*, 'the lunar letters', before which /l/ of *al-* keeps its lateral realisation, as in [alqamar] 'the moon'). But such geminating rule only applies with the article, as in /al ʃams/→[aʃʃams] 'the sun', or /al ramz/→[arramz]. However, the letter *laam* 'ل', is kept in the orthography of words like الشّمس or الرّمز and gemination is represented by the *šaddah* diacritic symbol. In any other phonological environment, the /l/ is not submitted to the same type of assimilation, as in [qu**l** sala:m] 'Say peace' or in [ta**l**saʕu] 'It stings'.

This clearly shows how morphological/phonological interface can be restricted to certain contexts, and thus, Arabic computational linguistic programmes and machine translation models must be provided with in-depth analyses of the various aspects of the structure of the language and the relations between its linguistic levels as well as processes that do not conform to overall rules.

2.3 Weak Verbs Morphology

We would not like to end this article without mentioning, at least concisely, particular verb forms which do not comply with the general verbal morphology of Arabic: these are called 'weak verbs' because of the presence of *w* or *y* as roots. These 'weak' consonants are responsible for verbal paradigms whose surface forms escape the canonical patterns of 'strong' verbs. A hollow verb (in which the middle radical is a weak consonant) like /qaal/ 'to say', for instance, surfaces with a long vowel [aa] while the underlying *faʕal* pattern is /qa**w**al/. What is so complex, but interesting at the same time, is that the surface forms of weak verbs appear to give 'value' to rules of easier realisation: we assume indeed that it is easier for a speaker to say [jaq**uu**lu], 'He says', in the imperfective than to produce the underlying /jaq**wu**lu/; and [q**u**l] in the imperative is much less heavy than the canonical pattern /ʔuq**wu**l/. Similar phonological processes and other irregularities occur with other types of weak verbs, including those having a *hamza* in the root as in /ʔakal/ 'to eat', or a gemination, as in /madd/, 'to extend ', whose underlying form is /madad/.

There have been various attempts at explaining all such phenomena in terms of different models: 'rewrite rules', prosodic morphology, optimality theory, etc. But one important thing to bear in mind is that only

eclectic considerations of a language can reveal the complex and subtle relations between items at different linguistic levels.

3. Conclusion

The instances we have mentioned in this paper show the clear mutual influence of phonological and morphological with prosodic elements and even syntax. While some models, particularly Koskenniemi's 1983 two-level morphology, have been satisfactory for the description of linear language morphologies in which the concatenation of morphemes is rather simple, as in *un+want+ed* for instance, such non-linear attributes as infixation and templatic morphology found in Arabic require other models of analysis. The theory of Prosodic Morphology, proposed in McCarthy and Prince (1986), puts forward suggestions that attempt to clarify the nature of morphology and its effects on phonological structure. Their work has become a standard morphological model in computational linguistics.

A computational dictionary would not be able to recognize or to generate morphological alternations of a given word unless it is programmed on the basis of the morphological patterns of a language, as well as its phonological rules in the case of a programme supplied with a speech recognition system. A language processor would not 'understand' the English utterance [wil 'miʃjə] 'We'll miss you" or the Arabic plural [kutub] 'books' if it does not 'know' the phonological rules that involve assimilation and sound deletion in English, and the pattern system of pluralisation in Arabic, particularly its so-called 'broken' plural forms.

The point is that phonological and morphological processes in Arabic are so intimately intertwined for the generation of the various morphological distinctions and categories. Therefore, a faithful morphological parser will have to be devised so as to be responsible for the implementation of all the rules applicable in language X, which is by no means unproblematic as the structural levels of the language are often intertwined and characterized by mutual interactions, particularly in morphologically highly complex languages like Arabic. As the fields of computer science and linguistics have grown up together during the past several decades, they have each benefited from cross-fertilization.

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LANGUAGE ARGUMENTATION IN UNIVERSITY WRITING CLASS

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Abstract
Language argumentation has always been neglected in the field of media discourse. In (2013), I conducted a research, as part of my PhD thesis, investigating the use of language argumentative strategies in newspaper editorials. The study revealed that many and diverse language strategies are actually used. While investigating this hypothesis, it was also discovered that Prior research proved that using argumentative strategies/ Rhetorical devices make the argument stronger and more convincing. One of the recommendations which I suggested was to include the teaching of language argumentation in the university writing class. Thus, a study was conducted (2017) to investigate this possibility. Two groups of my university students were involved in this study: an experimental and a control group. The experimental group received instruction on language argumentation while the control group had the usual instruction on how to write an argumentative essay. The purpose was to find out whether the subjects in the experimental group would use these strategies more than the subjects in the control group. The results revealed that argumentative language instruction had their own effects to some extent by the experimental group using five out of seven argumentative strategies selected for the study with more frequency than the control group.
Keywords: language argumentation- rhetorical devices- argumentative strategies

Introduction
Language argumentation refers to using specific language expressions with an argument (written or oral) in order to make the argument more convincing. It was discovered in my PhD thesis (2013) that these expressions can be of two types: those which hold strength in themselves, such as linking words (Ducrot, in Azzaoui 2010, Raddi 2010) or those which need a wider context to act as argumentative strategies like similes and metaphor (Pearlman in Raddi 2010, Toulba 2010). While conducting this PhD research on the use of language argumentation in the context of newspaper editorials, specifically, on an editorial published in a popular Arabic newspaper called 'Almassae', I found out that generally speaking, most research on rhetoric and argumentation has proved that formulating an argument using specific language expressions make the argument more convincing (Alaabd 2010, Abbadi 2002, Van Dijk 1992), in English or Arabic or both.

One of the suggested future recommendations in my thesis was to include the teaching of language argumentation in the classroom, specifically for first year university students whose program includes 'argumentative essay writing'. The rationale behind that was that I have always been interested in English teaching and finding ways to improve it. Furthermore, writing in general and specifically essay writing is still kind of a heavy task for both teachers and students because of its complexity as a skill, and one of the most difficult writing types is argumentative essays. Thus, I considered the probability of ameliorating teaching writing by adding language strategies instructions to the course, so the students will be capable of producing stronger arguments and hopefully better argumentative essays.

 This article will be divided into two parts. The first part will present the theoretical framework on argumentation and rhetoric; while the second part will state the research question and hypothesis, and the different steps followed in order conduct this present study.

1.Rhetoric and Argumentation:
Rhetoric is an old concept that has started with the Greek thinking. According to Aristotle: *"rhetoric may be defined as the faculty of observing in any given case the available means of persuasion"*, (1355B- 27-28 in Richardson 2007: 156). In other words, rhetoric is the realization of argumentation. Eagleton's (1981:101 in Richardson 2007: 171) definition of rhetoric falls within this scope stating that it: *"should be viewed as the process of 'analysing the material effects of particular uses of language in particular social conjunctures"*

Aristotle (in Omari 2010: 26) classifies rhetoric as a technique which presents the appropriate means of argumentation. These definitions seem to agree on the following idea: that rhetoric is the realization of the argumentation process, mainly using language techniques.

Van Dijk's (2007:8) definition also falls within this angle. He states: *"we narrowly define rhetoric as the sub discipline of discourse studies focusing on the use of special 'rhetorical' structures of text and talk such as metaphors, comparisons, irony, hyperbole, euphemism… these rhetorical structures are … used especially to convey or produce specific effects"*. Thus, in addition to focusing on language, rhetoric is included within the framework of discourse analysis. George Campbell (in Kock 2008:62) definition supports the ones above: Rhetoric is *"that art or talent by which the discourse is adapted to its end"*. 'End' here means the goal or the purpose. So, rhetoric is a talent which frames a text for example to achieve a purpose. George Campbell (in Kock 2008:63) adds another scope of rhetoric saying that: "rhetoric emphasises the need to take into account the role of ethos and pathos". That is to say, trying to convince through influencing emotions (pathos) and taking into account who is the writer (ethos) and what he or she represents for the recipient of this argumentation.

Raising rhetoric leads to talk about a closely related notion which is argumentation. Argumentation has been defined, by many researchers, from different angles and in both Arabic an English languages. Alaoui (2010: 2) states that the term 'argumentation' is taken from the Latin verb 'arguere', and means to make something clear, bright and apparent. In Longman Dictionary (1989 in (Alaoui 2010:2), the word 'argue' in English refers to a difference of opinions between two persons and the trial of each one to convince the other with his opinion by presenting reasons which he/she sees as arguments supporting his/her view. It seems, as Alaoui states (2010:3), that in English definition, there is a discrepancy between the meaning of the word 'argument' in language and its meaning as a technical term or as a usage. In other the word,' argue' is both defined in English as 'to clarify' and as a technique of convincing, which is a process that might involve the presence of more than one variable. In Arabic, Alaoui (2010:4) denies such a discrepancy on the basis of Ibn Mandour definition (in Alaoui 2010:3) who points out that both meanings (linguistic and technical) refer to the process of arguing by evidence and proof. This view is also based on other names (Syouti and Zarkachi's research in Quran text in Alaoui 2010:4). Elwasti (2010:142) defines argumentation as a language term and as a technique. In language it refers to rebuttal. Rebuttal (Wikipedia January 27th, 2011) here refers to the process of considering all options and studying all the arguments on the basis of logic and reason before. While as a technique, it is a group of arguments used to prove an opinion or its invalidity. In this regard, Gauthier (2007: 324) specifies that *"an argument is composed of a proposition and a support"*. Proposition here means an idea, a claim or a statement expression an opinion, while the support refers to the proof that is used to realize the validity of the proposition. Walton (2007: 245) gives a general definition stating that "*the notion of argument is defined around the idea of a dialogue exchange in which one party attempts to convince another to do or believe something by offering reasons*". This leads to raising the notion of argumentation as a process.

For argumentation as a process, many definitions were given focusing on one or two of its sides. Alaoui (2010:4) and Richardson (2001:145) state that argumentation is making efforts in order to convince. In relation to Arabic Language specifically, argumentation as a process according to Quazouini (516:2 in Elwasti 2010:143) is the act of presenting an argument regarding an opinion. It might come in the form of conditional, simile and metaphor. Those Arabic language techniques, Elwasti (2010: 154) adds, are used to influence and convince.

Toulba (2010:179) defines the argumentation process as research oriented toward the beneficial and the efficient in order to give preference to one choice among other possible ones with the aim to push someone to do something in a specific context. Efficiency and benefit here are related to making the appropriate choice which is going to have the most effect. Pearlman (in Toulba 2010:182) in this regard mentions that argumentation is a specific picturing of reality on the basis of contextual elements related to the production of the text. Thus, argumentation is also choice-based and this choice is made depending on the particular context where the argumentation process is taking place.

For Laland (in Alaoui 2010: 3), argumentation is the process of proving the (in)validity of an issue and that brings 'evidence' and 'proof' into the surface. Evidence according to him (in Alaoui 2010:3) is based on logic thinking and/or reality, so that events related to reality become evidence. 'Proof' is the process of extracting and presenting ideas which are supposed to be 'true' according to the text producer in order to justify a result already mentioned. According to this definition, argumentation seems to be based more on logic thinking and facts, rather than language.

Alaabd (2010:4) lists some definitions given to argumentation which he thinks are important. They are as follows: Anderson and Doves define it as a way to use logic and mind analysis which aims to solve fights and to take wise decisions and to influence opinions and behaviour. This definition seems to meet the one suggested by Laland (in Alaoui 2010: 3) listed above. Pearlman and Tyteca (in Alaabd 2010:4) define argumentation as a

group of discourse techniques aim to stimulate recipients to the ideas exposed to them or to strengthen the degree of stimulation. This definition on the other hand focuses more on language use. Utz Maas, Shiffrin, Heineman and viehwger (in Alaabd 2010:4) view argumentation as a language act or a communicative operation or a type of discourse interaction. Another definition of argumentation is presented by Emmeren et al. (1996:5 in Richardson 2007: 156) as: *"a verbal and social activity of reason aiming at increasing (or decreasing) the acceptability of a controversial standpoint for the listener or reader, by putting forward a constellation or propositions intended to justify (or refute) the standpoint before a rational judge"*. That means argumentation is language and reason based, related to oral and written forms of texts and its aim is to strengthen a view over another and make it appear more acceptable than another.

Idema et al (1994:1) provides a social dimension of argumentation stating that: *"the social purpose of argumentative texts is to argue a case in such a way that the audience is convinced of the truth of the viewpoint or the merits of the proposal"*. Hatim (1990:47) adds within this social angle that argumentation is culture specific; that is to say, argumentation as a process is formulated according to the norms of a particular culture in terms of vocabulary and style. (Alaabd 2010:5) provides a conclusion to these definitions stating that argumentation is one type of discourse based on an issue, where the speaker exposes his idea supported by justification, through a chain of statements logically connected, aiming to convince the other with the truthfulness of his stand and influence the recipient opinion and behaviour in relation to the issue tackled and the stand taken.

From these definitions, it can be inferred that argumentation as a process can be tackled from different angles. It refers to reality or facts as one way to argue for something or against it as suggested by Laland (in Alaoui 2010:3) and Toulba (2010:182). Argumentation can also have a psychological orientation based on reason, logic thinking and mind analysis as also suggested by Laland (in Alaoui 2010:3), Emeren and Grootendorst (2001:1 in Shahri 2010:76). Argumentation is also a communicative process operation as suggested by Utz Maas, Shiffrin, Heinemen, and Viehwger (in Alaabd 2010:4) who emphasize argumentation as a language act as well.

From the above definitions, it can be deduced that argumentation and rhetoric are quite similar to the extent that differentiating them seems to be hard. However, Kock (2008:62) tried to do so on the basis of Campbell's (1776-1969 in Kock 2008:62) conception on these two terms stating that: *"all the ends of speaking are reducible to four; every speech being intended to enlighten the understanding, to please the imagination, to move the passions, or to influence the will"*. From this quote, Kock (2008:62) believes that *"the ends of discourse are multiple, and not all the discourse that Campbell would call rhetoric is argumentation, by any definition of that term; for example, poetry, in so far as it aims to please the imagination, would not belong to the subject matter or argumentation theory"*. In other words, an argumentative text aims to convince through different techniques while a rhetorical text does not necessarily have this aim; it can rather aim only at producing an eloquent language for that purpose only.

With the emergence of New Rhetoric, the terms 'argumentation' and 'rhetoric'   started to be used interchangeably, referring to same meanings. The next section will explain this idea.

2.New Rhetoric

New Rhetoric started in the twentieth century (Capdevila:3) and according to Sola (2010:31), 'Logos' is the closest to the soul of the new rhetoric; that is to say, it focuses on language. Sola (2010:31) adds that the new rhetoric aims at stimulating the mind since the term 'Logos' means in Greek reason and word. Reboul (in omari 2010: 21) emphasizes the necessity of rhetoric claiming that its use is widened to include other domains: advertizing, politics, education, etc. Among the reasons for the revival of new rhetoric according to Capdevila:4 is "*the appearance of new means of communication enable people to directly participate in social discussion*" and in relation to mass media particularly, Capdevila:3 adds that this media is easier to assimilate because it does not require a highly intellectual level of thinking, and so people's involvement in these discussions was easier.

New Rhetoric (in omari 2010: 22 and Capdevila:3) has become a necessity in every field since it is a means to understand, explain and a means to influence. Omari (2010: 22) explains a rhetorically efficient text today as a text which is efficient in terms of content and eloquence at the level of vocabulary /the style used. The second meaning of the new rhetoric is the science which describes this efficiency and eloquence. Thus, eloquence is related to the use of language, whereas efficiency is related to the field of the text. This defines the realm of argumentation research as stated by Alaabd (2010:3) who specifies three angles for working on argumentation: general characteristics of the topic, language structure, rhetorical aim and communicative role. Topic and language structure can be included within the two meanings Omari (2010: 22) suggested, while the third angle suggested by Alaabd can be included within the notion of efficiency Omari (2010:22) suggested in general, because a rhetorically efficient text means also that this text is performing a certain communicative role.

Toulba (2010:180) framed this point of text efficiency in terms of the existence of two conceptions in the construction of contemporary rhetoric: the first has to do with the idea that language is the whole. It includes, as Toulba (2010:180) explains, both elements of influencing and elements of being influenced. That is to say, language is a product of certain thinking. The second conception is the necessity to start from this language used in specific context in order to deconstruct the internal structure of the statement on the one hand and to study the contextual side of this statement on the other: interlocutors, topic, etc.

Shahri (2010:76) and Bellinger (in Bourki 2010:89) framed the conceptions mentioned priori by Toulba in terms of three main components: 1-cultural/contextual. 2- Logical. 3-Linguistic for Shahri and emotional for Bellinger. Culture as Bellinger specifies is part of knowledge source which also includes history and technical abilities. Logic as Bellinger explains refers to the way of thinking and reasoning tradition. The third component for Bellinger is connected to emotions, believing that argumentation also affects emotions, while shahri focuses on language as an important means to influence. These components (Shahri 2010:76) adds, naturally influence each other, starting with contextual cultural component and ending with the linguistic component: cultural _ logical_ linguistic. Even though the third component differs for Shahri and Bellinger, they seem to fall under the same scope: language can be used to influence emotions and emotions are usually influenced by the language used.

Omari (2010:22) defines the new rhetoric as the science of influential oration based on probability. Probability is another component on which new rhetoric is based. He explains this notion of probability by the idea that language interaction can be true in content and at the same time can support some degree of lying compared to poetry most of which it is lying (since it is based on imagination), but can support truth as well. The term 'influential' according to Omari (2010:24) refers to every text which necessitates interaction between two parts.

One of the conceptions of new rhetoric is being related to discourse, communicating through a text. On that basis argumentative discourse emerged as well. The next section will cover these notions.

3. Rhetorical and Argumentative Discourse

Van Dijk (2007: 8) relates rhetoric to discourse stating: "*also today, and especially in the U.S.A, the new rhetoric is sometimes defined as a special sub discipline in the humanities that overlaps with discourse studies*". In relation to discourse, Rhetoric manifests three varieties according to Aristotle's rhetoric (in Richardson 2007: 157 and in Sola: 2010:30). The first variety is 'forensic/ legal' rhetoric: It is an argumentative discourse where the arguer deals with justices or injustices of past actions of an individual or a group it aims at showing justice based on accusations and defense. And according to Sola (2010: 30) it suits 'logos'. The second variety is 'epideictic/ceremonial' rhetoric: it is concerned with providing evidence about someone or something to be described in an admired way or rejected way. It is used to inflate or criticize; Sola (2010: 30) relates it to 'Pathos'. Admiration might refer to Eulogies (as described in section 2 on the role of newspaper editorials). Eulogy editorials are used to praise someone who is dead, urging readers positively to follow him or her as an example. The opposite will be invective argumentative discourse where a person is certified or dishonored through discourse. The last variety is 'deliberative/political' rhetoric. It deals with evaluating political decisions for the future by stating their advantages or their drawbacks. It aims at showing the good and the bad, presents advice on how to follow the 'appropriate ways' and avoid the bad ones.

It can be deduced from these views that the relationship between discourse and rhetoric seems to be based on pathos and logos. In other words, rhetoric as a discourse focuses on the text and emotions. This in fact reflects the conceptions of contemporary rhetoric aforementioned. In both rhetoric and discourse, there is a concentration on the way a text is produced at the level of form and content and there is a focusing on the emotional side as well as aforementioned by Bellinger (in Bourki 2010:89). The other similar point is the audience. Rhetorical discourse producers also take the recipient into account as an active part of the argumentation process as a whole.

These views on rhetorical discourse seem to have formed the basis for the emergence of argumentative discourse as it will be shown from its characteristics Argumentative discourse according to Richardson (2000: 155), is characterized by: First, the active use of language in the sense that actions or argumentation are performed via language (condemn, attack, praise, etc.). Second, argumentative discourse 'resolves' opinion difference in the communication process. In other words, through his social moves, the arguer does not only state his opinion but presents his arguments in a logic convincing way so that the audience takes a side. And this is the cognitive side of argumentation as Van Dijk (1992: 247) explains: "*argumentation functions cognitively speaking…geared towards specific changes of the belief system of the hearer/reader*". Finally, argumentative discourse is a 'joint' process in the sense that the arguer is supposed to analyze opposite views

and arguments while presenting his own. The other side of the joint process is the reader who is also a consumer of the argumentation.

Drawing on the three elements of rhetoric suggested by Aristotle aforementioned, Richardson (2007: 159) mentions different modes of persuasion in argumentative discourse. The first mode has to do with the personal character of the speaker or writer. He or she can be more convincing if he or she manifests a high expertise in the field or if he or she is of a good character. I quote *"when successful, the audience has recognized that wisdom or experience or virtue are grounds for trust and therefore supports the arguer that exhibits these qualities"* (Richardson 2007: 160).

The second mode deals with 'pathos' or emotion. That is to say, Arguments usually comprise emotions to have an effect on the feelings of the audience (to move to anger, to calm down, etc.) The goal is to make the audience more receptive to the arguments presented. Aristotle adds the element of logic to the process stating that *"an argument drawing on ethos may be particularly persuasive when 'the arguments on different sides of an issue are equally strong and the listener has no choice but to consider the speakers and decide in favor of the person who appears wise, virtuous and full of good will",* (Fortenbaugh 1996: 151 in Richardson 2007: 160). Thus, emotion and strength of an argument seem to play an important role in establishing a high degree of conviction for the reader. Abbadi (2002: 2) suggests that many authors agree that readers are persuaded to accept an idea *"whether the acceptance is based on logic or emotional appeal or both"*. Within this conception of logic and content specifically, Richardson (2007: 161) seems to support this side or argumentation stating*:"we are more likely to be convinced by an argument supported by evidence and reasoning"*. Petty and Cocioppo (1986:125) add the quality of the content presented as helping in the persuasion: *"the first….was that which likely resulted from a person's careful and thoughtful consideration of the true merits of the information presented in support of an adversary (…)".* The third mode Richardson (2007: 159) suggests has to do with the way arguments are structured or 'Logos'. That is to say, the language used to present arguments.

Thus, both argumentative and rhetorical discourse focuses on the content of the text in terms of the text form: the language and the logic presentation of the arguments. Also, in both the recipient of the discourse is an important part of the argumentation process. It seems that the differentiating point between the two conceptions as they are understood now is blurred, and that is why the two terms started to be used interchangeably as it will be described in the next section.

One of the pioneers of contemporary rhetoric is Pearlman who formed this new conception, Assidah (2010:24). The coming section will develop on Pearlman rhetoric focusing on the language side, the text type and the recipient. It is important to expand on Pearlman to have a better understanding of the new rhetoric .In addition, Pearlman rhetoric has a language side which is going to be taken into account for the methodological framework of this research.

3.1.Pearlman's Rhetoric

For Pealman, Rhetoric and argumentation meanings are similar as it was the case for Aljahid in the history of Arabic argumentation, (in the section on Arabic Argumentation section), (Toulba 2010:187).This argumentative rhetoric Toulba (2010:178) states, played an important role in the coming back of discourse and in the bringing back the role of convincing and influence… through many methods, among which there is language and content of the text. For that reason, Toulba adds, (2010:179) Pearlman made rhetoric a synonym of the theory of argumentation

The Theory of argumentation which Pearlman developed is concerned with many elements with a focus on language structure, variety of texts, and variety of people's behavior, (Toulba 2010:180-181). (Toulba 2010:180-181) lists the main elements in this regard: first, a rhetorical text should be oriented to a recipient; Raddi (2010:67) adds that for Pearlman and Tyteka, if the aim is to influence souls, it is important not to ignore the types of recipients' souls addresses when we want to construct a text. Regarding the recipient, Raddi (2010:68) emphasizes that the concern of Pearlman and Tyteka is to adjust the recipient throughout the text in order to create the highest degree of influence. In this sense, Perlman, (in omari 2010:21) tried to detach rhetoric from its old conception: to achieve a compromise of opinion rather than obliging the public to accept the opinion presented with no other choices and play on their emotions and minds, as it was the case in the old rhetoric (in Alaoui 2010:10). The old Rhetoric that Pearlman refers to here is the sophist rhetoric. Thus, Pearlman's new rhetoric (in Alaoui 2010:10) makes the recipient active in the sense that he/she has the freedom to agree or disagree. Aaloui (2010:10) illustrates the idea as follows:

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old rhetoric                              new rhetoric
sender                          sender ___ recipient


                      |
recipient             |
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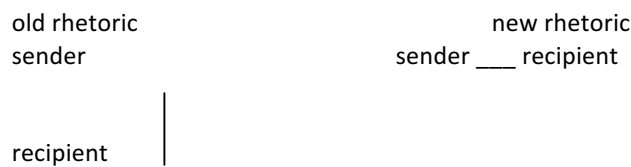
The illustration shows that for old rhetoric, the recipient is situated under the sender which means that the recipient is less important than the sender. For new rhetoric, the sender and the recipient are at the same level, meaning that they have the same importance in the argumentation process.

The second important element in Pearlman's conception on rhetoric is the necessity of logic development of arguments, (Toulba 2010:192). The starting point for these arguments is: 'introductions' which Pearlman considers as an important element in the stimulation of the recipient, (Toulba 2010:193). These introductions, Toulba (2010:193) specifies, can be facts: used to set the starting point for argumentation because they are doubtless by the recipients realities. They can also be suppositions: usually followed by proofs because they are not stable and change according to the context. Their truthfulness or validity is measured by what is 'normal' according to a community or group. In addition, these introductions can be statements based on values: seem to have strong effects because they are used to change people's opinions and push them to do the expected action. In short, Toulba (2010:195) explains that all these introductions are based on common sense shared and agreed upon among persons of the same cultural background.

The third element is the idea that the results are not necessarily accepted by the recipient mainly because the argumentation content is based on probability: what is probably accepted rather than what is taken for granted as Pearlman and Tyteka specify in the introduction of their book (translated by Raddi 2010: 61). Toulba (2010:183) regards this side as philosophical in the sense that the probability-based topics require efforts to use arguments with. In other words, the selected topics and ideas are not the ones already believed to be right or wrong for a specific community or group. The philosophic side of Pearlman conception is also seen in the concern with the variety of arguments and proofs used in relation to the specific context where a text is produced. Toulba (2010:209-212) specifies that according to Pearlman, the context is the condition which defines how the process of argumentation is going to be used and it defines the frame that the text structure and content is going to be based on. This context as Kharma and Hajaj (1988:123 in Saraj 2010:275) explain includes: place, time of the written interaction, subject, nature of the participants, their social relationship, and their social and cultural background.

The fourth element in Pearlman's rhetoric is related to the language. Toulba 2010:196) states that only natural language can be used. It means the language should be understandable. In this regard, a number of language techniques are suggested. Assidah (2010:27-28) specifies these techniques as strategies of connecting and disconnecting (this will be explained in details in the argumentative strategies section). Pearlman (in Raddi 2010:80) considers that Pearlman's new rhetoric is one source of linguistic argumentation. This means that the language side is of immense importance in the new rhetoric.

In short, Pearlman's rhetoric takes into account the different elements in the process: the audience, the text form and content in addition to the contextual conditions for argument production and organization. This rhetorical conception seems to be important for the present research first because it is a contemporary rhetoric and second it deals with written texts, which is also the case in the present research. Also, in relation to language strategies, Pearlman seems to be among the few researchers who were more detailed in this regard.

Omari (2010: 20-21) mentions other important names in the field of argumentation like Tezfetan Todorm, Teary Eagleton, Van Dijk and Ducrot. Tordorm and Eagleton specialized in the theory of literature aiming to find its essence, which they found in the study of texts: the best way to analyze a text is to study the types of influences a text produces. Van Dijk specializing in the science of texts, states that this science is the legal heir of rhetoric. Ducrot's approach presents a research orientation different from the one suggested by Pearlman and with which he next section will elaborate on as another important angle of analyzing argumentative texts in the present research.

3.2.Ducrot's Rhetoric

Ducrot (in Azzaoui 2010: 56) was the one who based the theory of rhetoric purely on language since 1973 stating that natural languages have their own means and possibilities which directs the text to a certain path for persuasion purposes. Azzaoui (2010: 56) states that according to Ducrot, this conception aims at showing

that the language intrinsically has an argumentative role. Furthermore, argumentation, in this regard, is based on linguistic means followed by results concluded from the previously stated arguments.

Macagno and Walton (2008: 527) introduce Ducrot's approach to argumentation statting: "*For Ducrot, argumentation is a linguistic ability*" where "*the meaning of the word is constituted by the possible conclusions it leads to and these conclusions are in the language used itself*". Azzaoui (2010: 59) mentions three characteristics of language based argumentation in Ducrot's approach. Firstly, they are contextualized in the sense that it is the context which gives them their argumentative characteristics. It will be seen later as this section develops that the notion of context for Ducrot refers to the relationship between elements of language or sentences through which the language expressions get their argumentative power regardless of the sentence content. Secondly, they are relative: they vary from strength to weakness. Finally, they can easily be rejected because they are relative and flexible contrary to science and logic.

Ducrot (in Azzaoui 2010: 65) suggests argumentative principles which are necessary in the argumentation process. They are concerned mainly with the use to argumentative linking words and factors (described in details in the methodology). Some of these principles include the idea that these arguments are general and can fit many contexts. Also, they are gradual in the sense that they relate two elements: a weak and strong argument or an argument and a result. In addition, they are relative (as mentioned by Azzaoui in argumentation characteristics): arguments are always open to rejection. Azzaoui illustrates the point as follows: Iam tired, so I need rest. The argumentative principle applied in this sentence is: the more/less you are tired, the more/ less you need rest. Based on this principle, or relativity, Ducrot (in Azzaoui 2010: 66) suggests the + and – relationship (as illustrated in the example).

Ducrot and Anscombre (in Raddi 2010:80) deny the relation between language and outside context because according to them language is a translation of facts, where every use of language is itself an argument regardless of the outside context of that use. This conception also comes from Dessaussure language conception theory in the beginning of the twentieth century, (Raddi 2010:81). According to Ducrot and Anscomber conception, (in Raddi 2010: 81) language construction frames the scientific perception of linguistic argumentation and this requires cutting the relation between language and what it can be influenced by from the outside context. This is what makes this conception (Raddi 2010:84) different from the classical perception of argumentation and discourse of Pearlman where the outside context is taken into account. To illustrate this point, Raddi (2010:85) suggests the following example: the statement 'this book is beneficial' leads to the conclusion 'it encourages us to read it'. This conclusion was derived based on the meaning of the statement and this is part of the context which is outside the realm of language. As for Ducrot (Raddi 2010:85), language has some elements inside it that help to seek and find its argumentative side. Raddi (2010:87) adds that Ducrot justifies this conception by the idea that reality is based on our conception of it and language is the means to transmit this reality to us. There is no objective reality because reality is perceived according to our brain.

Ducrot and Anscomber use the sentence as the unit of analysis based on this Dessaussure conception, and the value of this unit will be defined according to its relation to other sentences in the same structure. (Raddi 2010:89). In this regard, Argumentation is concerned with the mode of relations which sentences build among each other by some linking techniques (Raddi 2010:93). Raddi (2010:100) defines them as language units which relate two sentences or words within the same argumentative strategy. The following example he suggests illustrates the idea: 'this party is successful; anyway, the singing was interesting'. The word 'anyway', Raddi (2010:100) explains, links the two parts of the sentence to reach the same underlying conclusion: the organizing party deserves the best or time spent at the party was not useless. Ducrot (in Raddi 2010:98) also suggests argumentative factors. He identifies them as language units that gain power when used in a specific context. Raddi illustrates this point by the following example: S1- Zaid is Five, S2- Zaid is still five. Raddi explains that the first statement has no argumentative factor while the second statement has 'still' and that brings an argumentative power to the statement. (These techniques will be described in details in the Argumentative Strategies section)Through these relations, linguistic argumentation seeks to find the influence that one sentence exerts on another in order to accept it. Ducrot and Anscomber (in Raddi 2010:94) state in this regard that a text is argumentative when it includes at least two sentences one supporting the other: one is the argument and the other is the conclusion. Raddi (2010:94) illustrates this structure by the following example:

S1: Tangier is a wonderful city   S2: you can, thus, spend your vacation in Tangier

Statement 1 is the argument while Statement 2 is the conclusion. According to Linguistic argumentation (Raddi 2010:94) states, the word 'thus' is the argumentative link that presents the relation between the statement and not the content of the argument.

Ducrot's approach to argumentation or rhetoric seems to have added something new to this field. It is based solely on language use where language has its own power regardless of the context where this language is used. It is only the immediate context (relationship among sentences through language links) which gives

power to this language. So it can be inferred that the language orientation that Pearlman and Ducrot followed is different in the sense that Pearlman approach is more general than that of Ducrot. Pearlman considers language as one among other techniques related to the text, such as cultural context and logic development. In addition, the language used depends on the immediate and more global context of the text. On the other hand, Ducrot believes that only language use by itself when the parts of the texts are connected, can be argumentative as well.

After developing on the notions of argumentation and rhetoric in general, the next section will briefly cover research conducted in the context of language argumentation in newspaper editorials. It is characterized by its scarcity and there seems to be no research conducted on language argumentation in other contexts. For the theoretical purposes of the present study, the research that will be described will cover both English and Arabic.

4.Empirical Research on Argumentation

Abbadi (2002) conducted a study to investigate the argumentative strategies English and Arabic editorials prefer to use. The data comprised 6 editorials: 3 from Arabic newspaper and 3 from English newspapers. The focus was on linguistic strategies following Biber's (1988: 150 in Abbadi 2002:6), which Biber considers "*highly persuasive and highly employed in editorials*". The results have shown that: English editorials tend to use concessive adverbials more than Arabic. In addition, while English opts for necessity models, Arabic tends to use expressions for evaluation more. In addition, both languages tend to use predictive models with similar frequencies. As for possibility models, they are used less frequently in English than in Arabic. Intensifiers on the other hand are used more frequently in English than in Arabic. In addition, English tends to use rhetorical questions even with a low frequency, whereas in Arabic, there are none. Finally, Arabic tends to use suasive verbs while English does not. The following tables summarize the results:

<div align="center">

Abbadi (2002)

</div>

Arabic	*English*
Lexical repetition (more)	Lexical repetition (less)
Evaluative markers (high frequency)	Evaluative markers (none)
Predictive models (same frequency)	Predictive models (same frequency)
Possibility models (more)	Possibility models (less)
Intensifiers (less)	Intensifiers (more)
Suasive verbs (frequently)	Suasive verbs (none)
Concessive adverbials (less)	Concessive adverbials (more)
Necessity models (none)	Necessity models (frequently)
Conditional clauses (non)	Conditional clauses (low frequency)
Rhetorical questions (none)	Rhetorical questions (low frequency)

Another study conducted by Van Dijk (1992) focusing on argumentation in relation to racism in English tabloid editorials. Van Dijk worked on two British newspapers 'The Sun' and 'The Mail' to investigate the argumentative structure and strategies used in them in the context of racism and discrimination. The issue was the reaction of these editorials to the riots that took place in Britain in 1985 in Handsworth, Brixton and Tottenham as a result of some 'racist' behaviour on immigrants.

The main 'ideological point' Van Dijk (1992: 249) stresses is associating 'minorities' with negative qualifications while British people, society and culture are pictured positively. Among the language argumentative strategies found in the two selected editorials are used within this ideology. In the first editorial 'The Mail', the strategies used are: 1- adverbs to emphasize a point, 2- use of quotes, 3- warnings, 4- concessions, 5- passive voice to mitigate the responsibility, (Van Dijk 1992 252). In the second editorial taken from 'The Sun', the arguments used are: 1- praise, 2- arguments based on stereotypes (ex: 'whereas west-Indians are rebellious, Asians are meek and well adapted', Van Dijk (1992: 254)), and 3- warnings.

Alaabd (2010) has conducted a study to seek the structure and means of convincing in 17 texts written in Arabic and which belong to different fields: social, religious, literary, and political. Five of the selected texts are old while the remaining others are new. Thus, for support strategies, Alaabd found out the mostly used are proofs accepted by the recipient, historical evidence, special events, using examples, and values. Since the focus of the present research is on linguistic strategies, the results reported will be limited to this side. So, for language means of convincing, Alaabd (2010:23-31) divides them into logic means (which are also language based), and purely language means. As for the first, there is syllogism or logic measuring which includes similes

and exemplification. This logic means, Alaabd (2010:23) adds, has the role of moving from what is taken for granted (introduction) into the problem (result). As for language means, the author focuses on those means which are strongly related to convincing: so there is repetition, expansion which Alaabd (2010:23) explains, expends the second sentence to the first (to clarify it for example). Language expressions which he suggests in this regard: /ha:kaẟa:/ (this way), /kaẟa:lik/ (too), //liha:ẟa a'sabab/ (for this reason), /ma3a ẟa:lik/ or /ma3a a'na/ (in spite of), /iẟan/ (thus), /min ˤa'ma/ (from here), /ʰi:na iẟin/ (that time). Another language means Alaabd suggests is the use of 'projection' where the second sentence is made up from the first one. Projection is manifested through exemplification (your face is like all people's faces), exposition (this watch does not move; it does not work), or clarification (the lady is waiting confused; she was thinking about booding). Alaabd (2010: 50) suggests for the manifestation of 'projection' strategy the use of the following language means. So as for exemplification, there is: /maƟalan/, /3ala: sabi:l ?almiƟa:l/ (for example), /?ala: sabi:l ?al?isti'ʰa:d/ (to quote), /naʰwa/ (like), /bikha:'sa/ (especially). Clarification is manifested by the following expressions: /?ala: ?al?aqal/ (at least), /fi3lan/ (really), /fi: ?alʰaqi:qa/, /alʰaq/ (in reality). Another suggested language means (Alaabd 2010:50) is 'extending': relating two parts but not necessarily a relation of reason or time. In the following example he suggests 'he farms chicken, his wife takes care of the yard', the expressions used are: /?aydan/, /kaẟ:lika/ (also), /bil?ida:fa/ /fadlan/ (in addition), /?ala: ?al3aks/ (on the other hand). In addition, Alaabd (2010:50) suggests the language means of 'variation' where one sentence is used as a substitution for another (do not stand looking at yourself that way, but tell me about your name and job). The language expressions used in this regard are: / badal/ (instead of), /min na:ʰiya uɣra:/ (from another angle), / ?ala ?l3aks/ (on the contrary).The last language means Alaabd suggests is alliteration where the same ending is used in two parts of the one or two sentences in order to create rhyme.

This last section of the theoretical part shows that there are argumentative strategies which are used only in Arabic or only in English or in both. It is a research characterized by its scarcity in the context of newspaper editorials and even more in the context of language learning. Thus, the idea of using language argumentation as part of argumentative writing instruction seems to be a beneficial. In order to investigate this idea, I came up with the following research question:

5.Research Questions and Hypotheses:
1. Will first year university students in the experimental group use more language argumentative strategies in their argumentative essays than in the control group?
This leads to the formulation of the following research hypotheses:
1. First year university students in the experimental group will use more argumentative strategies in their argumentative essays than in the control group.

6.The Methodological Framework:
The methodological framework chosen for this study was quantitative, in the sense that the more essays gathered, the better the use of language argumentative strategies will be noticeable, and consequently the potential effect of language argumentation instruction will be more apparent. This framework seems to be appropriate for investigating the argumentative strategies, because and as Wimmer and Dominick (1997:44-45) specify: "*quantitative research (…) is concerned with how often a variable is present and generally uses numbers to communicate this amount*". In the present research, the aim is to find out the used argumentative strategies and their frequency of use. This way, there will be "*greater precision in reporting results*, (Wimmer and Dominick 1997:44-45).

7. Sample:
The sample participating in this research includes my students in ENCG. It is a superior school of commerce and marketing. They are first year- university students divided into six sub-groups. Each sub-group (class) involves forty to fifty students. The total number is 232 including 86 males and 146 females. They are aged between 17 and 19 years old. As for their English language background and level, they are all similar levels because having access to this school requires good marks in economy subjects plus languages in baccalaureate. Furthermore, they have to pass an entrance exam including testing in English, in addition to other economy subjects, in order to be enrolled. Students in Morocco usually start studying English in primary school in private education or Junior high school in public education.

8.Research Instruments:
In order to answer the present research question, seven language argumentative strategies have been chosen:

Questions: They include two types. The first type involves questions used in the introduction usually as 'hooks' to attract the readers' attention. The second type is rhetorical questions and they are used to emphasize one's opinion and may not be answered because their rhetorical function is to ask them. They may also be used to blame, (Mustapha in Hassana 2008). Sahri (2010: 85) states that these questions are the most effective linguistic expressions in argumentation. For Pearlman (in Toulba 2010: 197), questions have an important role in argumentation because a question requires a topic through which a possible agreement is expected and answering this question comes to emphasize this agreement.

Denial and Exception: suggested by Azzaoui (2010: 64), they involve words like (just) and (except). Denial specifically was considered by Pearlman (in Toulba 2010: 197) as having an important argumentative role. The same idea is supported in Wikipedia (2009) and Bouquerra (2005).

It is+evaluative adjective+ that/to: It is a rhetorical device suggested by Morley (2004) used in quality and popular British newspaper editorials.

Adverbs: there are a lot of adverbs and adverbials that have been suggested as argumentative strategies. That is why, I chose only the adverb form '-----ly' which the subjects are already familiar with; in addition, Morley (2004: 10) states that they are the most relevant type of adverbs in argumentation. Toulmin(1958: 13) mentions that adverbs that end in -----ly are usually used to comment or to express the writer's attitude when they are in the context or argumentation.

Suasive verbs: They are verbs which show the extent to which the writer tries to convince the reader with the desirability or probability of an event. Suasive verbs such as: agree, arrange, beg command, decide, insist, and propose usually carry power in them expressing the attitude of the writer. Suasive verbs were suggested by (Westin and Geisler 2002) as argumentative strategies.

Conditional: They are clauses that mark the conditions needed for an event to or not to take place. Abbadi (2002: 6), Wikepedia (2009), Pearlman (in Toulba 2010: 197), and Ideam (1994:5) suggested that conditional can be used as an argumentative strategy, and that includes all the conditional types in English.

Concession: Abbadi (2002) suggested concessive adverbials as argumentative strategies. Examples include 'in spite of', 'even though', etc.

These strategies have been selected from my PhD Research (2013) thesis which includes around 46 language strategies in total. All were empirically proved to be argumentative strategies by prior research. The choice of the seven language strategies in the present research was based on the following: First, they are used in the English language since English is the taught language. They are language strategies used in English/ Arabic as I found out in my PhD research (2003). The subjects are already familiar with writing in Arabic so absorbing that it is possible to use such strategies as argumentative tools in essays would be easy. Second, they are based on Ducrot's conception of language argumentation. All the selected strategies can be argumentative in the immediate context, like the sentence. This factor seems to be important for the subjects because instructing them on simile, metaphor for example was going to be more time consuming, and this lead us to the third reason for the choice of these strategies which is time. Third, time constraints allowed me to provide only one session for reviewing the structure of argumentative essays and introducing the language strategies. Students have a syllabus to follow for the term. Prior exposure both in Arabic grammar and English grammar in high school seems to be necessary in order to control the variable of no familiarity with the argumentative strategies that might intervene with the short time given to language strategy instruction. Familiarity with the language expressions would help the students use the strategies in writing with no much difficulty.

9.Procedure for Data Retrieval:
The sample included the six sub-groups I teach. They were divided randomly into two groups, an experimental group and a control group. Each sub-group was instructed separately in the usual class timing. The total number of the subjects in the control group was 111 while the experimental group involved 121. Both groups had one session of two hour instruction on revising the basics of the argumentative essay in terms of content and structure, supposing that they were taught that in high school. Thus, the subjects were given a detailed description of the thesis statement (what it is made of and where it is usually positioned in the essay). In addition, the subjects were instructed on how the flow or arguments go through in the essay (strong and weak arguments, arguments for and against, etc). The instructions were followed by a number of exercises and activities to check the subjects' understanding. The experimental group was introduced to the selected language argumentative strategies with definitions and examples of sentences with and without these strategies. They were asked to compare these sentences to check the strength of these strategies in making the argument look more influential.

At the end, the subjects in both groups were told they were going to write an argumentative essay the following week with topics of my own suggestion. The subjects in the experimental group were told they were

going to be visually exposed to the language strategies they were introduced to while writing their essays, and that they were supposed to use some of them.

The selected topics were of a big interest and importance to the life of students related to the system of education or to their family life as teenagers. This way I was quite certain the subjects would have enough background knowledge to include and would be enthusiastic enough to write.

When the essays were gathered, the data was manually retrieved in two steps. First, the argumentative strategies were identified in each essay for both groups, and then counted for the number of times they appeared in the essays. Each argumentative strategy was counted alone like the number of adverbs used in all essays. The aim was to make the comparison between the frequency use of each strategy for the experimental and the control groups. Second, the argumentative strategies were counted in each essay in order to possibly get the mean values and run the independent t-test. The essays were coded as numbers 1,2,3 etc, along with the number of strategies found in each.

10.Procedure for Statistical Analysis: Independent T test

The procedure used to statistically analyze the collected data was the independent sample t-test, or the independent t-test which compares the means between unrelated groups. It is used to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between those means. The model assumes a difference in the mean score of the dependent variable which are the groups in this case, and the independent variable which is the language argumentation instruction. Furthermore, the independent t-test is usually run on participants who are randomly selected, and which is the case for the present research: The subjects were randomly assigned to a control and an experimental group.

The computer software program used to analyze the collected data is the SPSS. It is defined by Wimmer and Dominick (1997: 390) as 'a statistical software package designed specifically to analyze social research data". The SPSS is a popular statistical tool known for its efficiency and precision for the results. SPSS seems to fulfill the validity purpose of the present research in the sense of allowing the possibility to run the independent t-test.

11. Results Description:

The first thing to have been noticed in the results is that the subjects in the control group also used the language argumentation in spite of not being instructed to do so. The table below illustrates this idea:

	Control Group	Experimental Group
Valid	111	121
Missing	0	0
Mean	7.80	9.34
Median	7.0	9.0
Mode	7.0	9.0

Table 1: The Mean value of Argumentative Strategies used in the Control and Experimental Group

Table one presents the mean value calculated for each group. The experimental group used more argumentative strategies with 9.34 mean value which is just little higher than that of the control group: 7.80. However, and since the number of the subjects in the experimental group exceeds that of the control group, with 10 additional subjects, it seemed more efficient to compare the frequencies of each strategy appearance for both groups as the following table illustrates:

Argumentative Strategies	Control Group	Experimental Group
Adverbs	332	364
Suasive Verbs	74	127
Conditional	113	179
Concession	37	67
Questions	141	118
Denial/Exception	145	114
It's + Evaluative Adjective	31	85

Table 2: Frequency Use of Language Argumentative Strategies for the Control and the Experimental Groups

The table above presents the number of times each of the argumentative strategies has been used for both groups. At a first glance, the numbers reveal that the most frequently used strategies are: adverbs with 364 for

the experimental group and 332 for the control group. There is also denial and exception device with 145 for the control group and 114 for the experimental group. Then, there are questions for which the control group scored 141 and 118 for the experimental group; and there is finally conditional with 113 for the control group and 179 for the experimental group.

As for the less frequently used devices, there is: suasive verbs with 74 times for the control group and 127 times for the experimental group. There is also concession with a frequency of 37 times for the control group and 67 for the experimental group. There is finally, evaluative adjectives which are used 31 times by the control group and 85 times by the experimental group.

The numbers also reveal that 5 out of 7 argumentative strategies used by the subjects scored higher frequency use for the experimental group than the control group: They include adverbs, suasives, conditional, concession and It's+ evaluative adjectives. This most probably means that instructions on language argumentation had their effects on the subjects, as an answer to the first research question; or that the testing of the first research hypothesis has more positive than negative outcome, in the sense that for denial and exception, and questions, the subjects in the control group used them more frequently with 145 and 141, respectively than the subjects in the experimental group with 114 and 118.

In order to confirm this result, the independent t-test was run on the data:

Group Statistics

	STRATEGIES	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
GROUP	1,00	3	1,33333	,577350	,333333
	2,00	4	1,50000	,577350	,288675

	Leven's test for equality of variance		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig	T	Df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std error difference	95% confidence interval difference	
Equal variance assumed	, 357	,576	-,378	5	,721	-,166	,440	Lower upper -1,3 ,96	
Equal variances not assumed			-,378	4,455	,723	-,166	,440	-1,3	1

Table 3: Independent T-test for the control and Experimental Groups

The table shows that the comparison between the control and the experimental groups is significant with 0.7. Since this value is more than 0.5, it can be considered as significant, in spite of the 10 additional subjects in the experimental group.

As a conclusion, the results somewhat confirm the testing of the first hypothesis since five out of seven rhetorical devices were more frequently used by the subjects in the experimental group. In addition, some rhetorical devices were more frequently used than others regardless of the comparison between the control and experimental group. Furthermore, and in spite of the fact that the control group did not receive instructions on language argumentation, the subjects used pretty a huge number of rhetorical devices. These conclusions will be thoroughly interpreted in the next section.

12. Results Interpretation:
The first result to be interpreted concerns the reason why adverbs, denial/exception, questions, conditional are more frequently used than suasives, concession and it is + evaluative adjective. The second result concerns the argumentative strategies used more by the experimental group and which involve adverbs, suasives, conditional, concession and it is + evaluative adjectives. As stated in the result section, all the rhetorical devices chosen for the present study fulfill the criteria of familiarity on the part of the subjects; meaning that there was almost no possibility that the subjects would find it difficult to use one argumentative strategy rather than

another one. Thus, one possible interpretation for these results is that they these rhetorical strategies fit the context of use more than others. In other words, the subjects use the argumentative strategies which help them express better the idea or the argument in mind. If otherwise, subjects were given different topics being asked to use the same language devices, they would probably use the less frequently used in the present research more frequently. Another possible explanation for these results is concerned with the style of writing. What is meant by style here is the writer's voice, apart from the context of writing, purpose or audience. It refers to the way the writer prefers to express his/her thought: like the choice of words, sentence or paragraph structure. It is in short, the writer's fingerprint. In this context, the subjects would conceptualize the preference to use one rhetorical device over another because it is part of his/her own style.

The next result to be discussed is why the subjects in the control group also used all the language devices selected for the present study and with high frequency even though they did not receive instructions on them. A possible explanation is that the use of argumentative strategies is the result of transfer. English is a third language in Morocco and students are already familiar with writing in Arabic and French. Due to school experience in writing in both languages, using language devices has become an automatic process; bearing in mind that the selected language devices are used in Arabic as well. As a consequence, the use of language devices by the control group can be a result of transfer from Arabic.

Conclusion:

The present research has investigated the impact of language argumentation instruction on the students writing for the first year university level. It involved specifically students who are majoring in Economy and Business and who are required to have a good level in English. The results indicated a pretty significant effect of this instruction. The students in the experimental group used more strategies than the students in the control group. However, the subjects in the control group also used the same argumentative strategies, which could be part of language transfer from Arabic, and/or part of writing school experience the subjects had before. This does not reject the role of language instruction in writing class. It means that in spite of the use language strategies in writing on the part of the control group, the subjects are not aware of it in the first place and language instruction would help the students know how to use language argumentation in the appropriate context. This may lead to conclusion that involving argumentative strategy instruction in writing course can be beneficial for the students in producing better arguments and more cohesive essays. A possible short coming of the present research is that the present language instruction did not involve strategies which require wider context as suggested by Pearlman. A further research may investigate this idea.

Appendix:

Topics:
1. Parents should become their kids' best friends.
2. Homework does more harm than good
3. Students should have the right to choose their teachers
4. Private schooling is more effective than public schooling
5. Grades do not indicate either intelligence or students' efforts
6. A gap year between high school and college provides more prospect future

The Writing instruction:

1.An Essay is usually made up of:
- Introduction: Introduce the Topic
- Two or Three Paragraphs Treating the Topic in Details
- Conclusion: It Sums up What is Treated Before
- There are different types of essays: expository, descriptive, narrative…..
- Today we will work on the following type: Argumentative Essay
- In an argumentative essay we are for or against an idea and we defend our opinion regarding this idea.
- We defend our opinion through presenting different arguments to support it
- The first step of writing an (argumentative) essay is by Brainstorming: listing all ideas we have about the topic.
- In our topic sample "Should we always tell the truth" we will brainstorm the following:
- Advantages of always telling the truth:
- -
- -
- Disadvantages of always telling the truth:

- -
- -Then we organize our ideas into the appropriate structure of the essay:

2.Introduction and Paragraphs:

I start from the general to the specific and at the end I can clearly state my opinion.
I can mention (in general) the arguments Iam going to use to support my opinion

- Paragraph 1: I start developing my first argument. this argument can be against or for. If it is against my opinion, I need to justify its uselessness as an argument: statistics, logic thinking etc.
- Paragraph 2: It follows the same structure as the first one. Just in case you have arguments against, you need to mention them in the first paragraph and leave the arguments supporting your opinion for the second paragraph.
- Is honesty the best policy? We are taught that it is when we are little. However, most of us soon learn that social life is full of lies. Telling the truth all the time just does not seem possible. Some people, like Robin Marantz Henig in her article "looking for the lie", believe that if we told the truth all the time the whole structure of our social relationships would crumble. Others, like Errol Morris in his essay "There is Such a Thing as Truth," point out that we sometimes have a duty to discover the truth and that ignoring "lies" may cause great harm. We are often tempted to tell the so-called "kindhearted" lies either because we want to avoid hurting others or because we do not like confrontation or conflict. However, this is just taking the easy way out. It is important for us to be honest with others because by being truthful, we stop living a lie in our own life, we show respect for others, and we create the conditions for meaningful relationships.
- How does the writer attract the reader's attention in the first sentence?
- How do you think the ideas develop throughout the paragraphs: from the general to the specific? From the specific to the general?
- Why is the last sentence in the paragraph boldfaced?
- In the introductory paragraph, the author starts by introducing the general topic of the essay.
- The flow of ideas in the paragraphs goes from the general (large, broad ideas): most of us soon learn that social life is full of lies. Telling the truth all the time just does not seem possible.
- to the specific (details, examples, particular cases): Some people, like Robin Marantz Henig in her article "looking for the lie", believe that if we told the truth all the time the whole structure of our social relationships would crumble. Others, like Errol Morris in his essay "There is Such a Thing as Truth," point out that we sometimes have a duty to discover the truth and that ignoring "lies" may cause great harm
- The most specific statement is the thesis statement, which is usually the last statement of the paragraph. It tells what the reader will focus on in the body of the essay: It is important for us to be honest with others because by being truthful, we stop living a lie in our own life, we show respect for others, and we create the conditions for meaningful relationships.
-

4.The thesis statement

   - Reflects the writer's narrow focus and point of view, attitude, or opinion: It is important for us to be honest with others

   - Forecasts which aspects of the subject the writer will discuss to support the thesis in the body of the essay: because by being truthful, we stop living a lie in our own life, we show respect for others, and we create the conditions for meaningful relationships.

- A good thesis statement should have all the criteria mentioned above. The thesis statement is not a statement of fact, nor is it a statement that simply announces the general topic essay:
- Lies are distortions of the truth. (a fact)
- This essay is about the role of truth and lies in our life (announces the topic)
- Telling the truth in our life is important (there is point of view but no focus, why?)

5.Introductory Paragraph:

- Read the sentences from the introductions to an essay. Put the statement in order.
- ___we may say this because there are so many miraculous coincidences in our life that seem unreal.
- ___that is why even brothers, who grew up under the same roof as I, tell different stories about the same events that took place in our childhood.
- _1__ we often say that "truth is stranger than fiction."

- ____another aspect of this may be that we can never completely trust the accuracy of anyone's story, given the fact that we all see the world through different eyes.
- ____in my opinion, thinking that truth is relative and that everyone has his or her own truth can be very liberating force in our lives, allowing us to be more creative and spontaneous.
- ___all this leads me to say that we have to accept the potential "lie" in the truth and, in so doing, disagree with Errol Morris who argues that the truth is not relative.
- ___ one day when I was visiting Norway, I wrote a postcard telling a friend how lonely I was and as I looked up, I saw my cousin miraculously sitting on the next bench in the park.

Read the following composition and put the paragraphs in the correct order:
- Students who oppose the language requirement argue that university study should be more career focused. They feel that the language requirement steals time that could be spent on courses directly related to a student's major. This is a shortsighted position. Statistics show that bilingual candidates have an increased chance of getting jobs…
- It is crucial that we keep the foreign language requirement. To eliminate it would be doing a great disservice in our university and its students. Foreign language learning benefits us in concrete and subtle ways as it broadens our minds and expands our opportunities
- Another point often made by the proponents of the change is that a large number of students who study a language for two years rarely use it in their lives. While this may be true in some cases, study of a foreign language has been shown to increase proficiency in one's native language. Similarly, the understanding of oneself and one's own culture is increased through contact with another language and its culture….
- Recently, a student organization at our university proposed that we do away with our foreign language requirement, which mandates that all students complete two years of foreign language study. The main reason for this proposal seems to be to eliminate unnecessary courses; however, the proponents of this change are overlooking the general benefits foreign language study provides to students of any major.
- What is the thesis statement of the essay?
- What are the arguments given by the writer? And how does the flow of the arguments go in the essay?

6.Rhetorcial Devices:
- They are tools which give your arguments more strength and consequently more convincing to the reader:
- **It is + evaluative adjective + that/to:** it is important to be honest. Being honest is important.
- **Adverbs:** it is (doubtful) that a liar will have a happy life. The liar will not (actually) have a happy life.
- **Suasive verbs:** they are verbs carrying power and opinion of the writer- agree, beg, command, decide, insist. I think/insist on the idea that lying can save that moment only but it will create more problems later.
- **Conditional:** if you lie, your life will become a hell. Lying makes your life a hell.
- **Concession:** even though we feel uncomfortable about lying, we are willing to lie sometimes. The idea of feeling uncomfortable about lying and having the will to lie is contradictory.
- **Rhetorical Questions:** they are questions to emphasize an opinion rather than seeking an answer: when we are faced with a nosy person asking personal questions, aren't we supposed to lie? When….. we are supposed to lie.
- **Denial and Exception:** They are adverbs used to mark the idea of separating one case from the rest of the situation. This includes expressions like '**only**' and '**except**': honest people may go for a lie only when the situation does good for the others rather than themselves- honest people may go for a lie when the situation does good for the others rather than themselves.

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TEACHING LITERATURE CONSTRAINTS IN THE ALGERIAN UNIVERSITY CONTEXT

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Abstract

Teaching literature in Algeria encounters many difficulties in how it should be taught. The Algerian government and Ministry of Higher Education both have attempted to develop the way of teaching Literature to solve the main problems. Both have asserted that due to the lack of training in previous years of instructors and students. Therefore, teaching Literature still faces problems. However, there are clear differences between teaching literature in the first language (L1) contexts and in the second language (L2) settings (Durant, 1995). This paper highlights the main issues of teaching literature in Algeria. Also, this article sheds light on the usage of unsuitable approaches in teaching literature in Algeria is one of the main problems.

Introduction

In the mid-2000s Algeria started various changes and reforms to improve the structure of the education system by adopting new methods and models. The LMD system is License, Master's, and Doctorate system, this system was started in the 2004/2005 academic year. The system is based on 'teaching units' which all students are supposed to collect at the end of each semester. The key components of this system include:
• License degree- three year of study and is equivalent to bachelor's degree.
• Master's degree for two years (4 semesters).
• Doctorate studies, including three years of research.

In his article Miliani (2012) accounts for the aims of LMD system in Algeria, he states that the primary goal of this scheme is to make Algerian universities compete with European ones. Also, it helps students to develop their skills and enhance their abilities in all domains. The LMD system also places significant importance on the technical and scientific branches of learning, and massive budgets are dedicated to scientific research through National Research Projects with university teachers encouraged to benefit from scholarships abroad. This system ensures more space is given to the learners' input and mobility. This university model is based on the competency-based approach (CBA). However, lecturers were given freedom to adopt any approach in their classes. The Communicative Approach and the Critical Thinking Approach in Algeria have rarely used the Critical thinking approach particularly.

As I mentioned earlier in the abstract about the difference of teaching literature both L1 and L2 contexts, my article is in L2 context and highlighting main problems in Algerian universities. Recent researchers including Hajoui and Khaledi (2014) have suggested that the teaching of literature in Algerian universities seems to fail because there is no an attempt to solve this problem of a suitable way of teaching English literature in Algeria. Taybe Bouazid's (2014) discusses "Why Algerian students struggle to achieve in English Literature." He asserts that this issue has been raised since the first time the English language was introduced in Algeria.

Bouazid argues that reforms of Higher Education did not achieve the main aim which is to help to improve the way of education in Algeria in all domains. Hence this article investigates the problems of teaching literature and also suggest how to link and develop the linguistic proficiency and literary skills at the end of this article. The fundamental problem with this explanation is that currently in Algerian universities there is no connection between the linguistic proficiency and literary skills in which students can improve and learn literature in an appropriate way.

The main issues of Algerian universities

The Algerian University, established actually in 1909, was an independent university and had many branches such as agriculture, medicine, and trading (Lulat 2005 cited in Malini 2012).Nowadays, Algerian universities developed to include universities, colleges, and other specialised and teaching institutes. Algerian universities in the 70s and 80s knew gradual growth and increased in the number of publications and scientific research (Torki, 2013). These universities contributed actively and vividly to the development of Algeria at that time.

Also, they shaped a literate generation which helped Algeria to rise significantly in economic and medicine, political relationships. Furthermore, these universities aimed to produce and disseminate advanced knowledge for improving social life in particular and develop employment requirements.

From 1971 to 2005

However, recently Algerian universities have decreased in their ranking and according to some neighbouring countries are now ranked less than other Arab universities like Tunisia and Morocco. As a result of many problems and factors such political, economic, lack of resource and lack of qualifications, Algerian universities have dropped sharply to the unsatisfactory level of producing knowledge and a significant decline in scientific research (publications).

Universities in the light of Civil war 90s

Algerian publications have decreased by 45% in the 90s up to 2005 . That is to say; Algeria universities have lost already more than half of their publications. To illustrate further, Constantine University and Algiers universities have lost already 62% from the publishers (Algerian Press Service, 2012). Additionally, in the 90s and early of 2000s, there was a lack of supporting the scientific research and encouraging for more publishers to write (Mebitli ,2014). Unfortunately, the Ministry of Higher Education did not pay attention and ignored this issue willingly because political and economic situations were not stable to solve or to take care of it. One criticism of much of the literature on the decline of Algerian universities' level is that none of the researchers has tackled the point of ''The Black Decade'' or "the Ten Bloody Years'' of violence and intimidation in the 90s.

One question that needs to be asked, however, is whether the events at that time still contribute to the current decline of Algerian universities. Mami (2013) considers that ''The Black Decade'' is the most important reason for the decline. He admits that this period has resulted in brain drain, and the departure of many academics. Such factors are unsatisfactory because they resulted in sharp decline of ranking of Algerian universities at the regional level and the global one. Non-government reports such as UNESCO have reported that more than 1500 university lecturers had left the country (Flood 2010 cited in Iddour 2010). Most of these lecturers were graduates from European universities, such as UK, France, Germany, and Russia. However, according to the Ministry of Higher Education, only 1200 university lecturers have left the country (Khan & Mezran 2014 cited Lebbal 2014). The differences between non-governmental and governmental reports are assessed by the number of Algerian publications abroad; that is to say; Algerian publications increased elsewhere but declined locally. As far as English is concerned, some western reports such as ICES (International centre of English studies middle eastern) states that more than 293 universities lecturers in English had left the country (Djmaa 2013). Surprisingly, these professors had received death threats by Islamist groups GAI (group Army Islamic) because they consider learning foreign languages are prohibited, in fact, this is only extremist thinking, which has no relation with Islamic religion.

Corruption and the policy of exchanging lecturers

Moreover, the Algerian Ministry of Higher Education in the 90s and the early of 2000s was not monitoring the universities and evaluating the success or failures rate (Rouabhi 2012 cited America 2014). It followed that there was a corruption of statistics in the light of this period when there was no monitoring of any actions. The latter point has been devastatingly critiqued by Aissat (2012), who argues that is not only the 90s years which are only responsible for declining Algerian universities level. He agrees that the emigration of Algerian universities lectures is one reason. However, he points out that in 1988 and 1987 the Ministry of Higher education had ended the contracts for many foreign university lectures in English . For instance, with the exchange of lecturers from UK, India, Pakistan, and some Arab countries, the universities were growing and increasing in the level of knowledge and improving their ways of teaching, also adopting different methods and techniques, which are new to Algerian universities. However, with the act of Higher Education Ministry, universities no longer update or take any new approaches or ideas (Miliani 2013).Moreover, there was a reduction in the number of scholarships, particularly in English branch. Significantly, these factors resulted in a lack of exchange knowledge and updating with global universities (Cherit 2005 cited Idir 2010). Also, it was seen as the hasty act to Algerians universities to rely on the local expertise. A serious problem with this latter point is that Algerian alumni were not yet qualified to start lecturing at universities. Algerian government and the Ministry of Higher Education have made the decision to make reforms in Higher Education system to solve the problems (Torki ,2013).

Moreover, the reform intends to improve the quality of learning and to update the educational system . These improvements in Algerian Higher education system have been marked by two major policy reforms since its independence (Berabah 2007 cited in Djafri 2013) 1971 which intended to liberate the Algerian Higher Education system from the dependency of French Higher Education system. Furthermore, this reform had implanted the Algerian (Arab and Berber) identity, culture and Arabic language. The overall aim was to prepare the generation for leading Algeria in all the domains besides improving the education and promulgating that Algeria is liberated country, and we are the men of tomorrow (Hammani 2006 cited in Idir 2010).

The problems encountered the English language in this system until 2005 can be summarised in the following points:
✓ Lack of the resources (Lebbal 2014)
✓ Mismanagement of dealing with this new language (Aissat 2013)
✓ Haste of employing staff with Algerian qualifications (Kadri 1999 cited in khaledi 2014)
✓ Haste of ending the partnerships with other foreign countries, such as the UK, Indian, Pakistan, and Arab countries (Sultana 2000 cited in Malaini, 2012)
✓ Lack of interest from the government in this language (Djeflat 1992, cited in Torki, 2013)
✓ Lack of seminars, workshops about the English language and literature
✓ Background of Algerian population (Arabic and French languages) (Benrabah 2007 & Cherite 2013 cited Lebbal,2014)

From 2005 up to date
In recent years, Algeria has seen a competition in foreign language use, between French and English to become the dominant language (Al-Khatib 2008, 228 cited in Torki 2013). Also, French has recently lost much of its ground in the social-cultural and educational environments (Maliani 2013). In her research (Idir, 2010) found that 45% of the population believe that French is not the key language for taking Algeria up to development and introducing it to the global world. However, several problems are facing English education in Algeria (Benrabah 2007). It is necessary to review the main challenges of learning English,
The Algerian educational system faces tremendous difficulties to help students to improve their skills in Learning English. Therefore, reforms have needed to be employed to improve learning practices in both the academic and professional sectors. The various problems facing learning English in Algeria should be countered by relevant changes and reforms that help both the teachers and the students overcome the challenges (Arab 2015). One question that needs to be asked, however, is whether that the Ministry of Education (covering schools) and Ministry of Higher Education (covering universities) should take into consideration the sociology of teaching, i.e. issues which are characterised by the structure of school, the social process, the social milieu of teacher and students (Benyament 2014).
The teaching of English has linguistic objectives related to providing the learner with the basic linguistic material required to be proficient in using the language (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and the four skills). Also, these objectives are encompassing a set of social-cultural objectives aimed at stimulating the learners' curiosity and encouraging them to engage with the cultural values of the target language.

Selection of novels
One of the problems of teaching literature in Algeria is related to the selection of novels. I have ascertained that students do not show any motivation to read the choice of the novels which are currently used in literature departments or to interact with their lecturers in class discussions. Lecturers attempt to choose from a limited set of texts, which they have taught previously and have, notes related to, which I think of as 'ready-made' novels. Therefore students lose the appreciation of learning literature. Recent researchers have shown that students may prefer to study more recent novels and be willing to discuss them with their lecturers.
 Also, the late introduction of literature to students at universities result in the lack of exposure eventually makes learners much more tied to their mother tongue or French. Therefore, students are not motivated, and apparently, they face difficulties to learn this language. Moreover, the lack of novels written in English in Algeria makes their learning and appreciating less. Also, another problem encountered in teaching literature is the adoption of approaches. Lecturers always seek methods that help them to deliver their lectures in the class. As mentioned earlier, the notion of the LMD system is to assist lecturers to become a facilitator and a learning mediator rather than the ' instructor' (Medjahed 2010, 72-73 cited Mami 2013). For active learning in the classroom, lecturers should encourage students to participate in group work, as language is the best

way to learn through interaction in groups, through close collaboration, and by communication with other students both inside and outside the classroom.

Training and Misused of Teaching Approaches

However, Algerian universities lectures still need training to understand the notions of different approaches. For instance, the Critical Thinking Approach is absent due to lack of training and syllabus. Also, the Communicative Approach misses the main concept at Algerian universities, which is the idea of negotiating the meaning. Therefore, the failure of the Communicative Approach is seen clearly through the way of choosing novels and way of delivering lectures in the class. Khadri (2014) observes that lecturers do not apply the main ideas of any approach to teaching; they choose classical novels and do not give students at least a chance to express their opinion. Therefore, the motivation is always less, and the interaction merely does not exist. Algerian universities adopt the Competency based approach CBA, because it matches the goals and the objectives of the Reform of 2003, as I mentioned earlier about the teaching approaches in the LMD system. The policy of reform as mentioned earlier attempts to create a broader perception of the general situation of EFL teaching in the Algerian educational system. University lecturers see that this approach can help students to improve their language and engage more in the classes. Lectures consider that this approach encourages students to increase their knowledge and also increase their sense of researching. CBA initially encountered problems during its implementation in Algeria. That is to say; teachers thought through the examination of this approach abroad see that it seems difficult approach to deal with it at Algerian universities. The positive response was higher in the first years 2007 to 2013. However, this method could not help Algerian students to learn more and assist them in engaging with their lecturers because there was clearly a lack of training for both teachers and students.

Conclusion

Teaching literature in Algeria still faces many difficulties as this article attempts to highlight and classify them. In general, therefore, it is clear that the reformation of the system has not been effective. Taken together, these factors important question should be raised about the nature of the last reformation and old ones in improving the educational system in Algeria. These factors enhance the understanding of the weakness of Algerian universities from different sides. Furthermore, this article will serve as a base for future studies and researches about the main problems in teaching literature in Algerian universities. What is now needed is a cross-national study involving all the universities to access the effectiveness of the recent reformation. In other words, it would be interesting to access the success of this reformation according to each university in Algeria and within adopting different approaches to teaching literature. It is recommended that further experimentation investigations into teaching literature using different approaches and contemporary novels are strongly advised in the Algerian universities to enhance the quality of teaching literature.

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REPRESENTATION OF MEN AND WOMEN IN TURKISH: EVIDENCE FROM TURKISH NATIONAL CORPUS

KADRİYE AYTAÇ, ÇİLER HATİPOĞLU

1. Introduction

Throughout the history there have been many inequalities between men and women and there have also been perceived discriminations against one gender or another in different societies. These inequalities and discriminations might be explained by several theories one of which is Social Identity Theory. Tajfel et al (1971) attempted to identify the minimal conditions that would lead members of one group to discriminate in favor of the group to which they belonged and against another group. As indicated by Hogg and Vaughan (2002), social identity is the individual's self-concept attained as a results of membership of social groups. Based on this theory, this study assumes that women and men might consider themselves belonging to two different groups in the society apart from their personal identity, which might result in an obvious discrimination and bias against the other group and favoritism for the ingroup.

Besides Social Identity Theory which is the main basis of this study, the need to test a common belief about Turkish language is another inspiration for the present research. Turkish is regarded as a gender neutral language which is believed to avoid any bias towards a particular sex or gender. As indicated by Suleiman (1999) nouns in Turkish have a generic form and it is used for both males and females without any reference to the gender. Some of these words include *doktor* (doctor), *eczacı* (pharmacist), *mühendis* (engineer) etc. In Turkish, there are very few words which include a reference to the gender of the person, such as *anne/baba* "mother/father", *kız/oğlan* "girl/boy", *hanım/bey* "lady/sir".

One of the ways to investigate the actual language usage is using corpus. There have been many studies which use corpus in order to investigate social and cultural norms in corpora (see Stubbs, 1996; Baker, 2005; Baker and McEnery, 2005; Piper, 2000; Johnson and Ensslin, 2006). Using corpus might provide some evidence for inequalities between men and women in a specific society since corpus includes the natural language. Therefore, in order to investigate whether there is any discrimination against one gender and test whether Turkish is really a gender neutral language, this study analyzes the data including the words used for males and females in Turkish in Turkish National Corpus.

2. Literature Review

Considering the asymmetry in terms of gender and sexism, a number of studies investigated the gender representation and gender differences in languages using corpora. Kjellmer (1986) investigated the frequency and distribution of masculine and feminine pronouns. He also investigated the words *man/men* and *woman/women* in the 1961 Brown and London–Oslo–Bergen (LOB) corpora. In terms of the frequency, he found out that masculine words were much more frequently used than feminine words in both corpora. In addition to the frequency of these male and female items, he also investigated the functions of these items in the corpora in order to find out whether women or men are represented as more active or passive in the society. The results showed that men and women had similar subject and object ratios.

Regarding the frequency of masculine and feminine words, several other studies also showed similar results in which masculine words are more frequently used than feminine words. Sigley and Holmes (2002) examined the frequencies of *man/men* and *woman/women* in the Brown and LOB corpora, together with the *Wellington Corpus of Written New Zealand English* (1986–90), the *Freiburg–Brown Corpus of American English* (1991–2) and the *Freiburg– LOB Corpus of British English* (1990–1). The results of this study showed that the frequency of *women* in writing significantly increased between the 1960s and the 1990s, while the frequency of *man/men* significantly decreased during that period. In spite of this increase in feminine items, the frequency of references to women as individuals was still lower than references to men as individuals.

In addition to the frequency analysis, an important component of analysis has been the *collocation* – where certain words frequently occur in close proximity (Baker, 2006: 96). Romaine (2000) specifically investigated the collocates of *bachelor* and *spinster* in the BNC. She found out that the adjectives that are commonly used with *spinster* usually have negative meanings. Some of these negative adjectives include *gossipy*, *nervy*, *ineffective*, *jealous*, *eccentric*, *frustrated*, *repressed*, *lonely*, *prim*, *cold-hearted* and *despised*. Romaine (2000) claimed that such asymmetries are also obvious in basic terms for male and female human beings. She

examined *man/woman* and *boy/girl* and the results showed that words with negative connotations are used more frequently with *woman/girl* than with *man/boy*.

Providing another example for gender studies including the analysis of collocations, Pearce (2008) examined the representation of men and women in the *British National Corpus* (BNC) with a special attention to the collocations of the nouns *man/men* and *woman/women*. He found out that the collocations of man and woman represent gender stereotypes. In alignment with the results of Caldas-Coulthard and Moon (1999), these stereotypes include information about physical appearance, attitudes and interests, psychological features, social relations and occupations. Pearce (2008) indicated that men are usually associated with competitiveness, adventurousness, independence and aggression. In terms of the physical appearance, men are believed to be strong, rugged and muscular. On the other hand, the women are mostly described as more co-operative, gentle, dependent, emotional and sympathetic and physically weak.

Based on the results and implications of the previous studies, the present study aimed to find out whether there is any bias towards a particular gender in Turkish even though it is regarded as a gender neutral language. The present research has the following research questions:

1. Is there any bias towards a particular gender in Turkish based on the *frequency* of the words used for males and females?
2. Is there any bias towards a particular gender in Turkish based on the *collocations* of the words used for males and females?
3. Are women or/and men represented as active or passive based on the *subject or object positions* of the words used for males and females?

3. METHODOLOGY
3.1 Data Collection
For the present research, Turkish National Corpus (TNC) was used to gather the relevant data. In order to analyze the female words, *kadın*, bayan*, kız* (*including *kızı*, kıza, kızlar)* were searched in the corpus in specific text types which are fiction and verse, non-academic prose and biography and newspapers. The data were analyzed for their frequency and collocations. For the male words, *erkek*, erkeğ**, and *adam**were analyzed for the frequency and collocations. The asterisk (*) next to the words means that all of the words including and starting with the relevant word were searched and analyzed. If *kadın** is searched in the corpus, it is possible to see all the words starting with *kadın* such as *kadını, kadına* and *kadınlar*.

3.2 Data Analysis
In order to analyze the collocations and frequency, TNC interface was used. Basic search query was used to display the data where male and female words were used. TNC makes it possible to extract the query results. In addition, TNC provides the collocations of each word. The frequency for each collocation of male and female words was retrieved.

4. RESULTS
4.1 Frequency Analysis
In terms of the words that are used for females, as can be seen in Table 1, the results of the frequency analysis show that *kadın* is more frequently used than *kız* and *bayan.* Although there is not a big difference between the frequency of *kadın* and *kız, bayan* is used much less frequently than the other words. As for the words that are used for males, the results show that *adam* is much more frequently used than *erkek*. *Adam* is used almost twice as frequently as *erkek*. It is also seen in the results that words for females are more commonly used than words for males.

Table 1: Results of the Frequency Analysis

	Total	Per million
kadın* (woman)	**48.206**	1022,34
bayan* (lady)	**2.918**	61,25
kız (girl)	**12.090**	253,77
kızı* (girl-accusative)	**19.372**	406,62
kıza (girl-dative)	**1.203**	25,25
kızlar* (girls)	**6.111**	128,27
kız, kızı*, kıza, kızlar* (total)	**38.776**	813,6
erkek* (male)	**16.127**	338,51
erkeğ* (male-consonant mutation)	**3.344**	70,19
erkek*, erkeğ*(total)	**19.471**	408,7
adam* (man)	**39.589**	830,97
Words for males (total)	**59.330**	1239,67
Words for females (total)	**89.900**	1897,19

4.2 Collocation Analysis

4.2.1 Collocation Analysis for *kadın*

TNC provides the collocations for each word that is searched. The most frequently used words with *kadın** are provided in Table 2. The collocations of *kadın** might be categorized into five different groups in terms of their focus.

- **Age**

As the results show one of the most commonly used word with *kadın** is *genç (young)*. The word *yaşlı* is also frequently used with *kadın**. However, *genç (young)* is more commonly used than *yaşlı (old)*. It is also the case in Turkish society. For both young and old women, it is possible to use the word *kadın**. However, when it is used for young women, there is usually an implication that the woman is either married or divorced since the words *evli (married)* and *dul (widow)*are also very common collocations of *kadın**. For young and single women, *kadın** is not very often used in Turkish society.

- **Physical Description**

In addition to age, the word *güzel (beautiful)* is also commonly used with *kadın** for physical description and compliment. Since *güzel (beautiful)* is one of the most common collocations of *kadın**, it might be possible to infer that there is a lot of importance attached to the physical appearance of women in Turkish society. Another interesting result is that *güzel (beautiful)* is more commonly used than the word *çalışan (working)* and *hakları (rights)*.

- **Marital Status**

Following the physical appearance, marital status of women seems to be the second focus based on the collocations of *kadın**. As can be seen in Table 2, *kadın** is commonly used with the words *evli (married)*, *dul (widow)*, *çocuklu (with child)* and *hamile (pregnant)*. If the woman is married, divorced or pregnant, she is usually called *kadın**. On the other hand, if the woman is young and single, she is usually called as *kız*. All these results indicate that there is a very strong focus on the marital status of women in Turkish society.

- **Generic Names**

Since newspapers are also used for this study, it is also possible to see that the words for zodiac signs are also commonly used with the word *kadın**. To illustrate, *aslan kadını (leo woman)*, *yengeç kadını (cancer woman)* and *ikizler kadını (gemini woman)* are commonly used in the corpus. *Kadın** is also commonly used with *Türk (Turkish)*. *Türk kadını (Turkish woman)* is usually used with a positive connotation in order to refer to the heroism of the Turkish women.

- **Negative Connotations**

The data also show that *kadın** is sometimes used with a negative connotation. Some words with bad connotations such as *dedikoducu (gossiper)* and *falcı (fortune teller)* are also collocations of *kadın**. In Turkish society, gossiping and fortune telling are ver commonly associated with women, which might be the reason for those collocations. In addition, *zavallı (miserable)* and *ezilen (oppressed)* draw attention to the weakness of the women in the society.

Table 2: Collocation Analysis for *kadın**

Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.
bir (a)	7192	Türk (Turkish)	246	evli (married)	102	erkeği (man-accusative)	63	doğuran (procreant)	18
bu (this)	1740	adam (man)	184	erkekli (with men)	96	aslan (leo)	58	ikizler (gemini)	17
da (too)	1372	erkekler (males)	164	köylü (peasant)	87	kocasının (her husband)	54	feminist (feminist)	14
genç (young)	1033	sesi (voice)	149	komşu (neighbour)	83	doğum (birth)	50	falcı (fortune teller)	13
yaşlı (old)	828	hakları (rights)	133	zavallı (miserable)	78	kocasına (to her husband)	48	ezilen (oppressed)	13
o (that)	827	oyuncu (actress)	118	rehber (guide)	74	erkeklerden (from the men)	47	boşanan (divorced)	10
erkek (male)	503	çalışan (working)	114	kocası (husband)	71	temizlikçi (cleaner)	35	vamp (vamp)	10
güzel (beautiful)	371	erkeğin (male's)	111	dul (widow)	70	korosunun (choir)	27	dedikoducu (gossiper)	6
ev (house)	251	erkeklerin (males')	104	hamile (pregnant)	68	çocuklu (with child)	18	sağlıklı (healthy)	2

4.2.2 Collocation Analysis for *bayan**

Table 3 shows the results of the collocation analysis for *bayan**. In general, the words that are commonly used with *bayan** show that it is mostly used in formal situations. Collocations of *bayan** might be categorized into four groups in terms of their focus.

- **Addressing**

As can be seen in the table, *bayan** is mostly used for addressing people. It is usually used with the names of females such as *Bayan Missi, Angel, Mona* and *Alice*. Interestingly, almost all of the proper names used with

bayan* are names of foreign people. This might be because of the translation of Ms., Miss and Mrs. which are usually translated into Turkish as *bayan**.

- **Age**

Another interesting result about *bayan** is that it is much more commonly used with *genç (young)* than it is used with *yaşlı (old)*. Therefore, it is possible to say that *bayan** is usually used to refer to young women in formal situations to be more polite.

- **Prestigious Jobs**

The collocation analysis for *bayan** also shows that it is commonly associated with women with prestigious jobs. As can be seen in Table 3, *bakan (minister), gazeteci (journalist), doktor (doctor)* and *öğretmen (teacher)* are used with bayan. On the other hand, *bayan** is also used with tezgahtar which is usually not regarded as prestigious as *doktor (doctor)* or *gazeteci (journalist)*. Since *bayan** is mostly associated with formal situations, that context in which it is used with *tezgahtar (salesclerk)* might also be a formal context.

- **Generic Name**

In addition to addressing, age, and prestigious jobs, *bayan** is also commonly used with sports teams or games. For instance, *Bayan Basketbol Takımı (Women's Basketball Team)* or *Bayan Voleybol Takımı (Women's Volleyball Team)*. In this function, *bayan** is not used for a specific woman but it is used to refer to a group of people.

Table 3: Collocation Analysis for *bayan**

Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.
Teksaslı (texan)	161	Türkiye (Turkey)	21	arkadaş (friend)	11	voleybol (volleyball)	7	heise	5
missi	69	milli (national)	20	takımı (team)	11	marry	7	straus	5
Genç (young)	48	eczacıbaşı	16	arkadaşım (my friend)	10	jennifer	6	Bellanın (bella's)	5
basketbol (basketball)	43	alice	15	doktor (doctor)	10	Niravedayı (Niraveda-accusative)	6	lechner	4
niraveda	38	bella	13	öğretmen (teacher)	10	tezgahtar (salesclerk)	6	hentbol (handball)	4
baylar (gentlemen)	37	yaşlı	13	sunay	9	olga	6	halterci (weight-lifter)	4
angel	30	bakan (minister)	13	halter (barbell)	8	tenis (Tennis)	6	raket (racket)	4

4.2.3 Collocation Analysis for *kız**

The results of the collocation analysis for *kız** (including *kız, kızı, kızlar* and *kıza*) are provided in Table 4. Based on the collocation results, 6 different themes are identified for *kız**.

Table 4: Collocation Analysis for *kız*

kız		kızı		kızlar		kıza	
Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.
genç (young)	1082	genç (young)	535	genç (young)	539	genç (young)	91
küçük (little)	540	küçük (little)	521	güzel (beautiful)	100	küçük (little)	68
çocuğu (daughter)	332	deniz (mermaid)	357	küçük (little)	93	aşık (in love)	38
kardeşi (sister)	223	güzel (beautiful)	206	kadınlar (women)	37	güzel (beautiful)	14
güzel (beautiful)	119	benim (my)	201	çalışan (working)	23	saçlı (haired)	6
kardeşim (my sister)	117	avşar	114	gencecik (very young)	18	gözlü (eyed)	6
çocuğunun (daughter's)	114	babası (father)	113	gelinlik (marriageable)	11	kasiyer (cashier)	4
çocukları (daughters)	98	hanım (lady)	83	bakire (virgin)	8	garson (waitress)	4
çocuk (child)	87	Türk (Turkish)	74	garson (waitress)	6	nişanlı (engaged)	3
öğrenci (student)	81	teyzemin (my aunt's)	56	kasiyer (cashier)	3	gelinlik (marriageable)	3

- **Age**

As can be seen in the results, *genç (young), küçük (little), çocuğu (daughter), çocuk (child), çocukları (children)* and *gencecik (very young)* are very common collocations for *kız**. Especially for all forms of *kız**, the word *genç (young)* is the most common collocation. Therefore, it might be possible to infer that *kız** is used for young women. Interestingly, there is no incidence of *yaşlı (old)* used with *kız** in the corpus data. These results also support the collocations of *kadın* where there were a lot of occurences of *yaşlı (old)*.

- **Kinship**

Another meaning associated with *kız** is kinship. As the collocation results illustrate, *çocuğu (daughter), çocuğunun (daughter's), teyzemin (my aunt's),* and *babası (father)* are some of the words used with *kız**. Therefore, it might be possible to infer that Turkish people use *kız** to talk about kinship. For instance, to say my aunt's daughter, they use *kız**. For this meaning, *kadın* and *bayan* are never used in the corpus data.

- **Physical Description**

For all forms of *kız**, *güzel (beautiful)* is another very common collocate as is shown in Table 4. As is the case with *kadın**, it is possible to conclude that there is a lot of focus on the physical appearance of women and being a beautiful woman is valued in Turkish society. Although there are some collocations related to physical appearance in the males' data, it is not as salient and strong as in the females' data.

- **Marital Status**

An emphasis on marital status of women is another apparent issue based on the colocations of *kız**. *Gelinlik ((marriageable), bakire (virgin)* and *nişanlı (engaged)* are some of the words used with *kız** and they imply that *kız** is used for women who are single and young. These also clearly indicate that there is a strong focus on the marital status of women and people usually make a distinction between married and single women by means of different words in Turkish society.

- **Low Prestigious Jobs**

Unlike *bayan**, *kız** is usually associated with low prestigious jobs based on the data. *Garson kız (Waitress)* and *kasiyer (cashier) kız* are some of the examples of collocations. These expressions might have been used by people with a deliberate intention to minimize and play down the women's jobs. Interestingly, there is no incidence of prestigious jobs used with *kız** in the corpus data.

- **Generic Name**

In some examples, *kız** is used in order to refer to a group of people. *Türk kızı (Turkish girl)* and *Avşar kızı* are examples in which *kız** is used to talk about the women of a specific nation in general. This is also the case with

kadın* as a generic name. However, with *kadın*, Türk kadını (Turkish woman)* is usually used rather than other nationalities in order to emphasize the heroism related to Turkish women.

4.2.4 Collocation Analysis for *erkek** and *erkeğ*

Table 8 shows the results of collocation analysis for *erkek** and *erkeğ**. *Erkeğ** was also searched in the corpus because when *erkek** takes a dative marker [e] or an accusative marker [i], the last consonant [k] becomes [ğ] as a result of consonant mutation in Turkish. Based on the results of collocation analysis, 8 different categories were identified for *erkek** and *erkeğ**.

- **Kinship**

As the results indicate words for kinship are commonly used with *erkek** such as *çocuk (son), kardeşi (brother)* and *evlat (child)*. As a kinship term, erkek* is used to say *erkek evlat (son), erkek kardeş (brother), erkek çocuk (son)* and *erkek torun (grandson)*. However, *erkek** is not used when saying my aunt's son. In that case, Turkish people use *oğlu** instead of *erkek**.

- **Age**

There is also a focus on age since *genç (young)* and *yaşlı (old)* are common collocations for *erkek* and erkeğ*. However, the results indicate that *erkek** and *erkeğ** are mostly used when talking about young men since there is a significant difference between the number of occurrences of *yaşlı (old)* and *genç (young)*. If they want to talk about an old man, Turkish people usually use the word *adam*.

- **Power and Dominance**

Based on the collocation analysis, it is possible to say that *erkek** is associated with power and dominance. *Egemen (dominant), egemenliğine (dominance)* and *ağlamaz (does not cry)* are other words that are commonly used with *erkek**. These words might give some clues about the perception of men in Turkish society since there is not any incidence of such words which imply power and dominance in females' data.

- **Physical Description**

There is also a focus on physical description for males since *yakışıklı (handsome)* and *güzeli (beautiful)* are also words used with *erkek**. However, this physical description for men is not as common as the words for physical description of women. Therefore, it might be possible to infer that men's physical appearance is not as important as women's physical appearance in Turkish society.

- **Negative Connotations**

In addition, *erkek** is also used with some words which have negative connotations such as *çapkın erkek (chaser), aldatan erkek (cheating man)* and *light erkek (light man)*. In addition, *döven (beater)* and *maço (macho)* are also other words used with *erkek** with a negative connotation. They might also be interpreted as an indicator of perceived power and dominance of men among Turkish people.

- **Marital Status**

Although it is much more obvious in the analysis of *kız*, *erkek** is also used with the words *evli (married)* and *bekar (single)*. However, the distinction between married and single men is not as sharp as the one between married and single women since *erkek** is used both for married and single men. Thus, this might indicate that there is more attention to the marital status of women in Turkey.

- **Generic Name**

Erkek* and *erkeğ** are also used as generic names when talking about sports and teams, zodiac signs and nationalities. As is the case with *bayan** and *kız*, *erkek** and *erkeğ** are also used for sports and sports teams such as *erkek voleybol takımı (men's volleyball team)* and *erkek basketbol takımı (men's basketball team)*. They are also used with nationalities such as *Türk erkeği (Turkish man)* and zodiac signs such as *yengeç erkeği (cancer man)* and *akrep erkeği (scorpio man)*.

Table 5: Collocation Analysis for *erkek* and *erkeğ****

erkek*		erkek*		erkeğ*	
Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.
bir (a)	1887	basketbol (basketball)	29	kadınla (with woman)	42
kadın (woman)	402	adamın (brave man)	29	Türk (Turkish)	41
çocuk (child)	171	yakışıklı (handsome)	28	genç (young)	39
genç (young)	168	ağlamaz (doesn't cry)	18	yengeç (cancer)	31
çocuklar (children)	85	çapkın (chaser)	15	akrep (scorpio)	28
çocuğu (son)	76	aldatan (cheating)	14	başak (virgo)	26
egemen (dominant)	74	bekar (single)	12	aslan (leo)	26
kardeşi (brother)	72	light (light)	11	kova (aquarius)	19
yaşlı (old)	52	egemenliğine (to the domination)	9	koç (aries)	13
evli (married)	43	döven (beater)	7	çekici (attractive)	7

4.2.5 Collocation Analysis for *adam**

Table 10 shows the results of the collocation analysis for *adam**. Collocates of *adam** are examined in 3 different groups.

- **Generic Name**

As can be seen in the results, one of the most commonly used words with *adam** is the word *bilim*. In that usage, *adam** does not refer to a specific person and it can refer to both men and women. There are also other fixed expressions used with *adam** such as *din adamı (reverend), devlet adamı (statesman), adam kaçırmak (kidnapping)* and *adam öldürmek (committing homicide)*.

- **Age**

Another point about *adam** is the fact that it is commonly used with both *genç (young)* and *yaşlı (old)*, which is not the case for *erkek**. Although *genç (young)* is more commonly used with *adam** than *yaşlı (old)*, there is not a huge gap between their number of occurrences. On the other hand, *erkek** is usually used for young people unlike *adam**.

- **Physical Strength**

In addition, *adam* has also another connotation with enormousness and importance since *koca, koskoca (enormous)* and *dev (giant)* are also collocations for *adam**. This theme might be regarded as similar to power and dominance theme for the collocations of *erkek** and *erkeğ**. However, they have also some differences. The words used for the strength and enormousness of *adam** usually refer to the physical strength while the words used for power and dominance of *erkek** refer to their social status.

Table 6: Collocation Analysis for *adam*

Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.	Word	Freq.
bir (a)	5185	teknik (technical)	334	siyaset (politics)	85	karısı (wife)	41
bu (this)	2815	kadın (woman)	190	sordu (asked)	70	yakışıklı (handsome)	37
bilim (science)	1436	be (exclamation)	144	zengin (rich)	66	kılıklı (seemingly)	37
genç (young)	922	kötü (bad)	131	zavallı (miserable)	64	sokaktaki (on the street)	34
o (that)	914	tek (one)	119	akıllı (wise)	61	koskoca (enormous)	33
yaşlı (old)	772	ilim (science)	116	silahlı (armed)	57	karısının (her wife)	29
din (religion)	422	dev (giant)	97	öldürmek (to kill)	46	suratlı (faced)	26
devlet (government)	422	ihtiyar (old)	86	boylu (tall)	43	öldürmekten (because of killing)	22

4.3 Subject-Object Position Analysis

Whether the words for females and males are subjects or objects in the utterances was also examined in this study. As Table 11 shows *kadın** is mostly used in the subject position, followed by the object position. There are also other instances where the word *kadın** is neither subject nor object. These examples include some fixed expressions such as *Kadın Hakları, Kadın Doğum doktoru* and *Kadın Yurtları*.

Table 7: Subject-Object Position Analysis of *kadın*

	Subject	Object	Other	Total
Number of Instances	1661	713	126	2500
Frequency	66,44%	28,52%	5,04%	

As for the position analysis of *bayan**, as can be seen in Table 12, it is also mostly used in subject position followed by the object position. There are also some instances where *bayan** is used for addresssing people. Other cases include the fixed expressions such as *Bayan Voleybol Takımı* and *Bayanlar Dünya Rekoru*.

Table 8: Subject-Object Position Analysis of *bayan*

	Subject	Object	Addressing	Other	Total
Number of Instances	1445	576	180	299	2500
Frequency	57,8%	23,04%	7,2%	11,96%	

Table 13 shows the position analysis of *kızı**. As can be seen in the table, *kızı** is mostly used as an object in the utterances probably because of the form of the word itself. Object position is followed by subject position and addressing function.

Table 9: Subject-Object Position Analysis of kızı*

	Subject	Object	Addressing	Total
Number of Instances	445	1132	343	1920
Frequency	17,8%	45,28%	13,72%	

As is the case with *kızı**, *kıza* is also commonly used in the object position because of the form of the word. As can be seen in Table 14, it is never used in the subject position. There is another expression *kız kıza* which has 20 instances in the corpus.

Table 10: Subject-Object Position Analysis of kıza

	Subject	Object	Exclamation	kız kıza	Total
Number of Instances	-	1142	5	20	1203
Frequency	-	45,68%	0,41%	1,66%	

The last female word *kızlar** is also mostly used in the object position followed by subject position, addressing and other forms as can be seen in Table 15.

Table 11: Subject-Object Position Analysis of kızlar*

	Subject	Object	Addressing	Other	Total
Number of Instances	873	1462	150	15	2500
Frequency	34,92%	58,48%	6%	0,6%	

As for the male words, as Table 16 shows, *erkek** is mostly used in the subject position followed by the object position, other functions and addressing.

Table 12: Subject-Object Position Analysis of erkek*

	Subject	Object	Addressing	Other	Total
Number of Instances	1245	1100	25	130	2500
Frequency	49,8%	44%	1%	5,2%	

Table 17 shows the results of the position analysis for *erkeğ**. As can be seen in the table, *erkeğ** is mostly used in the object position followed by the subject position. The reason for the high incidence of the object position might be the form of the word itself.

Table 13: Subject-Object Position Analysis of erkeğ*

	Subject	Object	Total
Number of Instances	1003	1497	2500
Frequency	40,12%	59,88%	

Lastly, as is illustrated in Table 18, *adam** is very commonly used in the subject position. It is followed by the object position but there is a big gap between the frequency of the subject and object positions. There are also some instances where *adam** is used for addressing.

Table 14: Subject-Object Position Analysis of _adam*_

	Subject	Object	Addressing	Total
Number of Instances	1578	882	20	2480
Frequency	63,12%	35,28%	0,8%	

As can be seen in Table 19, although there is not a big gap between the number of instances for subject and object positions, masculine words are mostly used in the subject position while feminine words are mostly used in object position.

Table 15: Comparison of the Positions of Feminine and Masculine Words

	Subject	Object	Addressing	Other	Total
Number of Instances for masculine words	3826	3479	45	130	7480
Frequency	51,1%	46,5%	0,6%	1,7%	
Number of Instances for feminine words	4424	5025	673	465	10587
Frequency	41,7%	47,4%	6,3%	4,3%	

5. Summary and Discussion

The present research investigated any possible bias towards a particular gender in Turkish using the data from Turkish National Corpus. Firstly, considering the frequency of the feminine and masculine words in the corpus, results of the frequency analysis showed that feminine words are more commonly used than masculine words in the corpus. Moreover, it was also possible to make comparisons within the feminine and masculine words. _Kadın*_ is the most common word used for females followed by _kız*_. However, _bayan*_ is much less commonly used compared to the other feminine words.

As for the comparison within the masculine words, the results revealed that _adam*_ is used almost twice as frequently as _erkek*_ and _erkeğ*_ . The reason for this result might be the fact that _adam*_ is very commonly used as a generic name such as _bilim adamı (scientist)_ and _din adamı (reverend)_.

The collocation analysis might be divided into two groups: the comparison of the collocations of the feminine and masculine words and the comparison of the collocations within the feminine and masculine words. Regarding the difference between the feminine and masculine words, in alignment with the results of Pearce (2008) and Caldas-Coulthard and Moon (1999), the data analysis showed that there is an obvious focus on physical appearance in feminine data. On the other hand, this focus on physical appearance is not so obvious in the masculine data even though there are some instances such as _güzeli (beautiful)_ and _yakışıklı (handsome)_ which are some of the collocations of _erkek*_ and _erkeğ*_.

Another difference between the feminine and masculine data is the words that modify these words. For the masculine data, there seems to be a focus on power, importance and physical strength. For instance, there are many examples of the expressions _koca (huge), koskoca (enormous),_ and _dev (giant)_. Moreover, the words _egemen (dominant), egemenliği (dominance), döven (beater)_ and _ağlamaz (does not cry)_ which are commonly used with the word _erkek*_ are important signals and cues for the attitudes of the society. There seems to be a favoritism among men in terms of their power and strength as a group while a prejudice is observed towards women about their weakness. The words _zavallı (miserable), ezilen (oppressed)_ and _aptal (stupid)_ are commonly used with feminine words and they draw attention to the weakness of the women.

In both masculine and feminine data, there are some words with negative connotations. For instance, the words _dedikoducu (gossiper)_ and _falcı (fortune teller)_ are only used with _kadın*_, there are not any examples of these words in the masculine data. Still, there are also words with negative connotations in the masculine data. To illustrate, _aldatan (cheating), çapkın (chaser)_ and _light_ are used with _erkek*_.

The collocation analysis also shows an obvious focus on the marital status of the women. There are many instances of the words _evli (married), boşanan (divorced), dul (widow), nişanlı (engaged)_ and _gelinlik_

(marriageable) in the feminine data. However, only *evli (married)* and *bekar (single)* are seen in the masculine data and they are not as frequent as they are in the feminine data.

There are also differences within the feminine and masculine words. Regarding the feminine words, *kadın** is especially used when the woman is married, divorced or pregnant. On the other hand, *kız** is mostly used for the woman who are young and single. Moreover, the word *kız** is commonly used with jobs with low prestige. For instance, there are instances of *kasiyer kız (casher lady)* and *garson kız (waitress)*. For talking about nationalities, *kız** is usually preferred. For instance, *Türk kızı (Turkish girl),* and *Tatar kızı (Tatar girl)*. However, there are also many examples of *Türk kadını (Turkish woman)* which is used to refer to the heroism of Turkish women.

As for the masculine words, e*rkek** and *erkeğ** are sometimes used with words which have negative connotations such as *aldatan (cheating), çapkın (chaser)* and *döven (beater)*. On the other hand, such words with negative connotations are not so common in the data of *adam**. *Adam** is mostly used as a generic name such as *ilim adamı (scientist)* and *din adamı (reverend)*. Moreover, it is also commonly used in expressions such as *adam öldürmek (committing homicide)* and *adam kaçırmak (kidnapping)*. Physical description is especially rare in the data of *adam**. It has associations with importance and hugeness by means of some words such as *dev (giant)* and *koskoca (enormous).*

Lastly, considering the subject-object position analysis, the comparison of feminine and masculine words shows that feminine words are mostly used in the object position while masculine words are mostly used subject position. However, as the results show, the there is not a big gap between the frequencies. Therefore, it might be possible to say that feminine and masculine words have similar subject and object ratios. As for the differences within the feminine words, *kadın**, *bayan** and *kız* are mostly used in the subject position. However, *kızı**, *kıza** and *kızlar** are mostly used in the object position. The reason might be the form of the words. In addition, *kadın** and *bayan** have more positive connotations and they might awake respect in the society. *Kızı**, *kıza* and *kızlar** might be regarded as more passive in the society.

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WHY IS IT HARD TO REFUSE? REFUSAL STRATEGIES IN TURKISH

ÇILER HATIPOĞLU, NUR GEDIK BAL

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the study was to discover the situations Turkish people had difficulty in refusing such initiating acts as requests, offers, invitations and suggestions. It also aimed to explore the refusal strategies used in these situations. The total number of the participants in the study was 100. Half of the participants were university students at a prep school and the other half consisted of teachers working in different levels such as pre-school, primary school, middle-school, high school and university in Turkey. As a data collection instrument, a questionnaire consisting of some demographic questions and four main questions about eliciting acts such as refusing a request, offer, invitation and suggestion was implemented. For each eliciting act, the details of the situation that was hard to refuse were asked. Upon giving the details of the situation, the participants were also asked to write the statement that they would utter as a response to this request, offer, invitation and suggestion. For data analysis, descriptive statistics in SPSS IBM 20 was utilized for the demographic parts. The semantic components of the refusal strategies were analyzed through Takahashi and Beebe's (1987) classification of refusal strategies. Furthermore, content analysis was done to identify the variables that might have an impact on the difficulty of refusal situations. In this analysis, the preliminary consideration was Hofstede's (1997) three dimensions of national cultures which are femininity vs. masculinity, collectivism vs. individualism, and high power distance vs. low power distance. The findings indicated that Turkish people had difficulty in refusing their friends more than their colleagues, family members and principals, and the challenge in the refusals stemmed primarily from the relationship between the interlocutors, the need for cooperation and the desire to keep the harmonious relationship. Moreover, Turkish students and teachers mainly used indirect strategies and the most common semantic formula was giving excuse, reasons and explanations.

Keywords: Refusals, speech acts, national cultures, pragmatics

A STUDY OF MOTIVATION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING OF FIRST YEAR UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS AT COLLEGE OF ARTS, UNIVERSITY OF ANBAR

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Abstract

It can be clearly stated that motivation has long been identified as one of the main factors affecting English language leaning (Gardner, 1985). Thus, the study will examine the typology & level of motivation (instrumental and integrative) affecting in English language learning process of 40 undergraduate students of the first stage at the college of arts, University of Anbar. A modified survey of motivations was conducted. It contains 20 items adapted from Gardner's Attitude/ Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). The data were analyzed by means of frequency, percentage mean and standard deviation. The main findings show that the students are "Highly" motivated and found to be slightly more "Instrumentally" motivated than "Integrative" to learn English as a foreign language. Also, the findings indicate that there are some relevant and useful leaning implications such as culture, social status, etc. recommended for enhancement and improving students' motivations. Linguistic improvement programs and activities had been discussed in accordance with the students' linguistic challenges within the study in an open-ended questionnaire to increase motivations in English language learning.

Keywords: Motivation, Instrumental, Integrative, Participants and Learning.

Introduction

No one can deny that there are some purposes behind every single human activity. Any performance cannot be done without a target for doing this. So, it could be described as the will to do something and motivation for doing this. The current study will focus on motivation which has the main role in human behaviors. There are many different definitions identifying motivation in language acquisition. One of those definitions, define it as the degree that one's strive in order to acquire a language because of the aspiration to do so in order to fulfill his\her satisfaction resulting from it (Gardner, 1985).

Harmer (1991, p.3) explains this truth about the meaning of motivation as the "(Internal Drive) that pushes somebody to do something". If we think that our goal is worth doing and attractive for us, then we will do it. He called this as "the action driven by motivation". Aree Punmanee (1991) defines motivation as "the process aroused by the stimulus to achieve desired purposes, behaviors or conditions, motivation is the continuous process based on a person's desire".

So, motivation classified as a significant factor which has the main role in language learning process approved by many scholars since 1959 such as Gardner, Lambert, etc. Ancient studies proposed that the learner should by prepared psychologically before starting any linguistic learning process. One of those studies was performed by Khanna & Agnihotri (1994). Therefore, it worth studying motivations for its role in creating successful or failure English or any language learners. Motivation will have a role in both the way of language learning and its level. This reality was identified by Zoltan Dornyei (2002) who stated that "the learner's enthusiasm, commitment and persistence are the key determinants of success or failure".

The general situations in Iraq and especially in Al-Anbar province after 2004 events, the cultural attitude, the idea of foreign language learner, etc. were the controlling reasons behind initiating this study. The study of the first year undergraduate students' responses are expected to provide important information in determining the level and type of their motivation. The significance of this study presented in the responses of the participants which lead to a better understanding of their motivations. The findings could help the faculty of arts \ department of English to improve their motivations alongside with enhancing their learning achievement at earliest stage for their admission.

As foreign language teachers in a higher education institution, we have to find out the effective element that motivates students toward better learning results. This was clearly stated by Ellis (1997). He states that we need to discover more factors that are participating in motivating students to perform tasks in a well form (Ellis,1997). Therefore it is important to find out the underlying possible factors which affect students' motivation in English learning, especially in the practical sense for teachers who want to stimulate students' motivation.

Although, the level of success in this learning process depends on many other factors alongside with the motivations like, attitude, individual skills, experience and many other factors which remain as a linguistic fact for the scholars (Baker 2001, Gardner 2001, Gass & Selinker 2001). But, the psychological studies affirm that the study of those factors cannot be done on merely mental (Linguistic ground). Moiinvaziri (2008, p.126) mentioned this reality and said "The original impetus in L2 motivation research comes from the social psychology since learning the language of another community simply cannot be separated from the learners' social dispositions towards the speech community in question".

Gardner and Lambert (1972, p.3) mention that "his\her (the learner) motivation to learn is thought to be determined by their attitudes towards the other group in particular and by their orientation towards the learning task itself". Also, Lifrieri (2005, p.14), emphasizes that "attitudes are important but insufficient conditions for linguistic attainment". Moreover, Stephen Krashen (1988) hypothesizes that the "Affective Filter" contains various psychological elements, such as anxiety, motivation, and self-confidence, which can strongly improve or inhibit second language acquisition. Thus, the typology of input environment can be an effective factor on the gains of second language learning process.

Ellis (1997) emphasizes that the individuals who are well motivated for participating in both linguistic and non-linguistic processing, the outcomes of this learning experience will have a higher degree of second language proficiency and more desirable attitudes. From all stated above and more, a better awareness of the importance of students' motivations may present the assistance for English language curriculum developers and instruction designers to create a linguistic formula which activates motivations for successful English language learners from former stages (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Finally, the importance of the study came across the current process in Iraq for developing curriculums, especially in University of Anbar. Also, there are no previous studies in Iraq or University of Anbar conducted on motivation as a rolling factor in the learning process.

Motivation Typology
Motivation has been identified above as the activation factor that pushes you to do something. Harmer (1991, p. 3) uses the word "Goal" to classify motivations for a second language learning into two main domains;

A- **Short-Term Goal:** It refers to students' or learners' intents of success in doing something, for example, pass examination or test in order to get good marks or high scores.
B- **Long-Term Goal**: It refers to students or learners aim in developing their linguistic abilities in a second language in order to get a better career in the future or to be able to connect with foreign people who use that language.

This was slightly used in the field of language acquisition for its limited implication of linguistic studies and wide range and variation of conational meaning. Krashen (1988, p.22) classify motivation into two main categories. These two categorizations will attempt to relate the second language abilities to their functions. The first is "integrative motivation" which defined as the desire to be a recognized as a part or significant members of the society that speak the second language. It is built on the interest for leaning a second language, associate or socializes with the people who use it or because of the intention to participate or integrate in the second language using the same language of that community, but sometimes it includes emotion or affective issues in a "great covenant" (Saville-Troike, 2006, p. 86). It could be stated that it represents the inner factor or will that push the learners for learning.

The latter is "instrumental motivation" that refers to the concepts of practical values only in learning a second language in order to increase learners' professions or business opportunities or giving them more prestige and power or accessing scientific or just passing a course of their study (Savile-Troike, 2006, p. 86). This could be stated as learning language as an instrument to achieve a certain demand.

Arnold (2000, p. 14) describes it as "the external need to persuade the learner to take part in leaning activity, such as homework, grade, or doing something to please teachers". However, Harmer (1991, p. 4) combined both integrative and instrumental motivations under the one classification "extrinsic motivation" because it depends on external consequences like rewards and punishment. This motivation may have a negative effect

on the students because they do not learn with their strong intent or will but, they do it because they have an interest in the rewards or fear of the punishment by their society or families.

Furthermore, Arnold (2000, p. 14) states "it refers to learning itself as the learner's reward". It means the learners are "willingly and voluntarily" (not compulsorily) try to learn what they think it is worth or important for them. In addition, intrinsic motivation drives the student to learn without expecting any prizes, because the need is innate or come from inside or depends on their own will. Lightbown and Spada (1999, p. 56-57) mentioned that the teachers do not have a great role in controlling students' intrinsic motivation. The prove can be a class of students (learners) from different backgrounds and the only way to motivate them is by creating a classroom with a helpful environment for learning.

The Importance of Motivation

The researches approved the fact that motivation has an important role in the process of learning a second language. Spolsky (1990, p.157) stated that "motivated students are likely to learn more and learn more quickly than students who are less motivated". In a particular leaning situation, students who are less motivated are likely to lose their attention, disobey and cause discipline problems. On the contrary, students who are highly motivated will participate actively and pay more attention to a certain learning tasks or activities. Also, all the psychological related linguistic studies emphasize that we are moving forward to achieve a certain goal or intent in every single step in everyday life. Now, we knew the importance of motivation but, how we could be motivated?

Harmer (1991, p.4) suggests there are four fundamental factors for learners' motivation; First, the "physical condition" which means the atmosphere in the class. For example, if the student has to study in a classroom which is bad lightened, overcrowded number of students, has to look at small board, or in unpleasant smell, s\he will lose motivation or it will be lowered. Second, "teaching Methodology" it refers to the way that students are taught which must affect their motivation. Whenever the learners feel bored of the teacher's method, their motivation would likely be lost or gradually decreased. Harmer (1991, p.5) said "If the students lose confidence in the method, they will become demotivated".

Third, the "teachers" as the most influential variable of motivation and demotivation can become a major part in demotivating the learners. Lastly, "success" refers to the level of challenge designed by teacher. Whether the difficulty of assignment or the activity is too high or too low, it can lead students to a demotivated situation during learning process. Harmer pointed out that given high challenge activities may cause a negative effect on motivation. Students can equally be demotivated by too low level of challenge.

Krashen's "Affective Filter" cited in (Lightbown and Spada, 1999, p. 39) hypothesis emotional states such as tiredness, depression, boredom, etc. which obstruct the leaning process. Also, Anxiety could be an effective factor that influences the affective filter. Krashen cited in (Jollier and J. Richards, 2003, p. 183) declared "Low anxiety is more helpful for second language acquisition". This means that learners' anxiety can affect their motivation.

Objectives of the study

This study had been carried out in order to determine the type and level of motivation which the first year undergraduate students have after hard times which they encounter in their first academic year in displacement. Also, It had been done identify the proper methods which have to be adopted in order to facilitate motivated English language learning process. In addition, the findings of the study can be a useful tool for curriculum developers in Iraq in creating well-targeted curriculums for undergraduate students especially, first year. The outcomes will present better educated and creative scholars in all the fields of knowledge.

Research questions

The study aims to find answers for the following questions;

1- Are the undergraduate students motivated in learning English as a second language or not?
2- What is the type of motivation which motivates students toward learning English as a second language?
3- What is the level of motivation among the first year undergraduate students?

Research Methodology
Research instrument
There are different searching methods in order to collect data for this type of study. The most appropriate and accurate methodology which the study adopt is a questionnaire ranged from "Strongly Agree" to "Strongly Disagree" adopted from Gardner's AMTM (1985). Some of the questions used in the questionnaire were adopted from Prapphal's Attitudes Testing Prapphal (1981). Also, some other questions adopted from Tamimi & Shuib (2009) and Chalak & Kassaian (2010) to fit undergraduate learners. There are 20 items in the questionnaire classified into 10 integrative and 10 instrumental motivations.

The participants were directed by the researcher and the questions were written in English language because all participants are undergraduates of English department. The rolling time to circle the answers of the questionnaire was (45) minutes for session. All the participants informed and they have full aware of their ethical rights in the study. The sample for the questions in the questionnaire attached in (Appendix A). All the answers of the participants were analyzed and undergo statistical procedures to indicate the rates in tables.

Finally, it worthy to say here that the accumulation of the participants' answers were classified according to Likert scale, all the items were classified mainly from strongly agree into strongly disagree in sequence. In order to insure the validity of these items and the classification, it had been piloted and reviewed by a professional scholar (Professor), before carrying the study. The format of the questionnaire was classified into three main parts;

1- General information on the participant.
2- Participant's motivation relater to different variables for English language learning.
3- Open-ended questions related to the problems they encounter in their motivating for learning English.

Participants
The targeted participants of this study were 40 first year undergraduate students in English department, college of arts, University of Anbar, Iraq who were studying in the second semester, the academic year 2016. All participants were native Arabic speakers. The gender of the participants varied (mixed male and female). The participants' rages of age were (18-23) years old. Also, they came from different social ranks.

Data analysis
The answers collected from the questionnaires were analyzed using the (SPSS) program. The data concerning participants' general background as well as their comments were calculated and presented in percentage. A six-point Likert scale was used to measure the level and type of subjects' learning motivation. Such scale was used in the questionnaire to specify the level of the agreement or disagreement based on the following criteria:

Mean Range	Interpretation
3.68 - 6.00	High degree of Motivation
2.34 - 3.67	Moderate degree of Motivation
1.00 - 2.33	Low degree of Motivation

Findings
The findings of this study are classified into three main parts;
First: General information of the subjects.
Second: Participants' motivation.
Third: Results from open-ended questions.

First, the general information part indicates general demographic data of the participants. The results of this section are shown on the basis of the questionnaires as follows:

Table (1) Gender of Participants

Gender	Frequency	Percent (%)
Male	23	57.5
Female	17	42.5
Total	**40**	**100**

Table No. (1) shows that there were a total number of 40 participants in this study. The majority of respondents were male (57.5 %) and the minority of the respondents were female (42.5 %).

Table (2) Age of Participants

Age (years)	Frequency	Percent (%)
18	19	47.5
19	14	35
20	7	17.5
Total	**40**	**100**

Table No. (2) shows the age of participants. This varied from 18-20 years old. This is the usual age range of the students at the first year level for undergraduate studies.

Secondly, students' motivations for learning a foreign language. This part of the study offers overall details on its outcomes. The following two tables (No. 3 & No. 4) outlines all the 20 questionnaire items, their resulting itemized mean scores, using descriptive statistics of mean scores and "Standard Deviation" (S.D.) and their corresponding motivation levels, which serves as the basis for further implications and interpretation.

Table (3) Instrumental Motivation

Instrumental Motivation	Mean	S.D	Motivational Level
I mainly focus on using English for class assignment and the exams.	4.33	0.60	High
I simply quote the textbooks and do not really communicate myself when speaking or writing in class.	4.20	0.48	High
I am interested in reading only English textbooks for my university study, but not other English texts e.g newspapers, magazines.	4.27	0.44	High
I am more interested in earning a university degree and a good job than learning English language itself.	4.27	0.57	High
I am more interested in furthering my higher education than learning English language. itself.	4.23	0.76	High
Learning English is important for travelling abroad.	4.35	0.58	High
Learning English is important for making me a knowledgeable and skillful person.	4.47	0.62	High
Learning English is important for making me an educated person.	4.37	0.60	High
Being proficient in English can lead to more success and achievements in life.	4.60	0.49	High
Being proficient in English makes other people respect me.	4.43	0.50	High
Total	**4.35**	**0.56**	**High**

The above table no. 3 reveals that the participants possessed a high level of instrumental motivation. This is shown clearly by the average mean score (4.35). The lowest mean score (4.20) in statement number 2 "I simply quote the textbooks and not really communicate myself when speaking or writing in class".

Statement number 9 "Being proficient in English can lead to more success and achievements in life" has the highest mean (4.60). Statement number 7 "Learning English is important for making me a knowledgeable and skillful person" has an average mean score (4.47). Finally, statement number 10 "Being proficient in English makes other people respect me" has an average mean score (4.43). However, the overall mean score of instrumental motivation demonstrates a high level of motivation.

Table (4) Integrative Motivation

Integrative Motivation	Mean	S.D	Motivational Level
Studying English enables me to understand English books, movies, pop music etc.	4.43	0.68	High
Studying English enables me to better understand and appreciate the ways of life of native English speakers.	3.47	0.78	Moderate
Studying English enables me to keep in touch with foreign acquaintances.	3.80	0.85	High
Studying English enables me to discuss interesting topics in English with the people from other national backgrounds.	4.20	0.76	High
Studying English enables me to transfer my knowledge to other people e.g giving directions to tourists.	3.97	0.96	High
Studying English enables me to participate freely in academic, social, and professional activities among other cultural groups.	4.27	0.91	High
Studying English enables me to behave like native English speakers: e.g accent, using English expressions.	3.73	0.94	High
Studying English enables me to appreciate English arts and literature.	3.47	1.04	Moderate
Studying English helps me to be an open-minded, and sociable person like English speaking people.	3.63	1.10	Moderate
I am determined to study English as best as I can to achieve maximum proficiency.	4.40	0.72	High
Total	**3.94**	**0.63**	**High**

Above table no. 4 shows the overall high degree of integrative motivation of the respondents with a high average mean score (3.94). The statement number 11 "Studying English enables me to understand English books, movies, pop music etc.", when the statement number 20 "I am determined to study English as best I can to achieve maximum proficiency" and statement number 16 "Studying English enables me to participate freely in academic, social, and professional activities among other cultural group" show the highest level of instrumental motivation with the mean scores (4.43), (4.40) and (4.27) respectively. However, the statement number 12 "Studying English enables me to better understand and appreciate the ways of life of native English speakers" and the statement number 18 "Studying English enables me to appreciate English arts and literature" both have the lowest mean score which is (3.47) and is considered as a moderate level of motivation.

Table (5) Comparison between Integrative and Instrumental Motivations

Motivation	Mean	S.D.	Meaning
Instrumental Motivation	4.35	0.56	High
Integrative Motivation	3.94	0.63	High
Total	**4.16**	**0.59**	**High**

Table no. 5 shows the comparison between instrumental and integrative motivation. It reveals that the mean score of instrumental motivation (4.35) is higher than the mean score of integrative motivation (3.94). However, the overall mean scores of both types of motivation (4.16) is considered as a high degree of motivation. This relates to some important factors that learner's in University of Anbar encounter during their learning experience. The main factor was the atmosphere and situation of displacement because of the terroristic events in the governorate.

In addition, another factor was the situations which teachers encounter and challenges to perform their duties and be in contact with their students. The above rates considered as phenomenon one for the university as higher education institution, instructors and student to have such rates in those tough learning situation.

The last part of this section is discussing the results of open-ended question. This section shades the light on a major language difficulties encountered by the participants which can affect their motivation in learning English. After performing the questionnaire, the participants have a space to express the challenges they encountered during learning process and the motivations they expect or required.

Table (6) Encountered Linguistic Challenges

Area of Language Difficulties	Frequency	Percent (%)
Writing Problem	15	37.5
Speaking Problem	13	32.5
Reading Problem	6	15
Listening Problem	6	15
Total	**40**	**100**

The above table no. 6 shows four linguistic challenges encountered by first year undergraduate students offered by the additional open-ended questions. Writing problems has the highest rate (37.5%) which represents the main problem for the students of native Arabic tongue, because they do not deal with English language only in English lessons and some of them may do not even prepare their assignments. Therefore, this skill required to be trained and practice.

Moreover, speaking problems (32.5%) classified as the second most difficult skill faced. This may be because students do not deal (speak) English with their friends or even use it in everyday life, because language is not inherited criteria but acquired one. Also, the students may still lack for confidence in this area, which is a necessary part for the oral presentation skills and need for a further training. Reading & comprehension (15%) is classified as the third challenge. This may point the fact that textbooks, reading materials, quizzes, midterm and final exam papers are all in English language at the Department of English. This skill should be further enhanced through training or practice.

Listening comprehension problems (15%) is rated the least challenge for learners. This shows that through class studies and lectures in English, students seem to be familiar with listening in English. However, as pointed out by the students, this skill is not without its problems. Thus, it still needs enhanced training and practice. This problem was a result of the varied pronunciation of the teachers according to their educational background, origins, specialization, skills, and experiences. These areas of linguistic challenges encountering difficulties can serve as guidelines for University of Anbar students to organize more practical linguistic programs addressing these particular needs to improve their motivations in learning English language.

Discussion and Recommendation

The general outcomes of the study show that the undergraduate students are highly motivated to learn English. These motivations varied in ranges between integrative and instrumental once. The results of the search answer its questions of what the level of the participants' motivation. Based on the comparison and assessment initiated, it is revealed that the participants are more strongly instrumentally motivated to learn English language. This can answer the search question of the typology of motivation whether being integrative or instrumental. The related linguistic challenges in four language skills, as interconnected in the open-ended questions rate further attention. All these findings have relevant the implications and should lead to recommendations for further training or studies.

The participants' preference for instrumental motivation could be of great value for the institute they studied in it. This may have a positive impact on the improvement of the university educational level through focusing on English language development programs. At the same time, the university should also take into account the abilities and plans for the students' integrative motivations to learn English and improve their proficiency. It might be beneficial for the university to implement the on-going supplementary language courses or activities including both faculties' members and students to encourage interaction and improve the exposure and the use of language.

According to the results of the study, the results are exceptional for these particular students in those unordinary educational environments: *i.e.* their high motivation in both instrumental and integrative features and even a slight dominance in instrumental motivation. Moreover, the study of the same variables in other different universities with a different context may yield significantly different results. Future research should also include more and several of institutions or universities, both local and international. The educational context and students' attitude may have extra effects on the outcomes of further studies.

The study collected data from 40 participants within a limited time. It is recommended to use a larger sample size with a longer time frame to increase the degree of generalization of the study. Also, it will make the findings of the study more valid and reliable. Lastly, the study does not inspect the role of motivation in learning English for the students at 2, 3 and 4 years. This may result more varied in motivations across time and acquired skill and experiences.

In conclusion, the study provides useful awareness and familiarity for the university to improve their English courses and curriculums. Motivation can be a great source of knowledge and understanding in English language leaning. This implements relevant programs or activities to stimulate the more motivating leaning atmosphere. Students with adequate motivation will become proficient language learners with ultimate language proficiency.

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ARABIC AND TURKISH POSSESSIVE CONSTRUCTIONS: A PHASE-BASED ANALYSIS OF IDAFAH AND IZAFET

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ABSTRACT

In Turkish, the possessive structures are traditionally referred to as Izafet Constructions. Two types of possessive structures are distinguished in the literature on Turkish grammar. The first is the Indefinite Izafet which is composed of two nouns. The non head noun is suffixed by a possessive marker as (i) below illustrates. This type is treated as a possessive compound.

    i.   kadın   hak-lar-ı
           woman   right-PL-3ps.POSS
           'Women's rights'

The second type is the Definite Izafe , represented by (ii) below, is a real syntactic possessive construction. It is composed of two nouns. The non head noun (i.e. the possessor) is always genitive while the head noun has a possessive suffix that generally shows agreement with the first noun.

    ii.   kadın-ın   hak-lar-ı
           woman-GEN right-PL-3ps.POSS
           'The woman's rights'

In Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), similar constructions are realized. However, in Arabic the liner order is different (there are also some morphological differences); the non-head noun follows the head:

    iii.   Huquuq-u   al-maraat-i
           rights-NOM   the-woman-GEN
           'The woman's right.'

In order to account for how Turkish and Arabic possessive constructions are derived, the paper adopts the latest minimalist assumptions and builds on Abney's DP hypothesis and Ritter's analysis of possessive constructions in Semitic languages. The study proposes that agreement, movement and genitive case assignment in Arabic and Turkish possessive constructions are realizations of a DP internal feature-based Agree operation.

Keywords: Arabic Turkish Izafet Phase Case

MANUSCRIPTS MASHKHUR ZHUSIP KOPEEV

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Abstract

Using the methods of comparative analysis, the author discovers the value of Mashkhur Zhusip's In a historiography the rich oral historical tradition of Kazakhs was ignored and not perceived as a source for studying of history of the Kazakh people. In a historiography the rich oral historical tradition of Kazakhs was ignored and not perceived as a source for studying of history of the Kazakh people. Among them such well-known and recognized authors and originators of written sources and archival materials, as Mahomed Shaybani-han, Abu-l-Ghazi Bakhadur-han, Kadyrgali Zhalayiri, Mahomed Haidar Dulati, Mashkhur Zhusip Kopeev, Shakarim Kudayberdiyev, Kurbangali Halidi, etc.

Therefore, there are all bases to believe that actually the oral historical tradition on stories of the Kazakh khanate in the XV-XVIII centuries was recorded and in writing. Article is devoted to the analysis unexplored in a world cultural heritage of oral historical tradition of Kazakhs. Turkics sources are for the first time considered. On the basis of the analysis of Turkics sources and Mashkhur Zhusip Kopeev's works is for the first time considered in a complex oral and written heritage of the Kazakh people. Mashkhur Zhusip's model and Turkics sources is developed.

Keywords: Manuscripts Mashkhur Zhusip Kopeev, historical tradition of Kazakhs, history of the Kazakh people, turkics sources, nomads of Central Asia.

Introduction

The history of nomads of Central Asia is an integral part of a world history. Kazakhs are the most ancient people of Central Asia, took active part in events of world history, made serious impact on a course of world history, made a powerful contribution to development of material and spiritual culture of mankind. Achievements in social development of the Kazakhs, developed in the course of development of steppes, semi-deserts and mountain landscapes of Central Asia, served as an important factor of development of intercontinental commercial relations and mediations in a material and cultural exchange.

The taken place revaluation at a boundary of the XX-XXI centuries of a historical contribution of nomadic societies and the states of Central Asia of a treasury of a world civilization and need of more exact definition of their creating role in the history of mankind staticize problems of studying of formation processes of the state and to the analysis unexplored in a world cultural heritage of oral historical tradition of Kazakhs. Studying Turkics sources, and also the analysis of Turkics sources and works Mashkhur Zhusip Kopeev demand where the oral and written heritage of the Kazakh people is in a complex stated.

Since ancient times Kazakhs possessed national traditions of social management and the standard regulation, defining steady features of their political history. Specificity of genesis of the state and culture of Kazakhs was that the political power both the organization inherent in it and structure of management were formed and functioned in the conditions of a nomadic way of maintaining cattle breeding economy. A number of outstanding scientists as Koyshe, K.K., Karabulatova, I.S., Gultyaev, V.N., Niyazov, G.M. [1, p.151], Regina F. Bendix, Galit Hasan-Rokem [2, p.447], Sagandykova, N.J. [3, p.208], Zhusupova, L.K. [4, p.77], Molitoris H.P. [5, p.165], Zhusup, K.P. [6, p.165], Regina F. Bendix, Galit Hasan-Rokem [7, p.13; 9, p.598], Mashkhur Zhusup [8, p.15], Hart William, B. [10] worked on a reconstruction of the past stated in oral and written heritage of the Kazakh people, having made many discoveries.

Highly appreciating made, it is necessary to recognize that the subject isn't settled. Many questions of history of medieval Kazakhs, in particular, emergence of the state, a form of the political organization of nomads, heritage of oral historical tradition of Kazakhs still didn't get unambiguous permission, remaining in science substantially debatable. It is necessary to integrate historical knowledge with achievements of archeology, philology, jurisprudence and other sciences to create an integral picture of evolution of political and cultural institutes of medieval Kazakhiya. In this regard, a research objective is complex justification of oral and written historical heritage of the Kazakh people on the basis of the analysis of Turkics sources and Mashkhur Zhusip Kopeev's works.

Material and methods

The methodological basis of research of a considered problem is realized by means of general scientific methods of the analysis, synthesis, induction and deduction; special and historical, historiographic methods: system, comparative, comparative-historical, comparative and comparative each of which allows to solve research problems.

Results and discussion

Mashkhur Zhusip (1858-1931) is feature of written heritage the detailed image based on historic facts of life of *the Kazakh khans* (*Kasym the khan, Esim the khan, to Tauka the khan*, etc.). This variation written on a sample of chroniclers of the East, probably also is part of big work of M. Zh. Kopeev "*Roots of Kazakhs*", devoted to the general history of Kazakhs. The family tree of Kazakhs described on only 2 sheets, historical dates which now in historical science it isn't applied if to consider that the given facts aren't specified where when also by whom are collected, we consider that M. Zh. Kopeev's these data, are connecting history of khans of Abylay and Kenesary centuries. This manuscript is characteristic the rich maintenance of the actual material. We will pay attention to the following names entered in the manuscript: Kasym khan and Zhirenshe sheshen, Esim khan and Tursun khan, Zhangir khan, to Tauke khan, Kazybek bi, Toktamys khan, Orys khan, Bukey khan, his son Zhangir khan. Given and the changed names of Tole bi (Tola bi), Folod the khan (Bolat the khan) Abu Al Mohammed the khan, or Abolmamet the khan (rules in Average Abilmambet's zhuz the khan) Samike the khan (Sameke governed in the Average zhuzy), Nurgali the khan, Abulkhair the khan (known Abulkhair the khan of the Young Zhuz) Among them data about Sardam Batuuly, or *Batuula's Orda* "*the White Orda*" Batuula doesn't meet in historical, actual materials.

We will pay attention that *White Orda* is a name of the person. The story is the legend given in work of Utemish Hagi of "*Shygys Name*" which narrates about that, to a lump to be the khan: To Eugène or Sayyn, having been born from the daughter Nurala of the khan. Together with seventeen brothers who were born from other wives, addressed to the Great khan (to Shyngys the khan) which constructed them the *Orda*. *White Orda* with gold thresholds Sain to the khan, a blue Orda to Eugène, a *light Orda* with steel threshold and to Shaibanu [4]. On a legend in "*Shygys Name*" of White Orda for Batu differed on color, and in Mashkhur's manuscript – a pseudonym of the son to Batu Sardama. M. Zh. Kopeev's most fruitful work on history of Kazakhstan - "*The Cossack to a tuba*". There are some options of this work. In each option the history of edge is described differently. Though similar texts meet V.V.Radlov and Abylgaz's works, but disputable historical events I am described differently. However there is the general regularity - each manuscript begins with the title the Cossack to a tuba. Especially widely it is used in beginning with a parable about Adam in "Related Turkics peoples" Abylgazy. Though manuscripts about stories of edge they have the general chronology, according to the contents different. "*The Cossack to a tuba*" Mashkhur Zhussup Kopeev covers the main subjects of the description of history of Kazakhs and the name of the manuscript is a starting point in the general subject. Main objective of the author is collecting folklore and therefore in manuscripts folklore samples mostly are used. However they tell about important historical events and play large role. If to analyse, it turns out that 70-80 percent of manuscripts from folklore and literary forms [4; 6].

Historical legends, songs, дастаны are located in strict chronological an order and submit to one general subject - "*The Cossack a tuba*". It follows from this that the author, collecting a certain material in one book, I pursued two aims: historical and literary. Along with it at the manuscript there is philosophical, medical and other subject. If to consider manuscripts, each material represents unit in the general scheme. Later, some samples of units of this manuscript united in one subject, were let out in Kazan under the name "*To whom Saryarka belongs*?" in 1907. When studying manuscripts it was found out that only by 20th years, the material was collected by the author in separate books. At the end of everyone the contents with designation of pages is written.

Considering that each separate manuscript is written by various ink (red, blue, black), it is possible to assume that they were separate units earlier, and are united in books only later. Mashkhur Zhusip Kopeev was the live witness of events of 1870-1920 and therefore the description of this era can be taken for historical data. Even manuscripts about *Kenesary Kassymov* were written on memoirs of the witnesses participating in this revolt or on stories of descendants of these people. Therefore historical events of the end of 19 beginnings the 20th centuries described in manuscripts of Kopeev, it is possible to host as historical data. In order that Mashkhur Zhusip Kopeev "*The Cossack to a tuba*" is better to understand work ("*The past of Kazakhs*"), it is necessary to understand an era and Wednesday in which he lived, also to study the biography of the author [4].

The oral tradition of nomadic Turkics peoples is the basic as a historical source. And also there are two groups of historical sources: internal and external. External sources are written generally by authors of neighboring states of Central Asia, the Middle and Far East. It compositions in different languages: Persian, Arab, Chinese

etc. In this article sources of Muslim historical tradition. However it differs strong tendentiousness, an unilaterality of illumination of the historical past, represents as though others view of history.

Internal sources are generally historical tradition of monks. And they, in turn, share in two parts: 1) part which was in writing recorded at any historical stage in different points of the Turkics world; 2) part which is still in oral circulation. "

Shadzhara-yi turk", Abu-l-Ghazi Bakhadurhana, "Turkics-kirgiz and khan's family tree" of Shakarim Kudayberdiyev and *The Cossack to a tuba*" of Mashkhur Zhussup Kopeev based on oral historical tradition of certain rodo-breeding associations of that period belong to the first part of "*Chingiz-nam*" of Utemish-hadzhzhi, "*Dzhami' the at-tavarikh*" Qadeer '- Ali Dzhala'iri. Historical legends are the part of the second part, genealog, heroic eposes, etc. Monuments of the above-named parts make, according to researchers steppe oral historical tradition. Therefore own historiographic tradition is important that it had decisive impact on formation and evolution of public ideology. It – memory of the subject of historical reality of, of the past, telling in the form of legends and songs people history, heroic acts of the ancestors who were handed down by many generations and committed to paper, mostly, only at the end of XVIII - the beginning of the XX centuries. In oral historical tradition along with other questions the problem of historical continuity of the state traditions of medieval societies of Central Asia is considered [4].

In modern understanding the state tradition is a historical and genetic continuity of the general, main and essential signs and the components of a state system which are transferring from one states to another. And the tradition can be shown not only in activity acts, but also in the form of ideas of them.

From this point of view the analysis of socalled "channels" of movement of state and political tradition is of great importance. In view of that fact that as such "transmitters" writing monuments, folklore, usual rules of law, etc. can act. Special group of written groups sources on history of Turkics peoples-nomads of Central Asia – sources which informed to us oral historical knowledge of nomads. She received in science the name "a steppe oral historiography" or "a steppe oral istoriology".

Based on unique data is data of the subject of history on the past is the steppe oral istoriology has not less, and in some cases even more importance for knowledge of socio-political processes. Here especially it should be noted a crucial role of oral tradition of the steppe before written certificates. Especially, they entirely were confirmed by written fixing or that is even more important, the state principles of again created educations. "*Chingiznama*" contains important data on political institutes of the medieval states of Central Asia. Among them khans as carriers of the higher political authority, oglans and beks are defined. Among political structures a special role played *madzhilis* – meetings of *chingizoids* and a nobility. It should be noted that conclusions about a crucial role of sources of actually Turkics origin among which oral legends prevailed, the heroic epos, histories for studying of history and culture of these people are conventional today. Other important way of transfer of the Kazakh tradition was practice of the organization of the imperious relations on the new ideological perception of the world which originating in an era of early Turkics peoples and has undergone big reorganization during an era of the Mongolian gains. The Central Asian school of a historiography investigated questions of influence of gains of Chingiz-han on an inner world and outlook of an era, and through it – on statehood and the general world order. This phenomenon in historical destiny of the Turkics and Mongolian people of Eurasia is named by "*Chingizizm*"[4].

Chingizizm represented powerful ideological and world outlook system, in some parameters coming nearer to a religious world view and having huge practical value. *Chingizizm* had the most direct impact on a political system, structures of social institutes, political and rules of law. It consecrated the right of a family of Genghis Khan for the Supreme power and a title the khan from this point became an exclusive prerogative Chingizids. Its traditional character which has been freely apprehended by consciousness of the Tyurkics-Mongolian medieval society consisted in it. The analogs which are carried out between *Chingizizm* as by the genealogical legend about Chingiz-khan, included in an overall picture of the world, and Oguzizms (a cycle of legends about Oguz), and also with his subsequent modification (like *Edygeizm*) lead perspective parallels to a conclusion about an originality and at the same time about traditional character of a new ideological design.

The analysis of concrete and event history of Central Asia till the XIV century, "Chingiz-name" gives the grounds to conclude that to transfer could undergo not only system of the power and the imperious relations, but an order of relationship of the Supreme governor (khan) with the citizens that is even more important, dynasty changes, and together with it – origin of the new state. It is confirmed in the version analysis about the death of the khan of Joint stock company *Horde Urus* stated by Utemish Hadzhi. The version about death of Urus-khan during fight with Tokhtamyss and Urus's murder by the son Tokhtamyss Jalal ad-Din, and also the general historical conditions in which developed tradition – absence of the centralized power of the khan, despite its external recognition; separatism of tribes; lack of sufficient compulsory functions from the khan; moving of "dissatisfied" tribes led by baddies as one of protest forms against the governor, – testify to steady traditions

developed in representation of nomads about relationship the power. Such fact finds analogies and in the subsequent succession of events among nomad's tribes of Central Asia a boundary in the history of which there was Dzhanibek's moving and Girey with subject tribes from the khan Abu l- Hayra and creation of the new state by them.

Legislations of khans of Kasym (Kasym's clear right) were directed to Tauke-khan on strengthening of internal foundations of nomadic society, development of statehood, Hakk-Nazar (*And The White Road*), Esima (*The Old Road*), (*Seven Zhargy*) at the heart of whom *Yasa Chingiz-khan* lies.

The statehood of Turkics peoples-nomads was characterized by existence of traditional methods of management, a military management system, historical predecessors of the empire Chingizids.

In political life of the countries subdued by Mongols soon enough and strongly the state idea according to which the khan – only chingizids, i.e. Chingizids to rule the right became stronger. It is in this regard very indicative, what even in the XIX century in Central Asia and Kazakhstan from Chingizkhan and to a title the sultan the same significance, as an origin from the prophet Mohammed and to a rank saiid was attached to an origin.

Rather interestingly to note that the ancient Mongols custom of election of the new khan remains approximately in the same form at Kazakhs, Uzbeks of Central Asia until the end of the XIX century. When the candidate for a throne received a consent of the majority of sultans, and the nobility on reign, most men of weight of the khanate from sultans and bies declared to it that, put it on "thin white felt" and raised felt for the ends three times, proclaiming "*The khan, the khan, the khan*! " This tradition was revived, for example, in modern Turkmenistan.

As bright expression of judgement of belonging to uniform ethnic culture, a peculiar concept of ethnic identity of Turkic nationalities the idea which has arisen among Turkics peoples "United Turkics country", initiated still with appeals to association under a blue banner of Turkics peoples of commanders and governors of Kutluga, Bilge-kagan, Kul-tegin, Tonykuk later continued by thinkers of Balasaguni, Yasavi, Kashgaria, Nava'i and the revived national intellectuals at the beginning of the XX century.

Now there is a work on expansion of a circle of sources of this circle. At the same time, important value at a present stage has development of techniques of their studying.

The oral historical tradition – the natural phenomenon in culture of the nomadic people, this manifestation of historical experience, outlook, an ideal, also corresponds to public traditions and a people esthetics.

As approaching our era the quantity of monuments breeds. The latest historical events of the XVII-XIX centuries received reflection in the numerous historical songs created by the Kazakh akyns – "Abylay khan", "Kenesary khan". These historical songs carry on tradition of an old folk epic, but with big proximity to real historical events and with big preservation of lyrical *value judgement* of these events in the form of praise or censure. The epos reflects the national past in wide understanding "historically" as it was postponed in memory of the people, the public and household relations of the people, its custom, beliefs and public ideals [4].

In late historical the *dastans* (historical poems) relationship of Kazakhs with the next people – wars, the allied relations, rodo-breeding structure of inhabitants, a life and traditions is described. We can assume that such oral historical knowledge existed constantly. Over time it made a basis of such written compositions on stories of Kazakhs, as "*Tavarikh-i guzida-yi nusrat-nama*", "*Chingiz-nama*" Utemisha-hadzhzhi, "*Dzhami' the attavarikh*" Qadeer-Ali-biy-dzhalair.

The steppe oral historiography can be treated not only as a form of social memory of monks of Central Asia, but also as a special form of oral national literature in which legends, the legends connected with history of these or those tribes, are richly submitted by life of their brave leaders. All aforesaid also is considered and in works of foreign scientists Krader L., Reichl K., Bascom W., Honko L.

For example, at Kazakhs the majority of messages indulged orally skillfully the rhymed and allegoric speech. Many messages, thanks to the importance and limit perfection of a literary form, were for a long time remembered in the people. The so-called oral letter served as way of reproduction of the historical past and perpetuation of memory of the outstanding persons known, in particular, on their witty sayings. They were works of a special genre oral.

Such creation of a material – not on political, ethnic or other sign, and only by the principle of ideological continuity – not end in itself and not a pursuit of originality, and a way to install its channels from the last centuries and up to modern times.
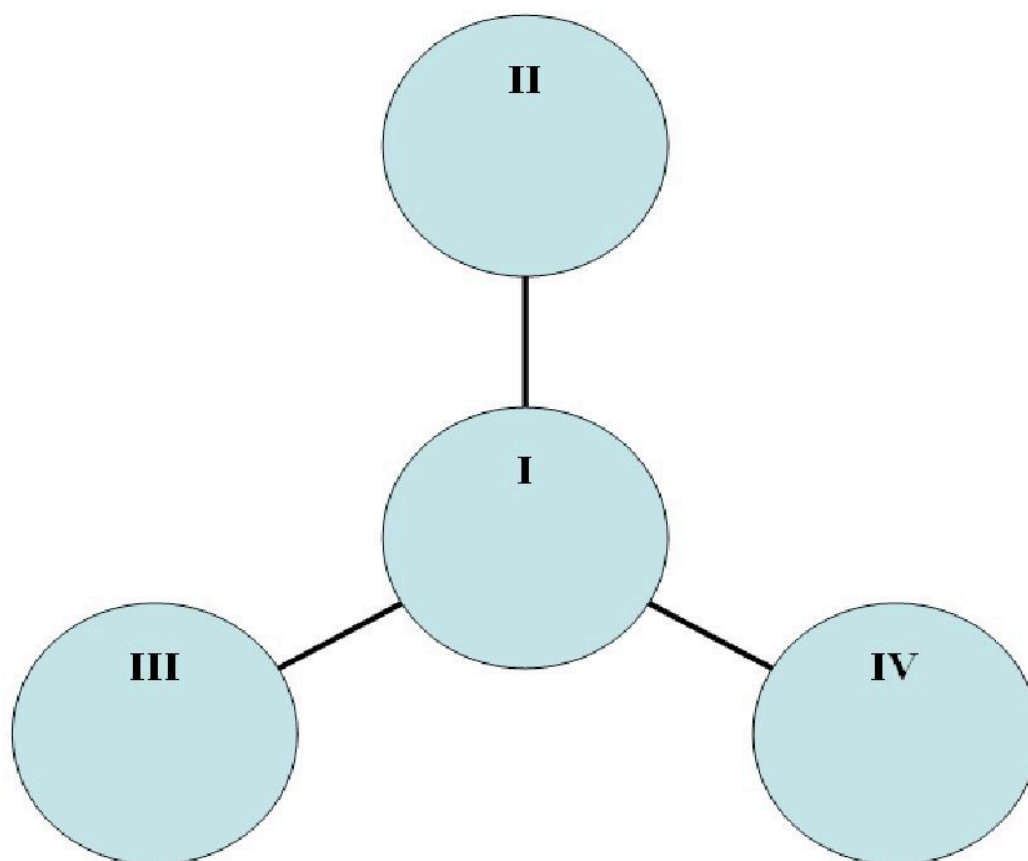
Figure 1. Model Mashkhur Zhusip and Turkics sources

The explanation to figure 1. Model Mashkhur Zhusip and Turkics sources: I-Works Mashkhur Zhusip and Turkics sources. II-Methodology of studying of works Mashkhur Zhusip and Turkics sources. III-Historiographic tradition of Kazakhs. IV-Integration of results of studying Mashkhur Zhusip's works and Turkics sources in historical knowledge.

Conclusions

On the basis of oral historical tradition scientific research of history of the Kazakh khanate in the XV-XVIII centuries is conducted. Scientific novelty is formulated within such conclusions and the conclusions, as: for the first time sources in oral historical tradition of Kazakhs were completely translated and in a complex studied; historicism and truthfulness of a steppe historiography on stories of the Kazakh khanate are established; in the source study plan materials by oral historical tradition of Kazakhs are in a complex studied; lists of the Kazakh khans, sultans, the Kazakh tribes and their genealogy which in work are systematized in a chronological order are made; influence of east historiography on a steppe oral historiography is proved; the adequate translation of compositions from M. Zh. Kopeev's private collection is carried out and thus these sources are for the first time introduced into scientific circulation The aforesaid allows us to draw the following conclusions: - Turkics nomads of Central Asia since ancient times had own historiographic tradition, we can conditionally call it a steppe oral historiography [11].

The concept dominating among nomads about the history received from time to time the reflection in these or those monuments of writing created at different stages stories at the next historical schools. For example, letters of Abylay-khan to the *Tsinsky yard*, the official report the tsinski's deputies confirm data of oral historical sources on authority of this statesman for that period. - In this regard, comparative studying of oral historical traditions with monuments of external schools of a historiography can become fruitful. However it must be kept in mind influence of traditions of these schools. - As one of the main functions of a steppe historiography there was a sacralization of the power of this or that dynasty. *Oguzizm*, the *chingizizm* and an *edygeizm* represent certain attempts in this direction. - Studying of an oral historiography shows power of the Kazakh steppe tradition before Islamic influence, it is shown in the *chingizids* scheme of the Supreme power in a counterbalance of Middle Eastern Muslim tradition. The Model Mashkhur Zhusip and Turkics sources is proved.

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THE IMPACT OF INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION ON THE ALGERIAN STUDENTS' LINGUISTIC REPERATOIRE ONLINE

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Abstract:

This article explores the linguistic practice of a group of Algerian students living in UK by adopting Facebook as the main context because although various linguistic behaviours tend to only occur in spoken language, social media use tends to have moved into informal language use similar to that of the spoken rather than the written form. The rationale lies in understanding the evolvement and the globalisation of language through immigration and also access to global communication media. Drawing upon a triangulation approach to research that is underpinned to capture the data required, a sample size of fifteen participants were recruited to send their Facebook activities over a course of three-month period. At the outset of the research each participant completed a detailed questionnaire to provide a profile of individual identity including gender which is then further explored in their subsequent practice of the highlighted linguistic behaviours if and where it occurs. Finally a sample of the most and the least users were interviewed to explore perspectives towards these phenomena, and to establish whether there is a link to identity and these digital codes.

The outcomes reveals the language use system of participants that tends to be diversificated rather than homogenised, putting into a question the link between identity and linguistic behaviour practices and also the influences of Facebook on Arabic language use.

Key words: Arabic/Facebook/Linguistic behaviours/Identity

Introduction

 Language is not merely a tool of communication but a human behaviour which can be investigated from different points of view: social, psychological, cultural. As sociolinguistics is concerned with language in its social and cultural context, it tends to investigate how people with different social identities (sex, age, race, ethnicity, style, class) communicate and how their language changes according to the situations they are in. For example, as it is stated in Hudson (1999), language use may differ according to the speaker's gender. The interplay between languages has been always a source of curiosity for linguists. In our everyday lives no one can hide the linguistic generation gap between adults and youngsters, for example. Various vocabulary items used by teenagers and young adults seem to be odd or they need 'translation' for older age groups. So, communication between different generations is often difficult: as older generations tend to be conservative in different domains such as style, dressing, behaviour, they do the same in their language as well while many younger ones do their best to be innovative in all the mentioned domains. In almost communities, different styles are adopted. One is used in informal interactions in people's daily life. The other style is used in formal situations in classes, lectures, official speeches, for example. The factors influencing language choice among bilingual speakers has aroused linguists' attention for many years.

Literature Review:

Arabic as a spoken language has many regional dialects (Shafiro et al., 2012), however as a written language it tends to have a standardised format known as Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). This is important for research because it implies that regardless of the regional area of the Arabic speakers taking part in the research, they should all have a similar understanding and use of written Arabic, regardless of their own spoken country dialect. This will help to reduce a potential bias within the research or avoid linguistic dominance if a regional

dialect is overrepresented amongst the participant sample. One of the facts about code switching is that it is very often found amongst bilingual speakers (Dolitsky et al, 2000) who are using both types of language to be switched. This is similar to translanguaging which is another concept which describes the switching and mixing between multiple languages (Velasco & García 2014).

1. **Arab Immigrants to the UK**

Arab immigration to Britain can be traced back as far as the mid-19th century, when Yemeni sailors lived in and around the dockland areas and later worked in the British Merchant Navy during World Wars 1 & 2. In London the biggest sectors of the Arab community are from Somalia, Iraq, Egypt and Morocco (Museum of London 2005).

2. **Arabic**

Arabic as a spoken language has many regional dialects (Shafiro et al., 2012), however as a written language it tends to have a standardised format known as Modern Standard Arabic (MSA).Research on 5 regional Arab dialects was undertaken using Twitter conversations (Cotterell & Callison-Burch 2013) to ascertain the level of influence that outside languages had on informal Arabic use across these regions. Although changes were small it was noted that there are still many historical influences on the Arabic language.

3. **Spoken Arabic in the UK**

The Arab population in England and Wales was 366,769 according to an analysis of the last (2011) UK census, with Arabic now being spoken by 0.3% of the population (NABA 2013). In the UK there is also a strong mix of regional dialects from across the entire Persian Gulf region with a strong potential for regional dialects becoming mixed or switched in conversation.

4. **Language Migration**

Bi-lingual speakers often use a form of language migration known as code-switching (Alvarez-Caccamo 1998). This is where speakers either change dialect or introduce words or phrases from their other language (Gardner-Chloros et al., 2000). Code switching tends to occur more prevalently across spoken languages rather than in written forms (Nordquist 2014). Although in this research Facebook is being used where local written Arabic is used and may display some of the characteristics of spoken dialect rather than Modern Standard Arabic.

5. **Gender and Arabic**

The research is also interested to ascertain whether there is any difference in the use of code-switching by female participants, compared to male participants, since linguistic researchers have already identified that within Arabic use, male and female differences occur in the use of dialect (Jarbou & al-Share 2012). It may also be a possibility that women use different words

Since code-switching is often linked to cultural expression (Harmainai 2014), and women and men would have different cultural attitudes and interests.

6. **Culture and Language**

Despite its linguistic background code-switching is also a psychological and anthropological interest area, since researchers believe that code-switching is determined as much by cultural as by linguistic choices (Myers-Scotton 2014). In addition to culture, the influence of English upon Arabic is not restricted to only the UK style English. There are also regional differences between how UK English and US English are used within the Arabic spoken language (Atwell et al., 2008).

Research Methodology:

1. **Research Questions**

   a. Is there a common linguistic behaviours on Facebook amongst Algerian Students in the UK?
   b. What practical examples, and patterns, of linguistic behaviours can be identified within online posts on Facebook?
   c. How does Facebook contribute to language shift in everyday Arabic?
   d. What aspects of identity influence common linguistic behaviours use within Facebook context?

2. Research Strategy

The research is exploratory in nature rather than seeking to test a specific known hypothesis (Robson, 2002) .Therefore, this research project has utilized an interpretivist approach emphasizing qualitative data due to the fact that the online behaviour of participants will be being observed in situ and the data needs to be analysed within this context as well. The researcher in the current study adopted a mixed-method approach in order to answer the aforementioned research questions. The project has also used some qualitative research tools in the forms of questionnaire and semi-structured interview to generate the qualitative evidence. However, the emphasis is on the qualitative data which will be employed to address the core research questions.
Having selected an interpretivist approach the research design needs to focus on the type of data and collection tools that will be most suitable to answer the research questions. Therefore, a mixed method approach is chosen to be underpinning this study. In this research project the overarching research question is fairly broad - how is codeswitching used in Facebook by the chosen participant sample? The research needs to know how any linguistic behaviour occurred within this specific context, the reasons for this use, the influences on behaviour, the impact of gender and social identity factors, and so more than one data collection method was seen as important in order to understand the full picture and the influences affecting use. One method is therefore needed to establish the context for use and another method used to analyse how and when and why the explored linguistic behaviours actually occur.

3. Research Instruments

- Self-profile questionnaire to be submitted at the onset of data collection period.

- Facebook activities within a course of three-month period.

- Semi-structured interview to be conducted after reviewing Facebook activities.

4. Sample

In this research the questions are examining the communication interactions of a smaller and select group within society, and so it employs a non-random sampling technique known as purposive sampling, which is deemed as most appropriate for the type, resources and data needs of the project. A sample size of 15 students will be chosen, which is compared to similar studies such as the work by Lawson & Sachdev (2000) who used 28 participants and the work of Gardner-Chloros & Finnis (2003) who used 30 students in one study and 10 in another and Redouane (2005) who used 4 participants.

In this study the experts are Algerian speakers who also speak English, this is a requirement of the study and therefore the entire research population is relatively small once geography and logistical constraints are applied to the research. Within this small sample population a representative group of respondents is selected. The group of participants also have to be located in UK, and Skype will be used to facilitate access and to manage the logistics of meeting and conducting individual interviews.

5. Data Analysis

For this research project the qualitative data analysis needed to be able to ascertain which elements of the findings related to the specific research group in this particular context, and which aspects can be applied or generalized across entire populations.

"In the course of their analysis, qualitative researchers distinguish between information that is relevant to all (or many) study participants, in contrast to aspects of the experience that are unique to particular participants" (Polit and Beck, 2010, p.1453)

For most qualitative research and in order to understand the data thoroughly and to become totally immersed, the analysis of qualitative data tends to occur as soon as any data becomes available (Robson, 2002). This is in contrast to many quantitative data studies where the data is often analyzed at the end after all the different types of data have been collected.

The focus of this research project is on patterns within speech and the use of language and also the link to cultural identity, especially gender differences. For these reasons the research needs to identify data collection techniques that are appropriate to the analysis of discourse, and which can also provide a background contextual analysis. The main research technique used in these types of research rejects is known as discourse

analysis. To manage the overloaded data, Nvivo has been used to assist in transcribe, code, and analyse the qualitative data.

Findings and Discussion:

After gaining the consent of participants, data collection was carried out over a three-month period from May to July 2016. Two phases are considered: the first phase is devoted to the collection and analysis of the quantitative data from the questionnaire at the beginning of the research (May 2016) and the second one is focused on the qualitative data that are gathered from the social media inputs and the semi-structured interviews. For the quantitative data, a fifteen-item questionnaire was submitted using the Survey Monkey online format to record the data required. This questionnaire was delivered in an English version to ensure consistency for all the participants. The questionnaire mostly comprised closed questions to provide straightforward data, but very few open-ended questions were given to provide the opportunity for the participants to allow further comments. As interviews were to follow, there was no need to gather qualitative data by the less reliable questionnaire tool. Findings from the latter set would be taken into consideration to conduct the semi-structured interviews at the end of the study.

1. **The students' Questionnaire**

A simple descriptive statistical analysis of the answers given by the students revealed that the majority of sample was occupied by female participants. This point would be taken into consideration when semi-structured interviews would be conducted with the 5 participants. Accordingly, the majority of participants needed to be recruited for the semi-structured interviews would be allocated for female participants to preserve the balance between both questionnaire and the semi-structured interview.

-   The majority of respondents (10) have been lived in the UK for one year. The longest period was detected is a one year and four months by one participants but the rest were distributed between seven, eight, ten and eleven-month period**.** This is a good point not only examine whether the length of time living in UK has impact on the language use and how this can be manifested through the use of Facebook

-   Findings divided participants into only two groups: Berber with eight participants whereas seven participants are Arabs. Having two ethnic backgrounds assumes to give a varied complementary data.

-    Findings indicated that Arabic is the mother tongue of 10 respondents meanwhile the rest of respondents admitted that Arabic is not their mother tongue.

-   Results showed that all participants mother tongue is divided between Berber and Arabic with the majority in favor of the latter. Their answers are very understandable as they came from the same diglossic background.
-   The most spoken language by participants are English then Arabic respectively. However, only one participant is still keeping Berber to be their spoken language in UK. Likewise, three of our participants claimed that they speak other languages.

-   When these participant were asked to clarify what languages they use to speak in UK. Their response were as the following: One said a mixture of Berber, French and English, and the rest answered that they mix Arabic, French and English.

-   English has taken the lion's share with 13 participants who overtly use English to write. Similarly with the spoken language, the rest of participants claimed that they use other languages when they write. Moreover, one stated that their written language is mixed of Berber, French and English while the other two participants admitted that a mixture of Arabic, French and English is their written language they use.

-   The majority of participants believe that they post in Facebook less regularly then four of them post every few says. And the rest are equally post in Facebook daily or weekly.

2. **Students' Facebook Feedback**

Doubtlessly, studies on language use and linguistic behaviours are kinds of research that are aimed to gain an overwhelmingly naturalistic data for preserving the reliability of the research. Subsequently, the allowance of

three-month period is reasonable to ensure generating the naturalistic data which is the first part of the qualitative data in this study

This article presents examples of the common linguistic behaviours that have been highlighted in previewing the participants' Facebook profile.

a. Code-mixing/ Intra-sentential Code-switching

I think as international students we should respect all the British opinions mashi lazeem nadirou awr7wana experts. It is their country and they know it khir mina bzf …(1)
(I think as international students we should respect all the British opinions we should not make ourselves experts. This is their country they know it much better than us)

This example presents a small paragraph in which two languages are implemented. The participant used Arabic and English to express his opinion as an international student towards Brexit. The user status showed one category of linguistic behaviours known as a code-mixing within the whole paragraph where English/Arabic are switching whilst he used an intra-sentential switching in the first sentence and an inter-sentential switching in the second part of the paragraph. Notably, the switches tend to occur within sentences and paragraphs so that the evidences presented thus far supports the idea of Redouane (2005) in his theory *" the equivalence of size*" when he pointed out that code-switching tends to occur more within a larger grammatical structures such as sentences and paragraphs than smaller structures such as nouns or verbs. In the preceding status. The participant appealed and directed the speech to a group of audience that seem to understand the languages he used. This group is the international students living in the UK whom should be axiomatically master both Arabic and English.

b. Inter-sentential Code-switching
Welcome to Scotland … (2)
(Welcome to Scotland wherever we go it remains an Algerian mentality)

Another status posted by this participant sharing a video that showed the participant singing a popular Algerian song at the airport with his friends which might be a bit weird to the UK citizens, hence, the participant attempted to manifest how he and his folk preserving their identity despite living abroad. Unlike the example (1), the participant began in English then after he shifted to Arabic using an Arabic script once again. Due to the aforementioned an English/Arabic pattern of switches was highlighted to demonstrate switches occurred outside the boundaries of the sentence to identify an inter-sentential code-switching.

c. Tag-switching

*Soubhanllah, exactement comme chez nous…(*3)

*(*Glory be to God, exactly like our home)

The previous example is a status where the participant shared a video about one of the developed countries and he tried, in a burlesque way, to tell his friends that it is alike with his country. In fact, the participant used French to express his idea or his feeling about the video. At the beginning of his phrase, he inserted an Arabic expression (*Soubhanllah:*) which is generally used to praise the perfection of God creatures but it is used in this context to express admiration and wondering. Therefore, an Arabic/French pattern of switches is highlighted to generate a tag-switching type through the insertion of an expression to identify the religious identity of the participant.

d. Intra-word Switching

X imagini ydirolna haka fi nhar PhD graduation'na woow ahlam wardiya matssrash f zayer. … (4)

(X imagine they do like this in our day of PhD graduation wow pink dreams it does not happen in Algeria)

The example (4) reported here illustrates the various. Types of switching that might occur within one clause. Furthermore, the segment above is a post where the participant tagged her friend who seems to be a PhD

student as well in order to watch a video that shows the graduation ceremony in one of the developed countries. In this spectrum, the participant was scoffing at how things operate in her country. In shedding light on the pattern followed in this status, it can be noticed that the participant used English with Arabic using a Latin script as it is plainly presented, thus, an English/Arabic pattern was introduced to present an intra-sentential code-switching. In the main clause, the intra-word switching was introduced where the Arabic imperative marker *i* is affixed to the verb in English imagine to direct the speech to feminine pronoun. The same behaviour-type occurred where the Arabic possessive clitic pronoun *na* has shown as a suffix for the English noun "graduation" but a violation in the constraints occurred between the possessive pronoun and the noun where the former preceded in the latter in English meanwhile the opposite occurs in Arabic.

e. **Borrowing/Intra-word**

Getting brainwashed by Halal Chicken and the Halalness of the chicken …(5)

The example (5) shows a clause that compromises an overall English utterances. However, it shows an existence of non-origins English term (*Halal* :   ) which is originally an Arabic term that usually used to denote to doing something following the Muslim law. In this example, it refers to prepare the chicken by following the prescription of the Muslim law. Within this sentence the participant violated the constraint of a free morpheme (Halal) by adding a suffix (ness) to generate a noun which does not exist in English or in Arabic. Therefore, using switches at the morpheme boundary led to the occurrence of the intra-word switching. Also, importing linguistic items from Arabic into another language (English) within the clause generated borrowing in which a loanword from Arabic has been imported to English.

3. **Students' Semi-structured Interviews**

After recruiting five participants for a Skype interview which lasts between 30 to 45 minutes, I self-administered all the interviews purely using English language to ease the coding of the data. A reasonable and precise data were given to justify some phenomena that occurred within the participants discourse on Facebook posts. In the following table an outlined few of the themes that have traced the participants' language use on Facebook.

Themes	Explanation
Setting	It has been discussed that the setting determines the way interlocutor may produce a language. In formal setting, it would be harder to practice certain linguistic behaviors rather than, in informal one, where interlocutors may feel free to do this.
Place of Residence	Participants claimed that they practiced more certain linguistic behaviors after their transition to UK rather than their former region of residence.
Awareness of use	Their diglossic background justified their unconscious use of several linguistic behaviors.
Prestigious purposes	Prestige has relation in the detection of the aforementioned linguistic behaviors.
Audience	Participants asserted that their language use related to the addressee person.
Topic	Participants clarified that Facebook is a space where they can discuss a variety of topics that may lead them to borrow and mix certain terms from different languages.

Conclusion:

To conclude, this article attempted to highlight the various linguistic behaviours manifest on Facebook among a small community in UK where the social and cultural factors of the speaker determine his/her linguistic repertoire online. Overall, the results of the study indicate that the target population have practised certain linguistic behaviours where Arabic and English have dominated the discourse due to several reasons such as: ethnicity, current pace of residence, topic and so on. Speakers' utterances have been categorized into certain linguistic behaviours that are measured in a real life social media context. However, the participants' linguistic behaviours seemed to be diversificated rather than homogenised as each individual could practice one

linguistic phenomenon using a variety of languages per post. However, findings demonstrated that participant share almost same factors that encourage the practise of the previous digital codes. Therefore, this paper is a small attempt to demonstrate the impact for immigrants and studying abroad on individuals' native language is thus twofold; influences from international media and also influences from language use locally.

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