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Pedagogical Contemplations and Thoughts on English Language Learning, Teaching, and Acquisition in the Libyan Environment

Edited by:
Dr. Youssif Zaghwani Omar

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Preface

It is a matter of fact that learning English has become a must for people and countries to get involved in the 21st century, which is characterized as the era of globalization and Internet. Contacting with people from different speaking-languages requires using English as English in this era has become the lingua franca. Thus, people all over the world have been making various endeavors not only to learning English, to also to using it in various communicative situations. Language learning, however, differs from language acquisition in various ways. Yet, they are associating in some principles and facts. It is significant that teachers of English be aware of principles of language acquisition and apply it in language learning, which indicates that language learning, language teaching, and language acquisition are interrelated rings of the same chain. Therefore, the editor of this book is presented this collective book to investigate about these interrelated concepts in the Libyan environment. This collective book includes 10 research papers conducted by Libyan educators and researchers regarding the situation of English language teaching, learning, and acquisition in the Libyan setting. The papers were selected carefully from two international conference held in Libya, which the editor of this book organized and chaired. These papers were selected carefully to cope and suit the theme and objective of this book and to function as resources to researchers and educators who work in the same field of study. The book aims at providing sound, basic knowledge of topics that cover the part of English language learning, teaching, and acquisition in Libyan environment.

Introduction

As studies and research in teaching and learning English as a foreign language in Libya, pedagogical issues and concerns regarding learning and teaching English in Libya have always raised. Studies show that Libyan students know about English, but they do not know how to use it in communicative situations. English is used as a class subject in school, and students study it just only to pass the exam. Hence, the motivation of learning English in school is extrinsic, not intrinsic. Hence, this edited book has come to highlight some pedagogical issues regarding the situation of learning and teaching English in Libya in addition the use of language acquisition principle in learning English. This book, in fact, is dedicated to 10 carefully selected papers in the field of study of this book. These selected papers satisfy the theme and the objective of this book, which has come to be used as a credited resource in the field of English language learning and teaching in Libya. It is a matter of fact that younger learners acquire and learn foreign languages faster and more effectively than older children do. So, the book focuses on this point to encourage the process of teaching English in Libya in early stages of school. Of course, the book provides some theories and strategies regarding the processes of foreign languages' learning, teaching, and acquisitions. Yet, the papers represent their authors' points of view and published based on the authors' permission and responsibilities. The editor of this book organized and chaired two international conferences in Libya, in which all the papers were presented.

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Dedication

To my family with love and gratitude,

To my teachers and supporters,

To the soul of my late father, mother, my nieces, my friends,

To the authors of the papers in this book,

I humbly dedicate this work.

Framework for Teaching English Oral Skills to the Libyan Higher Education (HE) Students in the Classroom Context

Almbrok Mussa Khawdn

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Abstract

Recent research argues that the environment when teaching any foreign language plays an initial role in designing successful learning environment in which learners can learn effectively is more relevant now than ever before. It is notable that currently in Libya such issues are not taken into consideration. It is anticipated that the current study will instigate comparable studies in the Libyan higher education (HE) context. In this context, the present study aims to evaluate critically the current model for TESOL English oral skills. The second aim is to propose the intended oral skills syllabus for teaching and learning English for developing language skills required for the Libyan (HE) students in speaking English, and the third is to highlight the most effective teaching and learning strategies in English oral communication within the Libyan context. The fourth aim is to present some efficient assessment methods for assessing the learner' spoken language efficiency, and the fifth aim is to suggest the delivery methods with the use of ICT tools and other media technology for TESOL in Libya to facilitate students' oral competency.

Keywords*: Higher education; communicative competence; oral skills*

1. Introduction

The changing world has imposed the need for new ways of acquiring knowledge and has affected the nature of what, why, and how to teach it. O'Brien, Millis, and Cohen (2008) argue that the traditional one-to three-page syllabus is no longer effective in equipping the learners with skills needed to be involved actively in the learning process. Therefore, there is a need for a new type of model that could meet the recent teaching/learning strategies and tools to help students get the most out of this process.

O'Brien, Millis, and Cohen (2008) point out that "learning is an active, constructive, contextual process. New knowledge is acquired in relation to previous knowledge; information becomes meaningful when it is presented and acquired in some type of framework" (p. 4). I argue here for andra-pedagogical framework for teaching/learning oral skills to the Libyan HE students in the classroom context that could improve and replace the current syllabus for this purpose. This andra-pedagogical framework reports on the design, delivery, and evaluation of an integrated approach for teaching/learning of English oral skills. So, it aims to apply the best knowledge of the 21st century to developing curriculum for teaching/learning oral skills. In this sense, it is developed to meet the language learners' practical needs and the latest English teaching/learning programs and methods.

The model also considers the role played by ICT tools and other media technology for TESOL in promoting and enhancing students' oral language acquisition. This framework describes the structure and the syllabus of the model, discusses some of the major teaching/learning methods, and presents a number of teaching

strategies. It considers the use of resources for the teaching/learning process and outlines the oral skills assessment and delivery strategies.

2. Literature Review

This part of the study presents the literature review relevant to the topic of the study.

2.1 English Oral Skills Syllabus for HE Level in Libya

The syllabus of this curriculum offers an integrated English oral skills model with the application of ICT and other media technology for TESOL for Libyan HE students; where the four language skills are integrated together in order to improve their proficiency in English. Edwards (Cited in Khawdn, 2018) claims that "the realization that all language skills –speaking and listening, reading and writing- are interrelated, each making a contribution to progress in the others" (p. 125).

Collins et al (Cited in Khawdn, 2018) define curriculum as "what is to be learned" (p. 125). The model prepares students for communicating with the use of ICT tools in the English classroom or similar academic situations or for professional activities in teaching and other fields. Nicholls (Cited in Khawdn 2018) argues that "a balanced curriculum will cover cross-curriculum issues of, for instance, equal opportunities and key life skills, including communication, study, problem solving and information technology" (p. 125).

According to Altaieb and Omar (2015) "people involved in the process of curriculum change should realize that there are realities

and factors related to schools, teachers, and students that can impact the process of change negatively or positively" (p. 852). The curriculum consists of four levels, from basic through advanced. Each level is composed of at least two combined skill areas in each lesson with the application of ICT and other media technology for TESOL. All students take basic model lessons at the appropriate level. These lessons provide a minimum of three class hours per week with the greater emphasis on speaking and listening.

2.1.1 The Current Oral Skills Syllabus

A. Level One (3 hours per week)

The aim in this level is to enable students to practice basic communication skills. The lessons should include all language skills in the bases of integrating listening, speaking, reading, and writing with emphasise on speaking and listening, and ICT use introduced as appropriate. Students at this level develop basic listening and speaking skills through listening to authentic English recorded in audio tapes, CDs, or videos in addition to the use of newspapers, computers and the internet along with course textbooks. From the listening texts along with the written ones, students learn basic vocabulary necessary to communicate fluently in English. At this level, students should be taught to work collaboratively to devise and present scripted and unscripted pieces, which maintain the attention of an audience.

B. Level Two (3 hours per week)

This course would be a continuity of level one. Students in the second level would continue to listen to English as much as possible. They also develop speaking skills at a simple level, using vocabulary related to their daily life. They improve strategies on how to express themselves confidently in addition to small-group work and whole-class work, through giving oral presentations in the classroom context. Course activities focus on real communication, pronunciation and intonation.

Students also improve their reading and writing abilities through the reading of short articles written for English native speakers. This can help them build important reading skills such as predicting, skimming and scanning, guessing vocabulary, grammar, and meaning from context. Students should be taught drama techniques and strategies for anticipating, visualising and problem-solving in different learning contexts.

C- Level Three (3 hours per week)

This course is a continuation of level two. The purpose would be to make students more active and focus on improving speaking and listening, particularly fluency, pronunciation, and intonation. At this stage, students must be involved in small- and large-group settings to develop their discussion skills. Activities include developing students' key skills such as ICT, communication, working with others, problem solving, and giving oral presentations. At this level, listening time should give way to speaking which must be done mainly by students. Students also should be taught to develop the

dramatic strategies that enable them to create and sustain a variety of roles to explore ideas, issues and relationships.

D. Level Four (3 hours per week)

In this course, students are predominantly engaged in speaking on a variety of topics ranging from academic topics, cultural, religious, technical, and Simi-technical. Instruction emphasizes student participation in these topics in a wide range of speaking activities in order to develop students' cooperative skills such as problem solving, decision making and negotiation. Students also should be exposed to informal speeches to develop self-confidence and the ability to speak fluently without preparation. Watching brief video and academic lectures can help to develop students' listening skills and accustoms them to a natural academic speech and provide them with an ample practice in note-taking.

Selections of films and music are recommended to teach and reinforce current idioms and natural current speech. Each student should give at least one short talk, including using Power Point, for discussion and evaluation. Moreover, students should covey actions, characters, atmospheres and tensions when scripting and performing plays by Shakespeare or other dramatists.

Moreover, the integration of reading and speaking is functionally appropriate (Peregoy and Owen 2005). The incorporation of these two skills can serve greatly to support students improve their communicational performance. For instance, reading for information can be helpful to develop learners' ability to recognise and obtain information from a wide range of sources such as books, texts, pictures, photographs, CD-ROMs, and Internet sites.

Information obtained via these sources can in turn help students talk freely about what they have read.

2.1.2 The Intended Oral Skills Syllabus

A. Creative Activities

The intended oral skills syllabus incorporates creativity across all the four skills. Through these lessons a set of activities with the help of ICT and other media technology for TESOL should be carried out to simulate students' practical oral language needs. The major aim is to provide students with practical workshops on variety of situations applying different kinds of English language study skills such as note-taking from written and spoken texts, dictionary use, and giving an overview.

The second aim is to consolidate the students' knowledge of the language by providing ample opportunities for practice through extensive and varied language activities such as guessing, drama and creative writing to promote the development of all language skills. Guessing is considered as a structured form of creativity because there is a tendency to be a 'right answer'.

Concerning to drama and creative writing there is no 'correct version' although the teacher aims to encourage correct language use (Morgan and Neil, 2001). Moreover, performing a play from a written script such as Shakespeare's plays and engaging in long discussions are very powerful in developing students' oral performance.

B. Developing Students' Key Skills

Reece and Walker (2007) define key skills as "the possession and development of sufficient knowledge, appropriate attitudes and experience for successful performance in life roles" (p. 224). According to Scales (2008) and Reece and Walker (2007), the essential key skills are:

1. Communication

Communication skill covers speaking, reading, writing, and listening. These skills can be addressed through participating in discussions, reading materials, presenting information in different ways, and writing notes or reports. They are helpful for learners to improve not only their learning and performance during their study, but also during their work and life. For this reason, these key skills are vital to be integrated in any proposed or designed curriculum.

According to the National Curriculum Handbook for Secondary Teachers (2004) "Skills in speaking and listening include the ability to speak effectively for different audience; to listen, understand and respond appropriately to others, and participate effectively in group discussion" (p. 21). In relation to reading and writing skills, they are concerned with the learners' ability to read fluently a wide range of topics and subjects to understand what they read and the ability to write in wide range of settings such as critical writing. Scales (2008) argues that "these skills are best acquired and developed when they are integrated, or, to use the most recent terminology, embedded" (p. 255).

2. Information and Communication Technology (ICT)

This involves using a computer to search and present information in a variety of forms. “The key skills of information technology includes the ability to use a range of information sources and ICT tools to find, analyse, interpret, evaluate and present information for a range of purposes” (The National Curriculum Handbook for Secondary Teachers, 2004, p. 21).

3. Improving Own Learning and Performance

This skill covers the situations where learners can set aims and strategies to develop their own performance and acquire knowledge. In this context, the learners “need to be able to identify the purpose of learning, to reflect on the process of learning, to assess progress in learning, to identify obstacles or problems in learning and to plan ways to improve learning” (the National Curriculum Handbook for Secondary Teachers, 2004, p. 22).

4. Working with Others

This skill relates to carrying out team activities such as group discussion and doing group tasks. According to Petty (2006) “group work requiring students to discuss the material, so that constructs are made and pair checking and teaching takes place. This requires high-order tasks and questions” (p. 14).

5. Problem Solving

This skill is about recognising and solving problems in the way of discussing how a problem can best be solved using different methods. According to The National Curriculum Handbook for Secondary Teachers (2004) “problem solving includes the skills of

identifying and understanding a problem, planning ways to solve a problem, monitoring progress in tackling a problem and reviewing solutions to problems" (p. 22).

In this sense, the aim of any curriculum should be creating educated persons who are not mainly capable to access to a particular body of knowledge but also have an ability to manipulate, based on Moon and Mayes (Cited in Khawdn, 2018) "procedures for solving problems and a set of language practices for describing and discussing ideas, problems and relationships between them" (p. 129). This process leads to an effective way of learning in which learners create insights and conceptions. Although it is frustrating, it can be motivated particularly if it is used in a group work.

Reece and Walker (2007) argue that all teachers are responsible for teaching key skills within their subject matter, because this process makes it easier for students to learn, understand, and develop these skills better. The aspect of developing the students' key skills can be attained through conducting appropriate language activities such as giving oral presentations, conducting interviews and questionnaires using ICT tools to record them, working interactively with other colleagues, conducting debates, offering advices, and making decisions about discussed ideas. Peregoy and Owen (2005) argue that cooperative group work in the classroom enhances students' language development in terms of conversational skills, motivation, self-confidence, willingness, and develop their thinking skills.

2.1.3 Developing Students' Thinking Skills

Fisher (Cited in Scales, 2008) suggests that thinking process "include remembering; questioning; forming concepts; planning; reasoning; imagining; solving problems; making decisions and judgements; translating thoughts into words, acting and role playing and so on" (p. 259). All these thinking skills can be learned and developed through application and practice either separately or integrated with other subjects. For instance, one of the most important ways result in developing thinking skills is through talk and engagement with others or in a social context, Smith (2010) points out that "thinking of both children and adults is shaped by communication with others" (p. 23).

Incorporating thinking skills with oral skills, for example, can and should be taught for the sake of enhancing self-learning, which is vital for the lifelong learning, and easing the teaching and learning process and making it purposeful through asking questions techniques. "Oral questioning is a very powerful way … to interact with the student in the session through thinking and provides … the level of learning" (Reece and Walker, 2007, p. 281).

Questioning is one of the main methods of improving thinking skills. Through questioning, students can apply, analyse, and evaluate their learning (Scales, 2008). In other words, developing students' thinking skills enables them to conceptualize what they learn and how to learn.

2.2 Research and Report Back

I believe that this strategy of learning is one of the most powerful strategies for learning not only the language, but almost all

other subjects in the curriculum. The importance of this strategy is clear in that it concentrates on the learner as the core of the learning process and being responsible in it. In a sense, this is the central aim of the proposed new strategy model. Minton (2005) argues that this strategy "encourages students to take responsibility for their own learning" (p. 145).

The value of research and report back strategy in teaching oral skills lies in that, it facilitates not only the learners' knowledge acquisition but also their oral proficiency as the need to report orally the data they have collected to each other. Minton (2005) points out that "If individuals report back to a group to share what they have discovered it is valuable for enlarging the information base of the group" (p. 145). In order to share their information and present it, they need not only the medium-spoken language, but also instruments by which they can facilitate their presentation such as ICT tools.

2.2.1 Lectures

Lecturing is a process in which the lecturer or instructor attempts to deliver a talk to a big number of students in the stage or a teaching room. As such, this strategy is more suitable with large group teaching and with a particular type of subjects which mainly for teaching theoretical subjects. On the other hand, practical subjects such as oral skills, lectures appeared to be the least effective strategy for this purpose. This is because students need to be the speakers and active learners in the teaching/learning process.

However, oral skills teachers need to some extent to perform lectures for their effectiveness in that they "not just in ensuring that

students acquire information, but in stimulating them to want to find out, to become active, enthusiastic learners rather than passive listeners taking little part in the learning process" (Minton, 2005, p. 156).

2.2.2 The Use of Resources

Resources are the students' support aids to facilitate both the teaching and learning process. Reece and Walker (2007) stress that nowadays the computer might be the most influential resource due to its power to display both sight and sound. Wallace (2007) points out that in addition to the possible resources that can be used in language teaching and learning such as "data projectors, internet access, OHPs, DVDs, visiting speakers, places to be visited … we mustn't forget the learners themselves" (p. 125). In other words, learners as the most valuable resource are capable to support the learning and teaching process through the verity of experiences and backgrounds they individually hold.

Harmer (2001) concluded that "there are three key words here: interest, variety and appropriate. They are all equally important when talking about the design of learning materials" (p. 125). In this context, access to learning resources through the computer connected to the internet provides learners with endless opportunities to acquire knowledge and sake for information either at school or at home. Moreover, learners can contact with others in different areas in the world to share ideas, attitudes, and experiences.

2.2.3 Using Resources Effectively in the Classroom

Reece and Walker (2007) point out that well designed resources should:

1. Enhance perception: By involving more than one sense there is a great likelihood that the learner will perceive what is intended. For example, the touch and smell of a piece of wood can be more effective than reading about it.
2. Promote understanding: With greater perception there is likely to be greater understanding.
3. Help reinforcement: When you use learning aids to supplement your spoken words, there is more likelihood of repetition and reinforcement. The reinforcement can be both during the teaching (for example with a chalkboard) and after it has taken place (for instance reading from handout).
4. Aid retention: An important aspect of memory is retention (remember learning your telephone number). So, repetition leads to retention.
5. Motivate and arouse interest: As with the aids of changing the learning methods to create interest, so using a wide range of resources can create a similar effect. Repetitive use of PowerPoint in every lesson will quickly lose the interest of your students.
6. Provide variety in learning: The use of visual aids not only provides repetition, but repetition using a different medium. Hence the provision is more varied.
7. Make effective use of time: As students are more motivated and show greater interest, then more effective use will be made of the time they spend learning.

Reece and Walker (2007) stress that all these resources should be as simple as possible to make them less time and cost consuming on one hand, and on the other hand, to raise the students' interest and

motivation. Moreover, a set of principles should be considered to guarantee more effectiveness such as the right size number of students in the oral skills session, the classroom suitability, and the arrangement of the students in the classroom in the form that they can have an eye contact with each other.

2.3 Teaching Methods

To teach and learn any topic a higher consideration must be given to what method(s) is/are going to be applied in order to fulfil the stated aims. In this regard, while teaching/learning oral skills a particular method(s) should be considered for assuring the most effective outcomes. As such, the proposed model not only emphasizes the acquisition of knowledge or learning of facts, but also emphasizes the gaining of skills, attitudes, and concepts as well as knowledge.

Therefore, teachers should try out for themselves a variety of methods, skills, and techniques that are appropriate to individual class or students' linguistic needs and requirements. They also need to adapt a variety of teaching styles. For instance, during their teaching, they should act as listeners, at other times partners, assessors, facilitators, or tutors; they need to pose questions, motivate, and guide learners. Moreover, they should be aware when and where to intervene and not to do that. The following methods might be the most powerful methods in developing students' oral communication and are recommended for this goal:

2.3.1 The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

The communicative approach considers the language teaching in terms of its structures and vocabulary as well as its communicative

functions. According to Harmer (2001), the idea of communicative approach lies on that not only an ample exposure to language in use is required, but also great opportunities in practicing it. As such the aim is to develop the learners' language knowledge and skills through communicative activities. Harmer (2001) points out that "activities in CLT typically involve students in real or realistic communication, where the accuracy of the language they use is less important than successful achievement of the communicative tasks they are performing" (p. 85).

In application of this method, more responsibility is taken by the learner, and the teacher's role is to provide learners with a beneficial learning environment within the classroom. This method also gives reading and writing skills an equal status as has given to speaking and listening. Krishnaswamy and Krishnaswamy (2006) stress that "the teacher is only a co-communicator and students are encouraged to interact with one another in pairs, triads, small groups and in whole groups" (p. 48).

2.3.2 Sensory Theory

This method concerns with the use of human senses: sight, hearing, touch, smell and taste. It enables learner to learn and remember what they have learned. Laird (Cited in Gravells, 2007) argues that "learning occurs when the senses are stimulated" (p. 23). In relation to developing oral skills, the stimulation of multi-senses applying this method can have a greater effect on students to acquire knowledge and skills needed. For example, using sight and hearing through ICT tools in oral skills sessions can facilitate students' oral communication.

2.3.3 Humanistic Theory

It is one of the most recent emerged approaches of a holistic view of language learning and teaching. “This theory suggests that learning will take place if the person delivering it acts as a facilitator” (Gravells, 2007, p. 25). This method particularly supports the teaching and learning oral skills effectively as the teacher should act as a facilitator to give a greater chance to students to communicate and participate interactively.

In other words, the learner is promoted to take greater responsibility within the learning process. This aspect particularly creates active learners not passive ones. In this sense, this approach is also useful in that it “places the emphasis on the students to learn for themselves, they can then ensure they are learning in a way that suits them” (Gravells, 2007, p. 34). In other words, learners should be given a chance to choose what activities and tasks to be undertaken and implemented in the teaching model for developing their oral skills.

Moreover, learners are given choices as what they want to learn and how they will learn it. Petty (2006) stresses that “student choice ensures ego involvement in the learning tasks, and students will be highly motivated by following their own interests and curiosity” (p. 17). In this sense, students have a chance to negotiate and agree about the topics they are interested and concerned in and how they will carry on activities.

2.3.4 Behaviourist Theory

This theory revolves around the rewards and motivation as crucial factors influencing the teaching and learning process. In this

sense, Petty (2006) argues that "effective teachers out huge emphasis on rewarding their students with praise, attention and other encouragement" (p. 15). This process can be achieved via setting attainable tasks and activities that stimulate students to communicate confidently in the classroom context in which students can receive rewarding which in turn strengthens their behaviour in a particular issue.

In addition, the reinforcement should be followed whenever the learner has accomplished a task successfully. In this regard, when the student's work marked and assessed immediately, he is likely to be motivated and enthusiastic to learn. On the contrary, the learner tends to be less motivated if the teacher does not supply him with the reinforcement as soon as he accomplished the task he performed (Petty, 2006). Hence, it is worthwhile, for the teacher to be effective to encourage his/her students during performing their tasks and activities.

Besides the reinforcement form the teacher, it is also vital to motivate students by a desire to succeed, to acquire knowledge, to explore facts, or to improve and develop their key skills, but not only by a fear of failure. In order to achieve this strategy, Petty (2006) stresses that "there should be a 'no blame' policy for mistakes, which should be seen as inevitable and as an opportunity to learn" (p. 18).

However, Jordon, Carlile, and Stack (2008) argue that behaviourist theory is more applicable with children than it does with adult learners. This is because adult learners tend to require less reward and encouragement from the teacher as they are responsible

for their learning and are aware of its necessity for their life in their future. They (2008) argue that "adults need less behavioural control than children, for example - we can see that behaviourism has influenced ideas about learner behaviour, curriculum planning, and teacher's role in classroom". (p. 27).

To sum up, from the above discussion on the teaching/learning theories, it can be stated that none of these theories can stand on its own as an efficient procedure for undertaking as a successful learning as it should be. In this vein, (Omar, 2020) emphasizes that "any teaching method is successful when it is associated with other factors, amongst of which are teachers themselves and learners" (p. 1).

Therefore, a mixture of all these theories is required and/or inventing new ones to be put in practice in the field of teaching/learning process. In other words, the teacher should decide on the most appropriate method(s) in relation to the subject he is teaching, the environment in which teaching takes place, the resources available to him, and aims and objectives of the teaching he is seeking to accomplish. In addition, the teacher should consider the age and the culture background of the learners he is conducting the teaching with.

2.4 Assessing Oral Skills

According to Gravells (2007) "assessment is a way of finding out if learning has taken place." (p. 75). In this regard, it is the way the teacher can guarantee that the aims and objectives of his lessons are attained and students have gained their required skills and knowledge. In order to carry out an efficient assessment, a teacher

has to consider different ways and procedures to assess his students' progress according to what he is aiming to assess. An innovative assessment is an effective way to encouraging less superficial learning strategies.

Reasons for assessing learners should be determined in advance before carrying out such process. Brown et al (Cited in Khawdn, 2018) state some of the most reasons for assessing students as follows: to classify or grade students; to enable student progression; to grade improvement; to motivate students; to add variety to students' learning experience; and to add direction to our teaching.

2.4.1 Initial/Diagnostic Assessment

This type of assessment usually takes place at the beginning of a course, particularly oral skills courses, where the teacher undertakes the assessment process to find out his learners' levels, weaknesses, and strengths through applying relevant tests. "These diagnostic tests identify to what level the student is presently working" (Reece and Walker, 2007, p. 360).

2.4.2 Formative/Summative Assessment

Formative assessment refers to on-going assessment; whereas, summative means at the end of the course. Oral skills can be accessed through observation of the skills intended to be observed. "Formative assessment should improve learning by enabling progress to be regularly monitored and reviewed. The student can then see what they need to develop further, before a final or summative assessment takes place" (Gravells, 2007, p. 76).

2.4.3 Assessing Presentations and Other Oral Work

Before undertaking any oral skills assessment, it is vital to establish exactly why we are assessing it and what we are attempting to test. Therefore, it is important to consider the format of oral skills assessment we are going to carry out. One way of assessing students' oral communication is through formal one-way face-to-face oral presentations. "More interactive formats such as viva, seminars, showcases and debates… can consequently be more efficient in establishing both student learning and communication skills than a traditional presentation" (Pickford and Brown cited in Khawdn, 2018, p. 134).

2.4.4 Self-Assessment

Students can assess their written works or oral outcomes through applying a number of ICT tools available for them. Computers, for instance, can be used to help learners assess their work in terms of spelling and grammar check. Concerning to oral production, video and audio equipment enable students to record their presentations and conversations. Self-assessment is functionally appropriate to make the learning process meaningful, manageable, and able to develop students' critical thinking skills.

Petty (2006) argues that "self-assessment or self-evaluation encourages the self-reliance and self-direction that humanistic theories prize" (p. 17). Consequently, the importance of self-assessment is seen as an essential skill that enables the learners to work and learn independently.

2.4.5 Pair Assessment

Brown et al (Cited in Khawdn, 2018) argue that "a measure of success of an education system should be that students should not actually need anyone to assess their knowledge or performance, but that they should be able to do it for themselves" (p. 134).

Presentations are considered as one of the best ways of conducting pair assessment, because the evaluation provided by a student audience will give the presenter feedback in one hand and make the audience lass boring and passive. In this regard, pair assessment provides a medium of sharing positive experience and good practice. Also, presentations can offer an excellent formative learning experience to the learners in the form of developing their presentation skills.

2.5 Teaching and Learning Strategies

In this section, I explore a wide range of teaching/learning strategies that can be drawn upon for the sake of promoting efficient learning within TESOL in general and oral skills in particular. It is worthy to consider that these strategies can vary between lessons in terms of the role played by either the teacher or the learner, and also in terms of the number of students and resources available.

Charmot (Cited in Khawdn, 2018) defines learning strategies as "operations used by learners to aid the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information or as techniques, or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information" (p. 135). Better language learners generally use strategies appropriate to their own stage of learning, personality, age purpose for learning that language, and

type of language. Good language learners use a variety of learning strategies (Khawdn, 2018).

2.5.1 Delivery Methods

A delivery method is a teaching strategy that enhances the learning process and can serve as a facilitator of both the teaching and the learning process. Reece and Walker (2007) define a teaching strategy as "a purposeful combination of student activities supported by the use of appropriate resources to provide a particular learning experience (process) and/or to bring about the desired learning (product)" (p. 26). Such a teaching strategy has a great benefit for student learning particularly when it emphasises his role in the learning process, rather than that of the teacher; but the teacher should make the choice of the teaching strategy that can be best used in a particular situation.

2.5.2 Large Group Strategies

Large group strategies are those appropriate for developing students' leaning in a large group in one classroom. Reece and Walker (2007) state that "the strategies that are appropriate to large groups are lectures, demonstrations, discussion/debate, question and answer and video." (p. 107). In order to compose students in groups a number of steps should be taken into account. For instance, Hedge (2008) outlines the following:

- The lesson planner should make decisions prior to embarking the teaching session about the size of the group and how they will be organized in the classroom.
- Deciding on the members of each group according to their competency levels and relationship with each other.

- Preparing the appropriate and effective way to explain the rationale behind performing a certain type of activities to the learners.
- Allowing students to ask for clarification as this can help not only for them understand the context, but also it develops their questioning skills.

2.5.3 Debate

Harmer (2001) and Reece and Walker (2007) define debate as an activity that parallels to a discussion but seems to have more rules in terms of its procedure. For instance, in debate, students are divided into two groups; one in favour of and the other against the notion being debated about. Whereas, in discussion every individual student raises his own point of view. Reece and Walker (2007) also point out that debates are useful in enhancing learners' formal communication skills while they are carrying out an argument; for example, about the use of nuclear power to generate electricity; bring back corporal punishment; all progress is an illusion.

According to Corder (Cited in Khawdn, 2018) what usually happens in a debate is first of all a debate statement will be appointed as well as a chairperson who will guide the debate. Then two persons are chosen as the main speakers of each side of the argument. The group is divided into two sides one for the motion and the other against it. Each presenter presents his side arguments and the audience are allowed to ask them questions. Finally, the audience vote for the best group raised more convincing evidence about the statement.

2.5.4 Discussion

According to Minton (2005), during discussion as a teaching methodology "there are intervention techniques to be learned to try to ensure that all [students] have the opportunity to contribute, that those who are shy or reluctant to speak are brought in and find a level of confidence to engage in exchanges, that those who have too much to say are made to listen as well as to speak" (p. 185). This aspect should be particularly considered because there is a tendency that discussion might be dominated by those who are well motivated and have willingness to communicate orally in a foreign language. In addition, the discussion can result in unproductively in that it sometimes leads to arguments or fanaticism to own views.

However, discussion through interesting tasks and activities can "help to solve problems, promote coordinated activity and generate enthusiasm and commitment. They can be used to clarify thinking and ideas, tackle misconceptions and bring to the surface deeply held convictions which may be the cause of misunderstanding" (Minton, 2005, p. 185). Therefore, it is strongly recommended to promote these discussion learning skills to facilitate and motivate the students' participation in seminars, debates, and small or large group discussions.

2.5.5 Question and Answer

According to Scales (2008) "one way of the main determinates of successful learning is the establishment of a positive communications climate. One way can develop such a climate is by the skilful and encouraging use of questions in our learning sessions" (p. 152). In this regard, questioning is used to assess the

learners' knowledge in a given subject and skills, meanwhile, to motivate them to reflect on what they have learned and the information which they can share. In addition, questioning can serve to develop students thinking skills.

It is observed that questioning strategy is a powerful tool in the teaching/learning field because it can be used "to draw learners into the lesson, to get them actively involved, to give them a sense of ownership over the body of knowledge or range of skills that they are engaging with" (Wallace, 2007, p. 26). In order to get the most from questioning strategy, different types of questions should be adopted, for instance, closed-questions which generate only 'Yes' or 'No' response. On the contrary, open-ended ones usually elicit a full answer rather than just Yes or No.

Therefore, it is recommended to pose open questions because "they're useful for encouraging learners to think, to explore issues ant to communicate at some length" (Wallace, 2007, p. 26). In other words, open questions promote students to curry on talking and expressing their view points in depth with the use of as much words as they can. This process not only develops the students' oral language fluency, but also thinking skills as they communicate their thoughts actively.

In addition to open and closed questions, hypothetical questions are another strategy for motivating students "to consider new ideas and possibilities" (Wallace, 2007, p. 26). Hypothetical questions usually provide learners with opportunities to use their imagination, thinking, and problem solving skills. This kind of questions includes 'what if …, imagine that…etc. However, leading questions such as

'Do you mean …' Is that to say …' and the like are used to support the learners to express their ideas when they fail or get confused to find words or expressions to convey their messages.

In this context Wallace (2007) points out that "the obvious danger is that you might be simply putting words in their mouth because you can't wait any longer for them to articulate clearly whatever it was they wanted to say" (p. 26). As such, this kind of questions hinders students to improve their oral communication skills and develop their thinking and problem solving skills.

2.5.6 Video

Video is one of the powerful tools in the language classroom for teaching English oral skills particularly to students of other language. Its value lies on that it presents a sound and picture to the language learner. Davis (2009) went further than this, claiming that "students gain more factual knowledge from watching a video and are more successful at drawing inferences from it if they write answers to open-ended guiding questions while they watch the video" (p. 451).

It is worth to mention here that video clips can be either designed and recorded in relation to the learners' environment or "be downloaded from the Internet; sites like YouTube, Video Google, and Video Yahoo" (Khawdn, 2018, p. 139). The significance of video can also be realised on that it raises the learners' interest on the learning process especially if they watch themselves performing oral tasks. In this context, the learners can reflect on their language use and criticize or feedback on each other about any strengths or weaknesses.

2.5.7 Note Taking

Teachers are recommended to encourage their students to take notes while they listen to or read a text. Davis (2009) argues that "note taking increases students' attention in class and increases their performance on tests" (p. 139). The importance of taking notes within the oral skills sessions also lies on that it helps students after the listening or reading task carry on talking about the given topic or task. However, teachers should be aware that students are not in fact reading from their notes; instead students should talk by the assistance of the taken notes.

Students' notes can also be used in pair and/or group discussion for the purpose of sharing ideas, opinions and perceptions on a given task or activity, and a notion. The note taking process can motivate the language learners to respond actively in the oral skills sessions, motivate them to learn, and facilitate their oral communication performance.

2.5.8 Small Group Strategies

According to Davis (2009) small group strategy has an advantage in that "students working in small groups tend to learn more and demonstrate better retention than students taught in other instructional formats" (p. 190). In order to get the benefit from this strategy, students can be formed in small groups around tables for co-operative learning to allocate them to interact easily with each other. "Learner-learner interaction is still able to provide the best possible solution to the problem of large classes. In addition, this strategy has a value in itself as an andragogical activity, creating

excellent conditions for negotiation of meaning" (Macaro, 2005, p. 196).

2.5.9 Buzz Group

According to Harmer (2001), the buzz group means that "students have a chance for quick discussions in small groups before any of them are asked to speak in public. Because they have a chance to think of ideas and the language to express them with before being asked to talk in front of the whole class, the stress level of that eventual whole-class performance is reduced" (p. 272).

In other words, the buzz group strategy is essential for the teachers to consider for the sake of motivating students to talk and participate in the language tasks actively. This can be achieved if the learners become more confident to express themselves orally when they practice their task in small group before performing it in front of the class or a larger group.

2.5.10 Seminars

Emden and Becker (2003) define seminar as "a talk and discussion on a prepared topic, which is likely to involve about a dozen people" (p. 97). Such seminars are not like lectures in which the lecturers dominate the teaching/learning process as they talk most if not all the time; on the other hand, the learners are just seating there and taking notes or even thinking outside the context-absent minded.

However, in seminars, students are engaged actively in the learning process because seminars' "purpose is sharing, and most of the input should be the students themselves" (Minton, 2005, p. 189).

What usually happen in seminars is that, the students choose a topic to be discussed in advance. Then, not only are the presenters going to do some research and preparation of the topic, but the aim is to get idea about the topic and plan any questions for discussion before attending the seminar. At this phase, students might prepare some handouts, slides, and "a preliminary paper with information plus a working paper (with questions and keywords) will help to give shape to the seminar, maybe as 'challenge and defence' as in a debate" (Minton, 2005, p. 189). The second phase is when the actual process of seminar takes place where the presenters present their topics, and the audience listen and ask questions for clarification and discussion.

2.5.11 Role Play

As one of the most effective ways of engaging the learners in communicative situations, a role playing can be in the form of apologizing, advising, inviting, and the like. Doff (1998) states that "role play is a way of bringing situations from real life into the classroom" (p. 232). The importance of this activity is that it develops students' imagination as well as their oral communication and self-confidence. In this regard, students may imagine being a different person through pretending to be, for example, a doctor, a farmer, a policeman, and so on.

Students also can play a role of doing something different in different situations such as planning a holiday, conducting a research, and the like. Moreover, learners might play both a role and a situation at the same time, for instance, a scientist explaining his new theory. Corder (Cited in Khawdn, 2018) argues that "the role-

play technique is a variation on the idea of simulation where members of the group act out a scenario or a series of parts and then analyse the experience afterwards" (p. 140). As such, the role-play effectiveness lies on that it helps students to gain some insight into their colleagues' attitudes and perceptions.

2.5.12 Working in Pairs

Smith (2010) points out that "pairs are very powerful unit for talking and thinking. They offer… [Learners] the security of talking time with just one other person, rather than the more daunting challenge (for many children [learners] of speaking aloud in a group or in the hole class" (p. 64). The effectiveness of this strategy lies in that pairs are usually close friends. As such, I believe that as the starting point and in order to encourage students to communicate freely and confidently teachers should form their students in pairs to undertake oral language tasks and activities.

As these pairs become confident, they can join with another pair to form a group and finally, and they become more motivated and present their ideas in front of the whole class individually. Cooze (2007) points out that "One of the benefits of this type task is that it can be used to allow [learners] a chance to talk about something that interests them" (p. 102). This is particularly effective if the learners use ICT tools as a presentation aid such as PowerPoint in order to make focus of their talks. This process leads learners afterwards to be interactive and active in the learning process. Moreover, they develop their social, thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making skills.

2.6 Individual Teaching Strategies

2.6.1 Tutorial

According to Emden and Becker (2003) "a tutorial (or supervision) is a discussion based on the return of marked work, normally involving the tutor and one or two students (generally not more than four)" (p. 97). The importance of a tutorial is in providing both a tutor and a student with a two-way process in which they can exchange a feedback between each other.

2.6.2 Presentations

Emden and Becker (2003) claim that "a presentation is a formal talk given by one or more people to an audience; the talk itself is likely to be quite short, commonly ten or fifteen minutes, followed by questions and answers" (p. 98). Presentations as an activity are not as the same as conversation "because they are prepared, they are more 'writing-like' … However, if possible, students should speak from notes rather than from script" (Harmer, 2001, p. 274).

2.6.3 Problem Solving

Gould (Cited in Khawdn, 2018) defines problem-solving as "the process through which a solution is found when an unfamiliar situation or task is encountered" (p. 142). In this regard, if problem-solving is used as an activity in the learning process, it serves as a powerful strategy that makes learning meaningful. Moreover, the application of this technique not only secures checking the learners' understanding and their making sense of what they have learned, but also elicits how they can make a good use of what they have learned.

Therefore, using problem-solving in the learning situation can serve as a motivation factor particularly when learners manage to reach a reasonable conclusion via their own efforts. However, failure to accomplish the problem solutions can lead to the learners' dissatisfaction and demotivation. Therefore, it is worth to consider the context in which problem-solving activities to be introduced. According to Reece and Walker (2007), "adults are motivated to learn when it will help them to perform tasks with problems that they meet at work or in real-life situations" (p. 91).

2.6.4 Decision Making

According to Scales (2008) decision-making "involves learners to work together to make, and justify, decisions the whole group agrees on" (p. 139). In this context, decision making can serve to develop social skills as well as thinking, problem and negotiation skills.

2.6.5 Picture/Talk

Students' strategy to describe pictures is 'writing'. Therefore, they integrate writing and speaking skills through this activity. This activity can also give students an amble chance to talk, discuss, and describe with their partners the pictures freely. It can also supply students with a great opportunity to exchange ideas and viewpoints collaboratively and confidently. Cooze (2007) points out that "pictures can be used to great effect in the classroom as a way of exploring an idea or character; initiating questions; summing up or recapping; exploring connections and emotions – the possibilities are considerable" (p. 26).

2.6.6 Poster Design

Petty (2009) argues that "posters are particularly useful for teachers of foreign languages" (p. 387). Teachers can design their own posters in order to be used as a teaching aid in which the key points of a given topic are summarised and presented. This procedure could be helpful in concentrating the learners' focus on the major points to be considered for their learning goals. Moreover, teachers should train their students to design their own academic posters to be presented as visual presentations.

The creation of these posters can be undertaken in groups, in peers, or individually. Designing posters could lead to collaborative class work, interactive, and cooperative learning. Petty (2009) outlines some key points to consider while attempting designing posters as follows: Can the whole class read it? Is it simple enough for the message to be clear? When in doubt – leave it out! Is it attractive? (p. 388).

3. Findings of the Study

The following account will present these themes from both the teachers' and the students' interviews together as one set because of the similarity of the issues revealed and the categories emerged. These themes and categories were coded as follows:

- Teachers acknowledged application of multiple methods in teaching English oral skills.
- Teachers and students stressed unavailability of the English oral skills model.
- Teachers stated the importance of manipulation of ICT tools in teaching oral skills.

- Many students addressed the lack of encouragement from the teacher.
- Students highlighted a number of learning strategy were needed to develop their oral skills.
- Students admitted that ICT tools used during the intervention strategy were helpful in developing their oral skills.
- Teachers and students had similar viewpoints in relation to lack of motivation in effecting English oral skills competency.
- Teachers and students had the same attitude towards the efficacy of the new strategy lessons for teaching and learning English oral skills. Most students agreed that their current English oral skills syllabus was not an up-to-date model and needs to be improved and developed.

4. Recommendations

Based on the findings of the current study the researcher proposes the following recommendations:

- The current model for teaching English oral kills need to be improved to satisfy the real students' need for this changing world.
- English language teachers should be trained on how to use the latest media technology tools for TESOL.
- Teachers are also in need to be trained regularly on applying the latest teaching and learning strategies.
- For more reliable outcomes, effective assessment methods should be put in practice.

- The researcher stresses on implementing tasks and activities such as problem solving, decision making not only to develop students' oral skills but also their thinking skills.
- Language teaching and learning is recommended to be undertaken in an integrated approach where reading, writing, listening, and speaking are integrated in the teaching/ learning process.

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English as a Medium of Instruction: Language Learning Strategies Employed by English Language Learners in Libya

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Abstract

Recent researches on English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) have focused on learner-centered behavior, which consequently have led to the study of the identification of learning strategies. This has become significant in language teaching and learning environment. Thus, learning strategies are useful tools to enhance learners' language acquisition, capitalizing on the language inputs they receive in the classroom. In the current study, the participants are from Arabic medium background, pursuing their higher studies in English medium of instruction. At university level, English is to a greater extent the primary vehicle for the classroom input, but not for the daily interaction. Consequently, this in some ways affects learners' outputs and restricts their learning of the target language. It has been claimed that, in a foreign language learning setting, language learning styles and strategies are considered as a crucial factor to determine the effectiveness of students' learning and interaction. This paper aims to investigate the various strategies adopted by undergrad Libyan learners to cope with English medium of instruction at university level.

Keywords*: ELLs; medium of instruction; ESL; EFL*

1. Introduction

Ever since independence, linguistically and socially, Libya has continuously been debating and discussing the language and the medium of instruction at various levels of education in a very literal sense, keeping in view what is the best for the Libyan education system, commissions and Committees formulated-reformulated, designed-redesigned and stated-restated the issue of the medium of instruction of education (GPCE, 2008). The debate is still on and the current paper is an attempt to contribute their discussion from the perspective of the Arabic medium tertiary students, who have opted to continue their university studies through the medium of English.

In relation to learning a second and foreign language (L2/FL), language learning styles and strategies have significant impact on learners' development. Consequently, knowing about language learning styles and strategies is vital for students who their daily interaction in the target language is restricted (Oxford, 1990).

2. Literature Review

The current paper attempts to shed the light on a central solution, which entails assisting students to regulate their learning effectively through the use of learning strategies. This paper discuses an important aspect of language development, which is English as a medium of instruction at various school levels of study. Some definitions of learning strategies and the research on these strategies are presented in this paper. The paper focuses on the description of data and the tools used to collect this data. Findings and suggested recommendations are presented.

2.1 English as a Medium of Instruction

In the middle of the 19th century, English language was introduced as a school subject under the British administration (Ali, 2008). Since then, English has become a recognized medium of instruction especially at university level. The Libyan education authority conformed the need for English as the medium of instruction in the universities.

The fact that English language is the language of technology and it is necessary for higher education never debated or questioned accept in the middle of the 1980s when the Libyan education authorities decided to remove English language from all the curricula in Libya. This policy only lasted for 4 years, then the learning and teaching of English was recognized and reformed again (Tantani, 2012).

As far as the medium of instruction at school level is concerned, there is no dispute. All the commissions and communities agreed that the mother tongue should be the medium at primary, secondary, and tertiary school levels for a better understanding of the subjects. But, regarding university and postgraduate studies, a consensus has been gathered to use English as the medium university instruction as people have become interested in learning English language for a Libyan-specific purpose; that is, to acquire some kind of qualification in Libyan society to meet their particular needs as business people need to learn business English, and doctors need medical English and English specialization students learn English to become English language teachers and to pursue their postgraduate studies in English abroad (Orafi and Borg, 2009; Hmaid, 2014).

2.2 Definitions of Learning Strategies

The term learning strategies in the context of language acquisition is used to mean the planning and manipulations employed by the learners to acquire, store, and use the information. Language learning strategies (LLS) equip learners to learn the subject and the language in effective way. These strategies help learners internalize the language elements which enable the proficiency in the L2/FL target language. Language strategies can also be called learner strategies.

O'Malley et al. (1985) define learning strategies as being "operations or steps used by a learner that will facilitate the acquisition, storage, retrieval or use of information" (p. 23). Rubin (1975) defines learning strategies as "the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge" (p. 43).

Rubin (1987) defines language learning strategies as "behaviours, steps, or techniques that language learners apply to facilitate language learning" (p. 42). Whereas, Wenden (1987) says that "learning strategies are the various operations that learners use in order to make sense of their learning" (pp. 7-8). Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (p. 8).

From the above definitions, it is understood that language learning strategies are the learner-preferred and learner-oriented devices which enable learners to understand, absorb, process, and use the target language. These straggles are conscious or self-

conscious and influenced by many factors such as age, gender, ethnicity, learning style, and motivation (Oxford, 1990).

It should be mentioned that a large number of researchers such as O'Malley et al., Oxford (1990) and Dörnyei (2005) agreed that there is no complete consensus on the definition and classification of language learning strategies (Aouri and Zerhouni, 2017). In the present context however, the term strategy is used to mean techniques or actions to solve problems and to enhance the use of target language.

As mentioned previously, the goal of the learning strategies approach is to teach learners to become involved, active, and independent learners. By identifying the demands of the curriculum that the learners cannot meet, the teacher can provide the learning-strategies instruction to meet those demands. The cognitive aspect of learning rather than specific subject matter is emphasized. Research suggests that this is an effective teaching approach because learners learn how to learn (Aouri and Zerhouni, 2017).

The main aim of strategies is the acquisition or the achievement of communicative competence in a language. Such a competence is ideally developed in the classroom through situations that use language in a meaningful, everyday situation, commonly called 'illocutionary acts'. Learning strategies aid in the acquisition, storage, and retrieval of information as well as using it in a new and different ways. Oxford (1990) states that these strategies help in facilitating language acquisition faster, more enjoyably, more self-directed, and effective.

To cope with the new changed medium of instruction from Arabic to English, learners need help. The help may be from an external source as suggested by Tony and Maggie (2000) that learners whose first language is not English may need help with both the language of academic disciplines and specific 'study skills' required of them during their academic course. The help could also be intrinsic; that is, learners themselves make use of/adopt new learning strategies required, for instance, in the specific context of undergraduates in the English Department in Faculty of Arts in Misurata University who have had their education in Arabic at the tertiary level.

It is worthwhile to study learning strategies they adopt at university level. This study gains significance in the absence of a program in English for academic purposes for learners at university level. Therefore, a study of these strategies and their effectiveness would indicate whether the learners are moving towards self-directed and self-dependence learning in coping with changed medium of instruction from Arabic to English or not.

A number of researchers such as Rubin (1979), Wong Filmore (1982), O'Malley et al. (1985), and Ellis (1986) find it difficult to study language learning strategies due to the fact that these strategies cannot be observed directly; they are subject to the behavior of the language learners. In relation to this, Rubin (1975) investigated the use of learning strategies by good and slow language learners. Rubin discovered that good language learners had the desire to communicate and willing to take risk.

Rubin also found that that the use of these strategies relied on various variables as proficiency, age, situation, and cultural differences. Wong Filmore (1982) who explored the individual differences among the University of California students supported Rubin's finding. She revealed that the behavior of good language learners was consistent and they had the desire to communicate effectively.

What is more, O'Malley et al (1985) investigate the association between language learning strategies and success in language development by foreign languages speakers. They concluded that even though students used various types of learning strategies, good language learners used more metacognitive strategies; that is, strategies are used to help learners manage their own learning than lower learners.

The result of this study correlates with Tang and Moore (1992) who investigated the effectiveness of the teaching of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in the classroom. Tang and Moore demonstrate that good learners are better able to use metacognitive strategies and have control over their learning than lower learners.

In the light of historical research, therefore, it is quite obvious that learning strategies are not only important and powerful learning tool, but also have the potential to enhance an individual's ability to learn language. Therefore, the current paper attempts to investigate this phenomenon.

2.3 Learner Autonomy

Many terms have been used to describe learner autonomy in education, such as self-directed, interest driven, delight-directed, and

learner-initiated learning. Holec (1981) defines autonomy as a potential capacity to act in a given situation. It is "the ability to take charge of one's own learning" (p. 3). Dickinson (1987) defines autonomy as "the situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his learning and the implementation of those decisions" (p. 11).

From the above definitions, learner autonomy from the learning point of view is not the actual behavior of an individual in that situation, but the ability shown suiting to the demands of learning. Hence, learner autonomy is to mean that the learner is capable of taking charge of his/her learning.

Holec (1981) uses learner autonomy as an attitude towards learning; whereas, Dickinson uses it as a made of learning. Dewey (1933) says that autonomy is an increasing awareness of responsibility inherent in the process of becoming free to exercise the required skill. However, all of them believe that autonomy eventually, involves total responsibility on the learner's side.

3. Methodology of the Study

A questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were used by the researcher in the current study. In the process, 40 participants were given the questionnaires. Whenever and whatever the respondents had doubts to answering the questionnaire, the researcher explained and did his best to make it easy for them to respond to the questionnaire. Twenty respondents (15 females and 5 males) were selected randomly to participate in a semi-structured interview. The researcher used a set of questions focusing on learners' use of learning strategies, their classroom learning, way of comprehending

the texts, learning new vocabulary or phrase, monitoring their learning, and ways of reducing anxiety.

3.1 Participants of the Study

A sample of 40 participants is taken for the study. Of which 30 are female and ten male respondents from Misurata University. They are undergraduate learners, studying English at the Faculty of Arts at Misurata University. All their education had been in Arabic until university. They had studied English for three years in secondary school and another three years in high school.

3.2 Analysis and the Interpretation of the Data

Strategy-Finding Questionnaire

Q.1. I have changed the way I study after joining the university course. (See Appendix A).

Most participants in the present study (99%) reported that they adopted new strategies after joining university. This clearly indicates that it is essential to adopt new learning strategists at the university level.

Q.2. I take down notes during the lecture in the classroom.

Question 2 is an attempt to elicit the importance of taking notes strategies. 80% of the participants reported that they rely on this strategy while listening to the lecturer.

Q.3. I stop and refer to a dictionary if I do not understand a word.

Q.4. I ask my classmates for the meaning of a word.

Q.5. I try to guess the meaning from the context.

The query in questions 3, 4, and 5 is designed to elicit the information of the respondents' strategies new words while reading and speaking with their teacher or with each other. The highest score showed that almost all the participants would like to stop and check the meaning of a word from a dictionary. Sometimes the respondents infer the meaning from the context as well as ask their classmates whenever they face a problem. Thus, the participants depended on the above mentioned strategies for better understanding of the words and communicating effectively.

Q.6. I ask my friends about my progress in learning.

Q.7. I engage in informal group discussions with peers.

When they are asked about how they check their progress in their studies, the data showed that most of the respondents (70%) ask their friends about their progress and sometimes involve in informal group discussions to check their progress in their studies.

Q.8. I encourage myself to make successful presentation and conversation.

The data also revealed that self-motivation and encouragement are used highly by the participants in the present. This is to help them reduce their anxiety in their learning.

Q.9. I memorize in order to reproduce whatever I learn.

Q.10. I understand the subject and prepare my own notes.

It was also found that the largest number of the respondents memorize and reproduce what they have learned when they prepare themselves for the examinations. Besides, 50% of the participants

answered that they attempt to understand the subjects and prepare their own notes for the exams.

Q.11. I keep repeating words, phrases, and sentences to help me in speaking English.

Q.12. I connect the words to their opposite words.

When the investigator asked the participant how they remember the words they learn? The data showed that most of them (80%) used strategy of connecting the antonyms, synonyms, and rhyming as word associations.

3.3 Analysis of Data Collected by Semi-Structured Interviews

As mentioned previously, the researcher in the current study interviewed 20 interviewees to identify the strategies they utilize in their learning (See Appendix B).

Q.1. How do you perceive the change from Arabic to English medium of instruction?

Almost all the respondents shared the common feeling that it was very difficult in the beginning, and they slowly started to be familiar with the English medium. Participants reported that they were encouraged and supported by seniors and their teachers.

Q.2. How do you take notes during the lectures?

Of 20 interviewees, 50% took down notes during the lectures. They took down the important concepts and later elaborate them in their own words. Some of the respondents said it was difficult to take down any notes as the lecture was fast and the entire lecture

was in English. 25% of them did not take down notes as they were not in the habit of doing so.

Q.3. How do you understand the lectures in English?

Most of the respondents (65%) paid keen attention to the lecture and write down the main points. These respondents said that they asked for clarification if they needed. Seven respondents said that they asked the teacher for Arabic translation.

Q.4. If you do not understand any words, what do you do?

50% of the interviewees claimed that they tried to guess the meanings from the context. In case they could not guess the meaning, they referred to dictionary to understand the word. The rest of respondents reported that they depended on their teachers and classmates to understand the meanings.

Q.5. Is there interaction among peers and between peers and the teacher?

Most of the respondents said that there was interaction between the teacher and the respondents. One of them said “the teachers encourage us to speak and recognized the importance of interacting in English language”. However, the interaction among peers occurred only when some of them ask for clarifications.

Q.6. Are there any new method you follow in the way you plan and organize your studies?

All the participants agreed that their attitude towards studies had been changed. They were serious at their studies, as it was a turning point for their future careers. At university level, students learned

how to divide the time into slots for each subject and prepare for various topics.

Q.7. Do you use any specific strategy when you interact with other students or speak English?

All the respondents said that they did not know about learning strategies. However, when the interviewer elaborated on this question and asked them specific questions such as do you ask for clarification? Do you ask for repetition? Do you take notes in the classroom? Do you use body language if you face any problem? All the respondents answered yes, we use them most of the time. It is obvious that there is a problem with terminology. Nevertheless, it is possibly important to introduce these strategies to English language learners and teach them how to use such strategies in their interaction.

Q.8. How do you check your progress in your studies?

Seven of the interviewees reported that they asked friends about their progress and success. Five other students said that they had informal discussions with peers. Also, three respondents said that they met their teachers outside the class to gain feedback. Another three reported that they kept a record of all their assignments and checked if there had been any improvement in them. Two of interviewees said that they were not interested in observing their progress of the study.

4. Findings of the Study

- It was found from the data collected that most of the learners were serious in their attitude towards their studies.

- Most of the participants were self-motivated and dedicated in their learning to successfully complete their courses though they were in a new situation in changed medium of instruction from Arabic to English.

- In addition, findings of the study showed that some English language learners followed a top-down model, where the learners read the whole text for an outline and understand the gist, the learners interact with the text while reading for quick and better understanding of the text.

- Many of the respondents did not get stick with every new word as reading and interacting, but they revealed that they refer to a dictionary later and ask for clarification.

- The data also showed that most of the learners adopted a bottom-up approach, which is read word by word to understand the text.

- The findings revealed that some respondents do memorize to learn the words.

- The data showed that some learners are dependent on the teachers and friends for clarifying their doubts. It should be said that it is very important to know the development in one's own learning to improve the planning to go ahead with learning. A learner is supposed to be aware of his learning in order to make changes in the way he studies (Aouri and Zerhouni, 2017).

- The findings in the present study correlate with the study of Tang and Moore (1992) who find that students have a control of their studies.

- The data in the current study revealed that the respondents were not only self-monitored, but also checked their progress with friends, peers, and teachers to obtain feedback needed.

From the findings, we can establish the following strategies that lead the learners towards autonomous learning:

- Active involvement in the processing and understanding the information of the subject as well as the language, but not merely memorizing the information;
- Developing an awareness of language as a system;
- Realizing that the language is a means of communication and interaction;
- Incidental learning of words and phrases, inferring and guessing the meaning from the context;
- Taking down notes from the lectures;
- Self-monitoring to check the progress; and
- Self-preparation for the classroom conversation and examinations.

5. Recommendations

Based on the findings obtained, the researcher presents the following recommendations:

- A student at the university studies is required to cope with the new changed situation, to take notes, to present papers, and to interact effectively in the target language.
- One can assume that learners need help. This help may be intrinsic in that the learners themselves may adopt new learning strategies.
- In relation to this, it is recommended that the improvement of learning proficiency be dependent on learners' willingness to

define their individual aims and to be practical and interpret their wishes into actions.

- The outcomes from the current study recommend that learners are almost certainly to commence high quality learning, employ a range of learning strategies, only if they are self-directed, confident and well-motivated.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire

Please grade the following on a 4-point scale questionnaire. Your responses to these questions are strictly anonymous. You should not include your name on the sheets. Please respond as accurately and honestly as you can.

N	Type of strategy	Agree	Disagree	Rarely	Never
1	I have changed the way I study after joining the university course.				
2	I take down notes during the lecture in classroom.				
3	I stop and refer to a dictionary if I do not understand a word.				
4	I ask my classmates for the meaning of a word.				
5	I try to guess the meaning from the context.				
6	I ask my friends about my progress in learning.				
7	I engage in informal group discussions with peers.				
8	I encourage myself for successful presentation and conversation.				
9	I memorize in order to reproduce whatever I learn.				
10	I understand the subject and prepare my own notes.				
11	I keep repeating words, phrases and sentences to help me in speaking English.				
1	I connect the words to their opposite words.				

Appendix B: Interview Schedule

A preliminary interview schedule in which question might be reconstructed if needed. The interviewees were told the reason behind these interviews. The interviewer conducted these interviews in English.

Interviews questions:

1. How do you perceive the change from Arabic to English medium of instruction?

2. How do you take notes during the lectures?

3. How do you understand the lectures in English?

4. If you do not understand any words, what do you do?

5. Is there interaction among peers and between peers and the teacher?

6. Are there any new method you follow in the way you plan and organize your studies?

7. Do you use any specific strategy when you interact with other students or speak English?

8. How do you check your progress in your studies?

Libyan Students' Perceptions of IELTS Preparation and Classroom Realities: Cases from Libyan Students Studying in the United States

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Abstract

This paper explores the perceptions of Libyan international students regarding an IELTS preparation course and their experiences in reading, writing, speaking, and listening in college courses in US American universities. This paper employs a case study methodology to highlight the experiences and difficulties of Libyan international graduate students with the US academic system. The participants for this study were two Libyan international students enrolled in a graduate program at Tennessee State University. Semi-structured interviews were used to collect data regarding the participants' experiences with IELTS test preparation and to explore how they persisted in graduate level courses. The results of this study suggest the need for a better understanding of the academic, linguistic, and psycho-social needs of Libyan international students. This paper makes a significant contribution to research on English language teaching and learning by providing implications for language curriculum development and improvement.

Keywords*: English as a second language (ESL); the international English language testing system (IELTS); IELTS preparation course.*

1. Introduction

International students come to the United States of America with high anticipation and a strong aspiration to fulfill their academic goals despite the linguistic barriers. Those students for whom English is not their first language have constantly faced the challenge of adjusting to new academic life and requirements (Lin and Scherz, 2014).

Indeed, graduate studies require international students to be the same in inference and status of taking care of coursework and linguistic competence as to responding to the teachers in class. The course work and paper assignments oblige students to work in groups. Also, when they are taking a class with different teachers, they speak with various English pronunciations. Likewise, the professor of graduate studies could not care less about the type of their students and their experiences; they consider all students are familiar with school life. This entire paragraph needs to be revised.

2. Literature Review

There are several types of international tests used to assess English language learners' (ELLs) skills for using the language in academia at the tertiary level. The most commonly used examinations are IELTS, TOEFL, and ESL tests administered by language centers. In pursuit of learning English, many international students choose to take the IELTS preparation course to learn the language and to improve their ability to pass the IELTS test as a prerequisite for university admission.

2.1 Cultural and Social Challenges Encounter International Students in the United States

According to Open Door Report (2016) issued by the Institution of International Education, over 1 million international students were enrolled at American colleges and universities in the 2015–2016 academic year. Such students travel to the United States with hopes and a strong aspiration to fulfill their academic goals in spite of the language obstacles (Han, 2007).

As the number of international students in the United States has increased dramatically, so has the concern of determining proficiency in the English language and preparedness for university studies (Woodrow, 2006), especially as institutions of higher learning are generally not prepared to meet the holistic needs of international students.

Lack of preparation of the institution creates serious implications for them to succeed in their academic work. According to Arcuino (2013), before studying in the United States, international students have to consider whether their level of language proficiency in English will enable them to be successful or not. Meanwhile, Lin, and Scherz (2014) demonstrated that universities lack of understanding of the needs of the increasing number of diverse international students in institutions. In their study, universities were not able to establish a common ground to reach out to the students, which created language obstacles and, in turn, resulted in ineffective education.

Clearly, international students face many challenges when entering universities in the United States, particularly in terms of

cultural and life transitions that can be stressful, especially in a high stakes environment such as universities (Wu, Garza, and Guzman, 2015). Language, according to Tas (2013) "is the most frequently reported barrier to adjusting to U.S. university life, followed by financial difficulties and problems adapting to the culture" (p. 2).

Han (2007) concludes that international students face many challenges, particularly in overcoming language barriers to find success in academia. This is especially true as language is not simply a matter of phonics and vocabulary, but also of understanding cultural context. Krasner (1999) believes that foreign language skills require cultural knowledge and background in order to be successful. Wu et al. (2015) claim that "international ESL students find it challenging to complete course work … communicate with L1 speakers on a daily basis such as presenting on academic course work during classroom discussions, are a high obstacle for second language learners to overcome" (p. 1).

Writing tasks can also be challenging for international ESL students. Again, language is largely a cultural phenomenon. Morton, Storch, and Thompson (2015) point out that writing can be particularly challenging for international students whose cultural and linguistic backgrounds differ from most students who speak English as a first language and are native speakers and inhabitants of the country where the university resides. For instance, Elraggas (2014) investigated the writing difficulties Libyan graduate students in the United States face, concluding that Libyan graduate students have a difficult time writing academically, as their paragraphs, essays, and academic writing tasks typically have grammatical errors as well as

less advanced style and prose, often mirroring that as an elementary school native speaker.

Graduate students' challenges and differences influenced both instructors and students. Such distractions may cause ineffective learning and achievement (Lin and Scherz, 2014). In particular, international students may suffer when they cannot speak for themselves or do not act as self-advocates in their learning. This leads to decreased ability on the part of the instructor for determining student needs, which can cause lower student achievement and outcomes (Academic Difficulties for International Students, 2017).

Professors and instructors must be prepared to handle cultural differences. To do this, successful instructors will be able to efficiently create positive learning experiences and environments that allow for all students, regardless of background, to engage and interact from students from different backgrounds. An appreciation for diversity, as well as a proactive means of addressing cross-cultural dimensions within student populations will help overcome these barriers to provide an academic climate suitable for students of all backgrounds (Lin and Scherz, 2014).

Marginson (Cited in Arcuino, 2013) argues that as international students are attracted to the United States to gain instructive experiences, American colleges do not need to change much of their educational modules or environments to manage enthusiasm among international students.

Research has shown that students' holistic needs must be addressed with universities being prepared to meet academic, cultural, and social needs of an increasingly diverse student body

(Wu et al., 2015). Zhao and Funywe (as cited in Curtin, Stewart, and Ostrove, 2013) argue that advisor support is vital for students to feel accommodated in graduate school, which can affect their perceptions of their institutions.

Similarly, Darwish (2015) indicates that many institutions create a social support system to assist international students to help them acclimate to the universities. By doing this, institutions of higher learning use a holistic approach to enhance the experiences and well-being of international students (Terrazas-Carrillo, Hong, McWhirter, Robbins, and Pace, 2017).

Developing students' knowledge of the environment that values the diversity in students' differences helps students move successfully to graduate studies (Matheson and Sutcliffe, 2017). International college students may positively react to challenges they encounter when adapting to the new culture and have specific needs for help (Curtin et al., 2013).

American institutions have become more diverse as they accept students from many nationalities and backgrounds. It is preferred to encourage active collaborations between international students and campus personnel, staff, and local students (Yakaboski, Perez-Velez, and Almutairi, 2017). International students' knowledge and experiences studying in American colleges or universities are helpful for engaging in interactions and cultural exchanges with diverse peers.

Thus, American universities' strategies need to include both international and multicultural themes and reflect the great diversity of ethnic, racial, and national groups. Educators need to encompass both domestic and international students in promoting understanding

about diversity commonalities as well as differences, strengths, weaknesses, values, and practices (Tas, 2013).

To conclude, culture and language are too highly interrelated concepts. Language conveys meaning, and meaning is often determined by the culture, which can cause difficulties for international students with varied linguistic and socio-cultural backgrounds (Bandpay, 2013). To ensure that international students succeed and thrive, it is imperative for universities to create a climate that welcomes diversity and creates programs that are holistic in nature, centering on cultural acceptance, programs that help acclimate students to the United States, and ones that create a sense of community to help these students succeed.

2.2 Background of English Language Instruction in Libya

Libya offers free education for all students, and schools have been established throughout the country to make education accessible to students in all areas of Libya. Learning English has become customary among Libyan students beginning in the 5th grade. This intensive program means that by the time the students graduate from secondary school, they will have already completed eight years of compulsory English language instruction.

Increased international cooperation in the world has led the Libyan government to include English language in the education curricula (Najeeb, 2013). Therefore, the Libyan government decided to include English in the educational system, for so it has become the language of instruction of scientific study at the university level (Mohsen, 2014). Research by Ibrahim (2015) underscored that instructors must incorporate English by using the communicative

approach to enhance the teaching of English in Libyan schools. This method took the place of the traditional method, grammar-translation method.

Students are increasingly using English language training license, as it has become highly common in many different professional and social settings, despite that English is not an official or national language in Libya. Because of this, an increased focus on implementing advanced studies in English as a foreign language became necessary as part of the school curriculum.

English in Libya has experienced distinctive circumstances, going from flourishing to stagnation and crumbling for many years (Mohamed, 2014). Additionally, the 1980s ban of English impacted the curriculum regarding teaching foreign languages, as well as the impact on teaching English in Libya. The outcome of the English ban was that teachers of English had to teach other subjects, which changed the curriculum a great deal (Najeeb, 2013).

When teaching English became commonplace again in Libya, it came with great difficulties and challenges in terms of fitting it into daily instruction and the general curriculum. When students once again started to learn English, the teachers faced problems in making English the language of instruction in science subjects at both the undergraduate and higher levels (Sawani, 2009). English language instruction began to prosper again when political relationships with the West were rebuilt after resolving the Lockerbie case (Mohamed, 2014).

As Alhmali (2007) pointed out, the Libyan education system increased dramatically and achieved a great deal in a small span of

time. Many students and families were satisfied with the quality of education. At the same time, the educational system faced challenges amid this time of educational growth and change. Shortages with resources and with qualified educators continued to persist, despite the advances that were being made through the Ministry of Education.

Teachers of English were not qualified to teach English; they had forgotten how to teach English and needed to take training courses to be able to teach again. To address these issues, the Ministry of Higher Education and Research established curriculum consistent with the requirements of the global market. For example, high-quality English textbooks are printed in Oxford and are based on the communicative approach. Therefore, English learning has been implemented from the early stages to postgraduate in Libyan schools (Mohsen, 2014).

Yet, English has not become a lingua franca in Libyan society. The industrial and economic situation of the country required the use of English in Libya; however, various barriers have hindered the attempts to develop English (Ibrahim, 2015).

The general belief is that Libyan children learn English better in non-public schools because they use other teaching aids such as computers and classroom activities. In government-funded schools, the school follows the "course reading" syllabus for English education. In 2000, the National Education and Research Centre in Libya presented a different sequence of textbooks, *English for Libya*, for 7th through 12th grades, along with English CDs and

teacher's books published by Oxford University. In 2005, English became a formal second language of Libya (Najeeb, 2013).

In 2008, Libya presented the report "The Development of Education" to the International Conference on Education, Sessions 48, in Geneva (National Report Introduced to UNESCO, 2008). Libya proclaimed the general goals of its instructional framework, concentrating on foreign languages to enhance widespread interchange capacities (Tamtam, Gallagher, Olabi, and Naher, 2011).

For the sake of development, most of the Libyan students and teachers were specialized in English be sent to English speaking countries. In 2010, advanced efforts were made to simplify procedures for the Libyan students funded to study in America and Canada. The Libyan–North American Scholarship of the Libyan–North American Scholarship Program (LNASP) was founded to facilitate the study of Libyan students in America. LNASP is a joint collaboration between the Libyan Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, the Canadian Bureau for International Education, and Libyan students and host universities in Canada and the United States. The goal of the Scholarship Program is to facilitate studies of Libyan graduate and postgraduate students in North America, allowing them to fulfill their academic objectives while addressing the needs of Libyan public institutions, academia, and society as a whole (Libyan-North American Scholarship, CBIE, 2017).

Since 2011, there has been a political division in Libya due to vicious and endless political unrest in the country. Despite the harsh

conditions in the aftermath of the revolution, Mohamed (2014) claims that "English language teaching has been gaining momentum as an academic profession and as a business" (p. 39).

2.3 Background of International English Language Testing System (IELTS) Test

Libyan students studying in America generally have to score well on standardized tests, such as IELTS. The score ranges from 6 to 9. For graduate studies, students must achieve no less than 6 and for undergraduate studies, they must earn a score of 5 or higher. Such tests are used to verify students' English language learning (ELL) abilities for using the language in life and academic studies. According to the British Council, IELTS is the most popular English proficiency language test on a global scale with more than 2.9 million tests taken in 2016 alone, representing more than 900 testing centers and approved sites in 130 countries (IELTS, British Council, 2017).

Furthermore, the IELTS is one of the most widely used large-scale ESL tests that offer listening, writing, reading, and speaking assessments to determine proficiency in wide content areas to assess overall language skill. IELTS, in fact, measures peoples' English proficiency in order to study or work in communities, where English is used as a way of communication. IELTS is available in two test versions. The academic version is for people applying for higher education or professional registration. The general training version is for those migrating to Australia, Canada, and the United Kingdom or applying to secondary education, training programs, and work experiences in an English-speaking environment. Both versions provide a valid and accurate assessment of the four language skills:

listening, reading, writing, and speaking (IELTS Introduction Learn All about the IELTS test, 2017).

Moreover, the IELTS exam consists of one hour for writing, one hour for reading, and approximately half an hour for listening, and fifteen minutes for speaking. There are no breaks between each part, although test takers can take the speaking test up to seven days after taking the reading, writing, and listening tests. As a general rule, the IELTS scores measurement calculated with phases of the least "zero" when students did not endeavor the test to the highest "nine" expert language user (Feast, 2002).

Rather than having a pass/fail or a numerical percentile score, students receive a band score ranging from 0 to 9, with the former representing little use of English language and the latter representing an expert user of English language. Results include the IELTS band ratings, the names of the test taker, and the date on which the tests were taken (Turner, Cartner, Jenner, and Mann, 2009).

Despite the popularity of this wide-reaching assessment, the IELTS is still known for being challenging, but at times, controversial. The IELTS test is often debated and continues to be challenged in college-level admissions. Arcuino (2013) notes that the objectives for both the TOEFL and IELTS are alike; each test score has been used towards colleges to university enrollments. The biggest distinction might have been that the TOEFL has been designed for American colleges and admission, while the IELTS has used for organizations and associations that requesting to have language.

Many studies have searched for predictive validity of the link between IELTS scores and academic performance. Tonkyn (as cited in Turner et al., 2009) states that tests such as the IELTS and English language proficiency tests are actually weak indicators and predictors of academic performance among international students. Moore and Morton (as cited in Turner et al., 2009) argue that the parts of such tests may be more like certain open non-scholarly types of tests and, in this way, ought not to be considered as a fitting model for college admission. When studying in English-speaking nations, students effortlessly adapt to such subjects, filling in colleagues when they encounter dialect obstructions.

In this way, when a student scores no less than 6 or 6.5 on the IELTS, he cannot choose which college to attend. Woodrow (2006) concludes that language does correlate to student outcomes and academic achievement. The debate is still on going. Wong, Delante and Wang, (2016) believe that international students who come from a non-English environment, might encounter troubles understanding academic discourse, communicating with their peers and teachers, and performing courses assignments because of an absence of English capability. Yen and Kuzma (2009) emphasize that there are other predictors in addition to the IELTS test that would be used to predict student GPA, which is “the individual’s adaptability to a new learning system, speed of acculturation and their personal goals and ambition” (p. 5).

Humphreys et al., (2012) argue that “while some students improve their English language proficiency (as measured by IELTS) over the course of their first semester of study, others do not, and

some even appear to regress" (p. 36). According to Pilcher and Richards (2017):

> higher education institutions relying on and giving the power they do to the IELTS test as a determiner of the English preparedness of students … giving the wrong message to students and staff by saying that students' English is adequate to study here based on their attainment of a prescribed score in IELTS. Thus, when students struggle, they may feel that it is their own fault, or perhaps that they have been misled. (p. 14)

Feast (2002) asserts there is a significantly weak relationship between English language proficiency measured by IELTS scores and their established GPAs at English-speaking institutions of higher learning. Similarly, a study conducted by Bayliss and Ingram (2006) on self-evaluation of their participants of their language abilities after studying for a short period in an English-speaking context. The study revealed that 25 percent of the 28 participants in the study rated their overall language abilities at a level equal to that implied by their IELTS scores.

Additionally, 36 percent rated themselves at a higher level and 39 percent at a lower level, with the overall variations ranging from two bands lower for individual macro skills to two bands higher than their IELTS scores, showing that there is a high level of variance and perception among test takers to their actual scores and English language proficiency.

Another study was conducted by Cooper (2013) in comparison the use of lexical bundle in the IELTS writing test with students'

course assignment. Cooper reached out to the conclusion that the opinion-based essay required for assignment 2 of the IELTS writing test does not function as an indicator of students' capabilities to create scholastic writing.

However, research of (Daller and Yixin, 2016) found that IELTS scores do correlate to GPA; they only predict about 12 percent of average marks among international students. This correlation and difficulty with IELTS in relation to academic outcomes differ by linguistic background.

Ibrahim (2015) found that Arabic language speakers have the sixth lowest proficiency in speaking English in the academic part and the third lowest in the general part. Libya is not the poorest performing Arabic country in terms of its English performance; it is intermediate in fifth place out of ten Arabic countries for both speaking and overall competence. Arabic language users have the lowest English language proficiency across all four skills compared to language learners from the 40 language groups who have been most frequently tested by IELTS. Ibrahim's study indicated that Arabic language learners and Libyans have difficulty with the IELTS test.

Yet Wong, Delante, and Wang (2016) note that not at all the TOEFL and the IELTS were accurate predictors of academic success. As Hill, Storch, and Lynch (2001) stress that nonlinguistic factors affected academic performance, which can help explain why proficiency examinations such as the IELTS typically are not strong indicators of future performance in collegiate level academics.

Finally, a study by O'Loughlin (2008) also determines that IELTS is not likely to accurately predict later student outcomes or success. Despite of that, "for most overseas students, IELTS is the final link in the chain of application procedures required to enter university, and as such, may go some way to determining their chances of success, all other factors being equal. When used in this way, it is indeed a useful tool to help predict academic success" (Dooey and Oliver, 2002, p. 50).

3. Methodology of the Study

This study uses a qualitative research approach. According to Creswell (2014), the qualitative research approach is particularly useful in studying aspects of people or groups in a particular site. It is necessary here to clarify what is meant by qualitative research. Creswell (2014) asserted that "qualitative research is an approach to exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem" (p. 4). The process of the investigation involves emerging questions and procedures, data typically collected in the participant's setting, data analysis inductively building from particulars to general themes, and the researcher making interpretations of the meaning of the data. The final written report has a flexible structure.

A multiple case study approach was used to investigate the phenomena of Libyan international students' issues with the English language when seeking a degree in US universities. In this study, the data were collected by leading a semi-structured interview. The researcher enacts as an interviewer, and then the information is scrutinized and organized in the form of narrative.

3.1 Problem of the Study

Most Libyan international students who take IELTS preparation courses and pass the IELTS test still have academic issues once they enroll in US universities. The difficulty of university study arises when it comes to academic writing, group discussion, and critical thinking. This causes some international students to lag behind their native-English speaking peers who are also pursuing graduate degree.

Due to students' lack of language skills, they have to take many training courses and complementary materials for improving their language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) to be able to engage in academic study before they gain university admission. Students continued lack of English proficiency has quite the effect on their ability to advance in their academic programs. This often results in students returning home, losing the opportunity of sponsorship of their government to study in the United States.

3.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this case study is to explore Libyan international students' perceptions of the IELTS test preparation course and to explore their beliefs about the extent to which the preparation has affected their ability to speak, listen, read, and write academic English during their university study at Tennessee State University.

3.3 Theoretical Framework of the Study

The researcher relied on evidence from the participants' raw data extracted to support the research findings. The philosophy of social constructivism was established in this study to permit

understanding the background of the Libyan international students in English language situations. According to Creswell (2014) "social constructivists believe that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. Individuals develop personal meanings of their experiences—meanings directed toward certain objects or thing" (p. 8).

From this theory, the researcher can adjust the approach of the research to lead to well-organized thoughts on conducting the social research. The researcher followed social constructivism to define and understand human behavior based primarily on the words of certain individuals that, in turn, improve abstract ideas and beliefs that will form the framework of this study.

3.4 Questions of the Study

The questions that drove this study were:

(1) What are Libyan international students' perceptions of an IELTS preparation course?

(2) What are Libyan international students' experiences in reading, writing, speaking, and listening in college level courses?

3.5 Limitations of the Study

The reader should bear in mind that the answer of the questions is based on the participants' background, information, beliefs, and experiences with the IELTS preparation course and academic study, and therefore the result cannot be generalized. The sample is not representative of all international students. Additionally, the researcher's bias may occur as the researcher also experienced being a Libyan international student who was required to take the IELTS

preparation and the test for admission into graduate school. Finally, the sample size is small, consisting of only two Libyan international graduate students. Further, the researcher might consider using a larger sample size, with responses coded for common themes among participants.

3.6 Participants, Sampling, and Instrumentation of the Study

The participants for this study were Libyan international students at an American university in Middle Tennessee in the USA working towards graduate degrees in the academic year 2017-2018. The researcher obtained Tennessee State University's permission to conduct the research on the students. A consent form was given to the participants to fill in to get their formal participation in the study, and they were given an orientation for the study to explain the goal of the interviewing questions to set up time of meeting the interviewees.

Also, the participants were informed of their rights of participating in this study, such as they can withdraw from the interview at any time, and they can share with their opinions on the result before being exposed to the public. Most importantly, only the researcher has access to the information that identifies the participants.

The two participants' primary language is Arabic, and their length of residence in the United States is between two and four years. Purposeful qualitative sampling was used in this study. Creswell (2014) identified that "the idea behind qualitative research is to purposefully select participants or sites (or documents or visual

material) that will best help the researcher understand the problem and the research question" (p. 189).

3.7 Data Collection

Qualitative interviews were conducted to obtain data about the participants' IELTS test preparation and to explore how students keep up with the academic language with courses in university courses. The data were collected via a structured interview**.** A structured interview carried out to explore in-depth a general area of research interest around international students' perceptions of IELTS preparation and university study in US university. And hence, the researchers followed the steps that were mentioned by Creswell (2013) on how to set up qualitative interviewing.

Using a pilot test to refine the unclear or duplicate questions and to be removed before the last interviewing protocol is overseen. Namely, the questions were asked to students similar to those who are in the research sample aided only as subjects for pilot testing. However, pilot tests make the researcher find the simplicity, value, and rationality of questions.

One-on-one interviewing was used to get direct information. This process was implanted within a sequence of phases: selecting the interviewing questions that will be asked to the participants and proper recording procedures. Below sample of interview questions:

1. Which program were you enrolled in undergraduate in your country? Was it based in Arabic?

2. How were you taught to read and write academically?

3. Could you explain how the four language skills, listening, speaking, reading, and writing that you acquired for the IELTS test prepare you for university coursework?

4. What kinds of activities have teachers led in the IELTS preparation you have taken thus far?

5. Can you describe any particularly difficult experience in your life related to your academic coursework?

6. To what extent do you see yourself well prepared for academic education, writing, speaking, listening, and critical thinking?

7. What is the difference between the IELTS test writing tasks and university assignments?

4. Data Analysis

Interview questions were served to determine students' beliefs and experiences in IELTS test preparation course and college work. One-to-one semi-structured interview was conducted to collect in-depth information from the participants. The interviews were carried out in spring 2017 at Tennessee State University in the United States. The interview question protocol included 19 open-ended questions, as these questions asked to get the participants' views to seeking an answer to the primary research questions.

Semi-structure qualitative interviews were used, transcribed, and coded. After doing a final reading to the transcription, the researcher developed the main important themes elicited from the interviewees' experience, and the findings are discussed on the result section.

5. Findings of the Study

The responses of the participants in the interviews were transcribed and then coded, and the names of the participants were not appeared on the result to protect their identity and rights. So, the names were appeared as A and B. The researcher did the transcription and coding by manually. There were themes and categories created from the raw data of the semi structured interviews. The data originated from interview transcripts were concentrated to represent key themes and categories and to define the phenomenon being studied. Four themes were created from the transcriptions of each interview:

• Students' actual opinion of the IELTS test preparation

• Lack of motivation

• Academic challenges in university

• Students' individual methods for improving the language skills

The primary themes were emerged from coding ideas and concepts from the raw data (interviews). Relevant quotations were taken from the transcriptions showing the participants' opinions of the IELTS preparation course and university experience:

5.1 Students' Opinion of IELTS Preparation Course

Participants were uncomfortable with their expectation for the IELTS test preparation that should, in turn, improve their English and prepare them for academic world. From their respondents, they seemed unhappy about the IELTS test. One of the participant said: "You think about just the score, you don't feel comfortable when

you learn the language because of have exam" [A: line 83-84]. Students consistently identified that language preparation period was a lot of pressure for getting the IELTS test score for admission.

Another aspect is writing skills; the response about how they were taught to read and write academically was "Oh, because like ah in the first is like definitely is like really-really hard to walk through this" [B: line 20]. IELTS test preparation did not help them learn the academic writing skill which was very difficult for them. The participants suffered from overwhelming learning of the writing skills, "It is a big difference between to take the exam, and to just learn or to prepare for the language" [A: line 44-45]. Before university, students should come well-prepared for academia, and they should be able to use the language as native speaker students.

5.2 Lack of Motivation

The participants' feedback has shown that IELTS test preparation did not help improve language skills for academic conditions: "Not university, not university" [A: line 29]. Here, it was clear that the preparation course did not motivate students to improve. Another answer "I was not like really interested in English because like as I mentioned generally um language on my bachelor is Arabic" [B: line 29-30]. The IELTS test measures only the students' language proficiency and focused on the test skills. However, the participants' concern was to earn the required score for university admission: "because in the IELTS teaches a lot about the skills, how can I pass the exam" [A: line 46]. The participants' primary concern was only how to get the skills for answering the questions on the IELTS test. "I am a ESL student, it is cool that like

taught me a lot how could I um learn English use vocabulary and use the right structure of the grammar" [B: line 24-25].

There is a significant difference between learning the language under the pressure of taking the IELTS test and thinking of university acceptance.

5.3 Academic Challenges in University

From the analysis of the interview questions, the participants are facing issues in studying in US universities with language aspects. It appeared that IELTS preparation did not get students ready for university study. The follows are the example of students' challenges:

Listening Skill

Students are facing problems with application of language in the daily basis in an academic environment. This example showed the main challenges in using the language at university: "Yes, the difficult thing-the difficult thing, this is my first one, this is the first semester in my doctoral program, I hear a lot of things that is difficult for me because it is my first semester, but if I think about, just I have one a problem, we do not think like American students, when we write or listen, when we write or talk" [A: line 57-62].

Critical Thinking Skill

The participant responses showed that they lack thinking critically like native speakers. For example, "Yah, I told you, when I would to like to describe this mobile, I will describe from my culture, I will describe from my word, from my native language to explain to translate to Arabic, oh from Arabic language to English,

but when the American man, when he will describe, he will start directly describe of his language" [A: line 63-68]. Also, he added "Critical thinking is a big problem for international students, I told you it is not like the American student" [A: line 72-73]. Also, the other participant said "This what I talked about critical thinking, I would … if I said I am ok, I will consider myself not telling the truth because the more the better like you need to practice every single time" [B: line 82-83].

Writing skill

The participants have difficulty with writing research papers, scientific vocabulary, and curriculum that has a lot of information. "This a big different and the spelling is make big problem for me. I already told you about spelling" [A: line 68-69].

Speaking skill

Speaking with native speakers was difficult such as presenting in front of the class. For example, "just I have one a problem, we do not think like American students, when we write or listen, when we write or talk [A: line 60- 61].

5.4 Individual Methods for Improving the Language Skills

It seemed that English language learners did not get enough support from the ESL center to prepare for the IELTS test, and this preparation was not held at the university to be able to obtain the skills required to do the university coursework. Data showed that the participants did a lot of individual efforts for improving their target language. One participant argued that "Don't lose the first year when you learn English language, be happy, be comfortable, just

take it as a language, don't take it as a new challenge in your life" [A: 113-114]. In another context, practicing seemed the only solution to prepare themselves. "Practice, practice, practice is important" [B: line 126]. The participants are practicing their skills a lot, so they could get a good band score on the IELTS earlier. For this, self-study activities were made to develop their language skills like:

- Improving listening skill: "Using um TED, this is the program T-E-D listening" [B; line 39].
- Improving speaking skill: "hanging out with friends and the native speakers friends like American native speaker um going out to the coffee" [B: line 55].
- Improving reading skill: "Grab the a novel's that you like in the first start to read improve yourself" [B: line 57].
- Improving writing skill: "You have to make good and hard bank word and you can do anything with language" [A: line 104-105].
- Improving critical thinking skill: "I got really a good idea which is like any novels I have done read it write a summer by myself … thinking in English" [B: line 59].

6. Recommendations

It can be concluded that the IELTS test preparation course did not help students learn language skills to use in academic discourses. The IELTS preparation did not concentrate on the skills needed for the exam. Hence, Libyan international students were floundering during their language-training period, even studying in the university. Based on the findings obtained, the following recommendations are presented:

- Teachers should encourage students to face language problems with critical thinking, providing them writing academic assignments and speaking opportunities in academic contexts.
- Teachers should fill the gap between the students' lack of interest in learning language due to the fear of taking the IELTS test and using English per se.
- It is important for students to know the importance of IELTS preparation course, as well as examine how this test serves as a predictor for future successful student outcomes.
- It is important for teachers to enhance understanding of the needs of international students whose native language is not English before they send them to study in an American universities.
- It is important for the authority in Libya to research on English language learning (ELL) by demonstrating results which would help to develop new curricula and make improvements in existing programs in order to better serve an increasingly diversified student body.

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Libyan Students' Attitude and Motivation towards Learning English

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Abstract

This study explores Libyan students' attitudes towards learning English. The study is a report on a three-month study of 40 participants who are at intermediate and upper-intermediate levels in second language learning. This study was conducted at the International Study Centre at a UK University. Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were the main methods to collect the data. The aims of this study are to determine the attitudes that Libyan students have towards learning English and to find out which of the three types of motivation (instrumental, integrative, or personal) might be the significant reasons of the Libyan students' motivation towards learning English. The findings reveal that the majority of the students have positive attitudes towards the educational status and social value of English. The findings indicate that a significant number of students show their interest in the English culture as represented by English-language movies. The findings also reveal that learning English as a component of the culture of its people has the least impact on students' English language motivation.

Keywords*: Motivation; attitude; second language learning*

1. Introduction

Attitude has recently received considerable attention from both first and second language researchers. Most of the studies about attitude show that a student's attitude is an integral part of learning. There are many reasons for the significance of the research on students' attitude towards language learning. Firstly, attitude towards learning is believed to influence behaviors, such as selecting and reading books and speaking in a foreign language. Secondly, a relationship between attitude and achievement has been shown to exist (Weinburgh, 1998). Schibeci and Riley (Cited in Weinburgh, 1998) report that there is support for the proposition that attitude influences achievement, rather than achievement influences attitude.

The nature of how attitude towards learning a language is formed is of increasing interest to language teachers and researchers as well. The reason is that attitude influences one's behaviors, inner mood, and learning. So, it is clear that there is an interaction between language learning and the environmental components in which the student grew up. Both negative and positive attitudes have a strong impact on the success of language learning.

The attitude of an individual depends heavily on different stimuli. Stern (1983) claims that "the affective component contributes at least as much and often more to language learning than the cognitive skills" (p. 386). Many studies such as Eveyik (1999); Skehan (1989); Gardner (1985); and Spolsky (1989) indicate that affective variables have significant influences on language success. Discovering students' attitude about language will help both teacher and student in the teaching learning processes.

Saracaloğlu (2000) points out that the characteristics of affective domain are: interest, values, and tendency, and these have the potential to shape attitude and affect learning.

In order to be able to evaluate the students' attitudes, it is an essential to define the term 'attitude'. There are many definitions of the term. According to Triandis (1971), it is a manner of consistency towards an object. Furthermore, Brown (2001) provides a deeper insight into attitude which he describes as being characterized by a large proportion of emotional involvement such as feelings, self, relationships in community.

Hence, emotions are a pivotal part of attitude. This view is shared by Sönmez (1994) who describes attitude as "product of all life experiences" (p. 64). These emotional experiences can be developed at an early age where a child is exposed to a foreign language. Eveyik (1999) agrees with most scholars on the definition of 'attitude' in that it is the state of readiness to respond to a situation and an inclination to behave in a consistent manner towards an object.

Lambert (1967) mentions two types of attitude as: 'integrative' and 'instrumental' attitude to language learning. An integrative attitude is a desire to know and become friendly with speakers of a language. An instrumental one is a desire to better oneself materially by means of the language. He also adds "an integrative attitude is more likely to lead to success than an instrumental one" (p. 37).

Brown (2000) gives an example of Canadian's positive attitudes toward French such as to understand them and to empathize with them, and these lead to high integrative motivation to learn

French. Brown highlights that "attitudes, like all aspects of the development of cognition and affect in human beings, develop early in childhood and are the result of parents' and peers' attitudes, contact with people who are different in any number of ways, and interacting affective factors in the human experience" (p. 168).

Chamber (1999) indicates that learning occurs more easily when the learner has a positive attitude towards a language. Studies and research that "students' attitudes and feelings toward writing are the most significant signs of verbal development" (Omar, 2019, p. 214). Gardner and Lambert (1972) provide evidence that positive attitudes towards language enhance proficiency. Language attitude studies explore how people react to language interactions and how they evaluate others based on the language behavior. It seems that the attitude refers to our feelings and shapes our behaviors towards learning.

Motivation in learning a second language plays a significant role and represents one of most appealing and complex variables used to explain individual differences in language learning (MacIntyre, MacMaster, and Baker, 2001). In this regard, Vaezi (2008) states that:

> Upon review of the literature available in the area of students' motivation for learning foreign languages, many studies attempted to explore the learners' integrative and instrumental motivation and most of them took Gardner's (1985) theory of motivation and its role in L2 learners' attained level of proficiency. (p. 54)

According to this theory, there are two types of motivation:

integrative and instrumental. An integratively motivated L2 learner shows interest in learning about the culture and the people of the target language; whereas, an instrumentally motivated learner has more pragmatic considerations in his mind regarding L2 learning, such as obtaining a job or earning more money. Masgoret and Gardner (2003) also emphasize that "the motivated student is one who is motivated to learn the second language, has openness to identification with the other language community, and has favorable attitude toward the language situation" (p. 54). This proposition will be tested through empirical investigations.

Despite the fact that many kinds of motivation might be essential elements for success in learning a second language, many discussions among researchers and educators about types of motivation of second language learners have been taking place to explore which construct of motivation is essential for learning a second language. Integrative motivation is regarded as superior to instrumental motivation in predicting the success of second language learning because if students' respect the culture of the target language, they are more likely to read literature or practice the language, but it is less likely for them to improve other language skills. It would appear fairly evident that motivation to learn a language is exhibited in many visible means that testify to a persons' desire to learn a language. The study then tries to answer these questions:

What are Libyan students' attitudes towards English language?

What types of motivation Libyan students have towards learning English?

2. Literature Review

This part of the study is dedicated to show the literature review that is relevant to the theme of the study. This part covers the theoretical part of the study.

2.1 Learning a Second Language and Attitude

It is believed that learning a language is closely connected with the attitude towards the language. For example, Karahan (2007) states that "positive language attitudes let learners have positive orientation towards learning English" (p. 84). In other words, when learners have positive attitudes towards English, they would become more encouraged to learn the language. Attitude might play a very fundamental role in language learning, and this is obvious as it is likely to affect students' success or failure in their learning.

Brown (2000) highlights that positive attitudes towards the target language and its people may enhance proficiency, and this has positive influence on students' learning. This may possibly due to the fact that students who have positive attitudes to learn rapidly, and they always feel motivated to learn in order to improve their English. In contrast, those with negative attitudes towards English culture and people have adverse effect on the students' learning. It seems that a positive attitude towards the target language and its social group are important areas to consider because they may have an impact on learning a second language.

In fact, students who have positive attitudes towards the target language, they are more likely to be successful in learning a second language. In contrast, those who have negative attitudes are not

likely interested in learning a second language. This view will be investigated through empirical research.

2.2 Motivation

The definition of motivation is disputed. For Gardner (2006), motivation is "a very complex phenomenon with many facets … Thus; it is not possible to give a simple definition" (p. 242). This may be because various schools of thought have viewed the term motivation in different ways. From the cognitive viewpoints, motivation is more related to the learner's decisions as Keller (Cited in Brown 2000) explains that "the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid, and the degree of effort they exert in that respect" (p. 106).

However, the behavioristic perspective is a significant area for consideration because the motivation, based on Brown (2000), is "quite simply the anticipation of reward" (p. 160). Whereas, motivation in the constructivists' set "further emphasis on social contexts as well as the individual's decisions" (Brown, 2000, p. 160).

Despite the variations in the definitions of motivation adopted by the three schools previously mentioned, the notion of 'needs' is emphasized, that is to say that "the fulfilment of needs is rewarding, requires choices, and in many cases must be interpreted in a social context" (Brown, 2000, p. 161).

There are many definitions of motivation. Brophy (2004) defines motivation as:

> a theoretical construct used to explain the initiation, direction, intensity, persistence and quality of behavior, especially goal-directed behavior. However, motives are hypothetical construct used to explain why people are doing what they are doing. Further, motives are general needs or desires that energize students to initiate purposeful action consequences. (p. 3)

According Gardner (1985), motivation refers to "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language" (p. 10). Learners are intrinsically motivated when they are interested in learning tasks and outcomes for their benefits, and that affects inner sensations of self-determination and proficiency. Conversely, students are extrinsically motivated if they carry out some actions to achieve some instrumental goals, like getting a reward or keeping away from a punishment.

Some linguists discover a strong link between instrumental motivation and Self-Determination Theory, which is concerned with students' requirements for competence, independence, and reasonable social connections. The two types of motivation: instrumental and integrative motivation have been viewed to direct learners to successful language learning (Brown, 2000).

Clark and Christopher (2009) argue for Self-Determination Theory whereby each type of motivation can be divided into sub-factors with reference to the characteristics of learners and socio-cultural context. Further, extrinsic motivation consists of:

(1) *External Regulation* in which students may have no desire to work, but they do so to earn reward or avoid punishment;

(2) *Interjected Regulation* in which students participate in the activities because they believe that this will please the teacher;

(3) *Identified Regulation* in which students engage in tasks because they feel that tasks are essential to get the level they want to achieve; and

(4) *Integrated Regulation* in which students have both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and this may give rise to autonomy in which the teacher may provide learners with the chance to be responsible for their own learning, competence and relatedness.

The study of Zughoul and Taminian in 1984 about Jordanian and Arab students who are studying at Yarmouk University reveal that the motivation involved in learning and using English in Jordan is instrumental motivation, while that in learning and talking in Arabic is mainly integrative motivation.

Similarly, Abdel-Hafez conducted a study in 1994 at Yarmouk University indicating that Jordanian English majors are instrumentally motivated to learn English, and that there is no significant connection between the subjects' attitudes and motivation and their achievement levels in the English learning courses. Furthermore, the results show that male students appear to have extra integrative motivation to learn English than female students might have.

Qashoa conducted a study among secondary school students in Dubai in 2006. The results of the questionnaire and interview reveal

that students have a higher degree of instrumentality than integrative motivation. In addition, the findings indicate that difficulties with the subject (English) aspects such as vocabulary, structures, and spelling were found to be the most demotivating factors for the students. It is a significant area to consider because English grammar can be challenging for some international students and that teachers need to develop ways of facilitating.

In fact, some students have more problems with grammar than others because their linguistic backgrounds, their first language, and grammatical structures are very different. Teachers might develop online resources that Arabic speakers could work through, and they might be different slightly from other speakers since they might have different needs in terms of facilitating some of complex grammar.

3. Methodology of the Study

This part of the study is designed to show the methodology that used in the study to reach findings and present recommendations.

3.1 Research Design

The research design is divided into two types; exploratory and conclusive (Malhotra and Birks 2003). According to Robson (2002), exploratory research is used in 'little-understood situations', when searching more information, and it does not require structured questionnaires or a large sample. Additionally, non-probability sampling is usually entailed (Malhotra and Birks, 2003).

The researchers decided to use qualitative research as the nature of this study is connected with human feelings and experiences

which aim to examine the students' attitudes and motivation towards English language. Further, by using a qualitative approach, the research has the potential to gather in-depth data.

Malhotra and Birks, (2003) say that in their exploratory research, the approach can be either qualitative or quantitative or a combination of the tow. In this research, the researchers take advantage of both quantitative and qualitative methods by pursuing interviews and a questionnaire to gain richer understanding of Libyan students' intention to study and learn English.

This study was conducted to identify Libyan students' attitudes and motivations towards learning English language in the UK. To accomplish this objective, two research instruments were employed: questionnaire and interviews. This technique of design that uses multiple research methods to explore one single issue is called a 'triangulation mixed method design' (Creswell, 2002). The need for triangulation arises from the necessity to the validity and reliability of the process (Tellis, 1997).

Furthermore, multiple methods in research design would also help to "give a fuller picture and address many different aspects of phenomena" (Silverman, 2000, p. 50). Triangulation is defined as "the use of two or more methods of data collection in the study of some aspect of human behavior" (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2000, p. 112). They describe the triangular techniques in the social sciences as an attempt to give a clear explanation of the richness and complexity of human behavior by studying it from more than one standpoint and, in so doing, by making use of both quantitative and qualitative data.

The use of triangular techniques is seen as a tool to increase the degree of validity in the social science research as. Campbell and Fiske (Cited in Cohen Manion, and Morrison, 2000, p.112) state that "triangulation is a powerful way of demonstrating concurrent validity, particularly in a qualitative research" (p. 112).

3.2 Sample of the Study

The sample of the study consists of 40 Libyan students who are learning English at the International Study Centre in England. Purposive sampling was used in the selection of interviewees. Three students were interviewed based on their level of English, knowledge as well as their previous experiences in learning English, and needs of the research.

3.3 Data Collection Methods

To conduct this study, the researchers used the following tools:

Questionnaire: Questionnaire was employed to elicit responses and perceptions of students about their attitudes, motivation, and their impact on achieving a second language. It was used essentially to make the respondents provide significant data.

Semi-Structured Interview: Interviewing Libyan students was the main method of generating data for this study. Interview is a purposeful conversation between the interviewer and the interviewee intended to gain knowledge. In this study, the interview was an opportunity to explore Libyan students' perceptions and to gain in depth understanding and more insight than could be gained from a questionnaire alone. The interview aimed to allow more freedom for students to talk about issues of significance to them.

There are three types of interviews: structured, semi-structured, and unstructured. For the purpose of the present study, semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were the main source of a significant data.

3.4 Ethical Issues

In this study, anonymity, confidentiality, and informed consent were taken into account while conducting this study. For achieving anonymity, participants' names were changed because hiding participants' names and other personal identifications may give them an opportunity to express about themselves freely and in an objective way. The data were saved in a hard driver in order to ensure confidentiality and step were taken to ensure no data would be published without the participants' permission. Furthermore, the researchers obtained informed consent from the participants in the interviews. The participants were told about their right to withdraw if they feel uncomfortable at any time.

3.5 Data Analysis

The data collected in the present study was of two types: quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative data of the questionnaires were analyzed using percentages. For analyzing the qualitative part of the data, a content analysis method was used. Next, the participants' responses were analyzed in terms of themes related to the study aims.

4. Findings of the Study

This part of the study is dedicated to the findings obtained after the data analysis.

4.1 Attitudes towards English

It might be worth indicating that the analysis of the data was based on the students' responses to eight statements, for which they were required to tick any of the three alternatives, namely agree, disagree, and do not know. Percentages were given to make the data analysis more enhanced as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Students' Results Regarding Their Attitudes

Questionnaire Item	Agree		Disagree		Don't know	
	Total (40)	%	Total (40)	%	Total (40)	%
1. English lessons are more enjoyable than lessons in any other language.	20	50	11	27.5	9	22.5
2. People of the country where I will be living would like me to learn their language.	22	55	10	25	8	20
3. Learning English is important to me because without it I cannot be successful in any field of study.	26	65	12	30	2	5
4. The use of English in government and business offices helps get things done easily.	13	33	19	47	8	20
5. I will not really be able to get to know people well if I don't speak their language.	27	68	8	20	5	1
6. Studying English is important to me because it enables me to know new people from different parts of the	21	52	11	28	8	20

7. Studying English is important for me because language learning gives me a feeling of success.	30	75	6	15	4	10
8. The development of a country is possible mainly by educated people who know English well.	25	63	9	22	6	15
9. When I hear someone speaks English well, I wish I could speak like him.	33	83	6	15	1	2

Questionnaire Results

The findings in Table 1 demonstrate that the majority of the participants (82%) had immense desires towards speaking English the same way as native speakers do. Furthermore, the participants' agreement about importance of learning English for success in study field and in integrating with language users was noticeable as 75%, 67.5%, and 65% of them responded positively to items 7, 5 and 3 respectively.

Moreover, the use of English as a communication tool in public sector to make things easily done was not much preferred by the students as 47.5% of the subjects showed a disagreement to the use of English in government and business offices in their home countries.

Regarding the degree of agreement among the students to the idea that educated people, who could speak English, might be the instrument of developing the country was high (62%). In contrast, the least percentage (32.5%) was in the students' choice of 'the use of English in government and business offices helps get things done easily'.

In responding to the item, 'English lessons are more enjoyable than lessons in any other language', 50% of the subjects replied positively, 27.5% responded negatively and 22.5% gave neutral responses.

Interview Results

The interview findings came compatible with the questionnaire results, where they demonstrated that the students have positive attitudes towards learning English, and negative attitudes towards the culture of the English-speaking world as a number of students expressed their opinions:

"I do not have the tendency toward the culture of the west. I prefer my culture. On the other hand, I like learning foreign language such as English to the degree that one cannot expect" (Student 2).

"English language nowadays became important to get a better job. So, we have to command the language and try to speak as native speakers do" (Student 3).

"Since I was in my primary stage I liked to study the English language. However, my point of view is that I don't want to integrate in the culture of the language I learn. For that reason, the English language has to be disconnected to the western culture" (Student 2).

"I recently realized the importance of English language and its wide use in the world, this awaken my likeness to this language. I have curiosity to have some background about western cultures but not to integrate into these cultures" (Student 1).

"I think English should be the language of instruction in the early teaching stage prior to university in order for students to have satisfactory level of the language and develop their skills" (Student 1).

What interesting in presenting of the students' views that another two subjects expressed opposite views about the culture of the English people. They said that:

"After graduation I will seek for a job in a foreign company, therefore, it would be a necessity to be familiar with the western cultures to understand the nature of the people I work with and communicate" (Student 2).

"Generally speaking, English language is essential for different purposes in life, so I like to study English and speak in it. Moreover, I support the idea that by understanding culture of the English speakers one could learn language more quickly and with comfort" (Student 3).

4.2 Motivation to Learn English

This sub-category presents the questionnaire and interview findings related to the students' motivation towards English language.

Questionnaire Results

In order to identify the students' motivation towards learning the English language, they were required to grade six reasons regarding the enhancement of learning of the English language. Table 2 describes percentages that represent the responses of the students' motivations. The percentages are basically allocated for these grades

"very important", "important", "of little importance", and "of some importance".

Table 2: Students' Results on Their Motivation for Learning English

Motivational Constructs	Reasons for Learning English	V Important		Important		Of some importance		Of little importance	
		Total (40)	%	Total (40)	%	Total (40)	%	Total (40)	%
Instrumental motivation	1. because it enables me to carry my tasks more efficiently.	19	47	10	25	8	20	3	8
	2. because it enables me to get a job easily.	30	75	5	13	3	7	2	5
	3. because I hope to further my education.	22	55	8	20	6	15	4	10
	4. because it is a university requirement.	27	68	7	17	5	13	1	2
Personal motivation	5. because for a personal development	18	45	10	25	9	23	3	7
	6. because it enhances my status among my friends.	16	38	12	30	10	25	2	5
Integrative motivation	7. to integrate with the western culture.	14	35	11	28	8	20	7	17

From the table of the three types of motivation, that is, instrumental, integrative, and personal motivation, it can be

extracted that the instrumental motivation items 1, 2, 3, and 4 were the highest percentages. For instance, the students' responses highly corresponded to the reason 'learning English for getting a job' as it received the highest percentage among the other reasons by 75%. The next reason in order came 'a university requirement' by 68%. The remaining reasons for learning English 'Learning English to enable students to carry their tasks more efficiently' and to further their education were also regard as key reasons to the students with 55% and 48% respectively.

The personal motivation for a personal development and because English will enhance one's status among friends considered as the secondary resource of motivation for the students as they 45% and 38% respectively. According to the subjects' perceptions, they see these two reasons are courageous to learn the English language.

Results from Table1 point out the integrative motivation had the little effect on students' learning of English language. This can be understood, as small number of students who represent 35% of the study subjects viewed desire to learn English 'to integrate with the western culture'.

Interview Results

Results from interviews showed consistency with the questionnaire in that majority of the interviewed subjects showed consensus that their motivations are aroused from 'more functional or external needs, such as the need to pass examinations, or for possibly, career opportunities'. More clearly, instrumentally motives were regarded as the main source of the students' motivation towards learning English.

To give more clarity to these reasons some direct extracts from what the interviewees stated in their responses presented as follows:

"When someone applies for a job in a foreign company, his/her level in English might be a reason of acceptance or rejection of his/her application" (Student 1).

"We should learn the English language, since it is a fundamental need for job" (Student 2).

"I think the reasons to learn English language are many but I would mention two here, 1) it is the tool to interact with different people from the world understand their cultures and as it became widely spoken language,2), Most of the international universities require satisfactory level of English for the admission to its studies" (Student 3).

"English is the dominant language of sciences and technologies and most of the learning resources on the internet are written in English" (Student 1).

"The importance of English language lies in its international status in economy, education, and technology. Therefore, learning English language assist in having various opportunities for job, travelling, good standard of life" (Student 2).

For the personal motivation, which is connected the personal satisfaction, the students' views rated it as second in its importance. This motive encompasses the students' interests in performing activities for instance, watching films, and reading English books. Like these reasons for learning English were obviously expressed by a number of the interviewees. When a student said:

"I found myself so influenced by reading English books, even if those books are not associated with my studies ...and when I talk in front of my friends, I receive praise from them, this urged me to learn English" (Student 2).

In contrast, the participants considered learning English to integrate with the culture of its users, has less effect on their motivation to learn English language as one participant states:

"I do not support the idea that learning English is aimed to understand the culture of the English people and integrate with them completely" (Student 1).

5. Discussions of the Findings

This part of the study is designed to discussion of the previous part in order to reach the findings of the study.

5.1 Attitudes toward Learning English

With regard to the students' attitudes towards English language learning, conversely, interesting findings were revealed. Regarding their attitudes towards using English as a contributor in progress of the society, the results show that majority of the students responded positively to the statement "the development of a country is possible mainly by educated people who know English well". Whereas, nearly half of them responded negatively to "the use of English in government and business offices helps get things done easily".

No wonder that most of the students agreed on the same view that English language is the key to the development of their countries. It might be because they realized the significant role that English language plays in the world as a language of science and

technology. Zughoul (2003), for instance, states that even with the dominant nature of English, it is still hugely needed in the Arab world for the purposes of communicating with the world, education, acquisition of technology and development at large.

With regard to the Arab context, Bose (1999) points out that Arab businessmen need English to advertise their goods and transact business in the international market if they are importing and exporting goods. As industrialists, they need English in order to promote their business in the international market, to do business partnership with international companies, to recruit men and women from non-Arabic speaking countries, and supervise their work.

On the other hand, most of the students, in this study, had negative attitudes towards the importance of using English in government and business offices might be a reflection of the rare use of English in these places as Arabic is the dominant language in most of the Arab countries.

In regards to the students' attitudes towards the educational status of English, the results revealed that besides supporting the idea that English should be the medium of instruction in the secondary schools and at least for teaching some subjects like physics and chemistry should be taught in English, they were of the view that teaching of English should start as early as the first stages in the Libyan schools. Such results revealed that Libyan students preferred to see English language as a medium of instruction in primary and secondary schools.

This preference might stem from the students' needs to have an excellent command of English language prior to progressing to further education. For example, one student during the interview clearly admitted that because they finished secondary schooling with poor level in both language and communicative skills, they failed to cope with the academic requirements at the university.

For their attitudes towards the Western culture, the students' findings revealed that more than half of them showed their interest in the culture of the English speaking World as represented by English-language films. A possible interpretation of these findings might be the result of social tendencies affected by globalization. As Zughoul (2003) noted, in the Arab World in particular, the imposed Western cultural influence as represented in all its forms like fashion, music, culture of the young, fast foods, entertainment places, businesses transactions, internet cafes, television and Western ways of living is noticeable in every Arab urban center.

On the other hand, another interpretation of the current results might be attributed to the students' desires to know and understand the culture of the West but not to fully integrate in that culture. The latter reason might be more acceptable and applicable as results from the interviews showed that the majority of the students rejected to learn the language to be a part of the culture of the English-speaking world what so called to be bicultural.

In addition, some of them explained that they wished to learn about the Western culture so as to broaden their horizon and familiarize them with that culture. Moreover, some of these

students would like to join British companies in Libya after graduation in which majority of the employers in these companies are English. Another student stated that it is a necessity to understand the culture of English people to facilitate learning the language.

Finally, concerning their attitudes towards the English language, the students' responses indicated that almost all of them showed their willingness to express themselves as fluent English speakers. This is an indication of the Libyan students' great desires to speak the English language and be able to express themselves as native English speakers do. Such feelings might result from their needs to function effectively at their academic domains and more importantly to be qualified enough to join the workplaces in which the sole criterion for employment and promotion is the proficiency in the English language.

5.2 Motivation towards Learning English

This study was conducted to determine which of the three types of motivation (instrumental, integrative, or personal) could be the primary source of Libyan students' motivation towards learning English. The findings show the students' demonstrated greater emphasis on instrumental reasons for learning English including utilitarian (e.g. enable me to get a job easily) and academic reasons (e.g. enable me to carry my tasks more efficiently, it is a university requirement and to further my education). This apparently reinforces the idea that the students see English as playing a vital role in their lives, either currently or in the future.

This finding is consistent with Joseba's (2005) view pertaining to the current need of English in scientific fields. Emphasizing the significant role of English as a lingua franca in the science community, Joseba (2005) argues that as English has become de facto the international language of science and technology, students of technical courses have to face this fact since books, papers, handbooks, and journals written in English are included in their reading lists. Furthermore, the English language is one of their most valuable resources in the labor market.

Personal reasons (e.g. for a personal development and to enhance their status among friends) were also referred as important motives by the students. However, for the last motivational construct namely, integrative motivation, the students' results provide evidence that learning English as part of the culture of its people had the least impact on their English language motivation. A growing feeling of national confidence of the students' might cause this rejection of any other culture except their own.

In general, the results indicated that Libyan students would like to be bilingual but not bicultural. This comes in accordance with Badaroos's (1988) argumentation that the apprehensive attitude towards English as the language associated with the occupation and westernization has been replaced by a positive attitude that looks at English as a tool for modernization and a prerequisite for finding jobs, particularly in the private sector, and for entering some English-medium faculties in the Arab context.

6. Conclusion

The findings reveal that instrumental motivation is the primary source of the Libyan students' motivation towards learning English. Personal reasons are also regarded as essential motives to the students. However, in regards to the integrative reasons**,** the results reveal that learning English to be part of the culture of its people has the least impact in students' English language motivation. The findings indicated that the students have certain reasons for learning the language and hold significant attitudes towards the use of English that should be considered by English instructors and syllabus designers at the International Study Centre where the study was carried out.

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Influence of Exposure to Two Languages on Amount of Vocabulary

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Abstract

Studies and research in the field of language acquisition show that many of infants all over the world are exposed to more than one language as their mother tongue and subsequently learning another. Studies and research, also, show that the number of children who are brought up in families speaking two languages is increasing quickly because of immigration and other reasons. Previous studies show that bilinguals are slower in developing phonology and tend to experience some difficulties in learning some grammatical rules. Moreover, bilingual children tend to have less vocabulary as compared to their monolingual peers. So, this study aims at exploring the differences in vocabulary size between bilingual and monolingual infants. In this study, 53 monolingual children (29 boys, 24 girls) aged 30 months were exposed to British English plus Arabic language, and 20 bilingual children (12 boys, 8 girls) aged 30 months were assessed on the British Picture Vocabulary Scale and an object-naming measure. All parents were required to complete the Oxford Communicative Development Inventory (OCDI). The researcher used Arabic adaptation of the OCDI, translating and adapted the BPVS III and the SETK into Arabic. The findings of the study revealed that the monolingual infants had bigger vocabulary size than bilingual peers.

Keywords*: Bilingual; language acquisition; infants; exposure.*

1. Introduction

More than a third of infants in the world are bilingual or multilingual (Grosjean, 2010). It is difficult to find a community or group free of bilingualism; it exists in most schools, age groups, and even in most classrooms (Grosjean, 1982). In some countries, a large portion of the population is considered to be bilingual, such as Canada, Belgium, and Switzerland. The number of children in bilingual families is increasing quickly due to immigration (Hernandez, Denton and Macartney, 2008), or because they reside in bilingual families or bilingual societies (Place and Hoff, 2011).

This can also happen over time because of shifts in family structure, child careers, nursery care, or a move to another environment (Paradis, 2010). For example, Lindsay and others (2002) report that 10-24% of the visitors to speech and language therapy services in England and Wales are bilingual children, and sometimes this percentage may reach up to 25-49%.

2. Literature Review

In this part, the researcher is exposing the literature review relevant to the topic of the study.

2.1 Language Acquisition

Typically, children have no difficulty acquiring two languages at the same time (Hoff and others, 2012). As a matter of fact, bilingual and monolingual children produce their first words at almost the same time (Bosch and Sebastián-Gallés, 2003; Petitto and others, 2001). However, studies over the last three decades have tried to determine whether exposure to two languages has an effect on

language development. Findings relating to the similarities and differences between bilingual and monolingual children in language development are not clear (Poulin-Dubois, Blaye, Coutya and Bialystok, 2011).

On one hand, some studies indicate that bilingual children have a smaller vocabulary than their monolingual peers (Bialystok and Feng, 2009; Hoff and Elledge, 2005; Portocarrero, Burright and Donovick, 2007). Paradis (2010) argues that bilingualism has an effect on language development due to the fact that the proportion of exposure to each language is less when compared to the exposure experienced by monolingual children.

On the other hand, bilingualism has also been found to have no negative influence, and learning two languages does not mean a delay in language development or differences in size of vocabulary between bilingual and monolingual children (Hammer, Davison, Lawrence, and Miccio, 2009; Junker and Stockman, 2002).

The majority of language assessment tests that have been used to collect data about bilingual children were built to evaluate the language ability of monolingual children. It is common practice to translate and reuse them to assess bilingual children, which may lead to invalid assessments of language development in bilingual infants (Rosselli, Ardila, Navarrete, and Matute, 2010). Using this approach, it appears to be quite well established that bilingual children's vocabulary development lags behind that of monolingual children during their first few years of life (Rescorla & Achenbach, 2002).

2.2 Vocabulary Development in Mono- and Bi-lingual Children

Of direct interest to this study is the examination of vocabulary development in young bilinguals, as compared to monolinguals. As we will see throughout this review, the majority of studies do find a delay in bilinguals, as predicted from the observed delay in grammatical development (Mueller-Gathercole, 2002), and as anticipated from data showing a delay in phonological acquisitions (Sundara, Polka, and Genesee, 2006). However when the size of the two lexicons is taken into account, the delay is not necessarily as apparent (Pearson, Fernández, and Oller, 1993).

Hoff and Elledge (2005) tested 39 bilingual children (exposed at home to any language other than English) and 63 English monolingual children between the ages of 1-4 and 2-6 years. Researchers matched members of the sample by age, gender, and the educational level of parents. Information about the vocabulary and grammatical development of children in English were provided by children's parents using the CDI.

Regarding the additional language, the researcher collected information about family demographic characteristics using interviews that consisted of 100 items about the home language environment. The results showed that, all other factors being equal, bilingual children were slightly slower than their monolingual peers in the acquisition of vocabulary for each language. However, the results did not reveal any delay in grammatical development in bilingual children.

Other strong evidence for the delay in bilingual's vocabulary development, but no support for the lag in grammar (at least, as

measured by the CDI, as above) was reported by Hoff and others (2012). Language development was examined in a sample of 47 Spanish-English bilingual and 56 English monolingual children aged 1.10, 2.1, and 2.6 years from families with a high socio-economic status. Vocabulary was measured with the McArthur Bates CDI (words and sentences) and its Spanish version (IDHC).

Results indicated that the vocabulary score of monolinguals was higher than that of bilinguals, and that the difference increased over time, probably due to a floor effect in the younger children. In addition, monolingual children were better in their grammatical productions. However, no difference was found between bilinguals and monolinguals when the total vocabulary of the two languages was taken into account. The results reveal that infants who learn two languages, their score was lower than their peers in their lexical outcome in each of the two languages if their overall ability across the two languages is ignored.

Pearson, Fernández, and Oller (1993) also reported similar results by testing 25 English-Spanish bilingual and (mostly English) monolingual infants between 8 and 30 months of age using the MacArthur CDI, to evaluate the receptive and productive aspects of infants' vocabulary in their first and/or second language. The results suggested that the productive capabilities of bilingual infants appeared more balanced, divided between two languages, in spite of bilinguals having a smaller vocabulary size in each of their languages as compared to monolingual infants. Yet, the total vocabulary in the two languages of bilingual children was comparable for monolingual and bilingual infants.

However, the delay in vocabulary development, when considering each language separately, is clearly established. For example, Vagh, Pan, and Mancilla-Martinez (2009) examined 85 Spanish-English bilingual and English monolingual children from 2 to 3 years of age on their English productive vocabulary development, also using parental and teacher reports. The MacArthur-Bates CDI was used in this longitudinal study and the results suggested that bilingual children had slower development rates than their monolingual counterparts.

Another example where the researchers focused on vocabulary development with a wider age range of children and a bigger sample size was conducted by Rescorla and Achenbach (2002) who tested 278 English monolingual and African, Spanish, Asian, and other mixed bilingual infants between 18 and 35 months of age using the Language Development Survey (LDS).

The results suggested that the infants from bilingual families obtained considerably smaller vocabulary scores in the LDS than infants from monolingual families, which was surprising given the similarity in the mean length of utterances. It may be that the development of infants in bilingual families is similar to that of their monolingual peers with regard to combining words, but that to some extent they are slower in learning vocabulary.

The vocabulary development delay seems to be found even after the early years, as shown for example by Bialystok and Feng (2009), who conducted an experiment on 20 Cantonese, Arabic, Korean, Spanish, Farsi, Tagalog, or Tamil-English bilingual and 20 English monolingual children of approximately 7 years of age. The

children's parents filled out a questionnaire about the linguistic background of their children. A Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test III was used and assessed working memory abilities the experimenter asked participants to repeat numbers in the same order as they were presented using a forward digit span task.

The task started with a series of numbers and the length of the series rose with each trial. The task continued until the participant was unable to repeat the correct numbers. Then in a second task, examiners asked children to repeat a series of numbers, but here children were asked to reorder them from small to large (ascending sequence).

However, in a proactive interference task four lists of words were presented in English, where each list included five words. The participant heard and saw the words, and then they repeated every word as they were presented. The examiners asked them to remember the words that had just been presented. The results revealed that bilinguals have a smaller vocabulary size in each language than their monolingual peers. However, they showed similar performance in the working memory task when they were asked to recall words in lists.

Finally, Yan and Nicoladis (2009) compared 20 French-English bilingual and 25 English monolingual children aged 7-10 years in their ability to access their lexicon. The PPVT III in English and its French equivalent "Echelle de vocabulaire en images Peabody" were used. The picture naming task involved 50 pictures, most of which were objects that were displayed on a computer. After the picture naming task, the participants were tested on a comprehension test

which consisted of 50 target pictures where each target picture was presented with 3 distracter pictures.

The first distracter picture was seen in the previous task, the second distracter was semantically related to the target word, and the third distracter had no relation to the target word. The results revealed that there was no significant difference between bilingual children and their monolingual peers in PPVT vocabulary score.

However, the monolingual children were better than bilinguals in the picture naming task. The results demonstrated that the difference between bilingual and monolingual peers was unimportant in receptive vocabulary; however, there were important differences between them in lexical access for production where monolinguals produced significantly more target names in the picture naming task.

3. Methodology of the Study

In this part, the researcher exposes the methodology used to fulfil this study.

3.1 Method of the Study

A total of 53 participants aged 30 months (29 boys, 24 girls) took part in this study. They were all monolingual infants with an average age of 29.4 months (range from 27.8 to 29.4 months and 20 bilingual children aged 30 months (12 boys, 8 girls) were assessed on the British Picture Vocabulary Scale and an object-naming measure. All parents were required to complete the Oxford Communicative Development Inventory (OCDI). The researcher also used Arabic adaptation of the OCDI, translating and adapting

the BPVS III and the SETK into Arabic. All children were reported by their parents as having normal hearing, no development delay, and the children were no more than 6 weeks premature.

3.2 Vocabulary Estimates and Demographic Data

Vocabulary was estimated through a parental questionnaire (OCDI), which contained 416 words the parents indicated as being either understood simply or used actually by their child at the moment of testing. Not only to complement this widely used measure, but, also because the population was slightly beyond the OCDI's upper age limit (28 months).

The researcher also used two face-to-face-interaction-based scales to assess vocabulary comprehension (BPVS III) and production (British English adaptation of the German SETK).

3.3 The British Picture Vocabulary Scale III

The BPVS III is a receptive vocabulary test for Standard British English between 36 months and 16 years. Each item consists of four colors illustrations on a plate and the children's task is to select the picture which illustrates the meaning of a word said by the test administrator. The test starts on the first item and ends at the ceiling set which is established when, within a subset, a child makes eight or more consecutive errors. The scores are calculated as the number of correct responses.

3.4 Object Naming Sub-test (adapted English SETK-2)

The language test Sprachentwicklungstest-2 (SETK-2) was designed originally in Germany to measure, in 24 to 36 month-old German children, receptive and expressive language skills. The

researcher divided this test into four sub-tests of which he used only the object naming sub-test. This object-naming test consisted of 30 items of which the first six were actual objects. The latter were matched to the original items in the German version. The remaining 24 items were color pictures which were photocopied from the German test, with the exception of the item 'petrol station' which was replaced since it did not look like an English petrol station.

For each item, the children were asked 'What's this?' and were given a score of 1 if the child offered any of the English words given as options for that item. If the child gave a response which was not on the list, for example 'egg' for ball or 'apple' for 'pear' or in the other language, this was scored as 0.

The researcher also asked the parents to provide with details regarding the child's place of birth; the highest qualification of the mother and father with their current occupations; the length of time living in the UK; and the presence and number of younger or older siblings. These pieces of data were used in the Language Exposure Questionnaire (LEQ), developed by Cattani and others, which the researcher used mainly in the following experiments to evaluate the amount of exposure to each language.

4. Results

After analyzing the data obtained, the researcher has reached the following results:

1. Monolingual Infants

The mean comprehension OCDI score was 54 words (SD= 63) out of 416 and the mean production was 327 words (SD= 97).

2. Bilingual Infants

Regarding the Arabic CDI data, the mean comprehension CDI score was 86 words out of 416 (SD= 67), and the mean CDI production was 119 words (SD=100). Regarding the OCDI in English, the mean comprehension OCDI score was 143 words out of 416 (SD= 79) and the mean production was 96 words (SD = 54). See Figure 1.

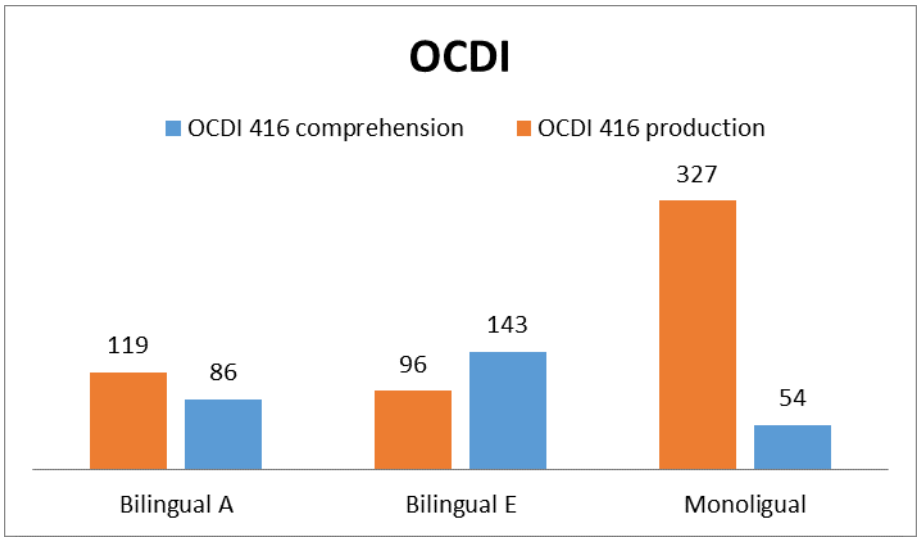

Figure 1: Difference in Mean OCDI (production- comprehension) between Monolingual and Bilingual, in two languages.

It is clear from the previous figure that the number of words that can be produced and understood by monolingual children is more than that the number of words that their bilingual peers have in each language.

In SETK, the mean score was 24.2 (SD= 3.5), and children had a mean BPVS raw score of 35.7 (SD= 11.3). The researcher will only present raw scores for these tests as for the SETK, there are no standardized tables in English yet; for the BPVS, standardized scores are only available for children 36 months and above.

The Arabic SETK score was 13.8 words (SD= 6.3), and the mean raw score of the Arabic BPVS was 18.8 (SD= 7.8). The English SETK was 12.1 words. (SD= 8.4), and the mean raw score of the English BPVS was 19.5 (SD= 10.2). See Figure 2.

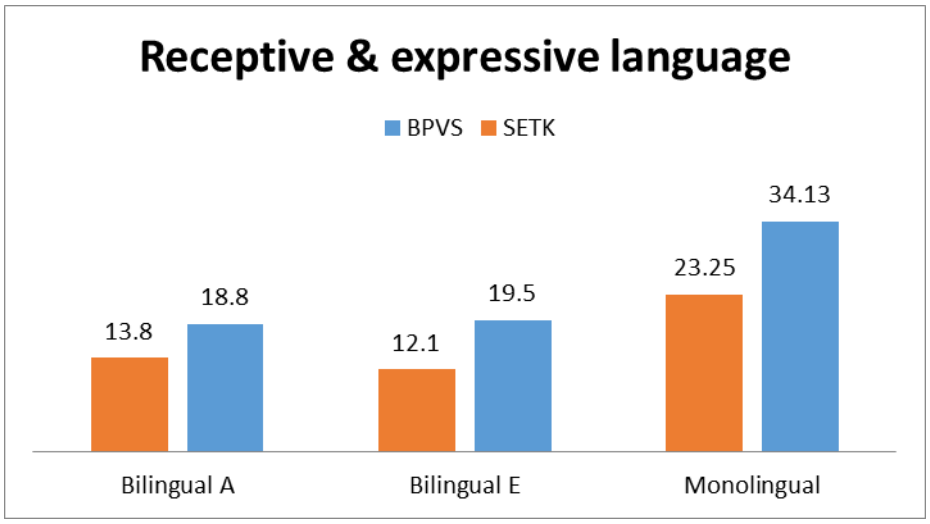

Figure 2: Difference in Mean SETK & BPVS as (expressive – receptive) between Monolingual and Bilingual, in two languages.

As in Table 1, Table 2 shows that the bilingual children have less number of words, either on the SETK or BPVS scales, in the first or second language compared to their monolingual peers.

5. Conclusion

In summary, the above findings illustrate the effect of exposure to two languages on vocabulary size, and indicate that there are some contradictory results regarding the effect of bilingualism on receptive and productive vocabulary. It is important to note that bilingualism does not necessarily result in delays in the acquisition of reading and writing, as it is generally the case that the size of vocabulary is a good predictor of reading abilities in children.

Hammer Davison, Lawrence, and Miccio (2009) aimed to verify the effect of first language on the vocabulary of 4-year-old bilingual children and the emergence of reading and writing. Their study consisted of 72 English-Spanish bilingual children and their mothers, who all spoke Spanish at home. The researchers evaluated the English and Spanish vocabulary of children in the autumn and spring of each year, over a three-year period. In the first session, the language skills of participants were evaluated in English, and in the second session, their ability was evaluated in Spanish.

Furthermore, two versions (Spanish and English) of the PPVT III (English, Spanish), the Test of Early Reading Ability-2 (TERA-2) and a Language Usage Questionnaire were used in this study. The results indicated that the use of a first language had no negative effect on the second language vocabulary development of children at that age, nor did it impact on their emergent literacy abilities.

So far, the general findings point to lower vocabulary in young bilinguals than in their monolingual peers, which could be explained by their lower amount of exposure to each of their languages, but also by different strategies in word learning. The findings of the study revealed that the monolingual infants had bigger vocabulary size than bilingual peers in each language. But the delay can be less visible when taking into account the total vocabulary in both languages.

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Taboo: A Sociolinguistic Pedagogy in the Libyan Context

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Abstract

‘Taboo’, which existed from ancient times, is considered as a subordinate discipline of sociolinguistics, which is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and society. This relationship is considered as an integral part of the environment and social structure of the speaker. In addition to environment and social structure, the values of a society can also have an effect on its language. The most interesting way in which this happens is through the phenomenon known as *taboo* which is believed to be supernaturally forbidden, or regarded as immoral or improper. In language, *taboo* is associated with things which are *not* said, and in particular with words and expressions which are *not* used. In every society, there are things which are believed to be not appropriate if spoken on public occasions. A large number of words are, therefore, taken as silly, vulgar, or obscene when used in communication. These words are “taboos”. The term *taboo language* refers to words and phrases that are generally considered inappropriate or forbidden in certain contexts in the speech community. So, this paper is intended to present some facts and ideas about taboo.

Keywords*: Taboo; language; society; culture; euphemism; sociolinguistics.*

1. Introduction

Sociolinguistics is the study of the effect of society on the way language is used. Understanding the language and the context when the language is used in communication is inseparable since language is bounced by context. It means that true meaning often lies not in the actual words uttered or written, but in the complexity of social knowledge. So, according to Chaika (Abidin, 2003), the actual meaning of utterance depends partially on the social context in which it occurs. There is a number of ways in which language and society are interrelated.

In the past 50 years or so, increasing recognition of the importance of this relationship has led to the growth of a relatively new sub-discipline within linguistics: *Sociolinguistics.* The sociolinguists pioneered into the various sub-fields of language, keeping it as a grid within the environment and social structure of the speaker. In addition to environment and social structure, it was also found that the *values* of a society also have an effect on its language. This phenomenon is known as *taboo,* which can be characterized as being concerned with behavior believed to be supernaturally forbidden, or regarded as immoral or improper. In language, taboos are “words or phrases used to negatively degrade religions, beliefs, or symbols.

2. Literature Review

In this part some literature review on the topic of the study is presented.

2.1 Definitions of Taboo

Wardhaugh (1992) defines taboo as "a way in which a society expresses its disapproval of certain kinds of behavior believed to be harmful to its members, either for supernatural reasons or violating a moral code" (p. 230). He further states that linguistic taboo violated on occasion to draw attention to oneself, to show contempt, to be aggressive or provocative, or to mock authority. Taboo exists not only in the terms of words but also in the terms of gestures, pictures, attitudes, behavior, and so on.

In Rutledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics (2000), taboo is a term that is avoided for religious, political, or sexual reasons and is usually replaced by a euphemism, for example, restroom or bathroom for toilet. The New Oxford Dictionary of English (2001) states that taboo (also tabu) is a social or religious custom prohibiting or restricting a particular practice or forbidding association with a particular person, place, or thing.

According Rahardjo (2002), "taboo language means the avoidance of using or saying certain words in certain situations in certain places, because it will embrace speakers and listeners" (p. 33). Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary (Sixth edition; 2004) explains it like this: taboo is a cultural or religious custom that does not allow people to do, use or talk about a particular thing as people find it offensive or embarrassing; taboo words are words that many people consider offensive or shocking, for example because they refer to sex, the body or people's race.

Fromkin and Rodman (2005) states that 'taboo' is a word that is not to be used or at least to be avoided or forbidden in 'polite

society'" (p. 476). Freud (Cited in Suprapti, 2007) defines taboo as "diverges in two contrary directions. On the one hand, it is 'sacred',' consecrated'; and on the other 'uncanny', 'dangerous', 'unclean'" (p. 15). Again, in the view of Wardhaugh (1992), the knowledge speakers have of language or languages they speak is knowledge of something quite abstract. It is the knowledge of rules and principles and of the ways of saying and doing things. It is knowing what it is possible to say and what it is not possible to say. But it is also a fact that peoples of different countries do not agree totally on what taboos are.

According to Wardhaugh (1992), certain things are not said, not because they cannot be, but because people do not talk about those things. In some cultures or in some circumstances, those words are avoided or not to mention directly. It is believed that it is harmful to those using the words, either for supernatural reasons or because such behavior is held to violate a moral code and sometimes it cannot be justified as stated above, because people should value those things as part of their culture. In some countries breaking a linguistics taboo can be considered as crime, worst, leading to death sentence.

2.2 General Background

First let us take the work of British-Indian Novelist, Salman Rushdie whose writings are Magical Realism & Post-colonialism. His novel *Midnight's Children* (1981) won the Booker Prize in 1981. It was proclaimed as the best novel of the winners. But his fourth novel *The Satanic Verses* (1988) arose major controversy and protest from Muslims. Death threats including a "fatwa" calling for

his assassination issued by Ayatollah Ruhollah Khomeini, the supreme leader of Iran prevailed on 14 February 1989. The book was banned and considered a taboo in many countries (religious taboo).

If we go further back to more than 140 years, in 1878, literary taboo was imposed on *Anna Karnena*, the greatest novel of the Russian Novelist Leo Tolstoy. It was the immoral act and the final suicide of the heroine Anna which made it unusual and a taboo (immoral act and suicide)

D. H. Lawrence is a fantastic English writer and poet (1885-1930). His best novels are *Sons and Lovers*, *The Rainbow*, *Women in Love*, *Lady Chatterley's Lover*, and others. But this man earned official censorship of his creative work. He was termed as a pornographer and tabooed (pornography).

James Joyce (1882-1941) is a superb Irish novelist who is a word painter in fiction. His words in writing are just pictures imprinted in the reader's mind. His *Ulysses* is surely a classic novel. But such a great novel had a taboo in the United States and the United Kingdom. It was banned until the mid 1930s for its explicit sexuality and graphic description of bodily functions.

Can anybody leave out Toni Morison in the field of fiction? Her *Beloved* stands as a pillar among the scenario of novels. But her novel *The Bluest Eye* (1970) was tabooed in the United States by the American Literary Association and removed from school libraries due to pornographic language.

With a single book, *Harry Potter*, J. K. Rowling reached the peak of renown all over the world. *Harry Potter* is a tabooed

(banned) book in the United States and private schools in the United Arab of Emirates. According to American Library Association, the book promoted occultism and witchcraft.

Further we have plenty of examples of taboo on written languages such as: Vladimir Nabokov, *Lolitha* (1955). The novel was tabooed in the United Kingdom as Erotic Fiction. Kurt Vonnegut's *Slaughter House Five* (1969) was tabooed as blasphemous, immoral, and obscene. The fictions of Marquis De Sade were tabooed as pornographic and libertine sexuality often involving violence. Other examples are: *The Good Earth* by Pearl S Buck, *The Group* by Mary McCarthy (immoral subject), *Sophie's Choice* by William Styron (World war II- sexual content), *The Bastard* by John Jakes (Revolutionary saga-bad language) and *The Colour Purple* by Alice Walker (sexual and social explicitness).

And during the 1950s, let us take the taboo effect on the works of the postmodern Confessional feminists Adrienne Rich, Sylvia Plath and Anne Sexton in the United 0tatesS and Kamala Das in India. Why were their works tabooed? Because of their "I" focused individual experience of psyche and personal trauma with "taboo" matters such as mental illness, sexuality, and suicide.

2.3. Taboo and Euphemism

Taboo is concerned with things people do not talk about, and euphemisms is concerned with things people talk about in a roundabout way. As, much of the above description of this paper has been carried out about *taboo*. Now, let us have a glimpse of what *euphemism* is and how it is different from *taboo*. *Taboo* is something forbidden because of a strong religious or social custom;

it may be considered as unclear and dangerous. Euphemism is used in the attempt to avoid either fearful or unpleasant subject or to hide unpleasant ideas, and sometimes used to employ something without saying it (Wardhaugh, 1986).

Euphemism, according to Fromkin and Rodman (2005) is a word that replaces a taboo word or serves to avoid frightening or unpleasant subjects. According to Wardhaugh (1992) "when cultural people use language, they avoid saying certain things which is considered immoral or improper to certain things. Therefore, to avoid sharing miserable things or to prevent saying unpleasant words, people use euphemism" (p. 229). In this regard, Johnson (Cited in Omar, 2012) wonders that "two things that are different may also be the same, and two things that are the same may also be different. Whether they will be the same or different … depends on the way we are set to react to them" (p. 329).

Wardhaugh (1992) describes euphemistic words and expressions as "substitutes which allow us to talk about unpleasant things" (p. 231). Euphemism exists in most of our society, "the result of dressing up certain area in life to make them more presentable, euphemistic words and expressions allow us to talk about unpleasant things and neutralize the unpleasantness" (Wardhaugh, 1992, p. 231).

As a language is a society's agreement, euphemism comes to cover up the words which are not appropriate in the society's culture to make them in a harmony. It is a word or phrase which replaces a taboo word, or which is used in the attempt to avoid either fearful or unpleasant. For a long time, English and American believe that

avoiding linguistic taboo is the symbol of their civilization. They refuse to talk about certain objects or actions and refuse to use the language referring to them. When people have to talk about those things, they are talked about in very roundabout ways. That is because "human beings live in a world dominated and directed by language" (Omar, 2019, p. 503).

2.4 Different Classifications and Categories of Taboos

Wardhaugh (1986) classifies taboo into animals, excretion, swearing, ominous expression, certain functions of the part of the human body, and even name of God and persons. According to Rahardjo (2002) taboo is related to activity in toilet, sex, and religion, and so words related to them are taboos. Fromkin and Rodman (2005) states that "words relating to sex, sex organs and natural body function make up large part of the taboo words of many cultures" (p. 286). Some of the classifications of taboo are:

1. Taboo of Obscenity: Obscene means shocking and offensive feelings in sexuality. Obscenity is any word or utterance, gesture, or action related to obscene language or behavior (Oxford Pocket New Edition, 1995).
2. Taboo of Vulgarity: Vulgarity was indicated into bad moral or depraved and lacking in taste or cultivation and offensive. Also obscene vulgarity generally refers to the characteristics of the masses (Knutson in Suprapti, 2007, p. 18).
3. Taboo of Profanity: Profanity is the quality of being profane. It applies to curse, swearing, oath, bad word, dirty word, irrelevant language, obscene language, blasphemous language and foul mouthed (Mellum, 2007, p. 4).

Whereas categories of English taboo can be classified as:

1. Bodily Excretions: In English, except tears, all the words concerning bodily excretions are believed taboo. So they are avoided of mentioning. Thus, some euphemisms find themselves in replacing them such as: restroom, the place for call of nature and Powder room, loo, water closet, for toilet.
2. Death and Disease: Out of superstitions, many people fear of words having to do with death and diseases. For death, they use "pass away", "answer the call of God", "depart", and the like. Acute diseases are referred as "terminally ill", "sinking", and the like.
3. Sex: Sex-related subjects, masturbation, impotence, sexual activities of various kinds, and human sex organs are considered as taboos (Deng and Runqing, 1989).
4. Swear Words: There are many daily examples of taboo language that express such emotions as hatred, frustration, and surprise. A remarkable variety of linguistic forms can be considered as cursing and swearing. Sex, excretion, and supernatural power are the main sources of swear words. Half of them relate to words referring to body parts and functions that societies (Deng and Runqing, 1989).

2.5 Taboo: A Sociolinguistic Pedagogy

The term *taboo* achieved great significance and tremendous attention as a pedagogy in 'sociolinguistics' during the 1960s when prominent socio-linguists like William Lobov in America and Basil Bernstein in Britain, followed by other linguists, devised and pioneered an approach to investigate the relationship between language and society and started much discussion on language, considering it as an integral part of social behavior. But this

phenomenon existed from ancient times and the use of taboo language is apparently as old as language itself.

The word *taboo* and the concept of it were introduced into English speaking world in 1777 by Captain James Cook (Sturtevant in Rahardjo, 2002) in his description of his third voyage around the world, when he visited Polynesia. Here, he witnessed the ways in which the word *taboo* was used for certain avoidance customs ranging across widely different things. He said that the term *taboo* "has a very comprehensive meaning, but, in general, signifies that a thing is forbidden … when anything is forbidden to be eaten or made use of, they say it is taboo" (p. 64). In the primitive society, the system of taboo was considered as a priority principle for the religious and moral thought.

Cassirer (Cited in Rahardjo, 2002) signifies the concept of *taboo* as "phenomena originated from the primitive society and was mostly influenced and colored by the system of its religion and morale" (p. 63). Originally, *taboo* comes from Tongan language or other related to Polynesian languages. Common etymology traces the word back to the Tongan tabu (or tapu) meaning 'under prohibition'. (Gu and Sheng, 2002, p. 264).

Subsequently, taboo becomes an activity that is forbidden or sacred based on religious beliefs or morals. Breaking a taboo is extremely objectionable in society as a whole. Around the world, an act may be taboo in one culture and not in another. There are examples of Taboo relating to Activities, Dietary, and Bodily Functions.

2.5.1 Taboos on Activities

Abortion – (terminating a pregnancy)

Addiction – (addiction to legal or illegal drugs, including alcoholism)

Bigotry – (speaking negatively about someone of another race)

Blood products – (Jehovah Witnesses are forbidden to use blood products, including blood transfusions)

Cannibalism – (a human being eating the flesh of another human being)

Flowers – (giving an even number of flowers is taboo in Russia because they are for the dead)

Intermarriage – (marriage between people who are closely related)

Inter-religion marriage – (marriage between people of different religions)

Matricide – (killing one's mother)

Patricide – (killing one's father)

Slavery – (humans are treated as property and made to work for no pay)

Suicide – (the taking of one's own life)

Wearing shoes inside – (in some places, shoes are not worn inside a house)

2.5.2 Dietary Taboos

Chewing gum – (Singapore had banned chewing gum because people dispose of it improperly)

Cold foods – (Chinese woman will avoid certain foods a month before giving birth)

Halaal – (Islamic rules of eating include not eating the meat of omnivores or carnivores and not drinking alcohol)

Kashrut – (Jewish dietary laws include not eating pork or shellfish. This is also called a kosher diet)

Religious vegetarianism – (some religions prohibit the eating of meat and fish)

Smoking – (this is banned for Sikhs)

2.5.3 Taboos on Bodily Functions

Belching

Defecation

Flatulence

Nose blowing in public

Spitting

Urination

The above mentioned are general *taboo* behaviors. But what is significant here is to consider *taboo* as a sociolinguistic pedagogy; that is, to consider *taboos* concerned with utterances or expressions

in language because *language* has been one of the most powerful emblems of social behavior.

The term *taboo language* refers to words and phrases that are generally considered inappropriate in certain contexts. Wardhaugh (1992) states that *taboo* is "related to the cultural meanings, which are expressed in language" (p. 229). It means that language is used to avoid saying certain things which is considered immoral or improper to certain things.

Given the central importance to the use of language, Rahardjo (2002) provides a description that language is part of culture and so it is impossible for the speaker as the owner of the language, to be free from the elements of the society's culture. Both have solid relationship. "Ignoring the elements of culture when communicating will serve assault between speaker and listener, and communications will seem to be awkward, strange and even taboo" (p. 43).

3. Conclusion

Language can be categorized into two main parts: *spoken language and written language*. Orality is the primary aspect of the language but in the realm of acquisition of knowledge or in the field of literature, the value of writings surpasses the oral language. When we consider language as a written form, we cannot ignore how even the great writers (or their works) were subjected to undergo the discipline of taboo.

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Code Switching Between Tamazight and Arabic in the Post February 17th Libyan Media

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Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to investigate the nature of code switching between Tamazight and Arabic in light of Myers-Scotton's (MLF) (Myers- Scotton, 1993) and the 4-M model of code switching (Myers-Scotton and Jake, 2000). The data of this study come from the very first Libyan Tamazight news broadcast in Libya on May 2, 2011. I analyzed the broadcast in an attempt to understand the nature and implications of the switching between the two languages in the utterances of speakers in the video posted. I also argue that what might be as code switching is actually borrowing. During the Gaddafi era, the government banned the use of Tamazight in formal settings such as the media, work place, and schools. Since the fall of the Gaddafi regime, the Imazighen in Libya have sought to present themselves, their language, and their culture as an important part of Libyan culture. Libya's Imazighen are bilingual speakers, a fact that set up the conditions for the switching between Tamazight and Arabic analyzed in this paper. Their bilingualism, along with Libyan language policies under Gaddafi help account for the nature of code switching in the data.

Keywords*: Code-switching; Tamazight; bilingualism; language acquisition*

1. Introduction

In 2011, Libya witnessed a revolt against and ousting of the Gaddafi regime, which led to a need to reevaluate and rewrite government policies. Language policy was one of those changes. This paper examines code switching between the Tamazight (Berber) language and Arabic in Libya during the first news broadcast involving Libyan Imazighen (Berbers), a situation where speakers of Tamazight violated long-standing policies and used their language in a public context, specifically television.

During the rule of both the Libyan monarch, King Idris I (1951-1969) and colonel Gaddafi (1969-2011), language policy in Libya stated that Arabic was the only official language of the country with clear denial of the other languages such as Tamazight and Tamahaq (spoken by the Tuareg).

In fact, these two languages were outlawed for over 60 years. With the end of the Gaddafi regime came unofficial recognition of the Berber language in the Libyan public life, through street graffiti (Abdulaziz, 2012) and in other contexts.

Specifically, during the uprising against the regime in February *2011,* the Tamazight language emerged in the public sphere and in the media (TV, radio, newspaper, and the Internet), and the Amazigh began to broadcast news using their language, Tamazight. The major linguistic characteristic of that broadcast was code switching between Tamazight and Arabic in a broadcast that Amazigh audiences had likely expected to be solely in Tamazight.

Television and the Internet have taken the awareness of those political, economic, and sociolinguistic changes to the world. Most

notable is the current inclusion of Tamazight in addition to Arabic in news reports and media from and in some cases about Libya.

2. Literature Review

Code switching is one of the most controversial issues scholars and educators argue. Scholars see that code switching needs more investigation and considerations. In this paper, I am not discussing code switching as a psycholinguistic phenomenon, but I am discussing models of code switching, namely Matrix Language Frame Model suggested by Myers-Scotton and the 4-M Model suggested by Myers-Scotton and Jake.

2.1 Matrix Language Frame Model (MLF) (Myers- Scotton, 1993).

The Matrix Language Model (MLF) model seeks to account for the formal constraints on code switching within the sentence or, more properly, the complementizer phrase (CP). It seeks to explain where code switching occurs and assumes that speakers have access to two languages as they code switch, and that they access those two languages in different ways.

According to this model, speakers construct syntactic frames from the matrix languages into which they embed lexical items and in some cases structural configurations from the embedded language. Such intra-sentential switches are of primary interests to linguists because they show evidence of two grammars interacting simultaneously.

As far as this study is concerned, Tamazight and Arabic are expected to vary in terms of their positions and identification as the matrix language and the embedded language throughout the video.

2.2 The 4-M Model (Myers-Scotton and Jake, 2000, 2001).

The 4-M model is a model of morpheme classification. It does not replace the MLF model. Instead, it offers a more precise description of morpheme types in light of their syntactic roles and how they are activated in the language production. This model uses the term morpheme to indicate the "abstract entries in the mental lexicon that underlies surface realizations and to the surface realizations themselves" (Myers-Scotton and Jake, 2009. p. 341).

This model refines the content versus system morpheme distinction of the MLF model. The model lays out three types of system morphemes: early system morphemes and two categories of late system morphemes—late bridge system morphemes and outsider system morphemes. Morphemes, hence, are classified based on their status with respect to conceptual activation; they are also classified according to how their forms participate in producing building larger constituents (Myers-Scotton and Jake, 2009).

Morphemes, accordingly, are mainly classified in terms of their conceptual activation. Content morphemes (*cat, tree, man*) are conceptually activated. These are based on the speaker's linguistic intentions with respect to content. System morphemes, in contrast, are reflexes of the syntactic frame of the sentence. Myers-Scotton and Jake (2000) have defined early system morphemes as "always realized without going outside of the maximal projection of the

content morpheme that elects them … their form depends on the content morpheme with which they occur" (p. 69).

As in the case of content morphemes, early system morphemes are conceptually activated as well because they come out of the meaning of their content morpheme heads, which indirectly elect them. System morphemes are not conceptually activated because they come in a later stage in the language production. Early system morphemes, along with their content morpheme heading such as verb phrase (VP), noun phrase (NP), adjective phrase (AP), become salient in the building of basic constituent structures. Early system morphemes occur with content morphemes that elect them. They contain basic conceptual structure for conveying the speaker's linguistic intention. Definite articles are examples of early system morphemes that always occur with nouns in the case of English (Myers-Scotton and Jake, 2009).

In contrast to early system morphemes, there are two types of late system morphemes, which are structurally assigned. The term "*late*" here suggests that they are activated in a later stage in the language production. Where early system morphemes build the semantic structure, late system morphemes build the syntactic structure of the constituent (Myers-Scotton and Jake, 2009). They build relationship within the clause. Late system morphemes are "the cement that holds the clause together" (Myers-Scotton, 2006, p. 269). They neither assign nor receive thematic roles nor are they activated at the lemma level (Namba, 2002).

(a) Bridge Late System Morphemes

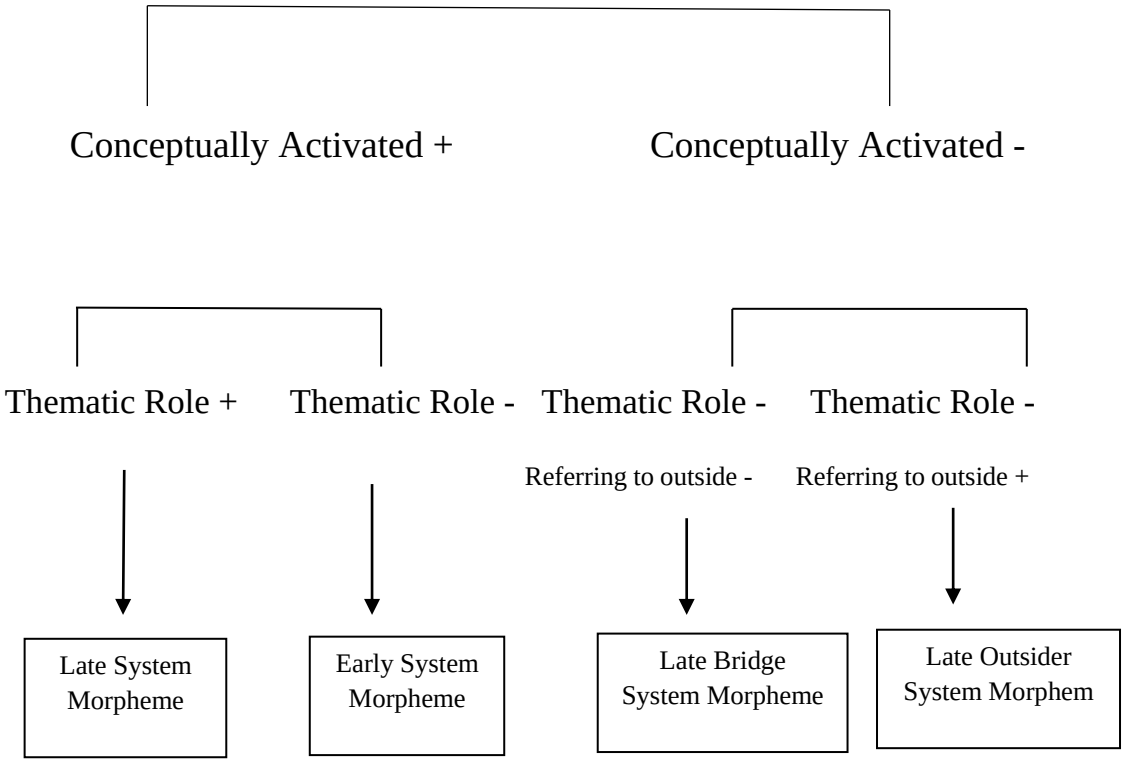
Bridge late system morphemes, as the name suggests, provide bridges between elements that make up larger constituents. For information about their form, they depend on information with their maximal projection as opposed to the outsider system morphemes, which depend on their information outside their maximal projection (Myers-Scotton and Jake, 2009). These morphemes integrate content morphemes into a larger constituent, and they link two nouns within a noun phrase. English *of* is an example of a late system morpheme.

(b) Outsider System Morphemes

Outsider system morphemes differ from the bridge morphemes in that they depend on an outside source for information on their form. This information can come from another element in another constituent. Outsider system morphemes provide precise indexing of relationships that extend beyond word order and basic structure (Myers-Scotton and Jake, 2009). Myers-Scotton (2005) claims that these morphemes "knit together elements at another level" (p. 25). These outsider morphemes are structurally assigned at the positional/surface level. 3rd person singular *s* is an example for this type of morpheme (Namba, 2002).

The figure below shows the classification of morphemes according to this model. Content morphemes and early system morphemes are {+conceptually activated}. Within this classification, content morphemes are {thematic role +}; whereas, early system morphemes are {- thematic role}. On the other side, late bridge system morphemes are {- thematic role 'referring to its outside -'), and late outsider morphemes are {- thematic role

'referring to outside +'} and; therefore, they are {conceptually activated -}.



Morpheme Classification (Namba, 2002, p. 4)

Moreover, the table below shows the classification, definitions, and examples of different types of morphemes laid out by Myers-Scotton and Jake, as well as examples from the data.

System Morphemes in the 4-M Model

Morpheme category	Definition	Myers-Scotton examples	Examples from the data
Early system morphemes	"are always realized without going outside of the maximal projection of the content morpheme that elects them" and "their form depends on the content morpheme with which they occur" (Myer-Scotton and Jake, 2009, p. 96).	English plural-*s*, determiners, and some prepositions	(T) gender markers; y (M), and t (F)

Late system morpheme	"They neither assign or receive thematic roles nor are they activated at the lemma level" (Namba, 2002, p. 4).		
Late bridge morpheme	"they depend on information inside the maximal projection in which they occur" (Namba, 2002, p. 4).	English Possessive markers *of –s* they link two nouns within a noun phrase.	(T) wan 'of' (M) as opposed to (T) tan 'of' (F) (A) inta? 'of'
Late outsider morpheme	"they depend on grammatical information outside of their own maximal projection." (Myers-Scotton and Jake, 2000, p. 100).	3rd person singular *–s*	(T) *faula.k* 'with you' (M) as opposed to *faula.m* (F)

3. Methodology of the Study

The data for this study consisted of the video of the first Berber news broadcast in Libya. The video can be found in this link: http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=J_-mghWgS2k, which was posted on YouTube on May 2, 2011, under the title (لأول مرة النشرة الأمازيغية في ليبيا) "For the first time Tamazight news broadcast in Libya," the same day the actual broadcast took place on TV. The episode itself was broadcast in Doha, Qatar as part of the Libyan opposition's media propaganda against the Gaddafi regime.

The data analyzed here make up about 25 minutes of interactions between the news announcer, Azim Ali, and an analyst, Hamad Bin Khalifa, as well as interviews with other participants and read aloud news reports on the *Libya Alħurra* (Libya the Free) TV channel. All speakers are from the mountain western region of Libya known as Nafusa Mountain – this area consists of small villages and towns,

which are either Arabic- or Tamazight-speaking communities or a mixture of both.

The interview dealt mainly with the claims made by the state-run Libyan TV that Gaddafi's youngest son, Saif Al-Arab, had been killed in the NATO air raid on Gaddafi's house in Tripoli during the campaign against the Libyan regime in the aftermath of the February 17 uprising. Many people did not believe that the news was correct then, the point Bin Khalifa was trying to make in the interview.

The speakers in the video speak Tamazight and Libyan Arabic as native speakers and switched back and forth between the two languages during the broadcast. Azim is also an Arabic news announcer for the same channel. Hamad is a news analyst who is frequently hosted by the channel to comment on Libyan and specifically Libyan Amazigh issues. The video also included news reports by other people and an interview with a third person over the phone.

3.1 Problem of the Study

Libya's Amazigh are bilingual speakers, a fact that surely contributed to the switching between Tamazight and Arabic in this study. From the analysis, we see that the nature of this switching is not simple as some might think. Instead, the relationship between Tamazight and Arabic in most of North Africa, including Libya, is much more complicated than switching between two codes at the convenience of the speakers. Thus, the researcher sees that there is a problem seeking more investigation.

3.2 Objectives of the Study

My motivations for studying this topic are both personal and academic. On the personal side, I am also a speaker of one of Libyan Berber varieties, Tamahaq, and I identify as Tuareg, an ethnic minority in Libya. From an academic viewpoint, the Berber language is an interesting case study for the sociolinguistic changes taking place now in Libya. It has been outlawed for decades from use in public and official domains like education, media, and administration.

One of the biggest debates in Libya now is the relationship of Tamazight to Arabic, the official language of the country. Many Amazigh activists call for inclusion of the Tamazight language in the forthcoming Libyan constitution as an additional language besides Arabic; a situation unimaginable a few short years ago.

Thus, the purpose of this study is to investigate the nature of the Amazigh language at a specific period, May 2011, as it was used in the media and to consider what role past language policies played in shaping the language as it was used on a TV setting. To achieve this goal, I analyzed the very first Libyan Amazigh news broadcast, which occurred and was posted on YouTube on May 2, 2011.

3.3 Questions of the Study

In looking at the nature of the relationship between the two languages, Arabic and Tamazight, in the Libyan news, this study seeks to answer two specific research questions:

(1) What was the nature of the code switching between Tamazight and Arabic in the linguistic choices the Amazigh interlocutors made on TV in light of Myers-Scotton 4-M model of code switching?

(2) What influence did Arabic have over the post-February 17 Tamazight language on a TV setting as represented by the Tamazight speakers?

4. Data Analysis

By analyzing the intended segments of the video, I seek to clearly illustrate and describe some of the aspects of the complex relationship between Arabic and Tamazight, on the one hand. Additionally, the newly emerging identity of Berbers in Libya and how their identity is represented in the media both as Amazigh and Libyans in the post February 17 Libya, on the other.

Myers-Scotton (1993b) has defined code switching as "the selection by bilinguals or multilinguals of forms from an embedded language (or languages) in utterances of a matrix language during the same conversation" (p. 4). Using this definition of code switching, I analyzed a 25-minute excerpt from this broadcast as an example of code switching in the Libyan Tamazight news broadcast. The table below shows Berber and related terms as used in this paper.

Ethnic Group	Language
Berber (Tuaregs and Amazigh/Imazighen)	Berber (Tamazight and Tamahaq)
Amazigh/Imazighen	Tamazight

(Northern/Northwestern Berbers)	
Tuareg (Southern/Southwestern Berbers)	Tamahaq

To conduct this analysis, I used the MLF Model put forward by Myers-Scotton (1993) in order to guide data coding and analysis. Although my original intention had been to employ the later and more robust 4-M model of code switching (Myers-Scotton and Jake, 2000), a revision of the earlier model, I did not need to use it because the distinctions it makes were not relevant to the data I analyzed due to the typological similarity of the two languages and their history of contact. Therefore, only MLF Model is discussed here.

I analyzed the 25-minute broadcast data using the following steps: First, I transcribed the video. Second, I glossed the data on a morpheme-by-morpheme basis. Third, I translated the data. Finally, I classified the data into five categories. Based on the language variety/varieties a word may belong to: (1) Modern Standard Arabic known as fusʿħa; (2) Libyan Arabic (LA), refering to the Arabic variety spoken in Libya; (3) Tamazight (T), the Berber language variety spoken by the Libyan Amazigh; (4) Forms that are both Standard /Libyan Arabic (SL); (5) Borrowings (B) or nativized borrowings (NB), words that are borrowed into Tamazight from Arabic.

In these borrowings, speakers have changed the phonology or morphology of a word so that it sounds like a native Tamazight word and corresponds to phonological and morphological patterns of

Tamazight. The table below shows the language varieties used in the data analysis.

Language variety	Criteria	Examples
Modern Standard Arabic (MSA)	Based on native speaker intuitions in classifying spoken Arabic words as standard/dialect	j.uku:n 'he is' (*be)* (3msg)
Libyan Arabic (LA)	Based on the phonology of the words that would be recognized as spoken in Libya or in the Maghrib region of North Africa. Also based on my intuitions and experience as native speaker of the Arabic dialect spoken in Libya.	/ta:nijan/ '*second*'
Standard /Libyan (SL)	Words in this category can be placed under either the standard or the dialect category. The phonology of such words does not change when moving from the standard down to the dialect	*sˁuħ*'*correct* '
Tamazight (T)	Tamazight words are those which are essentially Tamazight and do not exist in Arabic.	awa:l '*speech*'
Borrowing /Nativized borrowing from Arabic	These are words with Arabic typological roots. Such words would have a slight change in their morphology either in the beginning or the end of the word	jamat '*he dies*' die.imp. (M)

To illustrate the variation of Arabic, let us look more closely at the word /j.uku:n/ '*be*' (M). It was pronounced as [jaku:n] as in contrast to the Libyan dialect pronunciation /i:ku:n/. Also /ta:nijan/ '*second'* is in Libyan Arabic as opposed to standard pronunciation /θa:nijan/. These examples are shown in example1 below. I based on my intuitions as a native speaker of Arabic and Libyan.

Example (1), Hamad [0:5:00–0:5:12]

*Fa ja*ʕ*ni a.dali:l Qad j.ukuun s*ˁ*uħ jamat*

So I mean DEF.proof Maybe (m).it.past correct 3msg.die.PERF

LA LA LA MSA MSA SL NB.T

This kind of classification enabled me to see the nature of the grammatical categories and the code-switching taking place in this news broadcast. This classification helped me show how grammatical items in different categories were distributed. The table below shows the distribution of grammatical categories in the data. I include the discourse marker 'jaʕni,' '*I mean'* as a separate category.

Cat.	Standard Arabic	Libyan Arabic	Standard/ Libyan	Tamazight	Borrowed
Noun	*ar.raħma:n* DEF. gracious (n) 'the most gracious'	*ħamad* 'proper name' (M)'	*xa:l.i* 'uncle.my' 'maternal uncle'	*i.ʔtikrka:s* 'a lie'	*al.faḍi:ħat* 'DEF.scandal' 'the scandal'
Verb	*mawjuuda* 'exists'. (f) (participle)	*i.ku:nu* 3m.PL. 'be' 'he is'	*txabarad* 'tell' (participle)	*hadrazat* 'talk'	*j.amat* 3msg.die.IMP'he dies'
Adj.	*maʕru:f* 'known' (m.participle)	*wa:ḍaħa* 'clear' (F)	*wa:ħid* 'one' (M)	J*erxa* 'obvious' (M)	*j.amat.an* 'they die' 3PL. Die
Adv.	*θanıjan* 'secondly'	*iðən* 'then'	*ʔwalan* 'firstly'		
DM-*jaʕni*			*jaʕni*		*jaʕni*

Additionally, I divided the overall exchange into turns on the basis of continued speech a speaker provided. Sometimes, it was difficult to determine where a turn ended due to interruptions or overlaps from Azim, the news announcer, asking for more information or adding something to what the other speaker was saying. I determined turns to be one continuous chain of utterances on a specific topic or the answering of a certain question.

Thus, for each turn, there are four lines of transcription, unless the example is in one language. The first line gives the phonetic transcription. The second is a morpheme-by-morpheme gloss. The third presents the languages, and the fourth is a translation as in example (2):

Example2, Hamad [0:2:42 –0:3:17]

θa:njan	ilwaqt	illi	ɒʁand	jaʕni
second. Adv	when	that	show.past.they	DMI mean
MSA	NB	T	T	LA

“second, the time they showed, I mean”

Once I transcribed the text fully, I first labeled the ML and EL languages; and then tested the hypotheses of the 4-M model to look for cases that conformed to the model or present problems for it. This analysis permitted me to answer the first research question, and it provided information to answer the second question.

5. Findings of the Study

The findings of the analysis are centered on the research questions:

- What was the nature of the code switching between Tamazight and Arabic in the linguistic choices the Amazigh interlocutors made on TV in light of Myers-Scotton 4-M model of code switching?
- What influence did Arabic have over the post-February 17 Tamazight language in a TV setting as represented by the Tamazight speakers?

Table 4: Utterances in the Spoken Data by Language and by Speaker

Spoken Utterances	Azim	Hamad	Mazigh	Girl	Unidentified voice 1	Unidentified voice 2	Total
Utterances in Arabic (A)	2	13	0	0	2	0	17
Utterances in Tamazight (T)	11	16	3	7	0	1	38
CS Utterances with A. as the ML	1	24	1	1	0	0	27
CS Utterances with T. as the ML	44	117	14	0	0	0	175
Total utterances	58	170	18	8	2	1	257

The above table provides information on the spoken-language data, which excludes any texts read aloud. It displays the number of purely Arabic utterances, purely Tamazight utterances, in which Arabic is the matrix language, and in which Tamazight is the matrix language, as well as the overall number of utterances. The data are divided by speaker: Azim is the news announcer; Hamad is an analyst; Mazigh, is a newspaper editor, who participated by telephone. The young girl is a Libyan Amazigh whose family has fled to Tunisia, and the unidentified voices belong to Libyan

Amazigh fighters. I first discuss the data in terms of language, with two examples of each set of utterance. I then comment on the examples and point out any linguistic characteristics that need to be highlighted.

The data in the Table (4) consist of 257 utterances in total. These utterances were divided as follows: 17 utterances as purely Arabic, 38 as purely Tamazight, 27 utterances with Arabic as the matrix language, and 175 with Tamazight as the matrix language. Thus, the majority of the utterances involve Tamazight, whether as the sole language (14.8%), the matrix language for code switching (68.1%), or the embedded language in an otherwise Arabic utterance (10.1%). Only (6.7%) of the utterances contained no Tamazight at all.

The purely Arabic utterances were further divided into three subcategories: those involving the fusʿħa "Modern Standard Arabic" (MSA), those involving Libyan Arabic (LA), and those involving diglossic switching between the fusʿħa and the Libyan Arabic. Although these Arabic utterances included different phonological and morphological items that differentiate them from one another, they are classified here as Arabic because they do not consist of any Tamazight items or items switched from any other language. The examples in the section illustrate utterances classified as MSA, LA, or diglossic switching in which both varieties co-occur in a single utterance.

1. Modern Standard Arabic (MSA)

Example 3.Hamad, [0:2:21 –0:02: 34]

Wa	b.ism	il^{ʕ}.l^{ʕ}a:hi	ar.raħma:n	ar.raħi:m
And	in..name	the.God	the Merciful	the Compassionate
MSA	MSA	MSA	MSA	MSA

In the name of God, the [most] Merciful, the [most] Compassionate

In Example 4, the speaker, Hamad used very formal language to start the interview. It is a common practice for Arabic speakers and many other Muslims to open a TV interview, or similar speech event formally by including the opening line of the Qur'an known in Arabic as *Basmala:* meaning "In the name of Allah, the Merciful, the Compassionate," in Classical Arabic/Modern Standard Arabic, and then switch to the local language (if not Arabic), or diglossically switching between the use of MSA and CA.

Utterances like these are usually colored by the speaker's local dialect, even though speakers of Arabic would refer to them as fus^{ʕ}ħa or MSA. The emphatic Arabic [l^{ʕ}] has been argued to occur only in the word Allah 'God' as used in certain contexts such as the word /il^{ʕ}.l^{ʕ}a:hi /. Thus, it constitutes a unique aspect of the Arabic sound system. (See Ferguson, 1956, for more information).

Hamad in this example spoke in MSA with an identifiable Libyan accent. The phonology of his utterances was a mixture of MSA and LA, which makes the utterance Libyan version of MSA.

Example (4) Hamad [0:5:00–0:5:12]

	al?ħtima:la:t	mawju:da
All	possibility.PL. F	present.IMP.SING.F
MSA/LA	MSA	

"All possibilities exist"

Many speakers of Arabic would argue that example (4) is MSA. Upon closer evaluation, however, one can note that the endings of the three words in this phrase are not marked for case as they would normally be in most formal instances of MSA. All other MSA utterances in this data exhibit the same characteristics shown in the example above.

Generally, case marking is used inconsistently, a common feature of spoken MSA. In MSA, but not the dialects, plural inanimate nouns, regardless of their grammatical gender in the singular, take feminine singular agreement; hence, the predicate adjective is feminine singular here. (The dialect would use a plural form here.) Thus, this fact is additional evidence that this utterance should be seen as MSA. Recall likewise that in Arabic, as in Semitic languages generally, the verb *to be* is not overtly marked in imperfective affirmative contexts.

2. Libyan Arabic (LA)

The second subcategory in the purely Arabic data comprises the LA utterances. In these utterances, speakers use lexical items intrinsic to Libya and/or the phonology and syntax that are exclusively associated with LA. Example 4.3 below is representative of the use of the Libyan Arabic syntax and phonology in the data. For example, within the sentence structure, the last part of the sentence /ala:h jerħamah/ would be expressed in MSA as /jarħamahu ʔałˈłaːh/; in other words, word order would be reversed and the pattern of vowels would be different in the verb (including the way that the direct object ‘him’ is marked ([h] vs. [hu])).

The expression “May Allah have mercy on his [her] soul” is traditionally used when the name of someone who has died is mentioned.

Example (5) Hamad [0:19:00–0:20:23]

əʃeix	ʕali	maʕamaːr	ʔalˤlˤaːh	je.rħama.h
Sheikh	PN	PN	Allah	have.mercy. on him. IMP

“Sheikh Ali Mu’mar, may Allah have mercy on his soul”

Example (6), Hamad [0:10:15–0:10:26]

il.gadaːfi	muʃ	Sahil
PN (Gaddafi)	NEG. LA	easy.SING.M
LA	LA	LA

“Gaddafi is not easy” i.e., Gaddafi is hard hearted.

In example, 4.4, the speaker used LA morphology when rendering proper noun /Gaddafi/ and LA negator /muʃ/ “not.” He also included the LA adjective /sahil/ version of the corresponding MSA adjective /sahl/.

B. Pure Tamazight

The second category in the analysis of the spoken data is pure Tamazight data set. No CS was involved in these interactions. All speakers in this broadcast were native speakers of both Tamazight and Arabic. Since this news broadcast was directed to the Amazigh audience in Libya and billed as the first news broadcast in the Libyan Tamazight, it was, therefore, intended to be in a language that would be understood by the Libyan Amazigh population. The lexical items, references, and borrowings as well as switches in this broadcast were intended to communicate with Libyan Berber-speaking populations, including the Tuaregs.

As in the case of pure Arabic items, the Tamazight items in the data are divided into different categories. These include pure Tamazight utterances, utterances with cultural borrowings, and those with core borrowings. Single-word utterances are not included in this analysis.

Only phrases and sentences were considered in the examples given for the sake of the analysis. Here, I discuss and give examples for each of the categories below in line two "Utterances in Tamazight." The table below shows the number of pure Tamazight utterances.

Spoken Utterances	Azim	Hamad	Mazigh	Girl	Unidentified voice 1	Unidentified voice 2	Total
Utterances in Arabic	2	13	0	0	2	0	17
Utterances in Tamazight	11	16	3	7	0	1	38
Utterances in which A. is the ML	1	24	1	1	0	0	27
Utterances in which T. is the ML	44	117	14	0	0	0	175
Total utterances	58	170	18	8	2	1	257

In the table above, we can see that there is a total of 38 utterances in pure Tamazight in the data. Different speakers produced different numbers of tokens of these utterances. Again, Hamad and Azim produced the majority of the utterances with

Hamad accounting for 16 out of the 38 utterances and Azim 11. Moreover, the girl in the data produced 7 utterances in Tamazight.

In fact, the majority of her utterances were in Tamazight, a fact that might have reflected her age, the context (a refugee camp in Tunisia), and her lack of experience speaking in formal contexts. In contrast, a more educated speaker might rely on the resources of Arabic more often. Amazigh produced three utterances in Tamazight; the unidentified speakers produce one purely Tamazight utterance.

1. Purely Tamazight Utterances

The pure Tamazight utterances did not involve a language other than Tamazight. The lexical items in these utterances included both pure items that have been borrowed from Arabic into Tamazight. In this analysis, these borrowings are considered Tamazight; that is, these words have become fully incorporated into Tamazight and would be words any Libyan speaker of the Tamazight language would use even though they could be analyzed as having originated in another language, generally Arabic.

When proper nouns were examined, they were found to be identical in both Arabic and Tamazight, while it was not the same case with verbs. In example 4.7 below, the verb form “ma:ʃibħa:niʃ” “did not see” was originally Arabic. The verbal root has been borrowed into the Tamazight language from the Libyan Arabic. Additionally, the Arabic NEG markers /ma:/ and /ʃ/ have also been borrowed and used with this Tamazight nativized borrowed verb.

Thus, even though a speaker of LA who does not speak Tamazight might hear this as an Arabic form, I argue it is a

Tamazight form, the verb stem and the negator having both been borrowed into Tamazight. Thus, in this example, the subject, /ilu:da:n/ 'people' and the verb /ma:ʃibħa:niʃ/ ' did not see' are the Tamazight items in the phrase; whereas the object, /seif a:lʕara:b/, Gaddafi's son's, is a proper noun that is identical in both languages.

Example (7). Hamad [0:2:42 –0:3:17]

ilu:da:n	ma:ˌʃibħa:n.iʃ	*seif a:lʕara:b*
People	not. see.PL.PAST	PN (Gaddafi's son).
T	T	LA/T

"people did not see Saif Al-Arab"

The Arabic items are the subject and the object of the sentence, whereas the Tamazight item is the verb if the sentence. The table below shows Tamazight as the Matrix Language (ML)

Spoken Utterances	Azim	Hamad	Mazigh	Girl	Unidentified voice 1	Unidentified voice 2	Total
Utterances in Arabic	2	13	0	0	2	0	17
Utterances in Tamazight	11	16	3	7	0	1	38
Utterances with Ar as. the ML	1	24	1	1	0	0	27
Utterances with T. as the ML	44	117	14	0	0	0	175
Total utterances	58	170	18	8	2	1	257

To illustrate Tamazight as ML, I provide two examples representing cases where Tamazight plays the role of the ML and Arabic as the EL.

Example (8) Hamad [0:03:22–0:03:43]

tˁabʕan	di:s	ti:karkas	Jerxa
of.course	This	lie.SING	Clear
MSA/LA	T	T	T

“of course this is a clear lie”

In example (8), the bold item is the Arabic discourse marker in an otherwise Tamazight sentence. The speaker began with the Arabic adverb /tˁabʕan/ “of course,” and finished the sentence in Tamazight. This Tamazight sentence includes the demonstrative pronoun /di:s/ “this” which refers cataphorically to the noun /ti:karkas/ “a lie” and the adjective /jerxa/ “clear.” This adverb was mentioned three times in the data; two by Hamad and one by Mazigh. Speakers did not use any other equivalent form of the Arabic adverb, which supports that argument that this is a switch instead of a borrowing.

Example, (9) Hamad [0:04:03 –0:04:45]

i.su:fa:ʁ	ta:rwa:.nis	In	barra:
he.send away. IMP	child.PL. his.	toPREP	abroadN
T	T	T	LA

“he (Gaddafi) sends his children abroad”

Example (9) also presented the Arabic item in bold. Here, the speaker inserted an Arabic item /barra:/ into Tamazight sentence. The sentence consists of Tamazight items such as a singular the prefix represented in the vowel /i/. This prefix marks the singular and masculine. It is understood here to refer to Gaddafi, who was the topic of the discussion in this part of the broadcast. Hamad embedded the Arabic word /barra:/ “abroad,” instead of using the Tamazight equivalent, /tenere/. The phrase /ta:rwa:nis/ “his children” acts as the object of the verb /i.su:fa:ʁ/ “send,” in this

sentence. Here, too, the possessive pronoun /nis/ “his” that refers to Gaddafi is attached to the preceding noun /ta:rwa:/ “children” meaning “his children.” Thus, the grammatical structure of this sentence is Tamazight with an inserted Arabic adverb.

In examples, (9), the syntactic frame for the sentences is provided by the Tamazight language. These were both examples of intrasentential code switching with Tamazight as the matrix language.

B. Arabic as the Matrix Language

Here, I illustrate examples of Arabic as a matrix language. In these instances, Arabic dominates the structure of the sentence and the number of lexical items in the sentence (although this latter criterion is not the more significant one). Speakers in such instances embedded Tamazight items as they switched from Arabic to Tamazight in their speech.

Example (10) Hamad [0:02:42 –0:03:17]

ju:mkin	sˁaħ	Jamat
Maybe	true	he.die. PAST
LA	LA	T

“maybe it is true that he died”

In example 4.13, the Tamazight item in the sentence is in bold. Here, we have two CPs: [Maybe it is true$_{AR}$] [(that) he died$_{T}$]. In the first CP, ‘maybe’ is an adverb, modifying ‘it is true’, *[it is] true* involves an adjective used in an expletive structure as in ‘it is ADJ that’. In the second CP, which is governed by the first, the verb /jamat/ constitutes the entire CP. the first sound of the verb /**j**amat/

represents the subject, which is third-person singular and masculine. Thus, while this is intrasentential CS, it is not inter CP CS.

The second example, 4.14, is representative of the Arabic language acting as the ML. The Tamazight item is marked in bold. In this example, the speaker again used an Arabic structure along with Arabic lexical items and then switched to Tamazight at the end of the sentence. The speaker used the Arabic structure when he uttered the noun /əlħarb/ "war" that was modified by the Tamazight adjective /tishal/ "easy" before the adjective. He also used the Arabic negator /muʃ/ "not" before the adjective.

Thus, the subject and the verb of the sentence come from the Arabic language, and the adjective comes from Tamazight. Were the Tamazight negation and structure to be used in this sentence, it would likely read /wʊt tishal əlħarb/, literally, 'not.easy, the war.' (war is not easy).

Example (11) Hamad [0:24:29–0:25:21]

əl.ħarb	muʃ	Tishal
War	is.NEG	Easy
LA	LA	NB T

"war is not easy"

Other examples of Arabic items from the table are shown in the following examples. The Arabic forms are boldfaced. Examples 4.17 contains numbers and a noun while Example 4.18 containsa noun.

Example (12) Shukri, news reporter [0:06:23–0:07:40]

In	tisʕa	U	ʕiʃri:n	nigraʊ̯li:n	aʃ.ʃuha:da?
Of	Nine	And	Twenty	revolutionary.PL	martyr.PL
T	LA	LA	LA	T	MSA

"twenty-nine martyrs of the revolution" or "twenty-nine revolutionary martyrs"

Example (13) Shukri, news reporter [0:06:23–0:07:40]

dis	al.intifa :dˤa	tagraʊ̯la
This	the.intifada	Revolution
T	LA	T

"this is the intifada revolution"

Example (13) an example of an adjective, the adjective is feminine because, as in Arabic, place names in Tamazight are grammatically feminine regardless of their morphological shape.

Example (14) Shukri, news reporter [0:12:22–0:14:10]

du:ha	ʒa:dɒ	ħu:rra
Now	Jado	free.SING. F
T	PN	MSA/LA

"Now Jado [a city], is free"

From the table and the examples above, we can conclude that there are far fewer occurrences of Arabic items such as nouns and adjectives in this data as compared to the spoken data. Additionally, we notice the absence of other grammatical categories such as verb and adverb.

6. Findings of the Study

Having analyzed the use of Tamazight and Arabic in the data, I can now provide findings of the study based to answering the research questions.

Research Question One

What is the nature of the code switching between Tamazight and Arabic in the linguistic choices the Amazigh interlocutors make on TV in light of the Myers-Scotton 4-M model of code switching (Myers-Scotton & Jake, 2000)?

In response to the first research question, the results showed that both languages sometimes served as ML and sometimes as EL. Generally, Tamazight was the ML, and Arabic was the EL. Also, Arabic was the source of many content morphemes, as well as other grammatical categories such as the discourse markers and religious phrases and expressions.

As shown in the last table, the total number of intra/intersentential switches is 241, 221 of which were classified as intrasentential and only 20 classified as intersentential. The majority of switches occur within the same phrase or sentence where speakers inserted items from Arabic or Tamazight phrase or sentence. The other type occurred when speakers uttered a complete phrase or sentence in a given language and then changed to the other language in the next phrase or sentence. In this type of occurrences, sometimes speakers would alternate between pure and borrowed items in the other language as they switch.

Also, as shown in last table, in the switches in the spoken data, Tamazight was the ML for 175 phrases and sentences out of 257 total utterances (of which 202 involved CS), the clear majority of the utterances. The switches in these data included content words such as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs. Proper nouns were not considered either as switches or as borrowings because they do not

change when used by the speakers of the other language. Switches occurred between both Tamazight and MSA and between Tamazight and LA.

As shown in some examples in the data, by switching to MSA, speakers made their speech seem to be more formal because MSA is believed by many speakers of Arabic to be more appropriate variety to use when talking about certain topics in a TV setting, such as religion. It is worth mentioning here that not all speakers used MSA as they switched from Tamazight to Arabic. Instead, they also switched to Libyan Arabic.

Speakers may have also switched to LA since it is the variety that everyone speaks in Libya, and may be easier to get their message through to their Libyan audience, who in addition to being Tamazight speakers were also speakers of Libyan Arabic. The use of LA can also serve as a secure refuge for the participants in the data to switch to comfortably whenever they did not know the equivalent Tamazight words or expressions.

The relationship between the two languages and what role each language played in the interaction was shown in the nature and tokens of the switches. In these data, I found examples that are consistent with Myers-Scotton's findings, where language choice is made as phrases and sentences are constructed.

With regard to the news reports that were read by people off camera, they were mostly in Tamazight, but speakers inserted Arabic items such as nouns and adjectives into their speech.

Thus, with regard to research question one; it is clear that Myers-Scotton's model can account for the types of CS in the data

with no problematic cases that the model cannot handle. The importance the 4-M model of CS in this study is to facilitate the recognition and classification of the relationship between the two languages. Two types of CS are apparent in the data: intersentential and intrasentential switches. These types of switches inform us what role each language has played in the data and for what purposes speakers exploited their linguistic resources within the exchanges.

Tamazight was the native language of the speakers, and it often supplied the syntactic structure as well as system morphemes and many content morphemes. Despite the differences between the two sets of data in terms of the nature of the CS that took places, the CSs were similar in terms of the role each of the two languages played in the overall interaction. In contrast to the spoken data, where both languages served as ML, and EL; in the read-aloud data system morphemes such as singular and plural markers, possessives, and gender markers were supplied by Tamazight (ML), while Arabic played the role of the EL, which provided the content morphemes to which many of those system morphemes, were attached.

Research Question Two

What influence does Arabic have over the post February 17, 2011, Tamazight language in a TV setting as represented by the Tamazight speakers?

This question looks at the relationship between the two languages in the public space. It also looks at the effects of Arabic on the Tamazight languages used by Tamazight speakers in a TV setting—a formal setting. In this language contact situation, the question examines what role one language, Arabic, might play with

regard to the other language, Tamazight, the language in which the entire program might have been expected to take place in since the program advertised itself as the first Libyan news broadcast in Tamazight.

The data analysis of the nature and types of intrasentential and intersentential switches revealed the relationship between the two languages. It also showed what influence Arabic had over the post-February 17 Tamazight language in this broadcast. As seen from the analysis, the majority of switches took place within the sentences (intrasentential). The majority of these were Arabic items inserted within the Tamazight sentence. Arabic often played the role of the EL, supplying content morphemes. These content morphemes come in the form both single words such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives and phrases. Arabic's role is also seen in providing religious phrases, fixed expressions, and terms of address used in the data and used by all speakers of Tamazight.

Moreover, other items such as prepositions, discourse markers, numbers also come from the Arabic language in most cases. Additionally, with regard to the spoken data, certain utterances (n=17) were entirely in Arabic, fewer than half the utterances that were entirely in Tamazight (n=38), and code switched utterances in which Arabic served as ML (n=27) accounted for only 13% of the utterance in which code switching occurred.

In terms of the discourse marker, /jaʕni/, there are two forms of this particular DM: /jaʕni/ and //maʕa:nta/. Three speakers in the spoken data used /jaʕni/, and only one speaker, the young girl, used the other form, /maʕa:nta/.

Arabic numbers were found in both data sets. In the spoken data, they are found in both ordinal and cardinal forms; whereas in the read-aloud data, they were found in the cardinal form only. Tamazight numbers, on the other hand, were only found in the spoken data as ordinals. They were not found in the read-aloud data in any form.

The other type of switches was intersentential switches, in which speakers move from one language to another as they move from one phrase/sentence to another. Myers-Scotton's model can account for the cases of CS between Tamazight and Arabic. In this data set, problematic cases were not found.

Likely, because of the similarities between the two languages, there were no problematic cases found that require the application of the 4-M Model. Both Arabic and Tamazight are Afro-Asiatic languages. Their typology is similar, and they have been in contact for a long period. This similarity and long-time contact seemed to bring the two languages much closer to each other.

The types of switches seen in these data agree with Myers-Scotton MLF model (1993) and the findings of earlier research on CS. In the spoken data, both languages play the role of both the ML and EL. Additionally, whenever we find the ML, it is the main supplier of structure and system morphemes whereas the EL provides content morphemes speakers need to communicate their message, which they sometimes cannot effectively do in the ML.

With regard to numbers, Arabic was the main source of the majority of the numbers in the data and the unique source for numbers in the read-aloud data. Arabic numbers came both in the

ordinal and cardinal forms whereas in Tamazight, there were only 5 tokens of cardinal numbers such as /tu:ha u:ʒut/ “this is first.” Overall, 25 occurrences of Arabic numbers are found in this data set. Arabic negations are more common in the data than Tamazight negations.

In response to the first research question, both languages served as (ML) and (EL). In this data, Tamazight was generally the (ML), and Arabic the (EL) providing most of the content morphemes. Speakers switched between Tamazight and Modern Standard Arabic as well as between Tamazight and Libyan Arabic. The read aloud news reports were generally in Tamazight with Arabic items inserted within the Tamazight sentences and phrases. Myers-Scotton’s MLF model accounts for the code switching between the two languages with no problematic cases that the model could not handle.

In answering the second research question, the study found that there were two types of code switching within the data: intrasentential and intersentential switches. The majority of the switches that took place in this data were the inintrasentential, in which Arabic items were inserted in the Tamazight sentences and CPs. Also, in this type of the switching, Arabic often played the role of the EL supplying content morphemes as well as supplying religious phrases. In the other type of switching, the intersentential, speakers completely switched from one language to the other.

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Characteristics of Libyan EFL Inspectors' Supervision from the Stand Point of Teachers

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Abstract

As we all know, inspectors of English play a significant role in enhancing and motivating English language teachers for teaching English in schools. Hence, this paper attempts to investigate the types and content of English as a foreign language (EFL) inspectors' observations or feedback about teaching English in Libya and how the observed teachers' view and perceive them. In this study, qualitative methodology was adopted for collecting the required data and analyzing them through open-ended questionnaire that was delivered to 62 EFL Libyan teachers; and semi-structured interviews were conducted with 13 participants. The main results indicated that the feedback provided by inspectors were generally evaluative and judgmental. The results, also, show that teachers are not satisfied with their inspectors' feedback, in which they believed that this sort of observation did not lead to significant improvement of the teachers' performance. By the end of this study, pedagogical implementations are suggested to make the process of inspection more production and beneficial in Libyan schools.

Keywords: *Observation; inspectors, inspectors' feedback; teachers of English as a foreign language*

1. Introduction

Educational inspection is one of the most important factors in raising the teacher's competence and developing their performance. The role of the educational inspector, as an educational supervisor, contributes effectively to the improvement of the teachers' performance and enhances them to reassess themselves. In teaching and learning process, inspectors' supervision has a significant role in improving the desired outcomes (Alkutich, 2015). Daresh (2001) defines inspectors' supervision as "a process of overseeing the ability of people to meet the goals of the organization in which they work" (p. 25).

Many studies have emphasized the importance of the inspector's supervision in developing the performance of the teacher (Sullivan and Glanz, 2000; Oliva and Pawlas, 2001; Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon, 2005). Inspector's feedback can provide teachers and administrators with a clear picture of how teachers are carrying out instruction and the ways that curriculum, teaching materials, and methods of assessment are implemented within and across levels; difficulties that students may encounter; advantages and challenges of using technology; and promising instructional practices that can be shared with other teachers.

With regard to teaching English as a foreign language (EFL), the matter becomes more urgent and important as the teacher always needs to update his/her knowledge regarding the language, and his/her skills with regard to teaching methods and techniques. On the other hand, the need to learn how to use new technology in teaching is considered important for the teacher. Basically, the first source of all this information is mainly the inspector.

The inspector's role lies in what he/she delivers as feedback for the teacher, which takes several forms and methods. Hence, Altaieb and Omar (2015) emphasizes the role of inspectors in motivating teachers to teach effectively in classroom. However, studying the type of this feedback and how it is delivered is very important in tracking its impact and effectiveness on the educational process. Hence, this study is an attempt to explore the types of feedback provided by EFL inspectors to Libyan EFL teachers from the stand point of the teachers themselves.

Moreover, inspectors' feedback will be classified and discussed in light of what has been proposed by the specialists and previous studies to see whether the instructions provided by the inspectors to the teachers are successful and consistent with the latest studies in this field, or are there points that need to be reviewed by the inspector or the teacher.

2. Literature Review

This part of the study covers the literature review that talks about the theme of the study

2.1 Defining Inspection

Many scholars have suggested different definitions of inspectors' supervision but some of these definitions appear to be incongruent with each other. Anderson (1982), for instance, argues that the terminology of supervision is confusing because that there are "many perplexing and challenging problems" (p.181) in the field.

Allan (1990) also characterizes the term as a lot of obligations with a plan to assist instructors with developing themselves for

proficient fulfilments. Daresh (2001) utilizes the term in a more extensive instructive setting, alluding to its dynamic procedure encouraging instructional improvement in the general nature of training.

In Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary (1998), supervision is defined as "the action, process, or occupation of supervising; especially, a critical watching and directing as of activities or a course of action" (p. 1184). Focussing on school supervision, Sullivan and Glanz (2000) maintain that this type of supervision essentially alludes to a method wherein an authority would evaluate a teacher's performance detecting errors in order to keep up the teaching of syllabi in away corresponds with the inspector's experience. Similarly, Duke (1987) states that supervision guarantees upkeep and improvement of standards.

It is worth mentioning that teacher supervision has experienced an extreme change, and inspector's practice likewise has advanced since the mid-twentieth century. The move has been from keeping up the current models of guidance when it initially seemed to coordinating endeavors towards teachers' improvement of guidance and giving proficient development. The great focus on teacher development is reflected in the sheer assortment of supervision models and their separate improvement after some time.

2.2 Types of Inspectors' Supervision and Feedback

Few studies have focused on the types of feedback the inspector provides to the teacher, while the focus has been on educational inspection models. But what is meant by models of educational inspection? Basically this means feedback patterns, instructions and

advice that the inspector provides to the teacher. If not, then what does it mean? Therefore, we will discuss in this part educational inspection models for types of feedback. Each model of educational inspection model provides a specific type of feedback that differs from others in terms of its goal and the way it is presented to the teacher.

Here, we will present the models proposed by researchers chronologically. As the passage of time and its accompanying developments in the field of language teaching and learning, and the development of curricula and methods of tests in addition to the achievements of educational psychology all this was reflected in the research related to the tasks of the inspector and the type of feedback and how to provide it.

Classification of the models of educational inspection is highly based on the roles of inspectors and the types of feedback delivered to teachers. Inspectors' roles "have moved from being largely judgmental and evaluative to being more developmental in focus" (Bailey, 2006, p. 6). For example, Abrell (1974) suggests a humanistic inspection in which the relationship between the inspector and the teacher is a friendly one. The inspector respects and enhances the teacher. Based on a participant teacher in a study by Omar (2014) "we are inspected like 3 times a year, I think. So, there are, we have inspectors, who came to, to inspect us and to see how our students perform" (p. 295).

The humanistic idea of inspection considers teachers as colleagues instead of subjects with an accentuation on teachers' pride, poise, proficient objectives, and individual opportunity. The inspector is assumed to function as guide and source person

interacting with teachers in a smooth, friendly and collaborative way.

Moreover, Goldsberry (1988) suggests three models of instructive supervision laid out as (a) nominal (b) correcting and (c) reflective model. The essential objective of nominal supervision is to keep up the norm. This kind of supervision is favoured when time is constrained and when the inspector is endeavouring to agree to standard legitimate necessities. The correcting model is intended for treating any diagnosed problem.

Therefore, the inspector is required to have analytic aptitudes and extensively higher information than the teacher being observed, so as to amplify advantages of ability. The last model of reflective supervision drives teachers to reflect on their way of teaching as much as their real teaching practices. The reflective model "is based upon using and developing the expertise of the teacher to examine ideal purposes and procedures for teaching and to refine present performance accordingly" (Goldsberry, 1988, p. 7).

Clark (1990) suggests a model which is based on six different roles an inspector may have. Explicitly the roles of an inspector are judgmental, non-judgmental, clerical, cooperative, responsive and clinical supervision. Freeman (1982) recommends three ways to deal with teacher inspecting relying upon the role of the inspector; here he uses the term supervisor rather than inspector: 1) the supervisor as powers 2) the supervisor as a provider of elective points of view 3) the supervisor as non-order figure. Gebhard (1984) seems to have developed Freeman's model and concocts five models of educational inspection (supervision): 1) directive, 2) alternative, 3) collaborative, 4) non-directive, and 5) creative.

In light of the different views towards educational inspection, the clinical inspection has picked up acknowledgment in numerous instructive settings as it gives most extreme significance to the improvement of guidance in the way of collaborative environment. Clinical inspection is considered as collaborative, interactive, teacher-centered, increasingly solid, target and increasingly engaged. Acheson and Gall (1997) define clinical inspection as “the professional development of teachers, with an emphasis on improving teachers' classroom performance” (p. 1).

This new model is designed to be shared equally by the inspector and the teacher in a collaborative environment that includes the encouraging the positive views and ideas held by the teacher toward the teaching and learning process (Acheson and Gall, 1997; Stoller, 1996).

The clinical inspection model includes three basic stages. The planning, the primary step of inspection, alludes to a meeting between inspector and teacher during which they explain concerns, need, and discuss the expected problems and solutions and agree on the objectives of the next classroom visit (Sullivan and Glanz, 2000).

The next stage concerns a classroom visit during which the inspector observes the teacher on the ground of implementing the objectives and procedures discussed in the planning meeting. In this stage, the inspector observation focuses on the classroom management, classroom interaction, teaching skills, and how and to what extent the teacher uses the resources.

The last phase of clinical inspection is the feedback meeting. In this one to one conference both the teacher and inspector discuss the observational gathered information with the end goal of diagnosing difficulties and problems in order to suggest solutions. This colleague conference gives a good opportunity to the teacher to come up with his/her conclusion and solutions regarding the data collected during the inspector visit.

Consequently, the feedback meeting may transform into a new planning conference in which the inspector and the teacher work together to collect more data about all aspects of teaching and learning.

Having reviewed the literature related to inspectors' supervision models, it can be concluded that each model is determined and characterized by the type of feedback provided to the teacher and the accompanied procedures. This exploratory study aims to investigate the nature of EFL inspectors' supervision in the Libyan context according to the teachers' perspectives.

3. Methodology of the Study

The aim of this study is to find out through qualitative and analysis of collected data the characteristics of Libyan EFL inspectors' supervision from the stand point of the teachers. During the academic year (2018/2019), sixty-two (N =62) EFL teachers participated in this study from the cities of Bani Walid and Misurata. Their teaching experience ranges from two to 16 years. The participants are all teachers in government middle and high schools.

Due to the nature of the study, its aim and its questions, the qualitative approach was adopted to collect and analyse data. An

open-ended questionnaire was distributed to all the participants. The questionnaire raised open questions that investigate the teachers' point of view about the types of feedback provided by the inspectors and the way in which this feedback was provided.

After the preliminary analysis of the data derived from the questionnaire, 13 teachers from the sample were randomly selected to be interviewed. In this semi-structures interview, many of the points mentioned in the answers of the participants in the questionnaire were discussed in depth in order to understand and explain the teachers ’opinions about the inspection process.

4. Results and Discussion

The data resulting from the questionnaire and the interviews in this study showed that the initial information related to the nature, frequency and duration of the inspectors’ visit was very similar. 96% of the respondents confirmed that the inspector visited them in the classroom three times during the academic year in which the study was conducted (2018/2019). As for the duration of each visit, it varied from 20 to 40 minutes. The majority of the participants in the study (90%) asserted that during all the visits they were not aware of the date of the visit and did not know anything about its exact purpose (Rahmany, Hasani, and Parhoodeh, 2014).

Therefore, many of the teachers participating in the study do not see that these few and short visits contribute to their development and improve their performance. The necessity for them to have prior knowledge of them in order to prepare their problematic issues and to raise any difficulties they face related to teaching methods or linguistic aspects.

4.1 Inspectors' Feedback

Regarding the way inspectors provide their feedback to the teachers, the data obtained indicated that verbal feedback is only that which the teachers receive from the inspectors. As for written feedback, no one of the participants referred to it, and it is not used by the inspectors except in a narrow range, which is the visit log, where the inspector writes some general routine notes that teachers often do not see. This is not considered a negative point, as many studies have shown that verbal feedback is preferred by the teacher. However, when the notes are many and related to complex matters, the written feedback is better for maintaining and following it at any time and reviewing it when needed.

With regard to the timing of providing the feedback to the teacher, the data showed that 96% of the study participants received the inspector's feedback immediately after the inspector's observation, while only 4% participants indicated that the inspector provided some useful instructions before entering the classroom for observation and then followed them with some notes after his exit. This is one of the indications that the inspector's goal is more evaluative and judgmental than training and developing. This is consistent with Goldsberry's (1988) nominal model.

As for the observation in the classroom, very few (2%) of the teachers said that the inspector had provided some comments. However, these notes were formulated to correct some linguistic errors or elaborate some grammatical rules. One teacher maintained that this feedback during the presentation of the lesson "*caused me a lot of embarrassment in front of the students and confused me when I went back to presenting the lesson again*" (Teacher 34).

On the other hand, all the participants emphasized that the inspector provided feedback to each teacher alone. It has not happened that the inspector provided feedback to all school teachers in a conference that includes them all. It is worth mentioning that a one-to-one conference is useful and important, where the teacher can identify his strengths and weaknesses and can compete with the inspector in every detail and present to him any suggestions regarding his students and the course.

However, the group conference is useful for all teachers where common problems are raised and general issues are discussed. The inspector can also transfer his/ her experiences and those of other teachers in other schools to these teachers for benefit. However, the limited time for the visit and the ability for all teachers to be present at the same time to meet the inspector are all things that hinder the holding of such a conference.

4.2 Content of the Feedback

The data drawn from the questionnaire indicated that the inspectors adopt a method of asking questions without giving any further explanation, or guidance. The inspectors' questions focus, according to what the teachers see, on two aspects: one of them is related to the teaching process and the other considers the linguistic aspects.

In terms of the teaching process, inspectors are concerned with the extent of the teacher's commitment to the time plan for teaching syllabus. The inspector asks questions about what units have been accomplished in the course and what remains of them, and about the number of exams that have been completed. Nevertheless, a number

of teachers participating in the study showed that they were more comfortable to follow the inspector to implement the study plan. The inspector's follow-up obliges the teacher to adhere to the study plan.

However, focusing on adherence to the study plan on its temporal side does not guarantee its qualitative implementation. This is something referred to by more than one teacher who participated in the study. For example, one of the teachers commented on this aspect saying: "*The teacher may implement the plan in time, but the student's achievement is below the target level.*" Although adherence to the schedule is important, the student's achievement aspect should not be neglected in this period of time.

The use of the Arabic language is another matter that some inspectors are interested in. Many inspectors caution not to overuse the Arabic language, especially when other alternatives are available, such as pictures, body language, or easy synonyms. One of the teachers noticed that the inspector had warned him not to use the Arabic language even though the teacher did not use the Arabic language while the inspector visited him. This indicates that the inspector's notes were observations that he used to direct to the teachers during all his visits.

The linguistic aspect of the inspection process is focused on pointing out some grammatical and spelling errors, and little attention to developing basic skills. The data obtained from the questionnaire indicated that most of the teachers (77%) emphasized that inspectors often alerted to some grammatical or spelling errors that they noticed on the blackboard or in students' notebooks.

Some teachers noted that the inspector sometimes warns of an error, but does not indicate the correctness to the teacher, and suffices to tell the teacher that she/he must pay attention to the grammatical or spelling aspects. Perhaps this is due to the lack of time allocated for the inspection visit and the subsequent dialogue between the teacher and the inspector, which is often very short, as we mentioned earlier.

4.3 Teachers' Perception of Inspector Visits

Several teachers in this study expressed dissatisfaction with inspectors' visits. 69% of the study participants indicated that they feel anxious and nervous when the inspector visits them, and that they would wish there was no inspection at all. Probably the reason for this feeling among some of them is that the inspector seemed to be like an investigator or a policeman detecting the mistakes of the teacher. This sort of impression might be attributed to the "unpleasant responsibilities such as providing negative feedback, ensuring that teachers adhere to program policy, and even firing employees if the need arises" (Bailey, 2006, p. 5).

However, a small percentage (13%) of the participants said that they welcome the visit of the inspector and behave in a normal way when entering the classroom. These teachers indicated that there is little benefit from the inspection visit at the professional level.

From what was mentioned previously, it becomes clear that the inspection visits and the accompanying feedback do not deviate from a single pattern, which is the evaluation method that aims to evaluate the performance of the teacher in order to promote or allow them to continue in teaching. There is no clear indication that the

goal of inspection visits and the feedback directed to teachers is to develop the teacher and overcome the difficulties they face.

This ensures that the study participants did not refer to any serious and prolonged dialogue between the inspector and the teacher, either on an individual or group level. The visits did not exceed three visits per academic year, and each visit did not exceed 40 minutes in the best case. In terms of content, the feedback did not cover all the pedagogical aspects of teaching, nor all the scientific and linguistic aspects that the teacher needs to develop his/her abilities and improve his/her performance.

Hence, the educational authorities and the Educational Inspection Office should strive to update the inspector's work protocols, and more focus should be made on shifting the objectives of the inspection from evaluating the teacher's performance to the developing of teacher's competence and skills to improve the entire teaching process and to reach desired learning outcomes. The inspector's stereotype must be changed to a better one that the teacher welcomes as a guide, a source of expertise, and an aid to the development and improvement of performance.

5. Conclusion

This study tried to explore the perception of Libyan EFL teachers of inspection visits and the accompanying feedback provided by inspectors to teachers. 62 teachers from the cities of Bani Walid and Misurata participated in this study, and they expressed their opinions through a questionnaire that was distributed to them followed by semi-structured interviews with 13 participants.

The results indicated that the prevailing pattern of inspection visits and the accompanying feedback was an evaluative and judgmental. This type of inspection is not expected to make a significant improvement in the performance of teachers, or raise their efficiency. Probably this study is the only one, as far as we know, that sheds light on this aspect in Libyan context.

Therefore, it is recommended that the educational authorities should give this matter great importance and review the rules and regulations related to the inspection process, its objectives and procedures. The study aspires to open the door to more studies related to the inspection process, since the English language is a foreign language in Libya and needs more attention to reach the desired outcomes that achieve the goals of its teaching.

The study also suggests further research on the role of the English language inspector and programs to develop their capabilities. Other studies should be concerned with the relationship between inspectors and teachers and how feedback should be provided. By this, we can reach a noticeable improvement in the performance of the teacher and the inspector, which in turn leads to an improvement in student achievement and the improvement of the entire process of teaching and learning.

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The Use of Wordplay in Teaching English Language in Libyan Schools

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Abstract

It is a matter of fact that wordplay is one of the most effective and important tools in teaching any language for some common speech events. Wordplay has been developed differently. We have put the old words into new uses to form new expressions, largely for novelty or intelligence, although the results vary. Wordplay means the expression of thought, feeling, and emotion. It is an expression of the heart of language, and whole way of feeling, seeing, and expressing. The creation and use of speech play is one of the important and perpetually operative factors bringing about changes in the meaning and enjoyment of teaching excellence languages, not meaningless talks or speech errors, as many people think. Teaching and understanding wordplay is part of the process of understanding the second language acquisition, and jokes are part of the charm tool that helps students to learn about the new the language they are studying. Learning to understand jokes in a new language is both a cause, and a consequence, of language proficiency. The most obvious benefit of teaching and understanding speech play is that it can help students feel more comfortable in their new language.

Keywords: *Wordplay; songs; learning theory; second language learning.*

1. Introduction

This study looked at an area of second language learning that has been infrequently considered. Examples of language play have often been employed in the classroom for their motivational value. Wordplay is one of those important devices in second language learning that has been largely ignored in the teaching profession.

English language students in Libyan universities are constantly bombarded with creative uses of language in the form of puns, slang, and idioms in conversation in their lectures which they were not get used to. So, teachers generally relegate these types of examples of creative language use to a second plane in the classroom with the aim of amusing and motivating, and not as part of the serious' study of language. The current study proposes that it may be worthwhile to look more deeply into the use and function of such expressions. If we get serious about using language wordplay in our universities, there are implications for setting up language programs, developing curricula, creating materials, and planning classroom activities.

This study indicated that when students learn a series of play of words, they would attain a greater understanding of the double meaning and the humor inherent in the puns in almost all cases. Also, it will introduce a brief overview of the theoretical framework of teaching wordplay in teaching English as a second language, followed by the elucidation of the purpose and the research questions, an introduction to the methodology, the statement of the significance, assumptions and limitations, and pertinent definitions.

2. Literature Review

This part of the study is dedicated to the literature review regarding the topic of the study.

2.1 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to analyze the triple interaction that would occur when the students who learn English as a second language of low or advanced level cooperate with the task of decoding the double meaning of a series of wordplay. Also, it investigates the assistance that students provide to each other in their alternating roles as advanced or beginners and the effectiveness of the task in promoting learners' attention to some phonological, syntactical, and lexical aspects of the language. It sought some evidences through some analysis of the dialogic process and through searching and studying that led to an obvious understanding of the unclearness of the wordplay in teaching process that may guide us to investigate the answer of the research question later, which is how does learning occur?

This study was based on the definition of learning as an interpersonal and intrapersonal process, in which attention to form and meaning is a major factor. The study reflects the theory of language as a dynamic, complex, and creative system within the theory of language wordplay as an important element in second language learning.

2.2 Language and Wordplay

The importance of metaphor was taking hold, according to Huizinga (1970) "Behind every abstract expression there lies the boldest of metaphors, and every metaphor is a play upon words.

Thus in giving expression to life, man creates a second, poetic world alongside the world of nature". He added that "we are imprisoned by language and what we need to do is 'smash language' before we can learn to think properly". Thus, the conventions of language must be stretched to reveal wider possibilities for language and thought**.**

It is an important creative function of language as an expression and development of thought that people are looking for to interact with in unique human ways. This creative function often finds expression through imaginative and innovative manipulation of the meanings and forms of language through the various types of language play.

Scholars speculated that the first function of language is found in language wordplay in its various forms: lies, fictions, fantasies and games, since it is in these creative uses of language that human social organization and complex knowledge have emerged. In Cook's (2000) view, language play frees the mind from obligation and constraint and refreshes, rearranges, and provides the free play of ideas on which creative thinking depends. Also, Cook found it surprising that language wordplay, being so important socially, personally and educationally had been largely ignored in the definition of language. He considered language play, especially puns, to be one of the most important dimensions of language adding that "My premise is that puns illuminate the nature of language in general".

Wordplay is a latent resource of language, and certain temperaments simply will not resist trying to mine and exploit this rich ore. He speculated that the neglect of language wordplay in descriptions of language was due to the view of language as an

information exchange system, and the scientific mindset that dismisses language wordplay as being too trivial a topic for serious study. Redfern (1984) freed language from the constraints of a positivist description. He dismissed the notion of the linguist L.G. Kelly (1971) that ambiguity in language is undesirable, but is, rather, a source of its richness he suggested that, puns are essence to language, citing the availability.

The creative aspect of language is manifested in the various forms of language wordplay. A parallel can be drawn with the concept of play in student development in sociocultural learning theory. Just as Cook (2000) insisted on the necessity of including language play in serious studies of language. Also, he considered wordplay among students as a fundamental activity for development, and not simply as an unclear diversion.

The presence of wordplay in language learning indicates the importance development of speaking skills for our students of English language departments. So, these indications show that the importance of the use wordplay learning had a great effect on second language learning and help the students practice and play with new forms for their own amusement or to amuse those around them, as well as it is the best way for them to learn to argue in English.

Peck (1980) found that language play served to motivate and to provide practice in sound sequences and supra segmental, lexical, and syntactic variations. Also, he ascertained that language wordplay was much more frequent than they had expected and that students played with language forms (sounds, rhythms and structures) and created imaginary situations.

So, we may say that the value of using puns, mostly in the second language learning in classroom, could be a useful pedagogical tool that could aid the students in enlarging vocabulary and in explaining some of the anomalies of English spelling, syntax, and phonology. I think the ability of analyzing puns could also give the students insights into how they could manipulate the language and prepare them to understand the subtleties of English literature.

As noted in this section that concerning the nature of language wordplay, suggested that the first function of language is found in language play in its various forms: fictions, fantasies and games, since it is in these creative uses of language that human social organization and complex knowledge have emerged.

Hence, the fundamental role of language wordplay in first language acquisition may indicate a similar role in students' second language learning. The use of wordplay in languages widespread, is highly valued of social and cognitive importance. Knowing second language, and being able to function in communities which use that language, entails being able to understand and produce play with it, making this ability a necessary part of advanced proficiency.

This study suggests that the task of deciphering the ambiguities in puns is a means for low advanced and advanced ESL learners to attend to language form and meaning. The wordplay permeates language at the three levels of linguistic form, semantic meaning, and pragmatic use. Puns are an extreme case of a use of language in which exact wording is essential in which language itself seems to dictate meaning, rather than the other way around. In puns, pragmatic intention and information (meaning and use) do not always drive lexis, grammar, and phonology (form). There is a back-

and-forth movement. The use of puns offers a way for language teachers to avoid the dualism between formalism and functionalism, since in puns form and function exert a dynamic, reciprocal influence upon each other.

2.3. The Nature of Language

This study makes the assumption that language is a system that individuals can make meaning as well as exchange information. Language, according to Omar (2018) is a "system of symbols arranged and ordered in various syntactic structures, constructed arbitrarily from vocal symbols. People later use language communicatively with others who live and share the same cultural values and symbolic representations" (p. 379).

Language can be understood only in terms of its use, and through use, the language system constantly changes. The force for change in language comes from smashing the existing conventions, and one way that this is done through language wordplay. In this regard, Omar (2014) advises the use of wordplay as one of the most effective strategies in teaching English as a foreign language in Libyan schools.

Wordplay involves the unpredictable manipulation of language forms at different linguistic level to provide entertainment and amusement to the speaker and to others. This transposition usually had a bizarre effect of the initial sounds of words adjacent in a phrase. The new meanings mostly have a sense of humor such as in these ones:

"*Let me sew you to a sheet, for:* show you to a seat*".*

"You have hissed the mystery lectures, for: missed the history".

"Start your journey with a well boiled icicle, for: will oiled bicycle*".*

Wordplay appears early in children's first language development **(**Cazden, 1974; Weir, 1962) and continues to be practiced among adults in all societies in such varied forms as the apparent frivolity of disguised speech, riddles, and puns to the seriousness of poetry and literature. Studies of children's first language development (Cook, 2000; Cazden, 1974; Chukovsky, 1968**)** have shown the prevalence and importance of wordplay, both in private and social speech.

So, students seem to notice phonological, morphological, syntactical, and lexical elements in the language they hear, and subsequently experiment with these features in creative, playful ways in their own production. Through this experimentation, students develop metalinguistic awareness and proficiency in their native language. Some experts suggested that language play may play a role in adult second language learning.

Yet, very little attention has been given to speech play to the studies of our English language departments. The lack of attention to wordplay is probably due not only to the notion that play is the province of children, but also to the view that language is a transactional activity, practical in nature.

In addition, positivist researchers consider science as being concerned with "useful facts rather than frivolous fictions**"** (Cook, 2000, p. 38). However, by eliminating a consideration of wordplay from language learning studies, researchers often neglect to take into

account what humans actually use language for, or which aspects of that use are most important to them.

To understand examples of wordplay such as puns, it is necessary for our students to be aware of the linguistic source of the ambiguity noted the importance of paying attention to the various aspects of language in their own learning of English language. It was not enough to hear streams of language from the television or in conversations of native speakers for learning to occur. Being aware of the forms as they related to meaning and use was essential for uptake to occur.

Wordplay is a particularly apt choice for encouraging the noticing of form, meaning, and use, since in them form, meaning, and use are intricately related. The double meaning of the pun lies in the phonological, morphological, and syntactical forms being exploited. So noticing the event must first be observed before it can be consciously registered. Attention is a concept that wordplay has a primary role in the learning theory that underlies this study.

In addition to the creative possibilities of the pun, and of special interest to this study, is reference to the power of the pun that keeps us on the alert and to respond to puns is an indication that makes us stretch our minds and double our attention. As it will be discussed below, attention is an important aspect of learning, including second language learning. This study reflects Redfern's position that puns are a way of drawing second language learners' attention to linguistic aspects of the target language.

Wordplay is one of the most important dimensions of language and yet most definitions and descriptions of language consider it a

peripheral issue. The reason for this may lie in the positivist conception of language as an abstract system. Language wordplay was a subject of many studies with different expressions titles as an important topic for serious literary field studies.

However, as noted by Cook (2000), language wordplay should not be seen as at odds with language work, nor as subordinate to it, a peripheral and somehow less important aspect of the study of language, but as the source of language knowledge, use, and activity. This study accepts language wordplay as an important element in the notion of language as an interactional and creative system.

Language wordplay is a vehicle for change in language and also a means of drawing attention to the relation between language form, meaning, and use. The possibility that wordplay in language as form of puns may contribute adult of second language learning that motivates the selection of the task of deciphering the double meaning of puns. So, we may say that learning is a social as much as a psychological phenomenon, prompted the adoption of the sociocultural theory of learning as the theoretical framework of language learning.

2.4 The Use of Wordplay in Teaching

This study is based on a previous investigation conducted by some colleagues and my own experience as an English language teacher for more than thirty years in Libya or in Europe. The objectives of this study were to determine if advanced ESL learners could understand the humor created by the double meaning of puns in English and to discern the cognitive and interactional strategies

utilized by the participants in their attempts to understand the ambiguous texts. Teachers had frequently employed humorous texts and situations in the classroom to attract attention and heighten motivation, but felt that understanding humor might play a more central role in language acquisition, given that humor is an integral part of all cultures found in all languages and in every aspect of life.

The ubiquity of humor makes the understanding and appreciation of the humor of the target language very important for second language learners who wish to achieve advanced proficiency in the language. Achieving the goal of comprehending humorous texts, and further, finding them funny. However, it requires that the learner grasp the special characteristics of the target language and culture that create the significance and wit of humorous texts. But we should not forget that great deal with wordplay depends on incongruity for its effect. So, it could have incongruity results from double meanings.

For this reason, some language scholars had selected the deciphering of the double meaning of puns as the task for their investigation. The results of their study indicated that the learners advanced in their understanding of the double meanings of the puns as they conversed as some types of puns were easier to understand than others. That interested me as a teacher and a researcher to study the implications of the results of those scholars' studies for classroom practice prompted my present research.

This study views the puns as examples of language wordplay rather than as instances of humor, although the intention of the creators of puns is often to produce a humorous effect. The term

language wordplay emphasizes the linguistic elements involved in creative uses of language.

Thus, it is more appropriate in the investigation of second language learning. The theoretical framework for this study, consisting of theories of language and of learning, is introduced below and further elaborated later on. The theory of language considers the role of wordplay in the definition of language adopted for the current study.

In fact, wordplay is like any other kinds of linguistic advent-itious terms, which play on language words, which have similar spelling or pronunciation to bring out new useful meaning. Clearly, it is an artistry form of using language words to produce new meaning, and not colloquial speech below the level of standard speech. Wordplay often makes real and important contributions to both vocabulary and idiom. To understand puns person should be aware of ambiguity.

Here are some of these kind puns:

Did you hear about the teacher who was cross-eyed?

He couldn't control his pupils.

This pun is a play on the noun "pupil", which has two meanings.

Pupil (noun)

Student

The small, black circular hole in the middle of the eye **cross-eyed** (adjective):

Having one or both eyes turned inwards towards the nose.

Doctor, doctor, will you help me out?

Certainly, which way did you come in?

The pun is on the expression "to help somebody out".

Help (somebody) out (phrasal verb)

To help somebody to do something; to help somebody with a problem, for example:

I can't eat all this. Can you help me out?

I need another 5 dinners. Can you help me out?

Help (somebody) out (of somewhere) [verb]:

To help somebody to get out of a car, room etc, for example:

Your grandmother will need someone to help her out of the car.

Please help her out of the room and down the stairs.

Teacher: I wish you'd pay a little attention

Student: I'm paying as little as I can.

This pun relies on the important difference between "little" and "a little".

Little is rather negative. It suggests not much, not as much as necessary.

Look at these examples:

Sorry. I can't help. I speak little French

Unfortunately, there is little hope of finding any survivors.

"Little**"** is more positive. It suggests something more like "some". Look at these examples:

Why don't you ask Tom for help? He speaks a little French.

It's okay. There's a little butter in the fridge.

Remember: a little > little

Waiter, waiter, what soup is this?

It's bean soup, sir.

I don't care what it was. I want to know what it is now.

This joke is a double pun. It is possible only because the waiter uses

. . contraction (it's)

It's = it is or it has

It is bean soup

It has been soup

Bean (noun): an edible seed

Been (verb) past participle of "to be".

English language is full of these kinds of wordplay which use puns in teaching its skills during lectures.

2.5. Learning Theory

The theory of wordplay language learning provides the theoretical framework for the concept of learning adopted in this study. The theory suggests that cognitive development occurs through the child's contact with the environment and with others, as well as within the mind. Knowledge in children is first developed on the interpersonal plane with adult guidance or with help from more capable peers, and then moves to the intrapersonal plane, where it becomes a part of the child's cognitive ability.

This internalization consists of a series of transformations, denominated micro genesis, through which external activity is reconstructed and begins to occur internal and is the distinguishing feature of human psychology, the basis of the qualitative leap from animal to human psychology (Chukovsky, 1968).

This paper discusses the dialogic process through which learners co-constructed meaning is centered on the task of deciphering the ambiguity of the puns. The research adopted the concept of 'triadic interaction' from the work to indicate the importance of the role of the task in the meaning making activity. Triadic interaction refers to the interface among two learners and the task being performed. The learners in this type of interaction do not speak face to face bridging some sort of information gap, but work side by side, with a joint focus of activity, the object as a third interlocutor **(**Weir, 1962).

However, the results indicated that the interaction between the participants played an important role in their coming to an understanding of the double meaning of puns verbalizing with a partner allowed an increased understanding of the puns from the initial to the final reaction with each type of speech play. The pair think-aloud process was more than two people thinking, it was two people constructing knowledge together. For this reason, this study proceeded from a sociocultural theoretical framework. Sociocultural theory applied to second language learning is further discussed will follow.

2.6. Occurrence of Learning

To understand any of the wordplay, students learning English must go through several steps. First, they must recognize the

meaning of the original word or phrase. In many cases, there is a common idiom or current phrase that needs to be explained. Then, they must recognize and be able to access a second meaning for one of the words. If it is a close-sounding pun, students must be able to figure out what the other word sounds like, which is a challenging task in one's second language. Then, they need to pull together the two possible meanings of the word and compare them in the context of the phrase or sentence. When all of those steps are complete, there is a moment where the two meanings come together, and it is time to laugh.

Once we unpack all these steps, we gain a new appreciation of the complexity required to understand an English pun. To add to the challenge, most puns are expected to be understood within about a half second. So, the students have come to the conclusion that the hardest of the four categories is close-sounding puns because they are spoken quickly and require making an association between two words that have nothing in common but similar sounds. This often requires an advanced English language proficiency level.

The assumption of this study talks about learning, including language learning, originates in social practices, as reflected in the work of the Russian psychologist Lev Vygotsky (1978). Sociocultural learning theory posits that learning occurs through the process of internalization in the zone of proximal development. Children develop the higher mental functions through play, with voluntary attention being considered as one of the higher mental functions. These basic constructs of sociocultural theory are discussed below.

According to Vygotsky, that internalization is a secondary factor in the development of the most complex, unique forms of human behavior. The development of these behaviors is characterized by complicated, qualitative transformations of one form of behavior into another. These transformations occur through a process he designated as internalization, through which an external activity is reconstructed and begins to occur internally.

As Vygotsky described that learning and development occur through the interaction between the children and the adults in their environment, two types of learning occur. One is that of the elementary functions and is similar to conditioning in animals. It arises out of "the direct influence of external stimuli upon human beings". Exam, a child touches a hot stove and is burned. He learns not to touch the stove again. The second type of learning relates to the higher mental functions and occurs only in human development.

In other words, like the language game, the interaction always develops in a particular context, and is always new. The particular context for studying the phenomenon of second language learning as it mentioned in this study earlier was the triadic interaction in which the learners engaged in the discursive practice of collaborative dialogue, with the task of deciphering the double meaning of the puns as the third corner of the triadic interaction. Puns are an example of language play. As discussed above, children learning first and second languages engage in a great deal of language play. Wordplay also figures in sociocultural theory as an essential concept in the creative learning process.

3. Conclusion

The considerations thus far discussed have laid the theoretical foundations for this study. Language is seen as a complex system that embodies cognition and creative thought, as well as social interaction. Language wordplay is a fundamental element of language, and thus important for achieving competence in a second language. Competence in language cannot be separated from performance, since the nature of language is found in its use.

According to sociocultural theory, second language learning moves from the social to the individual space in the zone of proximal development which, in student second language learning, is often the space created during peer interaction through collaborative dialogue. As students work together in the zone of proximal development**,** they bring their individual strengths and weaknesses, thus creating a situation in which they are alternately novice and expert. Through the collaborative dialogue in which they engage as they complete a task, they construct meaning together. The task constitutes the third element in the triadic interaction, and is the focus of attention for the participants in the dialogue.

The research questions of this study involved the determination of the manner in which pairs of English language students assisted each other in the task of deciphering the double meanings of a series of puns, and whether the collaborative dialogue in which the participants engaged resulted in increased understanding of the ambiguities in the puns. At the same time, the study sought evidence that the task prompted learners to notice the phonological, morphological, syntactical, and lexical aspects of language that created the double meanings in the puns.

This paper explored the theoretical framework with regard to the nature of language and of learning that informed the formulation of the research questions and the choice of the methodology.

Attention, which leads to notice, is an important higher mental function, and is necessary for learning a second language. This study suggests that the task of decoding the double meaning of puns is a means of drawing second language learners' attention to the interplay between form, meaning, and use in the second language, as well as a way of exposing learners to the creative function of the English language. Based on the considerations of the nature of language and learning presented in this paper, l have selected some methodological issues and created the research design of my study.

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Semantic/syntactic Disharmony and Implications on Quality of Translating Medical Texts

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Abstract

Linguistic aspects, as we all know, play a significant role in translating a text from one language into another language. Therefore, this paper aims at identifying aspects of disharmony between semantic and syntactic features that result in meaningless medical translated sentences. A special focus is given to Chomsky's Transformational Generative Theory (TGT) that extrapolates the correlation between deep structure (which determines the semantic features of a sentence) and the surface structure (which determines the syntactic structure of a sentence). The investigation of this study also relies on the concept of 'Selectional Restrictions' which suggests that certain sets of verbs stand with agreement with certain sets of subjects/objects that subsequently lead to the production of semantically acceptable sentences. Accordingly, it is imperative to touch upon aspects related to the Componential Analysis Theory where the meaning of a word is expressed with the assistance of (+) and (-) markers. This study applies prominent semantic theories with the craft of translation, offering real concrete examples extracted from translation tasks by students of Translation Department, Faculty of Languages, University of Tripoli.

Keywords*: Source text (ST); target text (TT); deep structure; surface structure, selectional restrictions.*

1. Introduction

Translation is not an easy task as some may think or believe. Translation requires skills, study, and practice. A lot of conflicts and wars have taken place because of mistakes in translation. As there is no absolute translation, there are some good translations and some others are bad and distorting. Translating medical texts, however, requires specialist not only in the field of translation, but also in the field of medicine. Hence, this study is provided to shed lights on the field of translating medical texts.

2. Literature Review

This part of the study is dedicated to the literature review that are relevant to the topic of the study.

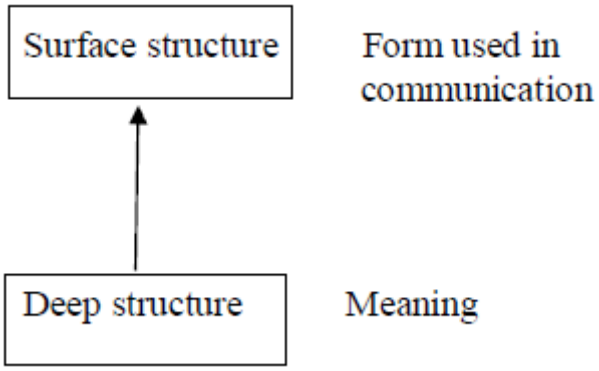
2.1. The Correlation between Deep and the Surface Structures

Deep and surface structures are considered as the most prominent concepts produced by Noam Chomsky, where the deep structure represents the grammatical/syntactic form of a sentence; whereas, the surface structure determines the semantic aspect of it. Chomsky (2002) argues regarding how language processed in the brain to be used later in communicative situations. In this regard, Omar (2019) claims that “we most often fail to express our thoughts into utterance to express what we feel to reality. Language might be seen as a reflection of what is called ‘the human essences’, which mainly indicates that language is rooted within our brain system” (p. 509).

In his Transformational Generative Theory (TGT), Chomsky made an attempt to make a correlation between the syntactic

structure and the semantic aspects of sentences. He points out in his first work *Syntactic Structures* that in every sentence, there are two levels of syntactic structure. The first level is called deep structure (D-structure) which plays an important role in providing the interpretations of sentences; whereas, the second level is the surface structure (S-structure) which is subject to phonological and morphemic rules and involves applying adequate transformations for the deep structure of the given sentence.

(Figure 1) Deep Structure and Surface Structure



In this regard, Lefevere (1993) stresses that deep structure determines the meaning of the sentence, and the surface structure acts as the phonological and morphemic expression of the sentence's deep structure.

According to Chomsky (1957), the grammar of a sentence is "a device of some sort for producing the sentences of the language under analysis" (p. 13), as such linguistic analysis can help differentiate between the grammatical and the ungrammatical sentences and analyze the various structures of sentences. It is suggested that a grammar of a sentence is autonomous of meaning;

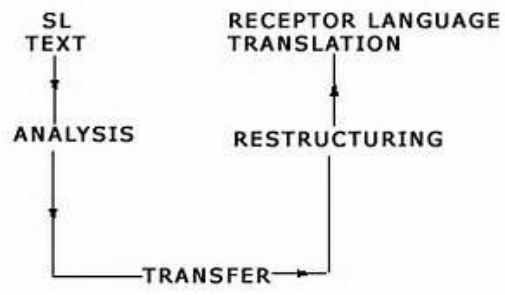
that is, it is expected that a sentence could be grammatically correct but at the same time is considered to be meaningless.

In this regard, Chomsky presented his famous phrase ‘colorless green ideas sleep furiously’ which represents disharmony between the sentence’s deep structure (meaning) and its surface structure (grammar). This phrase is precisely devised to reveal that syntax and semantics could be vastly divergent. Our linguistic competence and knowledge of compositionality tell us that the two semantically contradicting pre-modifiers ‘colorless’ and ‘green’ are not properly combined with the abstract subject ‘ideas’; whereas, the action of sleeping can only be fulfilled by an animate actor. This results in a semantically deviant sentence that could not be used in a normal linguistic context.

2.2. Incorporation of Chomsky’s Model into Translation Science

Upon the emergence of Chomsky’s Transformational Generative Theory, a number of scholars showed interest in applying this theory to the theoretical research of translation. Nida (1964) and Nida and Taber (1969) suggest that this model furnishes the translator with techniques to decode the source text (ST) and procedures to encode the target text (TT). Accordingly, the surface structure of the source text is analyzed into deep structure’s basic elements. In the process of translation such elements are ‘transferred’ and then semantically and stylistically restructured into the TT’s surface structure (Nida and Taber, 1969). In the below figure, the three stages of translation: analysis, transfer, and restructuring are presented:

(Figure 2) Nida's Translation Model



From the above figure, it can be understood that while Chomsky puts focus on generating a surface structure through transformation, Nida goes for, in the purpose of creating an equivalent translation, analyzing the surface structure of the ST by a reversed process of back-transformation.

2.3. Translation and Meaning

Translation is a communication process that involves the analysis, comprehension, and render of meaning. Newmark (1988) as well defines translation by concentrating on the importance of meaning. Since the main objective of translation is the transfer of meaning from the source language into the target and that semantics play an important role in translation; therefore, it is necessary to study theories that tackle the aspect of meaning 'semantics', the branch of linguistics that studies meaning.

However, the process of meaning transfer to another language is often problematic. Catford (1965) highlights that meaning is the 'property of a language', and that the source language text has a source language meaning and the target language text has a target language meaning. Subsequently, any failure in rendering the intended message (meaning) of the source text would end up in a wrong translation.

Based on the above, translations that suffer lack of thematic fit between syntactic structure and semantic components are deemed to be disharmonious. This is clearly evident in the below observation of examples extracted and documented from the mid-term examination performed by students of the eighth semester in the Faculty of Languages, Translation Department (spring, 2018):

Source Text (1):

The prevention and control of common diseases and adolescent health-related problems were the main concern of many parties.

Translation Sample a.1:

لضبط هذه الامراض السارية والمشاكل المتعلقة بصحة المراهقين حيث العديد من الاجزاء الرئيسية المتعلقة.

Translation Sample b.1:

وللتحكم ومنع هذا المرض الشائع وايضا المشاكل الصحية المتعلقة بالمراهقين والتي كانت مصدر للقلق الرئيسي لهذه الاطراف.

Translation Sample c.1:

الوقاية والسيطرة على هذه الامراض المعقدة وصحة المراهقين مرتبطة بالمشاكل التي كانت متعلقة بعدة أجزاء أو عوامل.

Translation Sample d.1:

الوقاية من والتحكم في الامراض الشائعة والمشاكل المتعلقة بصحة المراهقين كانت من أهم المخاوف لعدة أطراف.

Translation Sample e.1:

الوقاية والسيطرة على الأمراض الشائعة والمشاكل الصحية للمراهقين كانا الاهتمام الرئيسي للعديد من الأطراف.

Source Text (2):

Whereas, the contamination of water-supply was the main cause of mortality that requires intensifying of proven cost- effective actions.

Translation Sample a.2:

حيث أن تلوث موفرات الماء كانت السبب الاخلاقي وراء هذه التعزيزات للأعمال الفعالة المكلفة.

Translation Sample b.2:

بينما امدادات المياه الملوثة هي السبب الرئيسي للمبادئ الاخلاقية التي تتطلبها بشدة بأن تبرهن بالأفعال.

Translation Sample c.2:

حيث أن التلوث القادم من المياه الموردة هو السبب الرئيسي للخسائر ومعدل الوفيات التي تتطلب الشدة المثبتة لأداء اقل خسائر وفعالة.

Translation Sample d.2:

ومن جهة أخرى، فقد شكل تلوث موارد المياه العامل الرئيسي للوفيات والذي يتطلب تكثيف الاجراءات التي اثبتت فعاليتها الاقتصادية.

Translation Sample e.2:

في حين يعد تلوث الامداد المائي السبب الرئيسي للوفيات والذي في حاجة لتكثيف الاجراءات الفعالة من حيث التكاليف.

The above translation samples (a.1, b.1, & c.1) and (a.2, b.2, & c.2) are composed of a string of grammatically arranged words which are judged to be grammatical because of their adherence to Phrase Structure Rules (PSR) of target language (Arabic), yet they are deemed to be semantically deviant "meaningless". The unacceptability in the above stated translations are regarded as a

violation to the known syntactic selectional restrictions and thus represent disharmony between deep/surface structures.

On the contrary, the translation examples (d.1& e.1) and (d.2 & e.2) provided above are found to be more or less semantically well-formed and establish harmony between the surface and deep structure, resulting in an acceptable translation product.

2.4. The Concept of 'Selectional Restrictions'

This concept has been introduced to solve the problem of lack of harmony between meaning and structure. Selectional restriction is the co-occurrence constraint or possibility which exists between lexical items. According to Katz (1966), this concept refers to the constraint on the combination of meanings of lexical items that are being indicated by certain semantic features which they carry. Brown and Miller (1985) highlight that anomalous constructions come into surface as a result of co-occurrence of incompatible features. In other words, only certain sets of subjects are capable to stand in agreement with certain sets of verbs.

As mentioned earlier, it is vital to preserve harmony between meaning and structure to produce a meaningful piece of translation. In order to achieve this objective, the translator can adopt one of the methods of analyzing the meaning used in semantics, for instance, the methods of Componential Analysis Method, where a word is analyzed in terms of its wider category which is a component of a further wider unit creating a chain of semantic relationships.

It is pointed out that Componential Analysis is "an assumption that the meaning of a word can be analyzed in terms of a set of semantic features, many of which will form part of the description of

other words in the same language" (Jeffries, 1998, p. 87). The application of this method of analysis involves using the positive (+) marker to express the presence of a feature and negative (-) marker to express the absence of another (Saeed, 2009). For example the term 'physician' includes [+man], [+women], [+adult], [-ignorant], and many others so as these terms are believed to be the components that encapsulates the wider category 'physician'.

According to Newmark (1988) the main process of Componential Analysis Method in translation is to compare the source language (SL) word with the target language (TL) word which carries a similar meaning yet is not considered to be the 'one-to-one equivalent'. Newmark (1998) suggests that "the only purpose of CA in translation is to achieve the highest possible accuracy, inevitably at the expense of economy" (p. 117).

Nida (1964) also presents four basic types of semantic features which are shared by the language being compared: object elements; events elements; relational elements; and quality elements.

Source Text 1a:

(The 33-year old patient was admitted on 21st January, 2010 and underwent an abdominal hysterectomy the next day)

Target Text 1a:

ادخل المريض البالغ من العمر 33 عاما الى المستشفى بتاريخ 21 -01-2010 واجري له عملية استئصال الرحم

In English, the source language of the above text, the subject 'patient' is a common gender noun that denotes either a male or a female; whereas, the object 'abdominal hysterectomy, a medical

term which refers to surgical removal of the women's uterus specifically and having semantic implications of [+ female] and [- male] that requires a female actor. Yet in the Arabic translation, it is noticed that the medical procedure (hysterectomy) has co-occurred with grammatical arguments that carry opposing semantic features of [- female] and [+male]. Accordingly, it is clear that while the ST is totally acceptable, the TT is an odd expression and very deviant due to the lack of thematic fit of the translation.

Target Text 2a:

ادخلت المريضة البالغة من العمر 33 عاما الى المستشفى بتاريخ 21 -01-2010 واجريت لها عملية استئصال الرحم

In (Target Text 2a), the translator attempted to communicate the exact message by performing all necessary alterations and adequate selections needed, resulting in an acceptable translation output. The thematic fit between a verb and the rest of arguments of the sentence play a central role in the composition of the translated sentence.

Moreover, violations to semantic/selectional restrictions of nouns result in deviant structures. According to Larson (1998) in translation there are two types of translation: *form-based translation* and *meaning-based translation*. The Form-based translation is where that translator attempts to follow the exact form of the Source Language known as (literal translation); whereas, the meaning-based translation is where the translator puts his effort to communicate the meaning of the SL text in order to reflect the natural forms of the receptor language as shown in below:

(The 23-year old female patient presented with her past history)

حضرت المريضة البالغ عمرها 46 سنة بماضيها السابق/ بتاريخها السابق

حضرت المريضة البالغ عمرها 46 سنة بسجلها الطبي السابق

In Arabic, the phrase (بماضيها السابق) which is ambiguous between two different kinds of meanings or extensions (connotative and denotative meanings), as it more likely to carry a negative connotation implying a woman with an unfavorable past behavior. However, the translation of the phrase '*her past history'* can be disambiguated if paraphrased into بسجلها الطبي السابق in order to clearly and correctly refer to the previous medical records that the female patient holds and avoid other misinterpretations. Below is another example for the two types of translation :

(It is not known whether Celfixine is excerted in human milk)

Form-Based Translation:

(لم يعرف بعد إذا ما كان سيلفكسيم يفرز في الحليب البشري)

(لم يعرف بعد إذا ما كان سيلفكسيم يفرز في حليب الأم)

2.5. Collocational Restrictions

Based on the fact that selectional restrictions limit options of the co-occurrence of words with other words, this must be applicable, as well, in the case of the creation of collocations. Jeffries (1998) points out that a "collocation" itself is another type of restriction which "usually restrict a word, or a group of words, to occurring with another semantically defined group of words". Thus, it is important for a translator to be aware of such collocational restrictions when producing a target text, as mis-selecting the correct combinations might affect the quality of translation. Firth (1957)

suggests that "you shall know a word by the company it keeps." Palmer (1988) further highlights that "there is probably a limited number of particles that can rightly be included in the combinations".

For example, it is apparently evident that the two English nouns (*medicine*) and (*Drug*) are two medical terms that carry overlapping because of their high semantic similarity. In order to assure the synonymous relationships of the chosen nouns, they were looked up in two synonyms and thesauruses dictionaries; the Merriam-Webster Thesaurus (online) and Oxford Thesaurus: A Dictionary of Synonyms. In both consulted sources the noun drug was mentioned as a synonym of medicine.

One the other hand, the entries of both dictionaries provide explanatory definitions of the usage of these nouns. In the below sentences demonstrate how this synonym set could be used interchangeably:

The drug will be useful to hundreds of thousands of infected people.

The medicine will be useful to hundreds of thousands of infected people.

It is worthy to mention that while in English both nouns are often specified in reference to a substance or preparation used in treating disease, on the contrary the Arabic translation, such interchangeability is totally unacceptable, as it is often connected with illicit misuse of medicine and narcotics:

سيكون المخدر مفيدا بالنسبة لمئات الالاف من الناس المصابين. (unacceptable)

سيكون الدواء مفيدا بالنسبة لمئات الالاف من الاناس المصابين.(acceptable)

Whereas, the replacement of the word (المخدر) by selecting an adequate alternative (عقار) resulted in an acceptable translation, as shown below:

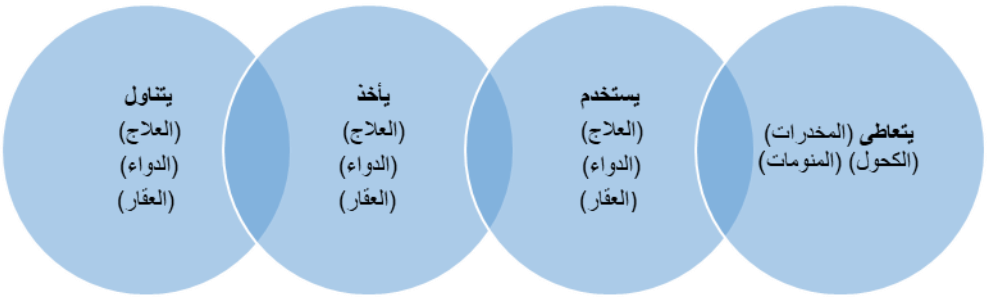
سيكون العقار مفيدا بالنسبة لمئات الالاف من الاناس المصابين.(acceptable)

In addition to selection restrictions put on equivalent items, translators are to be selective, as well, in choosing the appropriate verb that naturally collocates with given nouns.

In Arabic, at first sight it is obvious that the transitive verbs يتناول- يتعاطى – يأخذ appear to have synonymous relationship and are semantically interconnected with an overlapping meanings. In fact, the verb (يتعاطى) in most cases carries a negative connotative meaning that refers to the illicit misuse of medicine or in worse cases to the addiction of narcotics.

The diagram below shows the overlapping relations of these verbs:

(Figure 3) Overlapping Relations of verbs in Sequence



From the above, it is evident that in translation there are selectional restrictions causing that “certain features of meaning are predictable from semantic environment, and that any contradiction of such features will result in an unacceptable utterance” (Leech, 1969). Given the fact that there the Arabic literature suffers a sever

lack of literature 'lexicographical materials' that provide collocational suggestions, translators might commit pitfalls in the selecting the adequate equivalent collection. Emery (1988) highlights that equivalent words in various languages contain various collocational ranges that represent a problem in itself.

2.6. Gradient Acceptability of Selectional Restrictions in Translation

In the spirit of the selectional restriction approach, it is vital to highlight how far it is important for translators to put in consideration the aspect of formality grades and the proper selection of compatible equivalent forms from the linguistic treasury of the target language.

Descending Acceptability Ratings range between formal translation counterparts to less formal equivalence that are less likely to be considered as compatible. In medical translation, unskillful translators tend to translate medical terms literally and disregard the scientific counterparts that should be considered. In this regard, Asher (2011) states that judgments of semantic deviance should always be sharp, whereas a cognitively plausible model should account for gradient acceptability.

The table below show the Arabic medical term, the middle column represents the extremes of acceptability (Scientific Equivalent) and then the odd expression (Literal Translation). For example, the type-based selectional restriction finds otorhinolaryngology as a highly acceptable equivalent, but Nose, Ear & Throat Doctor very deviant.

Table (1) Grades of Acceptability

Source Language Term	Scientific Equivalent (Highly Acceptable)	Literal Translation (Less Acceptable)
انتانات الاذن الوسطى	Otitis media	Middle ear Infections
غسيل المعدة	Gastric lavage	Stomach wash
بدء العلاج	Institution of therapy	To Start of medication
فترة الرضاعة	Lactation	Breast-Feeding
الثلاث اشهر الاولى للحمل	First trimester	First three months
قبل وبعد العملية	Pre/post-operation	Before/after operation
الارتكاسات التحسسية	Anaphylactic reactions	Allergic reactions
اخصائي انف واذن وحنجرة	Otorhinolaryngology	Nose, Ear & Throat Doctor
اخصائي امراض القلب	Cardiologist	Heart Disease Doctor

As noted from the above table, examples reveal inappropriately literal translations. Worthy to mention, descending acceptability

grading does not result necessarily in wrong translations, as they may produce the exact correct meaning. Literal translation of medical terminology may manage to render the meaning of each word in the source phrase separately, but fail to be compatible to the scientific genre.

The descending acceptability grading in the selection of translation equivalence suggests that translators are to be selective and choose the adequate scientific equivalent term.

3. Conclusion

Translations that suffer lack of thematic fit between syntactic structure and semantic components of a translated text are deemed to be disharmonious and represent violations to the known syntactic selectional restrictions. The adoption of the 'Selectional Restrictions' concept leads to the production of semantically acceptable translations. It is also important for translators to put in consideration the aspect of formality grades and the proper selection of compatible equivalent forms from the linguistic treasury of the target language.

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