

Bangor University

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

A study in some aspects of foreign language learning at Kuwait University with special reference to computer assisted language learning.

Malallah, Seham

Award date:
1994

Awarding institution:
Bangor University

[Link to publication](#)

General rights

Copyright and moral rights for the publications made accessible in the public portal are retained by the authors and/or other copyright owners and it is a condition of accessing publications that users recognise and abide by the legal requirements associated with these rights.

- Users may download and print one copy of any publication from the public portal for the purpose of private study or research.
- You may not further distribute the material or use it for any profit-making activity or commercial gain
- You may freely distribute the URL identifying the publication in the public portal ?

Take down policy

If you believe that this document breaches copyright please contact us providing details, and we will remove access to the work immediately and investigate your claim.

**A STUDY IN SOME ASPECTS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING
AT KUWAIT UNIVERSITY WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO
COMPUTER ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING**

by **SEHAM MALALLAH**

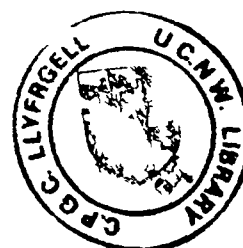
**TW DDEFNYDDIO YN Y
LLYFRGELL YN UNIG**

**TO BE CONSULTED IN THE
LIBRARY ONLY**

**SCHOOL OF EDUCATION,
UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF NORTH WALES,
BANGOR**

**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS
FOR THE DEGREE OF PH.D. OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WALES.**

MAY 1994



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to register my indebtedness to my supervisor, Professor Colin Baker, whose approach to supervision was both instructive and inspirational. He was ever supportive, caring, encouraging, prompt, friendly, patient and ever accommodating. He devoted much of his time to tutoring me and leading my unsteady steps throughout this work. Professor Iolo Williams, the Head of School, and other members of staff, including the secretaries at the School of Education have all helped in many ways. They have my grateful thanks. Sue Peet and Anne Sanderson helped with the typing of the draft chapters.

I am grateful to Dr. Noori Alwattar who has been ever helpful, friendly and ever generous. Thanks are similarly due to Dr. Mohammad Albusairi who guided me and set me off in the right direction from the beginning. My thanks are due to Dr. Rajendra as well.

My gratitude is also due to Kuwait University, for faith in my ability and for the scholarship award to pursue my studies, to the Dean of the School of Education, Dr. Abdullah Alshaikh, to the Director of the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Dr. Saleh Abdullah, and to other members of staff, especially Dr. Moosa Algattan, Dr. Suad Alfraih and Dr. Najat Al-Mutawa who all helped and provided support when needed.

The Director of the Language Centre at Kuwait University, Dr. Elham Albassam and the supervisors of the English Language Units: Morad Mandani, Malek Jawad, Dr. Bader Hassan and Dr. Saad Alsaquobi, must be thanked for their cooperation and for allowing me to research in the English courses.

My husband, Khaled Alshuaib, has my very special thanks for being very understanding, open-minded, patient, supportive, cooperative and encouraging. This research would not have been possible without him. And finally, my thanks are due to my three children Fay, Amina and Suleiman who created the challenge and persistence within myself to overcome the obstacles and conduct my study.

Table of contents

	Page
Title Page	
Certification	
Acknowledgements	i
Table of Contents	ii
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	x
List of Appendices	xi
Abstract	xii
General Introduction	1

CHAPTER ONE

Approaches to Foreign Language Teaching and their Implications for TEFL in Kuwait

Section One	3
Introduction	3
Terminology	3
Major Approaches	8
The Grammar-Translation Method	8
The Audiolingual Method	19
The Communicative Language Teaching Method	29
Conclusion of Section One	43
Section Two	44
Introduction	44
How the Teaching of English Began in Kuwait?	
A Historical Survey	44
Methods of Teaching English in Kuwait	46
The Grammar- Translation Method in Kuwait	46
The Audiolingual Method in Kuwait	48
The Communicative Language Teaching Method in Kuwait	50
Conclusion of Section Two	60

Section Three	63
Introduction	63
Brief Review of Other Methods of Foreign Language Teaching	63
Community Language Learning	63
The Silent Way	65
Suggestopedia	66
Total Physical Response	68
The Natural Approach	70
Conclusion	78

CHAPTER TWO

Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Section One	79
Introduction	79
What is CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning)?	80
The Audiolingual Model and CALL	83
The Cognitive Code Model and CALL	85
The Humanistic Model of Language Learning and CALL	87
Community Language Learning	87
The Silent Way	89
Suggestopedia	90
The Communicative Model and CALL	91
The Communicative Approach	91
Total Physical Response	92
The Natural Approach	93
Section Two	95
Introduction	95
The Instructional Paradigm	96
Drill and Practice Programs	97
Tutorial Programs	106
Games	109
The Revelatory Paradigm	113
Simulations	115
Adventures	124
The Conjectural Paradigm	130
The Emancipatory Paradigm	138
Word processing	139
Conclusion	148

CHAPTER THREE
**The Role of the Attitude / Motivation and Anxiety in Second
or Foreign Language Learning**

Introduction	149
Section One	151
Gardner's Socio-Educational Model of Second Language Learning:	
An Overview	151
Social and Cultural Beliefs	156
Social and Cultural Beliefs in Kuwait	161
Motivation:	166
Definition of Motivation	166
Types of Motivation	167
Components of Motivation	170
Relevance of Motivation to the Kuwaiti Context	176
Review of Literature Concerning the Effect of Motivation on Second Language Learning	179
Attitude:	189
Definition of Attitude	189
Classification of Attitude	190
Components of Attitude	191
What Affects Attitude (With Reference to the Context in Kuwait)	193
Review of Literature Concerning the Effect of Attitude on Second Language Learning	194
Anxiety:	201
Definition of Anxiety	201
Levels of Anxiety	201
Types of Anxiety	202
Review of Literature Concerning the Effect of Anxiety on Second Language Learning	203
Section Two	210
The Educational Factors that Influence Students' Attitude / Motivation and anxiety	210
Section Three	214
CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning)	214
Review of Literature Concerning CALL's Effect on Students' Attitude / Motivation and Anxiety	215
Conclusion	217

CHAPTER FOUR
The Research Methodology
(The first piece of research)

Introduction	223
Research Aims	224
The Context of the Research	226
Kuwait University	227
College of Arts	229
College of Science	231
College of Sharia	232
The Sample of the Study	233
Methodology	236
Language	246
Pilot Study	247
Procedure	247
Conclusion	248

CHAPTER FIVE
Analysis of the Results (1)
(of the first piece of research)

Section One	249
Introduction	249
The Frequencies	249
Conclusion of Section One	277
Section Two	278
Introduction	278
Latent Variable Analyses	278
Summary of the Procedure	278
Test Result	279
Conclusion	294

CHAPTER SIX
Analysis of the Results (2)
 (of the first piece of research)

Introduction	296
Differences Between Students on the Latent Variables in terms of:	
Colleges	297
Major Subjects	300
English Course Level	305
Year of Study	311
Area of Residence in Kuwait	314
Self-Perceived Level in English	317
Visits to English Speaking Countries	320
Time Spent in English Speaking Countries	324
Time Spent Watching the English Channel on T.V.	328
Career Intention	331
Correlations	335
Conclusion	341

CHAPTER SEVEN
Computer Assisted Language Learning in Kuwait:
A Research Study
 (the second piece of research)

Introduction	344
The Aim of the Study	344
The Context of the Research	346
The Sample of the Study	347
Methods Used	349
Research Procedure	351
CALL Class on the 10th of October 1992	353
Analysis	360
CALL Class on the 17th of October 1992	361
Analysis	364
CALL Class on the 21st of October 1992	364
Analysis	372
CALL Class on the 28th of October 1992	375
CALL Class on the 9th of November 1992	376
Analysis	379
CALL Class on the 16th of November 1992	381
Analysis	386
CALL Class on the 30th of November 1992	388

Analysis	390
CALL Class on the 14th of December 1992	392
Analysis	394
CALL Class on the 20th of December 1992	395
CALL Class on the 21st of December 1992	396
CALL Class on the 23rd of December 1992	399
CALL Class on the 26th of December 1992	400
Analysis	401
CALL Class on the 28th of December 1992	406
Analysis	407
Overall Results	407
Conclusion	417

CHAPTER EIGHT

Discussions, Recommendations and Implications

Introduction	418
Aims of the Research	418
The Findings of the Current Study and their Relevance to Previous Research Findings	421
The First Piece of Research:	428
Discussion	428
Recommendations for Future Research	432
Implications	435
The Second Piece of Research:	439
Implications of CALL	439
Further Research Needed	447
Conclusion	448

APPENDICES
BIBLIOGRAPHY

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Differences Between the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Method	50
Table 2: Development of English Language Teaching Methods and Syllabus in Kuwait	61
Table 3: Sample Size of Clement and Kruidenier study (1983: 279)	158
Table 4: Distribution of Students by College	234
Table 5: Distribution of students by course	234
Table 6: Subjects Studied and the Percentages of Students	235
Table 7: Frequencies of Students' Grades in English	251
Table 8: Frequencies of Response to Class Activities and the Class Environment	252
Table 9: Frequencies of Response to the Instructional Material	255
Table 10: Frequencies of Response to the Role of the Language Teacher	256
Table 11: Frequencies of Response to the Methods of Teaching	258
Table 12: Frequencies of Attitudes to Learning English	264
Table 13: Frequencies of Attitudes toward the English Language	265
Table 14: Frequencies of Attitudes toward Native Speakers of English	267
Table 15: Frequencies of Response to the 13 Items of the Purpose of Studying English	269
Table 16: Frequencies of Response to the 20 Items of Anxiety in the English Class	271
Table 17: Frequencies of Students' Response to the Place of Learning English in Kuwait Society	273
Table 18: Final Solutions from Latent Variable Analysis	295
Table 19: Differences Between Colleges	297
Table 20: Differences Between Students of Different Major Subjects	301
Table 21: Differences Between Students Enrolled in Different English Courses	306
Table 22: Differences Between Students in Different Years of Study	312
Table 23: Differences Between Students from Different Areas in Kuwait	314
Table 24: Differences Between Students of Different Self-Perceived Level in English	317
Table 25: Differences Between Students Who Made Different Numbers of Visits to English Speaking Countries	321
Table 26: Differences Between Students Who Spent Different Periods of Time in English Speaking Countries	324
Table 27: Differences Between Students Who Spend Different Periods of Time Watching Channel Two on T.V.	328
Table 28: Differences Between Students with Different Career Intentions	331
Table 29: Table of Correlations	335

Table 30: Correlations Between the Factors	339
Table 31: Summary of the Aims of the Study	346
Table 32: Summary of the Aims of the Study	420
Table 33: Summary of the Findings of the Study	428

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: Gardner's Model	155
Figure 2: Components of Motivation	170
Figure 3: Types of Orientations (Goals of L2 Learning)	171
Figure 4: A Model of Attitude's Relationship with Motivation and Achievement	176
Figure 5: Albusairi's (1992) Taxonomy of the Construct Attitude	191
Figure 6: Ajzen's (1988) Model of Attitude (the Components of Attitude)	192
Figure 7: A Summary of Section Two in Chapter Three	213
Figure 8: The Relationship Between CALL, Motivation, Anxiety and Outcome in Foreign Language Learning	215

LIST OF APPENDICES

- Appendix 1: The Attitude Questionnaire (in English)
- Appendix 2: The Attitude Questionnaire (in Arabic)
- Appendix 3: Scale Applied for Final Grades
- Appendix 4: The Attitude Questionnaire with Frequencies
- Appendix 5: The Coding Book
- Appendix 6: Scree Test of Section B
- Appendix 7: Scree Test of Section C
- Appendix 8: Scree Test of Sections D, E, F & G
- Appendix 9: Scree Test of Sections H & I
- Appendix 10: Scree Test of Section J
- Appendix 11: Scree Test of Section K
- Appendix 12: Scree Test of Section L
- Appendix 13: Scree Test of Section M
- Appendix 14: Scree Test of all the Factors from Section B to Section M
- Appendix 15: Overall Factor Analysis
- Appendix 16: List of Factors
- Appendix 17: Table of Differences Between Kuwaities
and Non-Kuwaities on the Latent Variables
- Appendix 18: Table of Differences Between Males and
Females on the Latent Variables
- Appendix 19: CALL Questionnaire (in English)
- Appendix 20: CALL Questionnaire (in Arabic)
- Appendix 21: My Fast Food Stall: a Reading Comprehension
Passage
- Appendix 22: The Simulation Fast Food
- Appendix 23: Printed Sheet of Instructions as Displayed
in 'Fast Food'
- Appendix 24: Fast Food Record Sheet

ABSTRACT

This thesis is concerned with foreign language learning and teaching. The initial aim of the thesis is to examine Gardner's (1985) model to find out whether this model is applicable to English foreign language learning (EFL) in Kuwait. The purpose is to determine the extent to which previous research findings can be generalised to a sample of University students in EFL courses in Kuwait. The thesis comprises three integrated background literature reviews: approaches to foreign language teaching and their implication for TEFL in Kuwait; 'CALL': (Computer Assisted Language Learning); and the role of the attitude, motivation and anxiety in foreign language learning.

Two pieces of research are reported with two contrasting methodologies: a survey questionnaire, and an ethnographic approach examining the effectiveness of CALL. The research was conducted on Kuwait University undergraduates enrolled in English courses offered by the English Language Centre at Kuwait University during the 1992-1993 academic year.

First, the research focuses on the inter-relationships between attitude, motivation, anxiety and achievement in the English language. Second, the research identifies the methods of teaching, instructional materials, class activities and appropriate teacher roles that students most prefer. Third, the research introduces new instructional materials via the use of computer programs in an EFL class. The effect of Computer Assisted Language Learning on students' motivation toward learning English as a foreign language, students' feeling of anxiety in the English class and their achievement in the foreign language are each examined by classroom observation and interviews.

The results of the research show that: (1) in general, students appear to have a strong motivation to learn English; express a definite degree of preference toward English and native speakers of English, and lack feelings of anxiety. (2) The more a student is exposed to the English language through being in an English medium College, visiting and staying in an English speaking country and watching English programmes on T.V., the more a student needs the English language either for present studies or for future career, the more motivated to learning English and more positive attitudes towards the language are apparent. (3) Students' ability in English has a significant relationship with a variety of factors investigated: the higher the student's ability in English, the greater the motivation to learn English, the more favourable is the student's attitudes toward the English language and the less anxiety the student's experiences in the English class. (4) 'CALL' enhances students' motivation to learn the foreign language, lowers their anxieties and improves their achievement in the English language.

The thesis concludes with an integration of theory and research, and makes a series of recommendations about developments in EFL in Kuwait University.

INTRODUCTION

This introduction describes the content of the eight chapters in order that the overall aims, structure and sequence of the study may be better understood.

Chapter One consists of three sections. The first section provides a description of the main three approaches to foreign language teaching: the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Method. The second section introduces a brief historical review of how the teaching of English began in Kuwait and what approaches have been implemented. The third section presents a brief review of other methods of teaching: the Community Language Learning Approach, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach.

Chapter Two considers 'CALL': Computer Assisted Language Learning. This chapter consists of two sections. Section one deals with the definition of 'CALL' and the question of where the computer can fit into the language learning / teaching situation. Section two discusses the four educational paradigms within which applicable CALL programs can operate. Those paradigms are: the Instructional, the Revelatory, the Conjectural and the Emancipatory paradigm.

Chapter Three is divided into three sections. Section one presents Gardner's Model (1985) that investigates the role of social psychological variables in second language learning. The focus is mainly on three variables in Gardner's Model: the social and cultural beliefs, motivation/attitude and anxiety. These three elements are discussed in terms of their definition and types, their role in language acquisition (supported by previous research studies) and their relevance to the context of language learning in Kuwait. Section two includes the educational factors that interact with foreign language students' anxiety, attitudes and motivation in learning a foreign language. These factors are: the role of the language teacher in class, methods of teaching, instructional materials, class activities and the classroom context. In section three, 'CALL' (Computer Assisted Language Learning) is discussed in terms of its effect on students' motivation, anxiety and achievement in the foreign language.

Chapter Four introduces the aims and methodology of the first piece of research. The chapter portrays the Kuwaiti context where the research was conducted and provides details about the teaching of English as a foreign language in Kuwait, especially at Kuwait University. The chapter discusses the sample of students in the study, the College they enrolled in, and the English courses they are taking. The survey methodology used to collect data is defined, the questionnaire introduced and the procedure of distribution described. Chapters Five and Six analyse and discuss the findings of the first piece of research which is a psychometric analysis of attitudes, preferences and needs of Kuwaiti students learning English as a foreign language.

Chapter Seven details the second piece of research which examines one kind of EFL instructional material, computer programs. It investigates the effect of CALL programs on students' motivation to learn English, their feelings of anxiety in the language class and their achievement in English. This study is based on observation, interviews and written reports. It is conducted on a group of Kuwait University undergraduates enrolled in a compulsory English course. Students are taught the required curriculum supported by computer lessons. In chapter seven, the researcher describes each computer session in terms of the computer program used, the type of exercise introduced, the number of students attending the class, a description of what happened in the class, students' reaction towards the programs used, followed by some evaluative analysis. The overall results reached by the investigator are discussed.

Chapter Eight knits together the different threads of the thesis: publications, perspectives, problems, findings and discussions as related to the study. It provides an overall coherence to the thesis and considers the implications of the findings of the study for curriculum development and research on the teaching of English as a foreign language in Kuwait University.

Chapter One

Approaches to Foreign Language Teaching and their Implications for TEFL in Kuwait

Section One

Introduction

This chapter aims at providing a description of the main approaches to foreign language teaching, especially those that are applied in Kuwait. The study does not attempt to be biased towards any one approach rather than another. Rather, the advantages and disadvantages of each will be mentioned as objectively as possible. First, it is important to establish the terminology to be used.

Terminology

English as a mother tongue

"English can be described as the mother tongue or first language of over 45 percent of the population in 10 countries; ranked according to greatest percentage of speakers of English these are the United Kingdom, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, Barbados, Jamaica, Trinidad, The United States, Canada and Guyana" (Richards, 1985: 1).

English as a second language (ESL)

Sometimes, the language in many countries, is not the mother tongue of most of the population, but it still functions as an official language (e.g. of law, government, education, business and the media). In such cases, English is referred to as a second language. In countries with immigrant populations, English is sometimes the second language (e.g. Spanish speakers in the U.S.; Asian

communities in England). Thus ESL refers to English as a second language of those residents in a country.

English as a foreign language (EFL)

When English is neither the mother tongue of a population, nor the second language of inhabitants, English may be a foreign language. English may be one of the school subjects. It may be the language of specific courses and textbooks at University or it may be taught to people who work in business, tourism and public relations. Kuwait is one of the countries in which English is regarded as a foreign language. EFL thus refers to English which is 'external' to language majorities and minorities in a country, but is learnt by members of that country.

Approaches, Methods and Procedures of Learning English

In describing the methods, one should differentiate between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory, and the procedures for teaching a language (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). Similarly, Anthony (1963) identifies three levels of conceptualization: approach, method and technique. In this respect Anthony (1963: 63-67) says "the arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach ... An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught ... Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods . A technique is implementational - that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well".

Mackay in his book Language Teaching Analysis (1965) presented a model which focuses on levels of method and technique. His model concentrates on the dimensions of selection, gradation, presentation and repetition that underlie a particular language learning method.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) provide a comprehensive model for the analysis of approaches and methods which clarifies the relationship between approach, design and procedure. This model will be the framework and the basis for describing the three main approaches in this chapter.

According to Richards and Rodgers (1986), there are elements that constitute a method. Those elements are: approach, design, and procedure.

(1) Approach

Following Anthony (1963), approach refers to theories that deal with the nature of language teaching and learning. Richards and Rodgers (1986) define approach as consisting of two types of theories: a theory of language, and a theory of language learning. In their explanation of theory of language, three main theoretical views of language are presented:

(1) The **structural view** is the most traditional approach. The structural view considers language as a system that consists of elements structurally joined for the coding of meaning. Language learning takes place only when a student masters the elements of this system. Those elements are defined in terms of phonological units and lexical items, grammatical units and grammatical operations.

(2) The **functional view** believes that language is a means for the expression of function and meaning. It emphasizes the semantic and communicative aspects rather than the grammatical aspects of language. As a result, language teaching content is organized according to meaning and function, not according to structure and grammar.

(3) The **interactional view** looks at language as a means for "realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 17). This view focuses on the pattern of negotiation, moves and interaction that occur during the conversational exchanges. Language teaching content is enriched with patterns of exchange and interaction.

In Richards and Rodgers' (1986) definition of theory of language learning, they explain that theories of language learning take two dimensions: the process-oriented theories which deal with the psycholinguistic and cognitive process involved in language learning (e.g. habit formation, induction, inferencing and generalization), and the condition-oriented theories which mention the conditions that need to be met so that the learning processes take place. These kind of theories investigate the nature of the human and physical context in which language learning happens.

So "at the level of approach, we are hence concerned with theoretical principles. With respect to language theory, we are concerned with the model of language competence and an account of the basic features of linguistic organization and language use. With respect to learning theory, we are concerned with an account of the central process of learning and an account of the conditions believed to promote successful language learning" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 19).

(2) Design

"In order for an approach to lead to a method, it is necessary to develop a design for an instructional system" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 20). Design consists of (a) objectives, (b) content choice and organization of the syllabus, (c) types of learning tasks and teaching activities, (d) the role of learners, (e) the role of teachers, and (f) the role of instructional materials.

(a) Objectives

The objectives are one of the elements that build the design of the method. The objectives are that which a method sets out to achieve.

(b) Content Choice and Organization of the Syllabus

One may use Mackey's (1965) words: selection and gradation. Within every method, decisions are made about the selection of language items (words, sentence patterns, tenses, functions, topics). The choice of language content may

be based on subject matter (what to talk about) and linguistic matter (how to talk about it).

(c) Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

Every method has its own kinds of learning and teaching activities in the classroom (e.g. teaching activities that focus on communicative skills differ from those that focus on grammatical accuracy). The teaching activities of each method depend on its objectives and philosophies.

(d) Learner Role

The design of any method and its instructional system will be affected by how learners are perceived. The learners' role is seen in the activities they carry out, the degree of control they have over the content of learning and the view of the learner as a performer, initiator or processor.

(e) Teacher Role

Teacher role is seen in:

- 1- the types of functions teachers undertake.
- 2- The degree of control the teacher exercises over the teaching/learning process.
- 3- The degree to which the teacher can decide on the content of what to teach.
- 4- Types of interaction between teacher and student.

(f) The Role of Instructional Material

The role of instructional material reflects decisions about the main goal of materials (e.g. to facilitate communication), the form of materials (e.g. textbook or audiovisual aids), the relation of materials to other kinds and sources of input (e.g. as being the main source of input or as a small part of it).

(3) Procedure

Richards and Rodgers (1986) divide procedure into three dimensions which are: (1) presentation: certain teaching activities are used to present new language (e.g. drills, dialogues), (2) practice: certain teaching activities are used to practise language, and (3) feedback: particular ways and techniques are used to give feedback to learners.

Major Approaches

In this section the three major approaches, Grammar-Translation, Audiolingual and Communicative Language Teaching will be examined. The Richards and Rodgers'(1986) model will be the framework and the basis for describing those three approaches.

The Grammar-Translation Method

This method is "a degeneration of successful mediaeval practices in teaching Latin by abandoning the speaking and reading practice and keeping only the rote memorization of grammar rules and the analytical translation of selected texts" (Lado, 1964: 216).

(1) Approach

The Grammar-Translation Method is a way of studying a language by the use and provision of detailed analysis of grammatical rules followed by application of this knowledge. "It hence views language learning as consisting of little more than memorizing rules and facts in order to understand and manipulate the morphology and syntax of the foreign language" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 3). Stern (1983) explains the theoretical assumptions that are behind the use of Grammar-Translation Method. Stern (1983: 455) says "the target language is primarily interpreted as a system of rules to be observed in texts and sentences and to be related to first language rules and meanings. Language learning is implicitly viewed as an intellectual activity involving rule learning, the memorization of rules and facts related to first language meanings by means of massive

translation practice. The first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language. Basing itself on a faculty psychology, this method for learning modern languages was justified - like Latin and Greek had been - as a mental training".

Bannai and Wulf (1985) add to this point of view. Bannai and Wulf (1985: 10) believe that "the learning theories supporting a grammar translation model are both behaviourist and cognitive. The precise drills rest upon a philosophy of specific response to a specific stimulus, which can be sustained through reinforcement. At the same time, however, the grammar translation approach can be cognitive in nature - but only if the memorized grammatical rules are meaningful to the learner". It is cognitive when it stresses the importance of a conscious study and analysis of the language patterns. The method regards language as rule-governed behaviour such that learning a language requires internalizing the rules. It is behaviourist because Grammar-Translation Method's "central feature was the replacement of the traditional texts by exemplificatory sentences" (Howatt, 1984: 131). Being similar to the structuralist approach, Howatt (1984: 131-132) says: "it is perhaps appropriate to note here that the twentieth-century structuralist approach was also founded on the supremacy of the sentence and the two methodologies have much in common". Also the Grammar Translation Method presents new grammar rules one-by-one in an organized sequence. Each rule is divided into points, each point is divided into examples and sentences. "This exemplificatory function was also taken over by the modern structuralists" (Howatt, 1984: 132). As a result, Howatt (1984: 141) continues, "the disconnected sentences of the grammar-translation approach are no sillier than the 'scientific' drills of the audiolingual method with which they share many features. Both are the inevitable outcome of two basic principles. The first is that a language teaching course can be based on a sequence of linguistic categories, and the second that these categories can be exemplified in sample sentences for intensive practice".

Others believe in the 'theory-lessness' of this method. Richards and Rodgers (1986: 5) argue that "though it may be true to say that Grammar-Translation Method is still widely practised, it has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rational or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational

theory". Hajjaj (1983: 7) agrees that this method "is not based on any explicit psycholinguistic or sociolinguistic theory. In other words, it does not concern itself with how learners learn the language or how this learner actually uses it".

(2) Design

(a) Objectives

The goal of foreign language learning according to the Grammar-Translation Method is to learn a language so that one can read its literature, can benefit from the mental discipline and can gain intellectual development that is created from foreign-language study. Stern (1983: 454) says that "in the nineteenth century grammar-translation was considered by practitioners as a necessary preliminary to the study of literary works, and even if that goal was not reached grammar-translation was regarded as an educationally valid mental discipline in its own right". Mallinson (1953: 8) supports that "when once the Latin tongue had ceased to be a normal vehicle for communication, and was replaced as such by the vernacular languages, then it most speedily became a 'mental gymnastic', the supremely 'dead' language, a disciplined and systematic study of which was held to be indispensable as a basis for all forms of higher education. Classical studies were then intended and made to produce an excellent mental discipline, a fortitude of spirit and a broad humane understanding of life. They succeeded triumphantly for the times in their objective".

Speaking a foreign language is not the objective of this method, and oral production is limited to students reading aloud the sentences they translate. These sentences are formed to illustrate and practice the grammatical system of the language. Language is never meant for real communication. Brown (1987: 74) agrees that in this method "all languages were not being taught primarily to learn oral/aural communication, but to learn for the sake of being 'scholarly'".

(b) Content Choice and Organization of the Syllabus

In the selection of the teaching/learning content, the concern was centred around literary texts managed for reading and translations, followed by intensive

grammatical analysis and rules. A typical text book consists of chapters and lessons organized around grammar elements. Each grammar element is listed, rules on its use are elaborated, explained and illustrated by sample sentences. Howatt (1984: 132) explains that "Grammar-Translation text books were graded, though not in the modern sense exactly, and presented new grammar points one-by-one in an organized sequence. Each step needed appropriate examples, and specially devised sentences were simpler than samples from 'reputable authors' which contained extra difficulties for the pupil". The content choice and organization have several features:

(1) It takes no account of everyday language usage and imposes norms generally taken from the language of the great authors from ancient centuries.

(2) It describes written language and takes no account of the spoken language.

(3) Lessons are organized around grammar points hence this method devotes great deal of time to secondary grammatical points and pays little attention to important constructions.

(4) Traditional course books give a predominant place to morphology and neglect syntax (Roulet, 1975: 9).

(5) Outside the area of morphology and syntax, the treatment of lexis and phonology is poor and very often inadequate (Roulet, 1975: 10).

(6) The central feature was the replacement of the traditional texts by exemplificatory sentences (Howatt, 1984: 131).

A look at course books that represent this method will illustrate that the following is typical (in Hajjaj, 1983) :

Part I Verbs

Regular and irregular verbs

Infinitive

Gerund and present participle
Past participle - passive voice
Present, past and perfect tenses
Auxiliaries

Part II Nouns

Regular and irregular
Use of the number forms
Use of the genitive
Use of the definite article
Use of the indefinite article

Part III Pronouns

Personal pronouns
Possessive pronouns
Compound personal pronouns
Demonstrative pronouns
Interrogative pronouns
Relative pronouns
Indefinite pronouns

Part IV Adjectives and Adverbs

Introductory
Comparison

Part V Sentence structure

The simple sentence
The compound sentence
Sentence groups

Part VI Order of Words

Part VII Concord

Part VIII Conversion

Part IX Word formation

Examples

Seidenstucker's book (quoted in Titone, 1968) is one of the first many books that were published and represent the Grammar-Translation Method. Seidenstucker in his book presented disconnected sentences to illustrate certain rules. He divided his text into two sections, one explaining the rules, the other supplying French sentences to be translated into German and German sentences to be translated into French.

Seidenstucker was imitated by Karl Plotz (quoted in Titone, 1968). Titone (1968: 27) presents typical sentences included in Plotz's text books: "Thou hast a book. The house is beautiful. He has a kind dog. We have a bread. The door is black. He has a book and a dog. The horse of the father was kind". Those sentences are disconnected and bare no relation to the language of real communication. Little attention is paid to the content of the sentences and texts. They are organized as exercises to illustrate the grammatical system of the language. Titone (1968) criticizes authors such as Ahn and Ouendorf who have adopted Grammar-Translation Method. Titone (1968: 28) says: "the main fault with the Ahn and Ouendorf method was the principle of constructing artificial sentences in order to illustrate a rule".

Ahn's book (quoted in Titone, 1968) is another example that reflects the Grammar-Translation Method. His book is easy and practical. He arranges the learning material in short numbered sections. In each odd-numbered section, he presents a grammatical summary, most of the time in the form of a paradigm, and lists new vocabulary items, followed by sentences to be translated into the first language. In each even-numbered section, he includes sentences to be translated into the foreign language.

(c) Teaching/Learning Activities

Vocabulary is selected from the reading text used and taught in three main ways: Bilingual word lists, Dictionary study and Memorization. In any grammar translation class, the teacher illustrates grammar rules, presents a list of vocabulary items with their translation equivalents and prescribes translation exercises.

The teacher in such a class focuses on the sentence as the basic unit of teaching and language practice. This is because it is believed that the study of texts is too difficult for students in secondary schools. The focus on the sentence makes language learning easier. The teaching/learning activity takes the form of translating sentences into and out of the target language. The instructor teaches grammar deductively. He or she presents grammar rules followed by translation exercises for students to practice. Grammar is taught in an organized and systematic way. Teachers use the students' native language as the medium of instruction. A new item is explained by a comparison between the foreign language and the students' native language.

(d) Learner Role

The activities engaged by learners include the memorizing of lists of grammar rules and vocabulary, producing perfect translations and attaining accuracy. Students are passive, following instructions and responding rather than initiating. This is because the functional and social nature of the language are both disregarded and ignored by this method. They have no control over the content of learning, do not plan their own learning program.

(e) Teacher Role

The Grammar-Translation Method makes few creative demands on teachers. The teacher's role is only to explain the grammatical rules and paradigms and to apply them by translating sentences. Teachers are not required to be fluent or to produce any oral conversations. Mallinson (1953: 9) writes about the Plotz text books which were "a boon to teachers who had not sufficient grasp of the French language to venture on an oral approach. In the manual they placed

before their classes they had all the material they needed for a thorough drilling in the niceties of grammar and written French".

On the other hand, the teacher has authority, controlling class activities but, at the same time, does not risk departure from the security of traditional text book.

(f) The Role of Instructional Material

The instructional material comprises lists of grammar rules, vocabulary lists and texts provided for translation. Such material is essential to all teaching and learning activity. The instructional material ignores or has little to do with the students' interests and needs.

{3) Procedure

As mentioned earlier, language is demonstrated in short grammatical chapters or lessons. Each one consists of grammar rules that are illustrated by examples. The student is expected to note, learn and memorize these rules, and be able to translate accurately. The techniques of presentation can be summed up in the following five points:

(1) The teacher uses the native language to explain words and structures from the foreign language. Teaching by this method does not require imagination from the teacher, since he/she usually follows the textbook page by page and exercise by exercise.

(2) Presentation of definitions, rules and explanations are mostly of a logico-semantic character which are not explicit enough for the learner or teacher (Roulet, 1975). For example, a foreign language learner is provided with the definition of a sentence as: "a sentence is a more or less complex expression offering the complete sense of a thought, feeling or wish". Or the definition of the object of the verb may be given as: "the object of the verb is the term indicating the being or the object acted upon". (Roulet, 1975: 11)

(3) This method encourages the analytic presentation to help the pupil grasp the structure of ready-made sentence patterns. Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) explain that traditional linguistic analysis, based on the most suitable procedure for describing Latin, recognized various kinds of sentences (declarative, interrogative, etc.) and divided vocabulary into different elements of speech (noun, verb, preposition, etc.). In Latin, whether a noun is the subject or object of a verb, and the many relations which can be shown in English through prepositions, are expressed by attaching different endings to the word stem. These different endings reflect different cases so that one can classify the grammar of nouns in terms of nominative, accusative, genitive and other cases. When different case endings are used, the meaning of the sentence is made more precise.

(4) The teacher in this method tends to give much attention to faults to be avoided by the learner and to exceptions.

(5) Feedback or response to students' errors takes the form of heavy emphasis on correct answers. The teacher supplies correct answers to students when they falter.

Advantages of the Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method has advantages. These advantages can be listed as follows:

(1) This method of teaching is relatively easy to apply. It does not require many specialized skills on the part of teachers.

(2) It is easy to construct examinations, texts of grammar rules and translation passages. In addition to this, examinations can be scored objectively and accurately.

(3) Many standardized texts of foreign languages do not try to tap into communicative abilities. As a result, students do not have enough motivation to go beyond grammar analogies, translations and drills which teachers find easy to provide.

(4) "It is sometimes successful in leading a student towards a reading knowledge of a second language" (Brown, 1987: 75).

(5) "Thinking about formal features of the second language and translation as a practice technique put the learner into an active problem-solving situation" (Stern, 1983: 455).

Disadvantages of Grammar-Translation Method

The main belief of the Grammar-Translation Approach is that one knows a language when one masters its forms and rules. Such an approach disregards the functional nature of language and ignores how language conveys the social functions of language such as greeting, requesting, introducing people, expressing feelings, agreeing and disagreeing. As a result "it does virtually nothing to enhance a student's communicative ability in the language" (Brown, 1987: 75). Lado (1964: 4) agrees and argues that "with greater interest in modern languages for communication the inadequacy of Grammar-Translation Methods became evident. Students who devoted years to the study of a foreign language were in most cases unable to use it. They developed a distaste for the language and an inferiority complex about language learning in general". Roulet (1975: 9) also comments that "the information provided by traditional grammars cannot enable pupils to attain one of the fundamental objectives of modern language learning, the acquisition of a mechanism for oral communication".

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 5) point out that "the grammar part of 'grammar-translation' was attacked, partly because the grammar used was actually inappropriate to English, and partly it was felt that too much emphasis on grammar led to learning about the language rather than learning to use the language". Regarding the same point, Lado (1964) suggests that translation is used as a class activity and equated with understanding, speaking, reading and writing. Those skills are quite different and should be learned as such. To be able to talk about the grammar of a language, to recite its rules is not similar to being able to speak, understand, read or write a language. Translation can be a valuable activity in itself, but not as a substitute for practising the language. Also, grammar recitation can be valuable to the linguist but not as a substitute for language use.

This method is not suitable for all the varying ability levels of young school students. This method provides students with definitions of the parts of speech, rules to be memorized and texts to which students apply the rules of correct translation. "This involves a complicated mental manipulation of the conjugations and declensions in the order memorized, down to the form that might fit the translation" (Lado, 1964: 92).

The Grammar-Translation Method does not set out rules that can enable the student to construct systematically correct complex sentences. Students are often trained in artificial forms of language when they practise the rules. Roulet (1975: 14) explains, "traditional manuals adopt an essentially analytic presentation which may eventually aid the pupil in grasping the structure of ready-made sentence patterns, but which is of little value and use to him for the construction of such phrases".

The teaching materials are chosen and managed around grammatical points. Such design creates and leads to inconsistent structures and vocabulary. This inconsistency may confuse the student and reduces their motivation for language learning. Richards and Rodgers (1986: 4) comment that this method is "remembered with distaste by thousands of school learners, for whom foreign language learning meant a tedious experience of memorizing endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and attempting to produce perfect translation of stilted or literary prose".

The overuse of the native (first) language reduces the time allocated to practice in the target language and reduces the real exposure to the language. The method focuses on translation and the necessity of the provision of lists of words parallel to the words of the student's first language. Hwang (1970: 27) comments that "the words of one language do not have a one-to-one correspondence with the words of any other language. An 'equivalent' word in a foreign language is not always used in the same situations, nor does it necessarily cover the same semantic areas, as the corresponding word in one's mother tongue. Consequently, learning a foreign language is not simply a matter of learning a list of words parallel to the words of one's mother tongue or mastering a bilingual dictionary. It involves, rather, the learning of a whole new language behaviour".

The Grammar-Translation Method takes no account of every day language usage. As a result, Roulet (1975: 7) argues that "pupils rapidly realize that there is a divorce between the language they study in class and the language they spontaneously use as a mother tongue or hear around them as a second language. At this point they rapidly lose interest in learning grammar". He also adds that traditional grammar still uses too closely the grammatical system of Greek and Latin which are not suitable for the description of all modern languages. For example:

father (nominative)

o father (vocative)

father (accusative)

of the father (genitive)

to, by, or from the father (dative)

(in Roulet, 1975: 13)

The Audiolingual Method

This method has appeared under many different names. In the fifties, it was referred to as the aural-oral method, until Brooks (1964: 263) proposed the term Audiolingual as a more pronounceable alternative.

(I) Approach

Theoretical Background

(1) Theory of Language

Audiolingualism is based on Structural Linguistics. It is a reaction against traditional grammar methods. Its interest is in phonetics, phonology, morphology and syntax. It analyzes language according to different levels of structural organization, not according to categories of Latin grammar. Language is viewed as "a system of structurally related elements for the encoding of meaning, the elements being phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentence types"

(Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 49). Or as Newton (1979: 18) puts it: "it is a collection of discrete items to be put together like building blocks. This putting together was not a creative process; it was a matter of classifying and arranging".

The word 'structural' refers to: (a) the elements in a language that are produced in a structural way; (b) Language samples that follow any structural level of description (phonetic, phonemic, morphological), and (c) Linguistic levels that are structured as systems within systems, (e.g. phonemic systems lead to morphemic systems, which lead to higher level systems of phrases, clauses and sentences).

This theory assumes that, for successful language learning, one should master the elements (building blocks) of the language and learn the rules that combine these elements. This theory believes "speech is language". This originated from the fact that many languages are not written, and we learn to speak before we learn to read and write. As a result, structural linguistics focus on 'speech acts' as the priority in language teaching.

(2) Theory of Learning

"The Audiolingual Methods are based on the Skinnerian theory and it is from this basic theoretical position that their advocacy of 'mimicry - memorization' in pattern drills and dialogue learning has been derived" (Rivers, 1964: 29). Audiolingualism follows behaviourism. What is behaviourism? What concepts does it adopt? The theory of behaviourism starts from any organism's ability to master specific, definable behaviours. Behaviourist learning depends on three elements :

- (1) A stimulus which elicits and encourages behaviour.
- (2) A response which occurs as a result of a stimulus.
- (3) Reinforcement which marks the response as being right or wrong and encourages the repetition of the right response. Reinforcement is a very important part in the learning process. It encourages the repetition of the right response, till it becomes a habit.

When behaviourist theory is applied to language learning, the organism becomes the foreign language learner. The focused behaviour is verbal behaviour. The stimulus is that which is presented in the foreign language. The response is the learner's reaction to the stimulus. The reinforcement may be extrinsic or intrinsic: extrinsic reward is reflected by the teacher's praise or approval; intrinsic reinforcement is reflected by the student's self satisfaction in using the language. "Language mastery is represented as acquiring a set of appropriate language stimulus-response chains" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 50).

The learning principles of audiolingualism are basically four (Rivers, 1964: 19-22):

(1) Audiolingualism assumes that language learning is a process of 'mechanical habit formation'. Students form good habits by practising correct responses rather than by making mistakes. To form those good habits, they memorize and practice ready-made dialogues and pattern drills.

(2) For effective language learning, language items should be presented orally before being written. Aural-oral training is a basic element in audiolingualism. It gives the foundation for other language skills to develop.

(3) The focus is on 'analogy' not 'analysis'. Students practice patterns in different contexts, acquire a perception of analogies, then they are provided with explanations of rules. Grammar is taught inductively not deductively.

(4) The meaning of the words of the target foreign language is taught in a linguistic and cultural context, not in isolation. Teaching a language involves teaching the cultural system of the native speakers.

(2) Design

(a) Objectives

Objectives may be categorized into those which are Short-term and those which are Long-term. The short-range objectives are: to train the students to gain listening comprehension skills, to acquire accurate pronunciation, to recognize the speech symbols and reproduce them in writing. "These immediate objectives imply three others: first, control of the structure of sound, form, and order in the new language; second, acquaintance with vocabulary items that bring content into these structures; and third, meaning, in terms of the significance these verbal symbols have for those who speak the language natively" (Brooks, 1964: 111).

The long-range objective is to use the foreign language as the native speaker uses it. The main objective is to create a foreign language learner who has oral proficiency, can pronounce, perceive and produce the major phonological features of the language accurately and be able to respond quickly and precisely in a specific speech situation.

(b) Syllabus

Concerning the content organization, this method presents language units in terms of sentence patterns. In the Audiolingual class, new material is presented orally in pattern drills or in the form of dialogue: (e.g. buying tickets at the cinema, booking a room in a hotel or mailing a letter). Structures are sequenced and presented one at a time. Structuralists break language into lists of structures and put them in a 'learning order'. Each structural item should be taught and drilled before the next item is introduced.

Concerning the choice of content, this method focuses on the linguistic syllabus which contains phonological, morphological and syntactical key items. Unlike the Grammar-Translation Method, there is little or no grammatical rules to memorize. Rules of grammar are introduced by inductive analogy rather than by deductive instruction. On the other hand, vocabulary is contextualized in dialogues

but strictly limited. The teaching of the language skills follows the sequence of listening, speaking, reading and writing.

(c) Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

Dialogues and drills are presented. Dialogues contextualize key structures and provide the situations in which these structures can be used. Also, these dialogues may represent the cultural system of the target language. The main parts of these dialogues are practised for repetition and memorization. After memorizing the dialogue, certain grammatical rules are explained and drilled.

The use of drills and pattern practice is an essential characteristic feature of the Audiolingual Method. Brooks (1964: 155) talks about pattern practices as follows: "each one starts with an utterance that is or could be a part of interpersonal exchange. It then shows the learner, by having him/her either hear the utterance and then repeat it or read the utterance and then write it, how a certain segment of it can change in a consistent way". Brooks (1964: 156-160) goes on to present various kinds of pattern practices which include: (1) repetition, (2) inflection, (3) replacement, (4) restatement, (5) completion, (6) transposition, (7) expansion, (8) contraction, (9) transformation, (10) integration, (11) rejoinder and (12) restoration.

(d) Learner Role

Behaviourists look at the learners as an organism, capable of producing correct responses when exposed to skilled training. Richards and Rodgers (1986: 56) describe the learners' role in this Audiolingual Method as: "Learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli, and thus have little control over the content, pace, or style of learning". Students are not allowed to initiate interaction, because student initiation may lead them to commit mistakes. Students just imitate, repeat, memorize and perform controlled tasks. As Hajjaj (1983: 18) points out, "the learner acts the role of the listener, respondent or formal class student".

(e) Teacher Role

The teacher in this method is authoritative and active. Audiolingualism is a 'teacher-dominated method'. The teacher plays the role of a model who represents the foreign language, a controller of the direction and pace of learning, the corrector of the student's responses, the provider of drills, tasks and situations in which to use the structures, and a reinforcer who rewards student's response. Hajjaj (1983: 18) in this respect says "the structural approach assumes one way of teaching in which the teacher always acts the role of the questioner, initiator, teacher or formal instructor".

Brooks (1964: 143) introduced the functions the teacher should fulfil in the Audiolingual class:

- Introduce, sustain and harmonize the learning of the four skills in this order: hearing, speaking, reading and writing.
- Model the various types of language behaviour the student is to learn.
- Teach spoken language in dialogue forms.
- Direct choral response by all or parts of the class.
- Teach the use of structure through pattern practice.
- Guide the student in choosing and learning vocabulary.
- Show how words relate to meaning in the target language.
- Get the individual student to talk.
- Reward trials by the student in such a way that learning is reinforced.
- Establish and maintain a cultural island.
- Formalize on the first day the rules according to which the language class is to be conducted, and enforce them.

(f) The Role of Instructional Material

At the elementary stage, students do not use text books because at this stage, they listen, repeat and respond to the teacher. Text books may "distract attention from aural input" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 57). Later, text books that contain drills, dialogues and activities are introduced. Tape recorders, audiovisual equipment and the language laboratory are essential in the Audiolingual Method.

(3) Procedure

In an Audiolingual lesson, the following procedures are typical:

(1) The teacher reads a model dialogue or the tape recorder provides a model to emulate. The students listen carefully to the dialogue which contains key structures. Then they repeat the dialogue line by line, individually and collectively. The teacher listens and focuses on the pronunciation and fluency. Students' pronunciation or grammar mistakes are immediately corrected. The dialogue to be memorized is broken down into lines; the line is also broken down into phrases and words. Students read the dialogue aloud.

(2) Students may change specific key words or phrases in the dialogue to adapt it to their own interest or context.

(3) The teacher may use certain selected key structures from the dialogue for students to practise. These are practised in a chorus and then individually.

(4) Students can use their textbook for follow up-reading and writing or for activities around the dialogue. For beginners, writing is no more than copying out the practised structures. As beginners develop, they write short compositions.

(5) Later, language laboratory may be used, where students can practise more drills.

Advantages of the Audiolingual Method

In terms of the advantages of this method, Stern (1983: 466) says that "it is necessary to remind oneself of the major contributions of audiolingualism to language teaching. First, it was among the first theories to recommend the development of a language teaching theory on declared linguistic and psychological principles. Second, it attempted to make language learning accessible to large groups of ordinary learners. Third, it stressed syntactical progression, while previously methods had tended to be preoccupied with vocabulary and morphology. Fourth, it led to the development of simple

techniques, without translation, of varied, graded, and intensive practice of specific features of the language. Last, it developed the separation of the language skills into a pedagogical device".

Because this method focuses on oral skills, students graduate with native-like pronunciation. Ovando and Collier (1985: 73) point out that "methods emphasizing written skills produce better results for reading and writing, while methods emphasizing oral-aural skills (ALM) produce slightly better results for speaking and listening". An experiment conducted by Scherer and Wertheimer (1964) compared students who were taught by traditional methods with those taught by the Audiolingual Method. Their findings support Ovando and Collier's remarks. This study showed that Audiolingual students were much superior in speaking and listening while traditional students were slightly superior in writing and translating.

Disadvantages of the Audiolingual Method

In terms of the theoretical background, Noam Chomsky (1966) provided a critique of the structuralist approach to language description and also of the behaviourist theory of language learning. Chomsky (1966) argued that language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically contains innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns that reflect abstractness and intricacy. Chomsky's theory of transformational grammar stresses that language's fundamental properties come from the mind's innate properties, and from the way in which humans process experience through language. Chomsky's main focus was on the mental properties that enable people to learn and use language. Chomsky rejected behaviourism because it considers language learning similar to any other type of learning. According to behaviourists, language learning follows the same laws of stimulus and response, reinforcement and association. Chomsky disagreed arguing that most human language is not imitated behaviour. Rather, it is created and built from an underlying knowledge of abstract rules. Language is not learned by imitation and repetition, it is 'generated' from one's underlying 'competence'.

Wilkins (1972: 168-9) presents the 'mentalist' view which contradicts the behaviourist view point and says "everybody learns a language, not because they are subjected to a similar conditioning process, but because they possess an inborn capacity which permits to acquire a language as a normal maturational process. This capacity is by definition universal". Other writers have also objected to Skinner's behaviouristic model of learning and of language learning. Spolsky (1966: 123) suggests that "knowing a language involves not just the performance of language - like behaviours, but an underlying competence that makes such performance possible. By ignoring this, it has been easy to make exaggerated claims for the effectiveness of operant conditioning in second language teaching". Chastain (1969: 101) argues that "a native speaker is continually creating new utterances, not merely repeating identical responses to previously met stimuli". Briggs and Hamilton (1964: 546) comment that "there is increasing evidence that, for meaningful learning, the roles of overt responding, practice, and reinforcement can be over emphasized, to the neglect ... of subsumation and other cognitive processes".

Rivers (1964) has strongly criticized this method for its failure to teach long-term communicative proficiency "If our students are to persist in their efforts to use the language in communication, broader training than repetitious drills will be needed" (Rivers, 1964: 35). Students taught by the Audiolingual Method were found to be unable to transfer the skills they acquired to the real use of language outside the classroom. This is because Audiolingualism focuses on the form rather than the content or meaning. This method requires learners to repeat and practise drills to prepare them for language use. As Krashen and Terrell (1983: 15) observe, "such drills are not real communication since they transmit no real message". Therefore, Wilkins (1972: 168) comments "in practice the greatest deficiency of the Audiolingual Method, the method which is most closely based on behaviourist principles, is its failure to prepare the learner to use his language for communication". Ventriglia (1982: 15) agrees and explains that "students not only do not use structures they have just practised successfully in drill, there also appears to be no transfer to natural communicative settings". One example will illustrate. The teacher has just taught the drill pattern, "this is a (an)" with suitable names for different kinds of fruits. Apples were served for lunch. The teacher took an apple and asked a child "what is this?" The child did not respond with "this is an

apple" but said "Quiero la mas grande". The answer was meaningful but totally different from the learned drill phrase. The problem is that "these drills are intended to teach the forms of the English language and not to convey information about the real world. The meaning or concept is therefore secondary to the repetition of the stated forms" (Ventriglia, 1982: 15). McLaughlin (1978) states that learning depends not so much on repetition as it does on the students' understanding of the meaning of what is drilled.

Many find language learning through Audiolingual procedures boring and unsatisfying. In the Audiolingual Method, it is not necessary to create meaning as a basis for defining parts of speech. Classes of words are identified according to their grammatical and structural signals. Sentences like Chomsky's "colourless green ideas sleep furiously", though meaningless, is looked upon as well-formed grammatically. Meaning of language in this method, is not carefully planned, introduced or taught

It is misleading to maintain the surface structure and generate sentences purely from structure. Audiolingualism only describes surface structure and does not take account of important grammatical facts. Chomsky's well known example explains this point. 'He is easy to please', and 'He is eager to please'. These two sentences have the same surface structure but different meaning (Roulet, 1975: 29)

Situational and semantic factors are paid little attention by this approach as one may see in ambiguous sentences. For example, 'the lady gave her dog biscuits' has two meanings: the first is that the lady gave 'her' dog biscuits; the second is that the lady gave her 'dog' biscuits. The ambiguity lies in the 'her giving'.

Hajjaj (1983: 17) criticizes that "the grammar emerging from the description explains neither the deep relations between sentences, nor the ambiguity of such constructions".

This method insists on developing oral skills without the use of printed materials. Krashen and Terrell (1983: 15) point out that "to present all material, both dialogues and drills, without permitting students to see how the sounds were written, was a disaster. It normally took three to four times as long to teach the material without the aid of orthography. Students invented their own systems of writing to record what they were to memorize and the entire experience was frustrating for both students and teachers alike".

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Method

Brown (1987) offers the following interconnected characteristics as a definition of CLT.

(1) The focus is on communicative competence not on grammatical or linguistic competence

(2) Fluency, not accuracy, is stressed

(3) In the communicative classroom, students have to use the language productively and creatively

(1) Approach

Theoretical background

(1) Theory of Language

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 71) point out that at the level of language theory, Communicative Language Teaching has a rich, if somewhat eclectic, theoretical base. Some of the characteristics of a communicative view of language follow:

(1) Language is a system for the expression of meaning.

(2) The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.

(3) The structure of a language reflects its functional and communicative uses.

(4) The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

The goal of language learning is to gain what Hymes (1972) refers to as 'communicative competence'. Communicative competence, Hajjaj (1983: 21) explains, "refers to a speaker's unconscious, internalized knowledge of the underlying system of rules for the use of the language he is speaking". Theories of communicative competence have developed from the Chomskyian linguistic theory (Chomsky, 1965), and his distinction between the two terms, 'competence' and 'performance'. The theories of communicative competence proposed by Hymes (1972) and Canale and Swan (1980) focus on the interrelationship between language and social context. To explain this further, these linguists' views will now be presented.

Chomsky (1965) stresses the abstract abilities speakers have, that enable them to present correct grammatical sentences in a language. His theory focuses on abstract grammatical knowledge. Explaining, Chomsky (1965: 3) says, "Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance". Chomsky distinguishes between 'competence', a speaker's intuitive knowledge of the rules of a language, and 'performance', that which a person actually produces by applying these rules. Chomsky talks about grammatical rules that a native speaker knows intuitively, whether the sentences are grammatical or not, and it is linguistic competence that informs this. Chomsky does not mention any socio-cultural features, or the fact that we speak to different people, in various situations, about a complexity of matters. As a result, there was a feeling that the Chomskyian notion of competence should be extended beyond purely grammatical competence to contain more general, social communicative aspects.

Hymes (1972) provides a communicative competence theory which is different from Chomsky's theory. Hymes is more concerned about social communication and culture. In this respect, Hymes (1972: 277-8) writes: "a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate ... In short a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others. This competence, moreover, is integral with attitudes, values, and motivations concerning language, its features and uses and integral with competence for, and attitudes toward, the interrelation of language with the other code of communicative conduct". Hymes (1972: 278) goes on to say that "the acquisition of such competency is, of course, fed by social experience, needs and motives, and issues in action that is itself a renewed source of motives, needs, experience. We break irrevocably with the model that restricts the design of language to one face towards referential meaning, one toward sound, and that defines the organization of language as solely consisting of rules for linking the two. Such a model implies naming to be the sole use of speech, as if languages were never organized to lament, rejoice, beseech, admonish, aphorize, inveigh, for the many varied forms of persuasion, direction, expression and symbolic play. A model of language must design it with a face toward communicative conduct and social life". Hymes (1972) thus focuses on what a speaker needs to know to become communicatively competent in a speech community

Halliday (1975) adopts the functional sociolinguistic view of language. In this respect, Halliday (1975: 3) says, "language development, is much more than the acquisition of structure". "Early language development may be interpreted as the child's progressive mastery of a functional potential" (Halliday, 1975: 5), and that "the child learns language as a system of meanings in functional contexts" (Halliday, 1975: 9). Halliday (1975: 15) explains that "the content of an utterance is the meaning that it has with respect to a given function, to one or other of the things that the child is making language do for him". He believes that people acquire language when they gain the linguistic means to perform various types of functions.

Halliday (1975: 11-17) presents the language functions as: (1) The instrumental function: using language to obtain the things one wants 'I want this thing'. (2) The regulatory function: using language to control the other's behaviour

'do as I tell you'. (3) The interactional function: using language to interact with others 'Hello, pleased to see you'. (4) The personal function: using language to express personal feelings, self awareness and meanings. (5) The heuristic function: using language to question, to learn and to discover 'tell me why'. (6) The imaginative function: using language to create a world of the imagination, to create a universe of one's own 'let's pretend'. (7) The informative function: using language as a means to communicate information 'I've got something to tell you'.

Canale and Swain (1980: 20) argue that "an integrative theory of communicative competence may be regarded as one in which there is a synthesis of knowledge of basic grammatical principles, knowledge of how language is used in social contexts to perform communicative functions, and knowledge of how utterance and communicative functions can be combined according to the principles of discourse".

Canale and Swain (1980) identify four dimensions of communicative competence These are:

(1) Grammatical competence: mastery of the language code (e.g. lexical items, rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics and phonology).

(2) Sociolinguistic competence: mastery of suitable language use in various sociolinguistic contexts, with focus on the appropriateness of meanings and forms.

(3) Discourse competence: mastery of how to join meanings with forms to get a unified text in different modes

(4) Strategic competence: "this component will be made up of verbal and non verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (Canale and Swain, 1980: 30).

(2) Theory of Learning

The theory of language learning that underlies this method is holistic rather than behaviouristic. It states that "language acquisition depends not only on exposure to environmental stimulation but also on specific innate propensities of the organism" (Hwang, 1970: 28). Language acquisition is regarded as a creative process, not as habit formation. This approach rejects the idea of language learning by a stimulus-response process.

Very little has been written about CLT's theory of learning. As a result, Richards and Rodgers (1986: 72) say that the "elements of an underlying learning can be discerned in some CLT (communicative language teaching) practices".

Richards and Rodgers (1986) identify three elements, which are:

- (1) The communicative principle which focuses on the idea that activities to establish real communication promote learning.
- (2) The task principle which emphasizes that activities in which learners use language to carry out meaningful tasks promote learning.
- (3) The meaningfulness principle which stresses that the meaningfulness of the language supports and enhances the learning process.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) add other elements which are:

- (1) Learning occurs when the syllabus is related to the needs and experiences of the learners.
- (2) Students' motivation is very important for knowledge and skills acquisition.
- (3) Students play an active role in the learning process. CLT encourages, and gives them the chance to initiate, participate and produce. "The more responsibility students are given the more they will learn" (Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983: 34).

(4) The activities in CLT pay much attention to the fact that all learners have different learning styles and different rates of learning.

(5) "Transfer of learning is not always automatic" (Finocciaro and Brumfit, 1983: 34).

Through the provision of examples, explanations and learning tasks, students learn and gain knowledge. Krashen is one of the theorists who believe in language learning through using language communicatively, rather than through practising language skills. Krashen (in Krashen and Terrell, 1983) proposes a theoretical model which consists of five hypotheses, which will be fully explained later in this chapter:

- (1) The acquisition-learning hypothesis.
- (2) The natural order hypothesis
- (3) The monitor hypothesis.
- (4) The input hypothesis.
- (5) The affective filter hypothesis.

Littlewood (1984) proposes two models of second language learning : (1) the creative construction model, (2) the skill learning model and an explanation is given as to how these two models may be integrated. According to the creative construction model, Littlewood (1984: 69) says, "a learner 'constructs' a series of internal presentations of the second language system. This occurs as a result of natural processing strategies and exposure to the second language in communication situations". In this model, learning occurs subconsciously and spontaneously. In the skill learning model, Littlewood (1984: 74) explains that "the use of a second language is a performance skill. As with other kinds of performance skill, it has a cognitive aspect and a behavioural aspect. The cognitive aspect involves the internalisation of plans for creating appropriate behaviour. For language use, these plans derive mainly from the language system- they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The behavioural aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through practice in converting plans into performance".

(2) Design

The main aim of the approach is to prepare learners for meaningful communication.

(a) Objectives

Piepho (1981: 8) suggests five different levels of objectives in CLT:

- (1) An integrative and content level (language as means and expression).
- (2) A linguistic and instrumental level (language as a semiotic system and an object of learning).
- (3) An affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others).
- (4) A level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis).
- (5) A general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum).

(b) Syllabus

The syllabus in the communicative approach is functional-notional, ('notions' refer to concepts such as time, sequence, location, quantity, frequency; and 'functions' refer to categories such as requests, denials, offers, complaints). These concepts specify the communicative content of a course with respect to the functions, notions, and topics that students need to talk about (e.g. personal topics, weather, shopping), grammar, vocabulary and situations in which the learner may need to use the language (e.g. travel or business).

Yalden (1983: 110-118) provides a classification of communicative syllabus types:

- (1) Structure plus functions. In this type, the two components of form and communicative function are separated and implemented. It is assumed in this model, that "linguistic form had been treated quite thoroughly before work on language functions was introduced. It is thus a question of adding a further

component to an already existing syllabus, rather than integrating communicative teaching with teaching linguistic form" (Yalden, 1983: 110).

(2) Functional spiral around a structural core, or in other words, grammatically based syllabus around which functions, notions and communicative activities are built. As Yalden (1983: 110) points out, it is a "structural progression in a communicative framework".

(3) Structural, functional, instrumental. "Emphasis shifts in turn from structural work on formal features of language, to rhetorical (discourse) features, to the instrumental use of language in the study of school subjects" (Yalden, 1983: 113-14).

(4) Functional. In this type of syllabus, the objectives are proposed in terms of communicative functions, not in terms of linguistic items.

(5) Notional. In this type, the syllabus focuses on concepts that underlie grammatical forms. It may concentrate on general notions such as concepts of time, space, locality, motion or specific notions like lexical and structural items. "The fully notional syllabus, as defined by Wilkins, remains the strongest possible approach to the input syllabus" (Yalden, 1983:115).

(6) Task based. Lists types of tasks to be attempted in the classroom.

(7) Learner generated. Is the most minimal input syllabus. It is a kind of negotiated syllabus in which the learner has the chance to decide both about content and about learning strategies.

(c) Types of Learning and Teaching Activities

CLT activities are built around communicative objectives. Lessons engage students in communication, negotiation and interaction. Learning activities are important in this method to contextualize the teaching. Situations, improvisation, dialogues, debates, games, role-playing give pupils the opportunity to practice the target language.

Littlewood (1981) outlines two types of activity:

(1) 'Functional communicative activities' in which a student uses language to share and process information. These activities take the form of identifying pictures, discovering missing features in a map or picture, following instructions or solving problems.

(2) 'Social interaction activities' in which a student "chooses language which is not only functionally effective, but is also appropriate to the social situation he is in" (Littlewood, 1981: 20). These activities include dialogues, role plays, simulations and conversations. In addition, group work, individual instruction and co-operative work are encouraged in a classroom atmosphere which tends to be relaxed to enable pupils to enjoy their lessons.

(d) Learner Role

In CLT, learners are very active, and interact and cooperate with each other. The classroom organization is less formal and more pupil needs based. Error correction by the teacher may be absent or infrequent. Students are encouraged to risk error in communicating information or their ideas and feelings. Breen and Candlin (1980: 100) describe the role the learner undertakes within the communicative approach as: "the role of the learners as negotiator- between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning - emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains and thereby learn in an interdependent way". Breen and Candlin (1980: 101) continue that "in expression and negotiation, the learner adopts the dual role of being, first, a potential teacher for other learners and second, an informant to the teacher concerning his own learning progress". In general, as Hajjaj (1983: 24) points out a "more student-centred approach is adopted - an approach that tries to capitalize on the students' own learning strategies".

(e) Teacher Role

Breen and Candlin (1980: 99) discuss the two main roles teachers play within a communicative methodology. "The first role is to facilitate the communicative process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an interdependent participant within the learning-teaching group". These roles imply other secondary roles. The teacher may act as a resource, an organizer of resources and a guide, clarifying what students need to do in certain activities and tasks, offering feedback and facilitating group knowledge and exploitation of abilities. The teacher also may adopt the role of a participant-observer who steps back, observes and monitors the communicative process, or may adopt the role of an interdependent participant who actively shares the responsibility for learning and teaching with the pupils.

Richards and Rodgers (1986) describe other roles for the CLT teacher. The teacher in this methodology can be a needs analyst who determines and responds to learners' language needs, or could be a counsellor who may "exemplify an effective communicator seeking to maximize the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 78), or can be a group process manager who manages the classroom as a setting for communication.

Littlewood (1981: 19) assumes that "the teacher has no direct role in the activity. There will also be activities, of course, in which the teacher can take no part as a 'co-communicator'. Provided he can maintain this role without becoming dominant, it enables him to give guidance and stimuli from 'inside' the activity".

(f) The Role of Instructional Material

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 25) suggest that in the communicative methodology,

"(1) materials will focus on the communicative abilities of interpretation, expression, and negotiation.

(2) Materials will focus on understandable, relevant, and interesting exchange of information, rather than on the presentation of grammatical form.

(3) Materials will involve different kinds of texts and different media, which the learners can use to develop their competence through a variety of different activities and tasks".

(3) Procedure

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 107-108) provide basic steps of instruction in a notional-functional approach:

(1) Presentation of a brief dialogue or several mini dialogues, followed by a discussion of the function and situation, persons, roles, setting, topic and the informality and formality of the language used.

(2) Oral practice of the dialogue (entire class repetition, half class, groups, individuals).

(3) Questions and answers related to the student's personal experience but centred around a dialogue theme.

(4) Study one of the basic communicative expressions in the dialogue or one of the structures. Give examples of the communicative use of the expression or structure to clarify its meaning. Use pictures, real objects or dramatisation.

(5) Learner discovery of rules underlying the functional expression or structure. This includes four points; its oral and written forms, its position in the utterance, its formality or informality in the utterance and in the case of a structure; its grammatical function and meaning.

(6) Oral recognition and interpretive activities.

(7) Oral production activities - proceeding from guided to more open-ended communication activities.

(8) Copying of dialogues or modules if they are not in the class text.

(9) Sampling of a written homework assignment.

(10) Evaluation of learning (oral only).

Littlewood (1981: 86) divides CLT procedure into two types of activities. The first is the pre-communicative activities which includes practising purely structural activities (e.g. performing mechanical drills) and quasi communicative activities ("take account of communicative as well as structural facts about language"). The second is communicative activities which include functional communicative activities and social interaction activities. To be more specific, in teaching language skills certain steps are followed: grammatical forms are taught through meaning. When pupils learn a new grammatical item, they must acquire two of its aspects; the grammatical form and the meaning underlying it. Deductive explanation of grammar is provided and listening comprehension is emphasized, pronunciation is not. Comprehensible pronunciation is preferred. Both written and spoken language skills are equally stressed. There is an interest in the teaching of lexis to improve pupil's communicative competence. Pupils are required to learn conventional and idiomatic expressions. The teacher does not correct every mistake in the pupil's language, since this may inhibit them and prevent them from developing communicative competence. Teacher may use the mother tongue when explaining difficult items to save time and increase efficiency.

Advantages of the Communicative Method

The communicative approach produces four kinds of competence: the linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic. This approach is essentially practical. Learners are taught only what is relevant to their needs. They acquire communicative skills in the language. CLT is relevant because it offers the learner the chance to use the language for relevant purposes. As a result, students may be more motivated since they are likely to put more effort into this approach. In addition, CLT is less wasteful of time and effort than any other approach because it teaches only what is relevant and functionally necessary. In the long run, this approach enables the learner to obtain appropriate skills for using the target

language in the real world because this approach is built on a close-approximation to such uses.

Disadvantages of the Communicative Method

Different questions may be raised about this method of teaching. These include:

- (1) Can this method be applied at all levels for all ages, in a language program ?
- (2) Is it suitable for both ESL and EFL situations?
- (3) Does CLT require existing grammar-based syllabus to be abandoned or revised?
- (4) How can this approach be evaluated and objectively assessed?
- (5) How can CLT be adopted in situations where pupils must take grammar-based tests and examinations?
- (6) How suitable is CLT when used by non-native teachers?

This approach is based extensively on the functional-notional syllabus which puts heavy demands on pupils. This is especially true at the early stages of learning because students at this stage lack speaking rules and cultural insights. Concerning the authentic material adopted by this approach, Swan (1985b: 85) argues that "an elementary student, faced with authentic material that is not very carefully chosen, may find it so difficult that they bogged down in a morass of unfamiliar lexis and idiom". A truly communicative approach attempts to produce learners with a native-speaker's communicative competence. This implies that the learner is considered to be learning the foreign language for integrative rather than for instrumental purposes. This may be desirable for some learners, but is it desirable for most EFL learners.

The CLT approach focuses on meanings of rules of use rather than on grammar and rules of structure. As a result, students may not have sufficient knowledge of grammar to be creative with language and perform communicative tasks. Grammar and structural rules are taught intuitively through functions and notions. This may lead to the danger of not covering all areas of grammar.

Consequently, pupils may over-generalize since they may believe that one particular form can only represent a specific function.

One of the major tenets of this approach is 'the rules of use or rules of communication'. Such rules specify the understanding or interpretation of different utterances. However, there is no precise definition of what form such rules may take. It depends on the discretion of the teacher. Utterances gain their communicative value from the context or the situation they are produced in, not by the supposed rules of communication. In this respect, Swan (1985a: 5) argues that rules of use "are non-language specific" and that "the precise value of an utterance is given by the interaction of its structural and lexical meaning with the situation in which it is used".

One of the most important problems is that in communicative classes, grammatically based, discrete - point tests are still used. These tests are easily constructed but do not really reflect actual language use. On the other hand, tests of functional ability have several disadvantages. Whiteson (1981: 350) says "the crucial problem with this kind of test is the subjectivity with which it is usually evaluated.....a functional test is very difficult to replicate" and, "the most regrettable effect is the amount of time teachers spend working on such tests in the classroom" (Whiteson, 1981: 347). Whiteson (1981: 347) argues that "tests aim to measure cc/communicative competence, i.e. the ability to function adequately in verbal communication situations. The problem is that our knowledge of what constitutes cc is scanty and as a result it is difficult to construct valid tests".

The CLT approach places demands upon professional teacher training and teacher's level of competences. Teachers need to create well planned lessons, obtain professional skills in knowing when and how to intervene effectively, be energetic, adaptable and confidently competent in the foreign language. The communicative approach does not offer the teacher the security of the textbook. With the traditional approaches, the teacher can simply follow the prescription offered by the textbook. With the CLT approach, the teacher must choose, adopt and create the material to use. This method pays much attention to pupil's needs. This is quite difficult to implement. In addition, this approach requires competent language teachers. Teachers who are non-native speakers may not be as

communicatively competent as native speakers of the target language, given the fact that not all have the chance to experience the target language in its 'authentic' social and cultural settings. CLT may confuse students who are not used to communicative activities which demand initiation, participation and much production.

Swan (1985a) in his criticism to CLT, examines the theoretical ideas underlying the communicative approach. In this respect Swan (1985a: 2) argues that "the communicative approach fails to take account of the knowledge and skills which language students bring with them from their mother tongue and their experience of the world". Richards and Rodgers (1986: 83) suggest that "communicative language teaching is best considered an approach rather than a method". At the levels of design and procedures, there are much individual interpretations and variations in CLT.

Conclusion of Section One

Section one provides a description of the main three methods of teaching English as a foreign language: the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Language Teaching Method. Advantages and disadvantages of each method are discussed revealing that no one approach is the 'best' option.

Methods of Teaching in Kuwait

Section Two

Introduction

Teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) has become a long standing tradition in many countries throughout the world. This is applicable to most of the Arab countries. More recently, TEFL has gained greater attention as a result of the increasing need of English for different purposes such as travel and business. Many countries have requirements for obtaining a first-hand knowledge of science and technology available in English. In many countries (e.g. the Arab countries), many Colleges of Higher Education (e.g. Medicine, Engineering and Science) still use English as a medium of instruction. In Kuwait, preparing pupils to function effectively in English, means teaching English for eight years on average, during which pupils spend five to seven forty-five minutes periods per week every year learning the English language (Al-Bader, 1983: 1).

Recently major changes have occurred, resulting from applying a new approach to the teaching and learning of foreign languages which is labelled as the 'Communicative Approach'. Before explaining the implementation of this approach in detail, a brief historical review of how the teaching of English began in Kuwait and what approaches were implemented, will be introduced.

How the teaching of English began in Kuwait? a historical survey

Contact between Kuwait and Britain was established during the last few years of the nineteenth century. On 23 January 1899, a treaty was signed between Britain and Kuwait. This treaty's aim was to protect Kuwait from any foreign aggression. This kind of contact encouraged Kuwaities to learn the language of the British, especially when the British government sent representatives to live in Kuwait.

Before 1899, Kuwaities were exposed intensively to the English language during their commercial relations with India. The Kuwaities' main job at that time was diving for pearls. They used to sell pearls in the Indian Markets where English was, and still is the means of communication. Kuwaiti traders needed to learn the English language to be able to converse, bargain and succeed economically.

When oil was discovered in Kuwait by an Anglo-American company, learning English became increasingly desirable. Oil exploitation needed people who are well trained and educated. Such training and education were not available in Kuwait. Therefore, large numbers of students were sent abroad, some of them to the United States of America and some to the United Kingdom, to acquire the necessary knowledge for developments engendered by the discovery of oil. Out of necessity, English became one of the most important subjects in the school curriculum.

Al-Mubarakiya school, was the first school established in Kuwait, founded in 1912. At that time, English was not taught at all. The first contribution to the teaching of English in Kuwait was pioneered by the American Mission. The Rev. Dr. Calverky, minister in charge at that time, organised classes in his house to teach English in 1919. These classes continued until 1934. Such lessons never integrated into formal schooling. Students voluntarily attended these informal classes to learn English in their leisure time. The Rev. Dr. Jong was in charge of the classes from 1928 till 1932. He "believes that they (the classes) helped to give an impetus to the foundation of Al-Ahmadiya school and were responsible for the relatively modern line it came to adopt" (Kharma, 1967: 254).

In 1920, Al-Ahmadiya school was established during Sheik Ahmad Al-Jabir's rule. "English was taught right from the beginning. It has been taught in all sorts of schools ever since" (Kharma, 1967: 254). In 1936 the first Council of Education was established. Because of the lack of Kuwaiti qualified teachers, it invited teachers from Palestine to organise a simple educational system built upon twentieth century educational thinking. In addition, the Council of Education brought teachers, administrators, inspectors and educationists from Egypt, Palestine, Syria and other Arab countries. Since then, development and progress have been continuous.

Khurma (1967: 254) observed that "until 1956-7 the school ladder consisted of seven primary and four secondary years, and just before 1947 an extra secondary year was added to prepare pupils for the London Matriculation. English was taught from the four elementary class onwards, i.e. for eight years in the general section and for nine in the special form. The number of weekly periods varied between seven and nine in the different classes".

In 1956-7, two Arab educationists, Dr. Kabbani and Dr. Akrawi, were invited to examine the educational system in Kuwait. They recommended changing the school ladder into four elementary, four intermediate, and four secondary years. According to the new division of the school ladder, English had to be started one year later, in the first intermediate class. The number of weekly periods for English were eight. "This position has lasted until the present day: eight years of English at the rate of eight periods per week" (Khurma, 1967: 255).

Methods of Teaching in Kuwait

Historically, three major approaches have dominated the English language scene in the Arab World: the Grammar-Translation, the Audiolingual and the Communicative Approaches (Hajjaj, 1983). These will now be considered in the context of Kuwait.

The Grammar-Translation Method in Kuwait

Before 1963 there was not one specific recommended approach that was applied in Kuwait (Ayyub,1985). Teachers were left to decide on what methods and techniques of teaching they used. Most of them adopted a mixture of different approaches such as the Grammar-Translation, Reading or the Direct Method.

A purely **Grammar-Translation Approach** was not implemented. Instead, teachers used techniques which included translation, memorization of conjugation and declensions, with rules emphasized as the foundation of a foreign language. Classes were taught in the mother tongue (Arabic) with little use of the target language (English). Vocabulary was taught in the form of lists of isolated words accompanied with their meanings in Arabic. Long and detailed

explanations of grammatical rules were given. The focus was mainly and intensively on the form. There was little attention to the content of texts which were looked at as exercises for grammatical analysis. Classroom activities were concerned about practising drills which were no more than exercises in translating disconnected sentences from English into Arabic. Pronunciation was completely neglected.

Sometimes the **Direct Method** was followed. Grammar and translation teaching accompanied language usage teaching through demonstration and dramatisation. Lessons were planned to begin with a brief anecdote or dialogue in the target language and managed in a modern conversational style. The material was presented orally and explained by the use of actions and pictures.

When Direct Method techniques appeared not to be working, language teaching moved to the **Reading Method**. West's (1956) text book, known as New Method English for the Arab World, was used (Hajjaj, 1983). This text book included lists of English-Arabic words to facilitate reading. There was no systematic philosophy behind the use of such a school text book. It was based on no specific learning theory or theory of the use and functions of language. "The linguistic theory was that of traditional grammar mixed with structural grammar" (Al-Mutawa et al., 1985: 13). This type of text book neglected communicative aspects of language teaching. It concentrated mainly on passive skills such as reading and memorizing. Pupil awareness of the functional nature of language was gained through extensive reading. The objective of this method was to attain reading ability. Most of the class time was spent working on secondary grammatical elements (e.g. definitions, declensions, conjugations). No attention was paid to oral production or pronunciation. However, spoken English was expected to emerge when students worked on written tasks. Such reading is encouraged both in and out of class. The vocabulary of the early reading is controlled, but later expanded as fast as possible. The outcome created graduates with an ability to understand simple written texts but with weak oral performance. Students, mostly, felt embarrassed when they were asked to talk in English due to insufficient oral competence. At the same time, teachers felt safe since this method is relatively straightforward. Teachers did not have to instil oral skills nor be novel

or creative. They have only to explain rules, which students copy in note form. Assessment was easy and simple.

Before 1963 no systematic use of teaching aids was considered. Aids such as tape-recorders, and language laboratories were not integrated into the language teaching process. "The use of educational media of any sort was almost totally absent and in most cases it was just 'chalk and talk'" (Al-Mutawa et al., 1985: 13). Teachers were not trained.

To conclude, the teaching materials were "those of a global nature (that is, not specific to the Arab World countries) prevailing in the 1950s and to some extent in the early 1960s" (Al-Bader, 1983: 3). Such teaching approaches took much from the characteristics of the Grammar-Translation Method.

The Audiolingual Method in Kuwait

Between 1960 and 1970, a new method called the **Audiolingual Method** appeared in Kuwait. When this method appeared, based on behavioural psychology and structural linguistics, two other factors started to have more importance. First, during and after the second world war, tape recorders and other audio-devices (e.g. language laboratories) spread, enabling pupils to use authentic spoken English models for oral-aural practice. Second, this method focuses on the oral aspect of the foreign language. The increase of interpersonal communication, translation and mass media, have encouraged people to negotiate, interact and communicate face to face with others.

In 1962-1963, the Ministry of Education decided to apply the Audiolingual Approach. When this approach was introduced in Kuwait, intensive in-service training was required. This training included discussion of aims, oral-aural techniques, the adoption of audio-visual aids such as flash-cards, wall-pictures and tapes, and new evaluation techniques.

The Audiolingual Approach was well received. Teachers were satisfied, even the less qualified ones, because of the provision of audio tape material since almost all teachers were non-native speakers of English. Pupils also had the

chance to listen to native speakers. In the Arab world, the English language teaching movement grew under the Audiolingual Method. For example, teachers, felt confident to use the new approach effectively, and contributed significantly to the improvement of the materials used, something that was reflected in subsequent revisions and new editions of Audiolingual materials. Furthermore, an interest grew among teachers, inspectors and others working in the English teaching field to seek graduate courses in education and linguistics (Hajjaj, 1983).

The text book used was called Living English For the Arab World (Allen and Cooke, 1964). It was introduced in Kuwait and was taught for more than fifteen years. Al-Mutawa et al. (1985: 15) comment that "the introduction of the aural/oral approach manifested in Living English For the Arab World, was really a qualitative more in the history of English language teaching in Kuwait and other countries". This book requires dependence on mimicry, memorization of set phrases, and overlearning, because it is based on the belief that language learning is habit formation. With respect to the grading and selection of the syllabus content and the teaching/learning techniques, the course is completely structural. The grading is grammatical. For example: lesson 1/book 1 begins with the present simple tense. It starts with easy rules, with gradual change to more difficult structures and patterns (e.g. conditional sentences). Teachers tend to teach such rules one at a time using repetitive drills. Al-Bader (1983: 3) explains the situation in Kuwait schools: "pattern practice with its chorus repetition technique was common in every school. Educational technology reached an unprecedented boom: tape recorders, language laboratories, films and filmstrips and more recently cassettes". In addition, skills are sequenced in an order of listening, speaking, reading and writing. The reading passages in this book are purposefully void of any authentic use of language but simply exemplifications of patterns and structures (Al-Mutawa et al., 1985: 14). Many exercises on patterns and structures are provided with an intensive focus on pronunciation and special attention to intonation. Within this text book, there is a tendency to manipulate language and disregard content. Classroom activities are teacher-centred. The teacher takes the role of questioner, initiator and formal instructor. The learner takes the role of a listener, responder and passive classroom student.

In 1971, Living English For the Arab World (Allen and Cooke, 1964), was revised and modified. The revised text book was called Progressive Living English (Allen, 1972) and was still basically structural in grading. The selection of the reading passages and dialogues focused on communication. "It included a story-line, science-fiction, journalistic English, and everyday verbal and non-verbal interactive situations" (Al-Mutawa et al., 1985: 16-17). It also encouraged some communicative activities such as role-playing, problem-solving, description and reporting. In addition to this, it attempted to encourage teachers in the selection and production of their own additional material.

The introduction of Living English For the Arab World (Allen and Cooke, 1964), representing the Audiolingual Method of teaching, had advantages. However, it was found that the material was not satisfactory because it emphasized mechanical drilling of language-items and paid much attention to teaching 'neutral' English, which focused on 'usage' or grammar rather than 'use' of language in real situations, such as requesting, describing, defining, agreeing and the other functions of language. Therefore, there developed a need for alternative teaching methods.

The Communicative Language Teaching Method in Kuwait

The Communicative Approach differs from the Audiolingual Method in a number of respects. The following table portrays such differences.

Table 1: Differences between the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Method.

Audiolingual Method	Communicative Method (Functional-Notional Method)
1- Attends to structure and form more than meaning.	Meaning is paramount.
2- Demands memorization of structure-based dialogues.	Dialogue, if used, centres around communication functions and are not normally memorized.

Audiolingual Method	Communicative Method (Functional-Notional Method)
<p>3- Language items are not necessarily contextualized.</p> <p>4- Language learning is learning structure, sound, or words.</p> <p>5- Mastery, or "over-learning" is sought.</p> <p>6- Drilling is a central technique.</p> <p>7- Native-speaker-like pronunciation is sought.</p> <p>8- Grammatical explanation is avoided.</p> <p>9- Communicative activities only come after a long process of rigid drills and exercises.</p> <p>10- The use of the student's native language is forbidden.</p> <p>11- Translation is forbidden at early levels.</p> <p>12- Reading and writing are deferred till speech is mastered.</p> <p>13- The target linguistic system will be learned through the overt teaching of the pattern of the system.</p> <p>14- Linguistic competence is the desired goal.</p>	<p>Contextualization is a basic premise.</p> <p>Language learning is learning to communicate.</p> <p>Effective communication is sought.</p> <p>Drilling may occur, but peripherally.</p> <p>Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.</p> <p>Any device which helps the learners is accepted-varying according to their age, interest, etc.</p> <p>Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.</p> <p>Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.</p> <p>Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.</p> <p>Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.</p> <p>The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.</p> <p>Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e., the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).</p>

Audiolingual Method	Communicative Method (Functional-Notional Method)
<p>15- Varieties of language are recognized but not emphasized.</p> <p>16- The sequence of units is determined solely by principles of linguistic complexity.</p> <p>17- The teacher controls the learners and prevents them from doing anything that conflicts with the theory.</p> <p>18- "Language is habit" so errors must be prevented at all costs.</p> <p>19- Accuracy, in terms of formal correctness, is a primary goal</p> <p>20- Students are expected to interact with the language system, combined in machines or controlled materials</p> <p>21- The teacher is expected to specify the language that students are to use.</p> <p>22- Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in the structure of the language.</p> <p>(in Finocchiaro and Brumfit, 1983: 91-93)</p>	<p>Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.</p> <p>Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest.</p> <p>Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.</p> <p>Language is created by the individual often through trial and error.</p> <p>Fluent and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.</p> <p>Students are expected to interact with people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.</p> <p>The teacher cannot know exactly what language students will use.</p> <p>Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.</p>

Unlike previous approaches, the Communicative Method requires different materials, aids and teaching techniques. Instead of structural grading and selecting of content, language is organized around the concept of the different

roles people play or around the functions or notions of the language. A learner is provided with language which is useful and meaningful, and therefore more motivating.

The learning philosophy that underlies this approach is a cognitive one. The Audiolingual Method relies on behaviourist learning theory which has little to say about the acquisition of rules, grammatical or social functions. As Hwang (1970: 28) suggests, these rules are "mainly accomplished by the internal processes of the learner".

Linguistically, the Communicative Approach is based on transformation-generative grammar. Chomsky (1965) presents two notions 'competence' and 'performance'. By 'competence', Chomsky refers to the ability of the ideal speaker/hearer to produce and generate from a finite set of rules an infinite number of sentences. 'Competence' is concerned with the internalized grammatical system. Or as Chomsky (1965: 4) puts it "the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language". 'Performance' refers to what people actually do when they interact verbally with each other: "the actual use of language in concrete situations" (Chomsky, 1965: 4). As a broadening of Chomsky's notion of competence, Hymes (1971) introduced the concept of 'communicative competence'.

After the early 1970s, the **Communicative Approach** was introduced to the Arab World in its early stages. By the late 1970s, the approach had gained popularity in few Arab countries. In March 1972, a Conference on Curriculum was established in Kuwait. It made two main recommendations: (1) adopt changes in procedures and techniques that differ from mechanical drilling; (2) use more teaching aids to enliven the teaching-learning process of EFL in the classroom (Al-Mutawa et al., 1985).

As a result, in 1975, the Ministry of Education in Kuwait implemented a new policy in the field of curricula development. Curricula development committees inaugurated many debates, studies and discussions about English language teaching in the country. Consequently, they recommended major changes in approach, text books and methodology. They inaugurated ELT objectives in Kuwait, defined them and asked for ELT courses to be built around the

communicative approach to fulfil the needs of Kuwait and to meet the defined objectives.

In late 1970s, the Ministry of Education in Kuwait decided to adopt the Crescent English Course (CEC) (O'Neil and Snow, 1980). "The Crescent English Course was tried out in two intermediate schools in Kuwait in 1976 and in 1977, the trial covered 32 intermediate schools. Gradually Crescent English gained ground until it became the prevalent course in post-primary public schools in Kuwait in 1983" (Al-Mutawa et al., 1985: 28).

CEC (Crescent English Course) materials (O'Neil and Snow, 1980) are based on the following assumptions: (1) Language is a means of communication. As a result "this course seeks to provide opportunities, through activities, for pupils in the classroom to communicate with one another and with their teacher in a meaningful and natural way" (Ministry of Education, 1990: 73). (2) Language should be learned in a social context. The CEC material have been designed "to provide socialization through group work and to provide situations in which the learner's imagination can find a variety of topics and settings and in which he can play different roles" (Ministry of Education, 1990: 74). (3) Learning a new language should be fun. The CEC materials try to provide enjoyment by being attractive and amusing. It creates an atmosphere of relaxation.

The focus of CEC books was on the communicative nature of the language. Learners had the chance to express their thoughts and ideas. These books required a group/pair work to enable natural communication to take place. To make the learning of English a pleasant, funny, non-boring and motivating experience, students were provided with songs and rhymes. The teacher-centred classroom situation was replaced with a pupil-centred classroom organization. The teacher's response towards students' mistakes changed. Their behaviour towards correctness was modified from constant correction to more tolerance. In the next section, syllabus, teaching materials, classroom activities, and teaching techniques and procedures, will be discussed, as relevant to Kuwait.

(a) Syllabus

"The syllabus adopted by the 'Curriculum Development Committee' is concerned with what students are expected to do in everyday situations or when they begin their higher education" (Al-Bader, 1983: 6). The grading is based on the functions of language such as introducing people, requesting, greeting and comparing, providing the learner the opportunity to practice authentic English. The objective is to help pupils use the language in different situations and different modes of expression to enable them to communicate not only in the classroom but also outside school.

(b) CEC Materials: Materials for the pupil:

1- Pupils' Book: Its function is to give the student a variety of English language in written form. It provides the student with opportunities for independent learning and self-reliance.

2- Pupils' Workbook: This is built around communicative exercises that allow students to practice the new language introduced in the Pupil's Book. It focuses on communicative skills/sub-skills that learners need (e.g. guessing from context, finding information, making/taking notes or supporting ideas).

3- Pupils' Cassette: This is meant to be used at home. Its function is to: practice and reinforce the new language use in the classroom; encourage self learning; and build student's self confidence. This minimizes embarrassment and fears when attempting to speak a foreign language. The cassette presents accurate models of language produced by native speakers, and also provides fun and enjoyment. It introduces the outside world to the student and makes learning real and natural.

4- The Pupils' Reference Book is for extensive reading at home.

Materials for the teacher:

1- The Teacher's Book explains to the teacher the strategies and the techniques to help teach the course.

2- Class Cassettes: These are used to practise listening skills and to improve pronunciation. They give the learners the chance to hear authentic English varieties as spoken by native speakers.

3- OHP Transparencies are a technological, educational aid to help the teacher to present drawings, diagrams, instant models and tables to the students quickly and efficiently.

(c) Language Skills and Activities

Language Skills

The Functional-Notional Communicative Approach emphasizes the basic four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Those skills can be divided into two types: the receptive skills and the productive skills. The receptive skills include listening and reading. Listening practice is provided through a variety of natural, spoken English. Reading practice is achieved through stories, parts of plays, notices and advertisements. The productive skills include speaking and writing. The two skills that are "practised within the context, a task, a situation or a project and gradually with a progressive relaxation of teacher control" (Ministry of Education, 1990: 106).

Language Activities (Ministry of Education, 1990)

Language activities take two forms: 'in class activities' and 'out of class/out of school activities'. In the 'in class activities', students can listen for the gist of a subject as a basis for note taking, as a basis for class discussion, or to have an idea about other cultures.

Students can speak, question and answer, provide explanations, describe objects, interpret tables, diagrams and pictures, role play, recite poetry, re-tell a story, or play language games. They can read different tasks like descriptive passages, narrative passages, expository passages, dialogues, advertisements, newspaper articles, diary type entries, notes, and reports. Students can write various types of writings, for example: descriptive writing, dialogue/conversation, reports, letters, diary extracts, advertisements, explanations, project-travel brochure, drama, notices, slogans, and telegrams.

In terms of 'out-of-class/out-of-school activities', students can listen to native speakers on the radio and T.V. and listen to songs and poems. They can go to cinemas and theatres; attend conferences, English speaking clubs and societies; visit museums, exhibitions, shops, supermarkets, the airport, and factories; and write reports about national festivals (e.g. Kuwait National Day, Ramadan Nights, Eid El Fitr). Pupils may be encouraged to read supplementary books for free reading and encouraged to work on projects (e.g. making radio programmes).

(d) Teaching Techniques and Procedures

One of the most common techniques followed in communicative classes is the use of group/pair work. "In CEC, where the socialization of language use and learning is a basic characteristic, the group work technique is integrated in the course" (Ministry of Education, 1990: 125). Group work is an effective technique because it provides a social context which encourages a spontaneous use of language. It brings about exchanges and pupil/pupil interaction.

Following the Communicative Approach, CEC adopts groupwork as a teaching technique because group work moves the focus of activities from the teacher to the pupil, allows for cooperative work and enables individuals to participate according to their ability. It provides the natural social context through which communication flows. Group work encourages the intellectual and emotional involvement of the individual pupil and motivates creativity and enjoyment.

In teaching vocabulary, composition, listening comprehension, speaking and reading comprehension, different steps are followed:

Teaching Vocabulary

new vocabulary items are presented by several ways. One of these ways is providing the definition of the vocabulary item, its synonyms and antonyms. The vocabulary item can be explained by using gestures, drawings and pictures, dramatisation, or by presenting real objects that represent the vocabulary item. The teacher may use the vocabulary item in context or translate it into the first language.

Teaching Composition

steps for teaching composition

- 1- choose familiar subjects.
- 2- make decisions on lexical items to be used.
- 3- introduce the subject clearly.
- 4- have intensive oral discussion about the subject.
- 5- write students' ideas on the blackboard, vocabulary items and tenses.
- 6- make sure students understand the subject.
- 7- allow students to write, go round, help and check.
- 8- read out good compositions.

Teaching Listening Comprehension

The procedure of a listening comprehension lesson is as follows:

- 1- Warm up: provide pupils with a brief introduction. Ask questions to pupils.
- 2- Pre-teach key words or active vocabulary.
- 3- Write a few questions to guide the pupils listening and to allow them to answer as they listen.
- 4- Play the tape once, ask questions and check answers, then play the tape again.
- 5- Allow for a group discussion.

Teaching Speaking

Speaking can be practised through dialogues, role playing, improvisation and dramas techniques. Such activities make language learning more meaningful, more realistic and more fun.

Teaching Reading Comprehension

The procedure of a reading comprehension lesson is as follows:

- 1- warm up.
- 2- pre-teach an active vocabulary.
- 3- write a few questions on the board.
- 4- allow students to read silently.
- 5- elicit answers to the question on the board.
- 6- allow group discussion.

Teaching Aids

As teaching techniques, teachers use what is called 'teaching aids': a chalk board, tape recorder, overhead projector, language laboratory and self-made aids.

(1) A chalk board is the most useful and most widely used teaching aid in the classroom. A chalk board can show learners the written form of all language items and enable the whole class to see them at once; the teacher can draw diagrams, introduce short dialogues and write drilling exercises.

(2) The tape/cassette recorder brings in the voice of native speakers. It allows students to hear songs and stories that convey the foreign language culture to the classroom. It enables students to imitate native speakers. In general, it supplies the classroom with the natural atmosphere of the language.

(3) The overhead projector (OHP) can be used to present new lexical items, to explain grammatical rules, to introduce exercises, and project on the screen pictures and even read objects.

(4) The language laboratory: In the language lab pupils can practise the use of language and hear native speakers at their own pace as many times as they wish.

(5) Self-made aids (e.g wall-sheets). Teachers may make their own teaching aids and encourage their pupils to prepare their own.

Conclusion of Section Two

Section two has presented a brief review of how the teaching of English began in Kuwait and what approaches have been implemented. This review is summarized in a table on the following page. The three approaches that have been used in Kuwait were the Grammar-Translation, the Audiolingual and the Communicative Language Teaching Methods. Each method's application in Kuwaiti schools has been explained with its characteristics and syllabus.

Table 2: Development of English language teaching methods and syllabus in Kuwait

Method of Teaching	Characteristics of Teaching Method	School Textbooks (Intermediate level) (in Ayyub, 1985: 100)	School Textbooks (Secondary Level) (in Ayyub, 1985: 100)
<p>Before 1963</p> <p>No specific teaching approach was applied. Teachers adopted a mixture of different approaches such as: (1)Grammar-Translation Method, (2)the Reading Method and (3) the Direct Method</p> <p>1963-1970</p> <p>The Ministry of Education decided to apply the Audiolingual Approach</p>	<p><u>A. Grammar-Translation Method</u></p> <p>(1)Teachers use Arabic to teach English</p> <p>(2)Teachers introduce vocabulary in the form of lists of isolated words accompanied with their meanings in Arabic</p> <p>(3)Much explanation of grammar</p> <p>(4)Students start reading early</p> <p>(5)Teachers disregard content and meaning of texts, but use them as exercises for grammatical analysis</p> <p>(6)Students translate disconnected sentences from Arabic to English and from English to Arabic</p> <p>(7)Pronunciation is neglected</p> <p><u>B. The Direct Method</u></p> <p>(1)More focus on oral production</p> <p>(2)More use of conversation</p> <p>(3)Less use of Arabic in class</p> <p>(4)More use of action and pictures</p> <p><u>C. The Reading Method</u></p> <p>(1)Focus on reading as an objective</p> <p>(2)Again less focus on pronunciation</p> <p>(3)Much introduction of vocabulary, considered very important</p> <p>(1)Focus on mimicry and memorization</p> <p>(2)Language is cut into structures that are sequenced and taught one by one</p> <p>(3)The use of repetitive skills to learn</p> <p>(4) Grammar is taught inductively</p>	<p>- West (1956): New Method English for the Arab World.</p> <p>- A. Khaki: The New English, Reader II</p> <p>- Allen and Cooke (1964). Living English for the ArabWorld (LEAW)</p>	<p>- West (1956): New Method English for the Arab World, Reader 6.</p> <p>- Johnson: English occasions</p> <p>- Allen: Living English Structure</p> <p>- Allen: Living English Structure for schools</p> <p>- Easier English Practice</p>

Method of Teaching	Characteristics of Teaching Method	School Textbooks (Intermediate level) (Ayyub, 1985: 100)	School Textbooks (Secondary Level) (Ayyub, 1985: 100)
<p>1971-1979 Audiolingual Method + focus on communication</p> <p>1980 and on Communicative Approach</p>	<p>(5) Skills are taught in this order: listening, speaking, reading and writing (6) Much use of tapes, language labs and teaching aids (7) Reading is not begun early (8) Much attention paid to pronunciation and intonation (9) Correct answers are immediately reinforced (10) Attempts are made to prevent students' errors (11) Focus on oral practice and disregard of content</p> <p>(1) Apply the audio-lingual method of teaching in addition to some focus on communication (2) Use communicative activities (e.g. role playing and problem solving)</p> <p>(1) Focus on communication or communicative competence (2) Form is not emphasized, function is (3) Use of group work (4) Teacher is facilitator (5) Student is more active (6) Comprehension is regarded as very important (7) Language skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) are considered as having equal importance (8) Memorization and repetition are not emphasized (9) The use of contextualization in teaching language. Teachers use many teaching aids and authentic material</p>	<p>- - Progressive Living English for the Arab World. (PLEAW) (Allen, 1972)</p> <p>- Crescent English Course (CEC) Oxford University Press (O'Neil and Snow, 1980)</p>	<p>- Practice your English</p> <p>- Living English Secondary Course (LESC) - Living English Revision Book (LE:RB) BK 4</p> <p>- Crescent English Course (CEC) OUP (O'Neil and Snow, 1980)</p>

Brief Review of Other Methods of Foreign Language Teaching

Section Three

Introduction

This section will provide a brief review of the following methods: (1) Community Language Learning (CLL) (2) the Silent Way (3) Suggestopedia (4) Total Physical Response (TPR) and (5) the Natural Approach (NA). Within the Natural Approach, Krashen's hypotheses will be presented and criticized.

Brief review of other methods of foreign language teaching

(1) Community Language Learning (CLL)

This method is developed by Charles Curran (1972) and built on the principles of humanistic psychology. This method puts Carl Rogers (1951) philosophy into action. Carl Rogers considers the emotional part of the human being. He focuses on the development of self-concept, and a personal sense of reality and the internal forces that lead one to act. Rogers believes that human beings are able to adapt and to grow in the way that enhances their existence. He feels that when a person lives in a non-threatening environment, he will grow and learn successfully. In this respect, Brown (1987: 17) explains "the 'fully functioning person', according to Rogers, lives at peace with all his feelings and reactions, he is able to be what he potentially is; he exists as a process of being and becoming himself. This fully functioning person, in his self-knowledge, is fully open to his experience, is without defensiveness, and creates himself anew at each moment in every action taken and in every decision made".

Rogers' (1951) philosophy has implications for language education. The focus is on learning not teaching, especially on student-centred learning. Teachers are facilitators not superiors, and not authoritarian. Teachers accept and

praise students as being worthy and valuable. Teachers are effective, communicating openly and empathically with students.

In describing CLT's goals, Ovando and Collier (1985: 75) suggest that "goals and principles include learner security, assertion, attention, reflection, retention at a 'deep' memory level, and discrimination (learner-initiated analysis of the language). The most important goal is creation of a cooperative learning community, in which students are responsible for each other".

In a class taught by this method, students are seated in a closed circle. The teacher, 'the knower', is outside the circle. The learners start conversations in their first language. The knower translates it into the foreign language in a clear, effective, supportive voice. The sentences produced are taped. Gradually the learner gains the ability to speak a word or sentence directly in the foreign language without translations until, after many sessions, the learner moves from dependence and helplessness to independence and self-assurance. Students are completely in charge of their own learning. The teacher acts as a facilitator rather than a dominant authority figure. Because the lessons are generated by students, they are personal, with a consequent high retention of the foreign language. The cooperative group work allows students to support, counsel, initiate activities and motivate each other with very low levels of anxiety.

This method has advantages. One of the main advantages is its attempt to overcome the threatening affective factors in learning a foreign language, to remove the feeling of alienation and inadequacy that may be caused by the threat of the all knowing, authoritarian teacher or of intense competition. It is a student-centred method which uses extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

The method also has disadvantages. This method is non-directive to the extent that valuable time may be lost in the process of leaving students to 'discover' facts by themselves. Students often need direction especially in the initial stages. Another problem is in following the inductive strategy of learning. In the initial stage, students should be taught by deductive ways, by being informed and led. In later stages, when the learner moves to more independence, the inductive strategy becomes successful. Also "a non-threatening environment might become

so non-threatening that the facilitative tension needed for learning is removed" (Brown, 1987:72). Research supports the effectiveness of competitiveness in the classroom, as long as it does not lower self-esteem or inhibit motivation (Bailey, 1983).

(2) The Silent Way

The Silent Way was founded by Caleb Gategno. It follows the problem-solving approach to learning. It reflects the influence of the cognitive-code theory of learning. In this approach, students think in the language they learn. They mentally repeat, recall words and put them together to create correct, new sentences. Students watch actions, listen to utterances and grasp the meaning.

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 99) summarize the theory of learning that is behind this method:

"(1) Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned. (2) Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects. (3) Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned".

The Silent Way relies on 'discovery learning' which, as Bruner (1962: 83) discusses, allows for: (1) "the increase in intellectual potency, (2) the shift from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards, (3) the learning of the heuristic of discovering, and (4) the aid to conserving memory".

In a classroom using the Silent Way, students cooperate with each other in the process of solving language problems, they develop autonomy, independence and responsibility while the teacher is silent most of the time. The teacher acts as a stimulator, rarely gives corrective feedback and allows students to work on problems and provide solutions. The materials used are a set of Cuisinere rods (small coloured rods of different lengths). These rods are presented to introduce vocabulary (e.g. colours, numbers) adjectives, (e.g. long, short, wide, narrow), verbs (e.g. give, take, pick up) and syntax (e.g. tense, comparatives).

When the instruction begins, students concentrate intensively because the teacher's exposition will not be repeated. The teacher takes a rod and says 'a rod'. Then he or she repeats the action talking about rods of different colours. Next, the teacher asks two students to come to him/her and says to one of them: 'take a red rod'. When the student does, he/she says: 'give it to...'. Gradually, the teacher says less and less and the student produces more and more. The first language of the student is not used. The printed word is taught through 'visual dictation' (Madsen, 1979). The teacher introduces visual words that were used previously in sentences, points at them, utters new words and makes combinations. Later the role is shifted. The teacher presents utterances, and students point on the chart to the words the teacher produces. For vocabulary acquisition, drawings, pictures and work sheets are used. Miniature pictures are utilized to enable students to label the words. The Silent Way allows for natural language acquisition through sequenced exercises and activities that are comprehensible and built around communication rather than form.

This method's effectiveness is notable. "It combines a high degree of mental involvement and interest with actual use of the language" (A Forum staff article, 1974: 5). Madsen (1979: 33) states: "I have seen the method used effectively in a large scale intensive foreign language programme. Moreover, demonstration of the method are impressive in illustrating how rapidly the language can be learned".

While this method has advantages, it also has limitations. It begins with irrelevant discussion about rods. Students may need more relevant language learning. The teacher is too silent, non-directive and distant to create a communicative atmosphere. Students, especially in the initial stage, need more guidance and corrections. They may spend too much time on elements that can be simply explained by the teacher's direct guidance.

(3) Suggestopedia

This method was developed by Georgi Lozanov (1978) who contends that the human brain has the ability to process large quantities of material if provided with the right conditions for learning. Suggestopedia is an invitation to use fully

human brain power. Lozanov (1978) believes that people can learn much more than they think. He states that relaxed states of mind allow for maximum retention of material. "Lozanov's methodology is designed to counteract the many negative 'suggestions' or fears which purportedly inhibit learning: feelings of incompetence, fear of making mistakes, apprehension of that which is novel or unfamiliar" (Madsen, 1979: 30). Music is essential in this method. "According to Lozanov, during the soft playing of Baroque music, one can take in tremendous quantities of material, due to an increase in alpha brain waves and decrease in blood pressure and pulse rate" (Brown 1987: 141).

In a class taught by this method, students sit relaxed in soft, comfortable seats with classical music in the background. Students are 'child like', having names of native speakers of the foreign language and depending totally on the teacher who has full authority. Unlike the Silent Way, in Suggestopedia, the teacher has a much stronger role and decides what takes place in class.

Lozanov (1978: 272) describes a Suggestopedia language class: "At the beginning of the session, all conversation stops for a minute or two, and the teacher listens to the music coming from a tape-recorder. He waits and listens to several passages in order to enter into the mood of the music and then begins to read or recite the new text, his voice modulated in harmony with the musical phrases. The students follow the text in their textbooks where each lesson is translated into the mother tongue. Between the first and second part of the concert, there are several minutes of solemn silence. In some cases, even longer pauses can be given to permit the students to stir a little. Before the beginning of the second part of the concert, there are again several minutes of silence and some phrases of the music are heard again before the teacher begins to read the text. Now the students close their textbooks and listen to the teacher's reading. At the end, the students silently leave the room. They are not told to do any homework on the lesson they have just had except for reading it cursorily once before going to bed and again before getting up in the morning".

The most common activity performed by students in Suggestopedia is role playing. Students engage in interactive, communicative exercises based on dialogues. The teacher in this method should be lively, cheerful and sensitive to

reduce students' tensions and anxieties. There is minimal error correction and no focus on accurate pronunciation and grammar. The teacher uses the first language for explanations and discussion. "The method seems to encourage lack of inhibition and, consequently, to lead to natural language acquisition" (Ovando and Collier, 1985: 75).

It is observed that Suggestology students have remarkable fluency and lack inhibition. They are willing and able to communicate. They acquire language proficiently far more rapidly and with greater positive affect than students taught by traditional methods (Madsen, 1979). George Lozanov (1978: 27) in his book 'Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedya', argues that, "as seen from the results obtained in experimental groups memorization in learning by the suggestopedic method seems to be accelerated 25 times over that in learning by conventional methods. This means the efficiency of intellectual work could be considerably raised - hence the great saving in time of this method". "The degree of memorization of suggestopedically learned words varies from 96 to 100 percent" (Lozanov, 1978: 28).

However, Suggestopedia has been criticized on several issues. Music, comfortable chairs and luxurious classrooms may not be available and are costly. Too much emphasis may be placed on memorization in language learning. In addition, Suggestopedia is designed for classes in which students have a common native language. Teachers should be fluent in both the target and the students' native language. "There are indications that the system may not work as well with the right temperament and philosophical persuasions" (Madsen, 1979: 31). A common criticism of this method is that students' speech seem to be somewhat inaccurate grammatically and phonologically.

(4) Total Physical Response (TPR)

Total Physical Response developed by James Asher (1977), is a method built around the coordination of speech and action. It teaches language through physical activity. TPR is based on the 'trace theory' of memory in psychology, "which holds that the more often or the more intensively a memory connection is traced, the stronger the memory association will be and the more likely it will be

recalled. Retracing can be done verbally (e.g., by rote repetition) and/or in association with motor activity. Combined tracing activities, such as verbal rehearsal accompanied by motor activity, hence increase the probability of successful recall" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 87). "Adding body movement to the acquisition of structures and vocabulary expands the potential for storage in long term memory; touch and movement are added to the stimulants of sight and sound" (Ovando and Collier, 1985: 76).

Asher (1977) believes in: (1) adult foreign language learning parallels child first language acquisition. Speech acts in children takes the form of commands to which they respond physically before responding verbally.

(2) The importance of the affective factors in language learning. TPR is undemanding. It does not force linguistic production. It involves game-like movements which reduce learner tension and anxiety.

(3) Comprehension precedes production in language learning and teaching. Speaking should be delayed until comprehension is established.

In a classroom using TPR, the imperative mood is utilized. The students listen then act. The teacher gives commands and models the physical movement to carry out the command: 'open the window, close the door, stand up, sit down, take the book, give it to Ahmad'. Verbal responses are not required from students. More complex syntax is gradually integrated into the imperative: 'walk slowly to the door and open it'. Humour can be created: 'walk, then jump and dance'. Interrogatives can be introduced: 'where is the pen? Who is Ahmad?' (students point to the pen or to Ahmad). Gradually, students will feel ready and confident enough to produce verbal behaviour, answer and ask questions. Eventually they move to reading and writing.

TPR, like any other method, has its limitations. TPR is effective in the initial stages of language proficiency, but then it loses its effectiveness as learners progress in their competence. It is effective for student beginners but not for the advanced students whose objective is cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP).

(5) The Natural Approach (NA)

This approach proposed by Tracy Terrell, is built around the naturalistic principles found in successful second language acquisition and based on a theoretical model developed in the U.S. by Stephen Krashen (Krashen and Terrell, 1983).

This method attempts to provide a context in the classroom that encourages natural language acquisition. The students, 'the acquirers' receive much 'comprehensible input' (by the use of contextualization, pictures, movements and gestures). This method tries to establish the best conditions that lower students' affective filter. Teachers fulfil this requirement through their simplification of speech, the provision of low anxiety situations, the focus on the students' needs and desires, the reduction of error correction, the avoidance of forcing linguistic production until students are ready, and acceptance of the students' first language.

This method does not follow the grammatical organization of language as a prerequisite to teaching. It focuses on comprehension and meaningful communication. It employs techniques that establish comprehensible and meaningful practice activities.

The Natural Approach relies on five basic elements: (1) the 'Natural Approach' goal is to develop communication skills. (2) Comprehension precedes production. (3) Production emerges as the acquisition process progress. (4) Acquisition activities are central. (5) Lower the affective filter.

The theoretical base that underlies the 'Natural Approach'

Krashen proposes a theoretical model which consists of five hypothesis (Krashen and Terrell, 1983):

(1) The acquisition-learning hypothesis: There are two ways for developing competence in second language. The first way is by language acquisition, the second is by language learning. Krashen and Terrell (1983: 26) explain that "language learning is 'knowing about' language, or 'formal knowledge' of a

language. While acquisition is subconscious, learning is conscious. Learning refers to 'explicit' knowledge of rules, being aware of them and being able to talk about them. This kind of knowledge is quite different from language acquisition, which could be termed 'implicit'. Acquisition takes place when there is meaningful interaction in a natural communicative setting where speakers pay attention to meaning not form. According to Krashen's hypothesis, learning cannot lead to acquisition.

(2) **The monitor hypothesis:** This hypothesis states that conscious learning has limited function in adult second language performance: it can only be used as a monitor, or an editor. It checks the output of the acquired system. To use the monitor successfully, three conditions should be met: (1) Time. The learner should have enough time to choose and apply a learned rule. (2) Focus on form. The learner should be focused on correctness or on the form. (3) Knowledge of the rule. The learner should know the rule. Krashen distinguishes Monitoring with capital 'M' that occurs only in learning and monitoring with a small 'm' that occurs in acquisition. Monitoring can be achieved by 'feel' judgments (e.g. it sounds right) when the speaker uses acquired competence. Learners vary in their use of the monitor: some are under users (who do not use their conscious knowledge to monitor their utterances); some are optional users (who use the monitor appropriately when it does not interfere with communication), and others are over-users (who monitor consciously all the time and seem concerned with correctness).

(3) **The input hypothesis:** This hypothesis answers the question of how does one acquire language? First, the hypothesis refers to acquisition not to learning. Second, for successful second language acquisition, the acquirer should understand input language that consists of structure a little beyond current competence. It should neither be so close to the student's level nor so far beyond current competence to overwhelm. Third, oral production, cannot be taught directly; rather, it emerges naturally in time, after the acquirer has gained linguistic competence by understanding input. Fourth, if input is understood by the learner and there is a sufficient amount of it, the necessary grammar is automatically gained.

To state the hypothesis more formally, Krashen indicates that "an acquirer can 'move' from a stage i (where i is the acquirer's level of competence) to a stage $i+1$ (where $i+1$ is the stage immediately following i along some natural order) by understanding language containing $i+1$ " (Krashen and Terrell, 1983: 32).

(4) **The natural order hypothesis:** Krashen claims that grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order. Specific structures tend to be acquired earlier while other structures tend to be acquired later.

(5) **The affective filter hypothesis:** Krashen believes that the learner's emotional state has the ability to pass, impede or block input necessary to acquisition. This hypothesis is based on research in second language acquisition: (1) Motivation: highly motivated students do better. (2) Self-confidence: self-confident students are more successful. (3) Anxiety: a low level of anxiety allows for more language acquisition.

Krashen (1985: 4) states that the five hypotheses can be summarized as follows: "people acquire second languages if they obtain comprehensible input and if their affective filters are low enough to allow the input 'in'. When the filter is 'down' and appropriate comprehensible input is presented (and comprehended), acquisition is inevitable. It is, in fact, unavoidable and cannot be prevented, the language 'mental organ' will function just as automatically as any other organ".

Krashen's model has received analysis and criticism by various linguists and psychologists. This will now be shared.

(1) The Acquisition/Learning Distinction

McLaughlin (1978) criticizes the Monitor model as being unreliable. McLaughlin (1978: 22) stresses that "there needs to be some objective way of determining what is acquisition and what is learning. This Krashen did not supply". Krashen defines the 'acquisition/learning' distinction in terms of 'subconscious' and 'conscious' processes "which are not open to inspection" (Ellis, 1985: 264). This hypothesis cannot be tested empirically. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 247) argue that "the incestuous nature of the original

three (Learning-Acquisition, Natural Order and Monitor) Hypothesis was problematic, with resulting difficulties in interpreting empirical tests of each". Krashen does not explain clearly the cognitive processes that are responsible for 'acquisition' or 'learning'. He does not mention what the acquirer does with the input (Ellis, 1985).

Krashen believes that 'acquisition' and 'learning' are separate and learning does not become acquisition. McLaughlin (1987: 24) comments that "no empirical evidence is provided in support of the claim". Rivers (1980) and Gregg (1984) disagree with Krashen. They argue that when the language learner practices language, 'learns it consciously', learnt language gets automatized, then becomes acquired. Gregg (1984) indicates that some rules can be acquired through learning. He explains his personal experience in learning the rules for forming the past tense and gerundive forms of Japanese verbs. He memorized the conjugation chart in his textbook. After a while he was able to use these forms without making mistakes. He was not exposed to input. He points out that he learnt these rules by drills and these rules were acquired without interacting with native speakers. Rivers (1980: 52) argues that "from the psychological point of view it also seems highly improbable that acquisition and conscious learning, as Krashen describes them, could be non-interactive, totally separate system, separate not only from each other but apparently from any previous learning. Such a model simply does not tally with the great body of recent research in cognitive processing".

(2) The Monitor Hypothesis

The monitor hypothesis has been criticized for limiting monitoring only to production and forgetting about the reception of utterances. Regarding Krashen's argument that learning is available only for use in production not in comprehension, McLaughlin (1987: 24) comments that "Krashen provides no evidence for this claim". Also this hypothesis is criticized for being limited to syntax although learners can edit their lexis, pronunciation and discourse.

Ellis (1985: 265) adds that "Krashen tends to confuse 'monitoring' and 'learning' although the former refers to performance and the latter to rule internalization.....There is no detailed discussion of how 'learning' takes place".

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 247) argue that "the lack of any independent measure of whether some one was an 'under-optimal or over-user' of the Monitor constituted a further obstacle to falsification". Krashen considers the Monitor over-user is the one who consciously applies rules all the time while the Monitor under-user as one who does not use his conscious knowledge and self corrects only by 'feel'. McLaughlin (1987: 27-28) argues "how is one to know, however, when an individual is consciously applying a rule? the question of how conscious these rules are is difficult (perhaps impossible) to answer". McLaughlin (1978, 1987) discusses also that it is difficult to distinguish 'rule' application in Monitoring and 'feel' (the implicit use of 'acquired' language to edit an utterance). Rivers (1980: 52) comments that "from the psychological point of view it is difficult to distinguish between self-correction by 'feel' and self-correction by 'rule', in the sense in which Krashen uses these terms".

Regarding Krashen's argument that children are more superior language learners than adult language learners because they do not use the Monitor, McLaughlin (1987: 29) asks "what evidence there is that lack of the monitor in childhood leads to superior competence in second language?" Also, that "research on syntactic and semantic variables consistently supports the argument that older learners are better both in terms of rate and ultimate attainment" (McLaughlin, 1987: 29). "Perhaps using the Monitor actually leads to better performance and this is why adolescents do so well" (McLaughlin, 1987: 29). Many learners argue that formal learning and applying conscious knowledge allow them to perform better. McLaughlin (1987: 30) concludes that "the argument from adult-child difference is based on two unproven assumptions: that children are, ultimately, superior to adults in language performance and that Monitor use interferes with performance".

(3) The Natural Order Hypothesis

This hypothesis is based on morpheme studies which have been attacked on several points. Questions were raised about cross-sectional design and statistical procedures followed in many of the morpheme studies. This hypothesis has also been criticized for the number of morphemes studied represent only a small sample of English structures (Taylor, 1984).

One of the problems of this hypothesis is that it tells little or nothing about the process of acquiring a second language. Commenting on this hypothesis, McLaughlin (1987: 35) argues that "research that has looked at the developmental sequence for specific grammatical forms indicates that there is individual variation and that there may be several different developmental streams leading to target-like competence. If the Natural Order Hypothesis is to be accepted, it must be in a weak form, which postulates that some things are learned before others, but not always. Lacking a theory of why this is the case, such an hypothesis does not tell us much".

(4) The Input Hypothesis

Krashen provides some evidence for the input hypothesis. This use of evidence has been criticized: (1) the silent period, (2) age difference, (3) the effect of exposure, (4) lack of access to comprehensible input.

Commenting on Krashen's consideration of the silent period as an evidence for the input hypothesis, McLaughlin (1987: 38) says "evidence of a silent period is not evidence for the input hypothesis. Comprehensible input (made meaningful through extra-linguistic information) cannot, in and of itself account for the development of the learner's grammatical system. Understanding messages is not enough. How does the learner progress from understanding to acquisition". In this respect, Gregg (1984: 90) says "the fact that production ability emerges does not mean that there should be no production for several months. The silent period is not inconsistent with the Input Hypothesis, but neither is it evidence for it". Taylor (1984) agrees with McLaughlin and Gregg and comments that the silent period does not address the question of how language is actually learned. Taylor (1984)

even suggests other interpretations of the 'silent period' (e.g. anxiety and ignorance).

Concerning age differences, Krashen believes that older learners progress more quickly in the early stages than younger learners. This is because older students are able to obtain more comprehensible input through their knowledge of the world, which makes the input more understandable, and through their better ability to engage in conversation than young acquirers. McLaughlin (1987) believes that, in this respect, younger acquirers should have advantages over older acquirers because speech communicated to them is simplified and built around the 'here and now'. Thus age difference cannot be considered an evidence for the input hypothesis and other explanations for older acquirers' superiority can be provided.

Krashen has provided no evidence for his assertion that research on the effects of exposure supports the Input hypothesis. To do so, he would have to provide some way of determining what is comprehensible input for a given learner, because presumably it is not mere exposure that is effective, but exposure to the right kind of input. There is no way of determining what such input should be, and hence no way of testing the hypothesis" (McLaughlin, 1987: 40).

In the Input Hypothesis, Krashen states that when input occurs, it should be meaningful and understood. McLaughlin (1987: 40) says "there is considerable evidence, however, that first-and second language learners acquire structures that are neither understood nor due to be acquired next".

Krashen suggests that the best way to acquire the second language (L2) is to process the language in the same as children do when they acquire their first language. There is no need to focus on form or drills. Following this suggestion may slow down how much time a learner takes to acquire L2. In addition, adult learners have cognitive skills that allow them to benefit from formal teaching.

(5) The Affective Filter Hypothesis

In this hypothesis, Krashen claims that when the acquirer's affective filter is 'up', the input will not reach the language acquisition device (LAD, the part of the brain that is responsible for language acquisition). This is when the acquirer is neither motivated nor self-confident and is anxious.

McLaughlin (1987: 54) criticizes the affective filter hypothesis in that it "is not precise enough about how a filter would operate, no attempt has been made to tie the filter to linguistic theory". The filter is considered to have four functions to play:

- (1) it determines which language models the learner will choose.
- (2) It determines which part of language will be attended to first.
- (3) It determines when language acquisition efforts should stop.
- (4) It determines how fast a learner can acquire a language.

McLaughlin (1987) criticizes that this limiting role of the affective filter is left vague. For example, no explanations are given as to how the affective filter determines which part of the language to attend to first, or why learners stop when they do.

In addition, Krashen, according to this hypothesis, believes that because children have lower affective filters, they have more advantages in language development. Krashen says that the filter manifests itself at around the age of puberty. This is because of (Piaget's) 'formal operations' stage of development. At this age, a learner becomes self-conscious, anxious with lowered self-image and consequently with lowered ability to acquire a second language. McLaughlin (1987: 55) comments that "on the basis of the affective filter hypothesis, therefore, one would predict that adolescence is the worst period for language learning. Unfortunately for the hypothesis, there is considerable evidence that early adolescence is the best time to learn a second language".

Gregg (1984: 94) concludes that "each of Krashen's five hypotheses is marked by serious flaws: undefined or ill-defined terms, unmotivated constructs, lack of empirical content and thus of falsifiability, lack of explanatory power". A

theorist should define and use his terms consistently. "Krashen uses such terms as acquisition, learning, structure or LAD either without defining them at all or else without holding his definition constant" (Gregg, 1984: 95). A theorist should support and provide evidence for his theory. "Krashen often makes dogmatic statements without evidential support" (Gregg, 1984: 95). A theory of L2 acquisition should include some kind of linguistic theory. Krashen does not have such theory.

Conclusion

This chapter consisted of three sections. The first section examined the major three approaches to foreign language teaching: the Grammar-Translation Method, the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Language Teaching Approach.

The second section engaged the question of how ELT (English language teaching) began in Kuwait and what approaches were implemented. The third section presented a brief review of other methods of teaching: the Community Language Learning Approach, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach. Within the Natural Approach, Krashen's five hypotheses were discussed and criticized.

The thesis now moves on to consider one new method of foreign language learning - Computer Assisted Language Learning. Having evaluated traditional approaches in this chapter, the next chapter discusses a very modern approach - the use of computers in language learning classes.

Chapter Two

Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Section One

Introduction

Computers have recently been recognised as being an important feature of modern life. Some people use computers everyday for banking, word processing, accounting and playing computer games. Computers are expected to play increasingly dominant roles in our daily life. When computers first appeared, they were large, expensive and rare. They are now small, flexible, cheap and relatively common. As a result, schools and other educational institutions have adopted computers as agents of learning in many developed countries in the world. Yet Kuwait is not one of them. Educational specialists in Kuwait look forward to gaining some knowledge and training about 'CAL' (computer assisted learning) and its application in the Kuwaiti context. This chapter's main aim is to provide such knowledge and information.

This chapter is divided into two main sections. The first section will focus on the meaning of 'CALL' by division into: (a) computer; (b) assisted; (c) language learning. Within (a) the computer will be described as a machine. How does it work and what components does it have? Within (b) the underlying purpose that is behind the use of the word 'assisted' will be reflected upon. Why are the words 'based' or 'directed' not preferred to 'assisted', and what does the word 'assisted' imply about the role of the computer? Within (c), the 'language learning' focus will examine the question of where the computer can fit into the language learning/teaching situation.

The second section then moves to a more theoretical analysis by analyzing the four educational paradigms in CAL: (1) the Instructional; (2) the Revelatory; (3) the Conjectural and (4) the Emancipatory. The advantages and limitations of each paradigm are discussed.

What is CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning)?

(a) What is a computer?

There are three types of computers: the mainframe, the min and the microcomputer. In this research, the focus will be on microcomputers.

What are the components of the computer?

A computer system has three main components; (1) the computer itself (a screen like a T.V.) and (3) a device to store computer programs.

(1) The computer contains the microchips and circuitry which build the brain and memory of the system. The memory capacity of the computer is measured in kilobytes. The larger the memory, the more powerful the computer. It has also the keyboard which is like a typewriter. The keyboard passes instructions to the computer.

(2) The screen displays information in the form of words and graphics or a mix of them.

(3) The storage device can be an ordinary audio cassette which is cheap but unreliable and impractical for classroom use. Or it can be a floppy disc used with a disc drive. Most current microcomputers have an internal hard disc (20 mb to 110 mb is common).

(4) The fourth component is a printer. It is optional and is used to print information onto paper. Output can also be sent to plotters.

The components mentioned above are called 'hardware'. They run what is called 'software': the computer programs. A computer program is a list of instructions to be obeyed by the computer.

How does a computer work?

A microcomputer takes in data by the 'input device' which may be a keyboard, light pen, concept keyboard, visual display, joystick or voice input. It then processes this data in the memory by what is called the 'central processor' and then outputs the processed data by the 'output device' which may be T.V. screen, printer or speech.

(b) The role of the computer

What does the word 'assisted' imply?

This question requires delineation of other acronyms: 'CBL' which stands for computer based learning, 'CDL' for computer directed learning, 'CML' for computer managed learning. These acronyms portray the computer as controlling the language class in the transmission style of teaching. Computer has a more guiding and controlling role. The computer presents the material, takes decisions and directs. In 'CAL', which stands for computer assisted learning, the word assist leads to the possibility that the computer has an additional 'auxiliary' role. It can be just a small part of the total learning context.

Davies and Higgins (1985: 8) think of CAL as "a form of tuition in which the computer is used as an aid to the presentation, reinforcement or assessment of material to be learned". The teacher is the one who guides, takes decisions and directs. Ahmad et al. (1985: 4) argue that "the computer is a tool of itself incapable of action". It is a "servant. Its role in education is that of a medium". In discussing CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning), Hardisty and Windeatt (1989: 5) regard CALL as "the term most commonly used by teachers and students to describe the use of computers as part of a language course". The difference between 'assisted' or 'aided' and 'based', 'directed' or 'managed' is in the degree of control undertaken by the computer over the learning experience.

Why should one use 'CALL' not 'CBLL' or 'CDLL' in the classroom?

What is the rationale behind the use of 'CALL'?

What activities are involved in teaching and learning language?

One answer to these questions can be through examining the role of the teacher in classroom language acquisition. This may variably be:

1. A manager of routines: Routines mean the activities that are designed for language learning (e.g. drills, games, role plays). Being a manager means that the teacher is responsible for ensuring that these activities are performed effectively and responsibly for monitoring the students' progress.
2. A responder: The teacher creates tasks, responding to the students' needs.
3. A facilitator: Higgins and Johns (1984: 7) describe the teacher's role as a facilitator as follows: "the responsibility is to create an environment in which students will want to learn a language and will find the learning itself interesting and enjoyable".
4. A model: The teacher acts as a model who represents the foreign language.
5. An informant: Here the student becomes the initiator who asks the teacher for information and the teacher as an informant, a 'responder'.

The terms 'CBL', 'CDL', and 'CML' imply that the computer can take the function of a teacher and have complete control over the class, the students, and the material to be learned. 'CBL', 'CDL' or 'CML' assume that the computer can take the role of a manager of routines, a responder, a facilitator, a model and an informant while 'CAL' does not make this assumption. So the main reason behind the use of 'CAL' is as Higgins and Johns (1984: 8) point out, "it is impossible for a machine to replace a human being totally in any of these roles.....It is over ambitious to see the computer as a teacher". "Our own concern is to suggest that the computer can best assist teachers if it is seen not as a replacement for their work but as a supplement to it, and that its potential should be explored across the whole range of activities involved in teaching" (Higgins and Johns, 1984: 9).

(c) Language Learning

To have an overall understanding of 'CALL', 'language learning' should be explained. 'Language learning' includes two areas: (a) theories of language which were discussed in chapter one; (b) methods of language teaching which were also considered in chapter one. Those areas will now be analyzed in relation to the use of computers to see where the computer fits in the language teaching situation.

There are four basic models of language teaching:

- (1) The Audiolingual Model
- (2) The Cognitive Model (Grammar-Translation)
- (3) The Humanistic Model: Community Language Learning (CLL)
 Silent Way
 Suggestopedia
- (4) The Communicative Model: The Communicative Approach
 Total Physical Response (TPR)
 The Natural Approach

(1) The Audiolingual Model and CALL

Theoretical background

This model is based on Skinner's behaviourist theories of learning which believes in conditioning and habit formation.

Characteristics

A quote summarises this method of teaching: "The aim of teaching is to get the student able to use structure automatically and unthinkingly in the appropriate situation. The techniques employed are usually mim/mem dialogues, drills in which the student practices a particular structural or lexical point till it becomes automatic and exploitation activities which encourage transfer to less controlled situations" (Cook, 1985: 14).

The similarities between CALL and the Audiolingual Method

There are various types of computer programs (will be discussed in section two), and the type of program that is similar to this method is 'programmed instruction' or 'drill and practice'. How are they similar? In terms of the theoretical background, Ahmad et al. (1985: 36) say "Programmed instruction was based on behaviourist theories of learning". Both CALL and the Audiolingual Approach use drills and pattern practice. As Cook (1985: 14) states "the aspect of audiolingualism that educational computing has seized on most is drills". Just as programmed instruction laid great emphasis on reducing the learning task in a highly directive way into small discrete steps, so does the Audiolingual Method (Ahmad et al., 1985: 36). Within both methods, most aspects of language are taken in 'isolation', with structures highly sequenced, and taught one at a time using repetitive drills. This calls for much memorization and rote learning, with right answers being immediately reinforced.

There is at the same time a basic difference between CALL and the Audiolingual Instruction. The Audiolingual Model's main aim in language learning is speaking and listening, while the computer's focus is mostly on writing and reading. The similarities are that both are built around behaviouristic theory applied in different ways.

Example

An example of CALL program in the Audiolingual Approach is one called 'Sound Me Out' whose aim is to give pronunciation practice. The instructions are to read the words in each list and decide which one is pronounced in a different way from the others. The 'different' one must be selected to answer correctly.

For example: raid ride paid way	The correct answer is: ride
Say each word before you type. Good Luck.	
start heart short part	/x x x x x/
write right height eight	/x x x x x/
speak break take shake	/x x x x x/

(2) The Cognitive Code Model (The Grammar-Translation Method) and CALL

Theoretical background

Richards and Rodgers (1986: 5) speak of the Grammar-Translation Method thus: "it has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no theory". This method often seen in classrooms follows the Cognitive Code Model because it stresses rules and conscious attention. As Cook (1985: 15) explains: "the aim of cognitive code teaching is to give a conscious knowledge of the language which the student can apply to his later use".

Characteristics

The characteristics may be listed as seven:

1. The second language is taught by the first language.
2. Vocabulary is taught in a form of lists of isolated words.
3. There are presentations of grammatical rules.
4. Translation of texts is frequent.
5. The focus is on written exercises.
6. The aim is to gain reading and writing proficiency.
7. No attention is paid to pronunciation.

The similarities between CALL and the Grammar-Translation Method

Drill and practice in CALL and 'programmed instruction' are similar to this method. The computer also focuses on 'conscious awareness'. Some programs display rules, give examples, explanations and exercises. Cook (1985: 15) thinks that "so much of the use of computers in language teaching adopts an Audiolingual drill model in which sheer mechanical practice is all that counts, a cognitive code model - in which conscious understanding of grammatical rules is the most important element in learning or a compromise drill-and-test model - in which mechanical practice is accompanied by explicit information about the language". Also Jones and Fortescue (1987) say that CALL can be described as a means of

'presenting, reinforcing and testing' certain language items. The learner is given a rule plus examples and then provided with questions, that test his or her understanding of the rule. Programmed instruction has thus shared characteristics with the Grammar-Translation Method. It can provide grammatical rules, translation texts and written exercises. It focuses on reading and writing tasks with pronunciation not stressed.

Example

Davies and Higgins (1985: 15) write about the 'traditional reinforcement exercises' in which the learner is given information followed by questions to check the students' understanding, then provided with reinforcement. "A question-answer routine or quiz, is one way of ensuring that the learner gains practice in a given area".

An example is a multiple choice exercise which consists of several questions like this:

The light's not on, so they out.

(a) can't go	(b) must have gone
(c) can't have gone	(d) must go

If students choose (b), they will receive positive feedback. If not, an error message will appear on the screen. If the students choose (a), the computer will explain why it is wrong by displaying 'this would mean they are unable to go out', for (c) 'this means they haven't gone out - so why aren't the lights on?' for (d) 'this would mean they have to go out'.

This example shows that CALL can provide the context for conscious learning in which the students can gain knowledge and learn from their wrong answers.

(3) The Humanistic Model of Language Learning and CALL

The Humanistic Model of language learning involves the following methods: Community Language Learning (CLL), the Silent Way and Suggestopedia.

Community Language Learning (CLL)

Theoretical background

Community Language Learning (CLL) stresses the importance of the affective domain. It focuses on the affective and interpersonal nature of all learning by utilising Carl Roger's (1951) philosophy and attempting to avoid and overcome the threatening affective factors in second language learning (e.g. anxiety in language learning).

Characteristics

1. Learners in the classroom are regarded as a group of clients rather than a class.
2. The social dynamics of such a group are very important.
3. "This method creates the atmosphere in which, the learner 'lowers the defences that prevent open interpersonal communication'" (Brown, 1987: 118).
4. Anxiety is reduced by means of the supportive community of learners.
5. The teacher is a facilitator, valuing and prizing each individual and not perceived as a threat. Brown (1987: 118) comments that "defensive learning is made unnecessary by the emphatic relationship between teacher and student". The all-knowing and dominating teacher may provide perceived threats which can create a feeling of 'alienation' and inadequacy. Instead the teacher in this method sometimes acts as a student or 'client'. "The student-centred nature of the method can provide extrinsic motivation and capitalise an intrinsic motivation" (Brown, 1987: 119).

6. The method responds to the needs of the individual. It is flexible and responsive to the students' input.

The similarities between CALL and the Community Language Learning Method

1. Although the computer is essentially a non human machine, it has some characteristics similar to the CLL method. Computers, indirectly, provide non threatening situations. For example, when the computer corrects the students' mistakes, they will normally be less embarrassed than they may be with the teacher correcting them. Ahmad et al. (1985: 37) suggest that "failure to respond correctly did not cause the learner the embarrassment which is typical in some student-teacher interaction". Also, "privacy which CALL can provide must also be a factor in lowering anxiety level. Learning may therefore be encouraged through increased motivation and self confidence" (Ahmad et al., 1985: 61). Also in some programs such as simulations, there is no error correction which may create a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom. Kenning and Kenning (1983: 157) agree by saying "this suggests that they may be of greater value as judgement-free application, in which errors are allowed to go by uncorrected, as they usually would in real life, or indeed in a classroom simulation".

2. In parallel with the idea of the teacher sometimes acting as a client, the computer , in certain types of program, acts as a 'tutee' (Taylor, 1980) and the student functions as a tutor.

3. CALL can be matched to students' needs. Phillips (1986: 3) suggests that "for the first time we have the possibility of teaching materials which can adapt in real time to the needs of the individual student".

The Silent Way

Theoretical background

This method relies more on cognitive rather than affective conditions. Learning is facilitated by (a) discovery and creating not by memorizing and repeating; (b) the use of accompanying physical objects; (c) problem-solving.

Characteristics

1. The method rejects rote learning.
2. It provides discovery - learning procedures.
3. The teacher acts as a "stimulator but not a hand-holder" (Brown, 1987: 142).
4. Many physical objects, pictures and materials accompanying the language.
5. Students learn within cooperative groups to develop "independence, autonomy and responsibility" (Brown, 1987). They must also cooperate with each other in the process of solving language problems.

The similarities between the Silent Way and CALL

1. As mentioned earlier, CALL is a term which represents several types of programs. Simulations and exploratory programs parallel the Silent Way language method. Within these programs, the teacher's role is not authoritarian. Students become responsible for their learning and depend on themselves. The teacher is a helper, counsellor and organiser. The situation provides more autonomy for the student.
2. In CALL simulation programs, students learn by discovery.
3. Simulations, games or adventures, most of the time, contain problems and puzzles to be solved.
4. The computer can provide graphics and animation.
5. Such programs are constructed for students working in groups.

Example

Jones and Fortescue (1987: 91) discuss the use of the computer as “a medium for exploring language”. The following task (example) is created by providing the computer with a rule or rules, which the learner tries to discover by typing in examples of his own. Written by Tim Johns, it deals with the rules of English morphology (s-ending, A/An, ing ending or ed for the past tense). In this program, the student tries out his hypothesis, and uses the dictionary or grammar book to check the computer's answers. (For example the 'ed'-ending with irregular verbs, or 's'-ending with irregular plurals and mass nouns). Then students discuss their findings about the rules they discovered while using the program.

Suggestopedia

Theoretical background

This method is derived from the Bulgarian psychologist Georgi Lozanov (1978). He believed that the human brain can process and digest huge quantities of material just by experiencing the appropriate and relaxing conditions for learning. He stressed that, for maximum retention of material, one should have a relaxed state of mind.

Characteristics

Suggestopedia provides relaxing conditions for learning. Students sit in soft and comfortable seats with background music. students are 'child like' and passive, while the teacher is active. The focus is on memorization as a method for language learning.

The similarities between Suggestopedia and CALL

CALL can provide relaxation (mentioned earlier). Computers also can provide music. The 'programmed instruction' focuses on memorization and places the student in a passive role.

(4) The Communicative Model and CALL

The Communicative Model involves the following methods: the Communicative Approach, Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach.

The Communicative Approach

Theoretical background

The Communicative Approach starts from "a theory of language as communication" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986: 69). This model's goal is real communication gained by authentic language interaction in the classroom.

Characteristics

The method attempts to build fluency not grammatical accuracy (as is adopted by the Cognitive Model). It pays less attention to the presentation of grammatical rules, but requires much use of authentic language. The method uses role-plays, simulations, and group discussions to accomplish its goal which is the use of the language productively and receptively. Lessons are not organised or sequenced in a 'form' like structure, but in a 'function' like framework.

The similarities between the Communicative Approach and CALL

There are some computer programs that encourage activities, including simulations, role plays and discussions. These may generate communicative language as learners work in groups. When the students work on computer games or simulations, they communicate with each other, make decisions about what actions to take, transmit, receive and convey messages.

Davies and Higgins (1985: 46) believe that simulations provide "a context for discussion and will stimulate language among learners who tackle the task in a group". Also Jones and Fortescue (1987: 71) argue that "adventures have much the same potential in language learning as other simulations - they can generate a lot of enthusiastic and communicative oral language as learners work in groups

towards the solution, and can form the basis for various oral and written post-mortem activities”.

Example

An example is the program entitled 'Fast Food'. In this program, students compete against each other. They run a fast food stall at an exhibition for several days. The students get information upon which they decide on how much food to buy and how much to charge for the food.

In Fast Food type of simulations, students have the chance to discuss, argue and take decisions. There is a true, authentic and productive use of language.

Total Physical Response (TPR)

Theoretical background

In this method, the teacher associates language with a physical action. It is believed that memory increases if such an association occurs. Also comprehension is aided because the language used is 'explained' through movement. This method follows what is called the 'trace theory' of learning (see chapter one).

Characteristics

Students engage in much listening. Such listening is accompanied by physical responses. The method tries to lower students' level of anxiety. It utilises the imperative mood, giving commands (e.g. open the window, close the door, sit down). Hence students become actors and actresses.

The similarities between TPR and CALL

The main similarity between CALL and the TPR method is the ability to accompany language with physical response. By displaying graphics, language can be associated with action through the computer.

Examples

To demonstrate how the computer can fit in with the TPR method, two examples will be given:

1. "Podd": Podd is a character who can carry out many actions. When the student types a word describing an action such as 'dance' or 'walk', Podd does it. Podd appears with the stimulus words "Podd can". The student then has to type in a word. If Podd knows the word, he carries out the action. If he does not, the words "Oh no I can't!" appear on the screen.
2. The second example is "John and Mary". In this program there are two rooms, a door and two people. TPR enters this program when the student asks the computer to change the situation, e.g., the student types 'open the door', the screen will change and the door will be opened. The same sequence happens when the student types 'shut the door, bring Mary in'.

The Natural Approach (NA)

Theoretical background

This approach is based on Krashen's theory of second language acquisition which can be summarised in five hypothesis (Krashen and Terrell, 1983) (elaborated in chapter one).

1. The acquisition/learning hypothesis which states that acquisition is subconscious and learning is conscious.
2. The natural order hypothesis which implies that "grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable order" (Krashen and Terrell, 1983: 28).
3. The monitor hypothesis which states that conscious learning "can only be used as a monitor" (Krashen and Terrell, 1983: 30).

4. The input hypothesis suggests that for language acquisition to occur, the acquirer should be provided with comprehensible input that he can understand.
5. The affective filter hypothesis states that for successful second language acquisition one should have motivation, self esteem and low level of anxiety.

Characteristics

This approach adopts several principles:

1. 'Comprehension precedes production'. Students are provided with understandable language.
2. 'Production is allowed to emerge in stages'. Students are not pushed to speak before they are ready.
3. 'A syllabus consists of communicative goals' which focuses on the basic personal communication skills and everyday language contexts.
4. 'Lowering the students' affective filter'.

The similarities between NA and CALL

1. Some CALL programs have communicative goals, (e.g. simulations, adventures and games programs).
2. CALL has advantages that lower students' affective filter.
3. The computer does not just serve a conscious process of learning, it can also facilitate acquisition. Higgins and Johns (1984: 14) suggest that "the computer is quite flexible enough to serve a variety of learning theories", of which Krashen is no exception.

Example

Lewis (1986: 57) portrays the computers in the curriculum (CIC) project at Chelsea: "CIC units are often games or simulations. It was thus a considerably challenge to look at the potential for languages. The project's philosophy has been to avoid close procedures and grammatical testing. Care has been taken to develop units that groups of students, may use rather than just single individuals. This enhances the amount of oral communication amongst the pupils both at and away from the keyboard during the sequence of a program. Many units may be used successfully as classroom demonstrations".

Section Two

Introduction

This section will demonstrate the role of the computer in the curriculum. Bullock (1988) argues that the computer may act as a text book, a teacher, a pupil, a partner, an examiner, a blackboard, an instructor, an exerciser, a laboratory or a demonstrator. Taylor (1980: 2) suggests that the computer has three functions in Education: "in the first, the computer functions as a tutor. In the second, the computer functions as a tool. In the third, the computer functions as a tutee or student". When the computer functions as a tutor, it tutors the student, presents the subject matter, evaluates the students' response then decides what to present next. When it functions as a tool, it is used , for example, as a calculator, map, or as a text editor. As a tool it needs to have some useful capability programmed into it (e.g. word processing). When it functions as a tutee, the student becomes a tutor, who tutors the computer. Within this function, "students teach it how to tutor and how to be a tool" (Taylor, 1980: 4).

Kemmis et al. (1977) present four educational paradigms, which are useful in relating CAL to the general field of education. These are: (1) the Instructional, (2) the Revelatory, (3) the Conjectural, and (4) the Emancipatory paradigm.

This chapter adopts these paradigms, explains them and illustrates them with CALL examples that are applicable under each paradigm. Each educational paradigm will be presented with its characteristics in terms of: (a) a theoretical background, (b) how the subject matter is presented, (c) the role of the student, (d) the role of the teacher and (e) the role of the computer. Examples will include some elaboration about their characteristics, advantages, disadvantages and a specific program that reflects each example, will be given.

(1) The Instructional Paradigm

Theoretical background

The Instructional paradigm follows the behaviourist theory of learning established by Skinner. This theory believes in breaking down the content (or subject matter) into several sequenced tasks to be mastered. These tasks are cut and put in order (in a drill and practice form) and presented in sequenced time to allow the students to memorize them. When the student demonstrates mastery of the task, feedback is immediately provided to reinforce learning. If the student is unable to master a particular task, he/she will be held at that point until he/she masters it. Or, he/she may be provided with remedial work or that task may be divided into even smaller parts. Content is presented in such a way until the student learns it through what is called habit formation.

The learner is treated as if he/she is a bottle to be filled with knowledge. The student is placed in a passive role. Bullock (1988: 57) outlines this by saying that "instructional programs put them (students) in a passive position; a position in which response, rather than initiation is required".

The Instructional paradigm gives the computer full control over the learning process. It assumes that it can replace the teacher. Learning is achieved through individualised practice as students can work alone using the computer program at their own pace. So the teacher is also put in a passive role, while the computer is treated as an instructor, tutor and controller.

Examples

Drill and practice programs
Tutorial programs
Games

Drill and Practice Programs

Characteristics

1. In this type of learning, the computer acts as a trainer. It trains the students to develop skills that, by repetition, become habitual and automatic.
2. A drill and practice program can be a kind of skill revision or test used to enhance "factual recall" (Wellington, 1985). For example, some grammatical and lexical skills can be learned by training, "in particular those which operate on closed systems in a predictable way, where the application of a rule is automatic and bears little relation to choices dictated by meaning" (Higgins and Johns, 1984: 38). This is applicable to spelling rules, word order or closed sets such as the number system or the names of the months.
3. Such a program can provide practice in using a concept. It allows the student to understand the concept.
4. In design, Drill and skill programs consist of : (a) a stimulus; (b) the learner's response and (c) feedback. As Wellington (1985: 138) states, it includes "error diagnosis, branching and remediation".
5. This type of program can take the form of 'traditional reinforcement exercises' which are: (1) completion or gap-fill exercises; (2) recognition exercises; (3) production exercises; (4) transformation exercises, and (5) substitution exercises.
6. Finally, following the instructional paradigm, the computer in this program is in control.

Examples

1. Question Master: This program can be used by a student to practice grammatical rules or vocabulary implementations. It presents a stimulus which takes a question form, expects the student's response to the question, accepts it and checks it. It also underlines spelling errors, provides clues, gives help if it is needed and reviews mistakes.

The Question Master program operates in a dialogue form : the computer asks, the student answers. For example: The computer displays this question on the screen:

what fits here - 'some' or 'any'?
she can't buy this car because she hasn't money.
student: some
computer: no, there is a negative here

2. Recognition and formation of upper and lower case English letters. In this program, the computer displays a letter by drawing it slowly on the screen. It demonstrates the right sequence of strokes. The learners can then imitate on paper or on screen or use 'graphic pads' on which they can write with the writing appearing on the screen. This is useful for students learning the elements of orthography in EFL. They can use the program, ask the computer to demonstrate the letter as many times as they need without feeling embarrassed for being slow.

Advantages

1. Davies and Higgins (1985: 15) argue that "it is here that the computer can relieve teachers of much of the drudgery and release them to concentrate on communicative skills".

2. Computers do not tire. They are able to repeat thousands of times without making errors as humans (teachers) may make. Higgins and Johns (1984: 38) suggest that the computer "takes over the human trainer's role, and can provide

the kind of endlessly patient and flexible supervision which the class teacher often cannot spare the time for”.

3. Computers as a medium of demonstration have many advantages. They have a visual presentation in which pictures, graphs and tables can be demonstrated. They have useful presentation strategies. As an example, in gap filling, when the students type their response, it will appear in the relevant position, errors can be pin pointed by changing the colour or flashing, words can be moved from one place to another. This is important for both the teacher and the student. The teacher will not waste time painting pictures or drawing graphs and tables. And the student of course, will benefit from such graphic presentations.

4. Computers are able to generate random numbers. This makes the question-answer sequence unpredictable. Whenever the students use an exercise, they find different examples from those they have seen before because the computer can access data randomly. The teacher is usually unable, and does not have the time, to write different items to each exercise at different times.

5. The computer is capable of keeping detailed progress records of the users' performance. This function informs the teacher about the students' performance, (e.g. how many students answered the question successfully, how many failed, after how many attempts students achieved success). As a result, the teacher can revise and assess his or her teaching and testing methods.

Advantages to the student

1. Davies and Higgins (1985: 15) point out that the use of question-answer routines or quizzes within this type of program “is one way of ensuring that the learner gains practice in a given area”.

2. This program can improve students' achievement in language learning. Davies and Higgins (1985) explain how effective drill and skill programs are. They give an example of a program on French irregular verbs. Davies and Higgins (1985: 16) indicate that “some students have been observed to use it for twenty-minute sessions day after day. It has been claimed by both students and staff that

the ability of regular users of the program to produce correct forms of French verbs (in context and in both written and oral work) has significantly improved. Similar supportive claims have been expressed by teachers using traditional drills and practice programs with dyslexic children and by speech therapists working with patients suffering from brain damage”.

Another study designed by Prince and Casey (1972), ascertained the effectiveness of programmed instruction in teaching Spanish grammar to fresher College students at Southern Illinois University. Within this study there were two groups. One used a linear program designed to teach Spanish grammar concepts in conjunction with the normal class assignments. The other group did not use the linear program. They found that the students using the linear program achieved more than those who did not. “It can be concluded from this pilot study that linear programs can be effective in terms of achievement in teaching Spanish grammar concepts when used as a self-study aid to classroom instruction” (Prince and Casey, 1972: 492).

Saracho (1982) examined the effectiveness of CAL in reducing the educational deficiency of Spanish-speaking migrant students. The computer provides instruction in reading and maths. Students used the computer programs independently at their own pace. The finding from this study was that the students who used CAL performed better than those who didn't use CAL, especially in language development.

3. Fox (1982) stresses the importance of computer feedback which gives it a great advantage over other media. Sedgley (1982) believes strongly in the effectiveness of such feedback. Sedgley (1982: 107) says that “reward for a correct response in the form of a visual display on the screen increases the motivation of those who are frightened by tests”.

So one of the most important functions the computer plays is in the provision of immediate feedback. Computer drill and practice exercises are much the same as those displayed in a text book. The difference is that the computer can provide instant feedback to the student to enable him to find out if the response is right or

wrong. The feedback of a textbook is not as direct and immediate as it is from the computer; it may be altogether absent.

A teacher tends to lack the time and energy to supply every student in the class with oral feedback. For written feedback, the student has to submit his work to the teacher, often with a slow response and sometimes, covered with humiliating red ink. For Jones and Fortescue (1987: 13), "the computer has freed the students from the mess of crossing-out, from the frustration of waiting for the teacher to be free to answer their queries". Davies and Higgins (1985: 16) think that "regular concentrated interaction with a computer supplying instant feedback is a very effective way of learning". Ahmad et al. (1985: 5) support this view point and suggest that in such programs the student has the full attention of the computer and that "there is no low attention periods as the student waits for his or her turn to come round in class".

4. The flexibility and availability of the computer: A computer can be available at all hours. If the students for some reason are unable to attend the class (ill or have a problem), they can come at any time, spend whatever time they need at the speed they prefer to master the subject matter.

Also the computer caters for the preferences of different users. Higgins and Johns (1984: 43) suggest that "it can offer the individual student a choice over which strategy will be adopted on a particular occasion". The computer provides "the opportunity to involve the trainee in the important decisions as to how the training will be carried out".

5. Some teachers do not believe in the importance of drills. As a result, they may neglect providing a foundation to language learning. Those students who feel that their teacher is not supplying them with the necessary drills, may alternatively use available computer programs.

Psychological Advantages to the Student

For successful second language acquisition, students should have a low affective filter (Krashen and Terrell, 1983). The question is, does the drill and skill type of program lower the student's affective filter?

1. Drill and skill programs can provide privacy for those who prefer solitary study. In any class, there will always be retiring students, who are shy, who do not raise their hands and dislike discussing or answering questions for fear of being wrong. Such students can work on their own using the computer in order to build up their self-confidence and courage.
2. For learners of foreign languages who feel insecure, CALL can give practice in the area in which they are weak.
3. The slow learners find themselves unable to master the material which their friends seem to master easily and effortlessly. The slow learners tend to keep silent, fear participating in class and are embarrassed by their mistakes. The computer is of a great help in this situation because, as Davies and Higgins (1985: 40) point out "it has the patience of job, does not mind how many errors the learner makes, is never sarcastic and does not laugh at stupid mistakes". Ahmad et al. (1985: 116) argue that "one of the most obvious and accessible benefits of CALL is its capacity to provide personalised and self-paced learning. This allows students of varying ability enough flexibility to find their own level, which is a boon to slow learners and fast learners who need remedial and extension exercises respectively".
4. This type of program has the advantage of making some students less threatened because they know exactly what is expected from them and what they are supposed to do. In an open-ended task, they may not feel so.
5. Research suggests that CALL can be effective:
 - (a) Demaiziere (1983) found that CALL lowers students' level of anxiety;
 - (b) Ornstein (1968) explains that students were not embarrassed by their errors

as they may be in 'student-teacher interaction';

(c) MacDonald (1977: 185) says "CAL can offer the student uninhibited learning opportunities. Some forms of CAL offer 'privacy of risk': the student can make 'stupid' errors, without embarrassment. In some circumstances, CAL can restore self-esteem in the educational process. It provides 'freedom to fail' for second chance learners through non-observed learning".

(d) Mueller (1968) conducted a study which showed that in two traditional French courses, the drop out rates were 30 and 40 percent, while the drop out rate for students in two programmed instruction courses was 15 and 12 percent.

(e) Roberts (1981) talked about the usefulness of the computer in motivating teenagers who are unenthusiastic towards language learning.

(f) Pamela and Maddison (1987: 25) say that "where rote learning cannot be avoided, computers can be used both to make it interesting and to check on the type of mistake made".

(g) Windeatt (1986) observed students tackling language learning activities on the computer. The subjects selected for the experiment were 12 students who were on an English course for overseas students (TEFL). They were divided into two groups (a) and (b). Group (a) did the first task in CALL form, group (b) did the same task in non CALL form. For the second task, the situation was reversed: group (b) did it in CALL form while group (a) did it in non CALL form. One of the findings was that the exercise on the computer was perceived as more slightly enjoyable than the non CALL exercise. Windeatt (1986: 86) says that "observation of the students using CALL material suggests that there may be an interest aroused by the medium". The students liked using the computer, enjoyed the activity and even, on some occasions, insisted on carrying on the task despite the limited time of the lessons. Beynon and Mackay (1987) argue that the computer provides solutions to the 'falling standards, high flyers, slow learners and motivates alienated pupils'.

Disadvantages

1. One of the most important disadvantages of drill and skill programs is that this approach makes several assumptions about the nature of language learning. It assumes that language can be broken into small parts, sequenced and separately presented. It also assumes that "students conform to the behaviourist learning model" (Rushby, 1979: 23).

The drill and skill program has pulled language learning back to the mechanistic atmosphere of the fifties and sixties. It reminds one of the language laboratory. It ignores context or discourse and focuses on word or sentence level meaning. Most language aspects are taken in isolation. Littlewood (1974) argues that when a person analyses language and its skills, he/she will break it down into discrete items. But if he/she thinks of actual language activity, he/she will find that all these items and skills are integrated. Littlewood (1974) wonders whether once the language lesson is presented in fragments (as in skill and drill programs), the student will be able to reintegrate them into structures. He believes that this fragmentation will only destroy the essential elements of the language.

Drill and skill programs provide knowledge about rules. The problem arises when one tries to go beyond this knowledge. Littlewood (1974: 13) says "there is no barrier to the presentation of units and rules in programmed form. The task becomes more difficult when we want to go beyond the knowledge of rules as facts towards a productive mastery or internalisation of these rules". Chastain (1970) thinks that drill-skill programs can fulfil two stages of language-learning - understanding and drill, but not the third stage 'application in real language activity. Spolsky (1966) argues that this is the reason why many drill and skill programs fail. Many people criticise drill and skill types of language teaching. For example Krashen and Terrell (1983: 15) criticise such teaching by saying "such drills are not real communication since they transmit no real message". This is applicable to computer drill and skill programs since they share the same underlying theory of language learning.

2. Language skills are learnt through four activities: writing, reading, speaking and listening. Speaking and listening activities can not yet be easily accommodated by the computer. Writing is the major means of communicating with the computer. This may inhibit fluency in speech.

3. It seems that drill and skill programs do not encourage cooperative learning. They lead to more individualistic learning.

4. Drill and practice programs present questions with only one right answer. This may inhibit creativity. Bullock (1988: 58) speaks critically: "this may

discourage natural language development and encourage a mechanical way of thinking and responding. Critics argue that pupils may unconsciously come to devalue their own personal knowledge, and passively accept the computer's apparent authoritative answers". Wellington (1985: 92) says that such a type of program does not allow the students to act creatively : "their freedom of action is limited to what the system designer has allowed".

5. Such programs have other negative implications (Jones and Fortescue, 1987):

- (a) they imply the substitution of the computer for the teacher;
- (b) they imply a one-to-one ratio between the learner and the machine which is often not feasible;
- (c) they imply that computers can be made knowledgeable and omniscient;
- (d) they neglect other methodological approach in which the teacher can function valuably;
- (e) by recognising and using the computer as 'a quiz master', such programs ignore the other roles the machine can play, which are more relevant and applicable in today's communicative classroom.

6. Drill and skill programs do not encourage communication. Windeatt (1986: 80) found from the study he conducted that "there was sometimes almost no discussion. The students appeared to be working as a number of individuals rather than as a group". Although the students in the class were put in groups, there was almost no discussion. When there was, it tended to be very limited to suggesting or rejecting answers without giving reasons or explanations.

7. Because this program concentrates on factual recall and practice, some students who have a different learning style may not feel comfortable with the style of teaching. Some students like rote learning, others not. Some like learning by discovery. Ahmad et al. (1985: 57) say that "working with a computer appeals more to some learners than to others, and particular program types have different degrees of success with various students".

The Tutorial Programs

The teaching system here is called 'programmed learning' (PL).

Characteristics

As the title may imply, this type of program takes the teacher's role in the classroom. It adopts the full responsibility of teaching the student. Tutorial programs are just the same as drill and skill programs with only one different element, which is that tutorial programs do not only present drills. They also provide explanations, descriptions, illustrations and teaching materials.

Higgins and Johns (1984) present the process of constructing PL lessons as follows:

1. Identify the skill (or part of the subject matter) that needs to be taught.
2. Identify a criterion by which the students' understanding and mastery of the skill will be recognised.
3. Divide the subject into many small steps.
4. Present every step with necessary exposure followed by a question. The question will be part of the assessment criterion.
5. Encourage the students to answer the question.
6. Let the students check their answer before moving to another step.

Ahmad et al. (1985: 36) present this type of program as having three main principles: "minimal steps, individual learning pace and immediate reinforcement".

The areas in language that can be taught in PL are the same as those taught by drill and skill programs, (e.g. spelling, morphology or telling time, numbers...etc). Again, the student plays a passive role in this program. He/she concentrates on the computer's explanations, responds to its stimulus, answers and is reinforced at the end. The teacher has no role. The computer is the real teacher in this situation.

Example

An example is a lesson of 'any / some'.

The computer asks 'what fits here, some or any?'
- She can't buy the car because she hasn'tmoney

In the tutorial program, the computer first gives explanations about when and how to use any or some. Then it presents questions to check students' understanding.

Advantages

PL has the same advantages of drill and skill programs. It should be added that it is possible that the student acquires the second language incidentally by using a PL lesson on any subject, (e.g. history, geography, or any other subject) which uses lots of illustrations and diagrams (comprehensible input).

PL is as effective or as ineffective as drill and skill programs. Higgins and Johns (1984: 52) argue that "experience suggests that PL works well when the topic is finite and the objectives are clear, when the learner is reasonably well-motivated and when there is an element of urgency, for example when a student is making up for missed work".

Taylor (1980: 135) sees the computer as a 'tutor' as (a) reducing the cost of instruction; (b) tailoring instruction to the different learning style of students and (c) it "develops systems that encourage closer examination of what is being taught and systems for improving instruction".

Disadvantages

In general such programs have the same disadvantages as drill and skill programs. The drawback to using the computer for tutorial dialogue is that it is necessary for the computer to converse with the student to explain things to him.

The problem is that conversation between people in natural language is free and 'divergent'. For the programmer to feed the computer with 'free' conversation it is quite difficult because it is almost impossible to predict the natural discourse process. Also, there is the necessity to use a 'metalanguage' "an open channel for communication between teacher and learner" (Higgins and Johns, 1984: 50) in which many explanations, corrections, requests, and gestures are utilized when the teacher feels that this understanding is blocked he/she can explain more, repeat and demonstrate. Computers lack this ability.

As a result, computers can enhance linguistic competence but cannot enhance communicative competence. One of the elements that is included in communicative competence is interpretation and the ability to guess or to read what's in the other's minds. Such communicative competence is not derived from tutorial programs.

When one observes the communication that takes part in the class, there are three kinds of communication: (1) student-computer communication, (2) teacher-student talk and (3) student-student communication. Student-computer communication is very limited and narrow. It sometimes takes the form of 'Yes' (Y) or 'No' (N), or the student may simply choose a number or a letter to respond to a question. This type of response puts the student in a controlled and passive position in which he/she is not allowed to practice language naturally. As Baker (1983: 208) says that the student is "rather passive; programmed by the computer. He is responding rather than initiating".

Student-computer communication may be more extended but still unable to imitate the natural language interaction because, as Baker (1985: 449-450) says, "excluded from such communication is the richness of nonverbal communication speaking with the eyes, gestures, speed, pitch, and volume of voice, facial expression, smiles and head nods, pause and phrasing".

Tutorial programs tend to keep the student away from student-student communication. This type of program is used for the "one pupil to one micro communication" (Baker, 1985). The student seems far away from his peers, gazing

at the screen, engaging in the displayed activities, and forgetting about social, human, dynamic interaction with others.

Tutorial programs take on an authoritative role in the classroom. They take over the teacher's function in the provision of content, control the material presented and judge the correctness of the answers. This function has two unfortunate consequences (Baker, 1983). First, the hidden curriculum may possibly be that the student in the long run comes to accept and get used to being passive and dependent and the computer being authoritative. Second, the student may look at the computer as a 'superbrain'. He/she may value it more than it deserves at the same time devalue personal knowledge and ability to inquire for oneself.

Games

Wellington (1985: 47) explains that "games are simply drill and practice programs which have the added spice of a competitive edge such as beating the clock or your partner or a goal such as building a wall on the screen or climbing out of a deep cave". Because drill and skill type of programs can be boring, they are often turned into a game. "The impulse to win, to beat the machine, can be very strong in both children and adults" (Higgins and Johns, 1984: 46).

Characteristics

Types of Games

There are two kinds of games: (1) the competitive game which has a win or lose outcome according to the total score; (2) the collaborative game which relies on an achieved task. All participants collaborate and cooperate to achieve it. Under the Instructional paradigm, only the competitive game will be considered.

In the competitive game students compete against each other by working on an activity at the same time. The computer displays their scores. Alternatively, one student may compete against the best score (e.g. the day's best score). Another possibility is the use of gambling games in which an initial set of points is allocated

and the student has to stake a specific number on the chance that he/she gets the correct answer. Teachers can put quiz questions into a game where the right answer is required in order for the student to make the next move (e.g. the 'snakes and ladders' game). The computer displays the board which contains the squares, the player moves in the squares. When the player reaches one that contains a ladder, he/she has to answer a question in order to climb it. If the square contains a snake, the player has to provide the right answer to avoid sliding down. There are also dynamic games in which the learner's attention is focussed on a game that contains a task where there is an incidental exposure to repetitive training - (e.g. a game called 'flying'). On the screen the player sees places like New York...London.....Kuwait..... and an aeroplane flying from one place to another. The question is displayed by the computer "is the plane flying from x to y? The learner has to answer 'Y' or 'N' as quickly as possible before the plane reaches its destination. The time element becomes 'a game setter' and the student is 'the game-player'.

Advantages

1. Computer games may encourage language acquisition because they provide motivation and create fun. Baker (1983: 207) speaks about such computer games indicating that "the motivational value of these programs particularly for the less-able child or the unmotivated child, may be high".

Klier (1987) has developed a microcomputer game in French culture and civilisation. Klier (1987: 82) says that within this game "goals were to entertain, to teach and to motivate not to conform". In implementing this game, students were structured into teams. Students working in groups create a cooperative learning environment. When students were interviewed they said that they didn't feel like failures when they missed a question or answered wrongly, and when someone knows the answer, they all share the group's success. They also admit that working as a team is more fun. All students who played this game were given questionnaires to fill out.

The findings were:

- (a) The students were motivated while playing the game because:
 - a. the computer judges objectively (not like humans).
 - b. it is possible that they get easy questions.
 - c. students can avoid topics they don't like.
 - d. the activity is quite novel.

- (b) Students declared that playing in a team (the social factor)
 - a. enriched their feeling of success.
 - b. enabled them and helped them to remember the answers.
Teamwork helped to strengthen the retention or remembering of information.
 - c. made learning fun.

- (c) Students learned skills such as:
 - a. how to turn on the micro.
 - b. how to insert the diskette.
 - c. how to enter data (by touching the 'return' key).

- (d) Students required to play again to find out whether they can achieve a higher score.

2. Students may come to be very involved in the game activity. Krashen and Terrell (1983: 121) say that "experienced instructors who work with children know that they become more involved more quickly with an activity if it is presented in a game format".

3. Computer games are not as boring as some drill and skill programs are. They provide practice in certain skills in a very interesting way and learning is less directed. Pearson (1986: 8-9) writes that "interactive drill and skill practice can take many forms; in some cases attempts are made to make the learning more interesting by embedding a teaching point in a game of some sort".

4. When compared with teachers or board games, computer games have several advantages. Pamela and Maddison (1987: 29) agree by saying that "with adventure games and the like, it can do what no teacher or book can do.....even rote learning became attractive, and it seems that language learning developed pleasant associations in consequences". Saracho (1987: 64) also declares that "computer games with such adaptability have an unprecedented potential in producing learning atmospheres".

Board games are unable to respond, do not have sensory effects and are not adaptable. While computer games are able to:

- set goals
- keep scores
- provide sound and music
- present randomness
- display a very attractive presentation by the use of colours and graphics

Malone (1980) examined which games students most liked and what characterised these games attracted them. From this study, it was found that:

- students chose and liked the games that created fun, fantasy and interesting learning.
- they preferred the games which set goals, kept records, provided sound and presented randomness.
- they consider that the most important characteristic the computer game has is the provision of the colourful, moving and active graphic display which is able to simultaneously present scores and goals.

Disadvantages

1. First, computer games have the same disadvantage that the drill programs have, since they break down language into artificially small tasks and skills.
2. Second, computer games do not (from experience) allow much communication because the student's attention is mostly focussed on the computer screen.

3. Third, even if computer games allow communication, this communication could be elicited from similar board games. At least board games have the advantage of being much cheaper than computer games, and they may provide more chance for talk and interaction because the students sit around the board game facing each other instead of facing the computer.

4. Fourth, Krashen and Terrell (1983) believe strongly in the role of games in language acquisition. Krashen and Terrell (1983: 121) say that "our position is that games can (1) serve very well as the basis for an acquisition activity and are therefore not (2) a reward nor a frill but an important experience in the acquisition process". But when one looks at a computer game, what does one find? Does it serve as the basis for an acquisition activity? Is their enough exposure to natural comprehensible input? Is there enough student-student communicative interaction? Isn't a computer game no more than a reward or a frill? Baker (1983: 207) says that the "addictiveness, amusement and attractiveness of games programs on a micro may too often become the end product". Unfortunately many computer games are used as a "frill", just for the sake of amusement and relaxation, not for language gain.

5. Fifth, games do not appeal to every student. Davies and Higgins (1985) support this statement when they say that they have met students who strongly resisted playing games. Those were considered as "more serious students". They looked at games as a waste of time.

(2) The Revelatory Paradigm

Theoretical background

This educational paradigm believes in and adopts several ideas. It centrally engages learning by discovery.

- Its general aim is the development or realisation of individual potentialities.
- It follows educational theories which advocate putting the learner in charge of his own learning.

- It moves away from educational applications which indoctrinate the learner into the material in an automatic and dictatorial way.
- It allows the learner to participate in the decision-making process, to take part in the shaping of the material.
- The responsibility is shifted from the teacher to the learner. The students become mostly responsible for their own learning.
- The aim is that the students acquire problem-solving skills and the ability to question.
- It adopts the idea that knowledge is gained through experience, not by memorization.

Through learning by discovery and by a problem-solving type of curriculum, the Revelatory paradigm does not rely on the subject matter and the idea of rote learning facts. The curriculum is presented in a way Fox (1985: 94) describes: "the student progressively discovers underlying principles during the practice". For example in 'Story Board' students have to guess all the missing words to reconstruct a text. When the student guesses correctly, the word appears in the right place in the text which is gradually built up and framed. This exercise calls on the student to discover what has been hidden. As Wellington (1985: 60) stated "the subject matter and its underlying model or theory are gradually revealed to the student as he uses the program".

In this paradigm the learners are more active than they are in the Instructional paradigm. The computer has a slight control over learning since the rules of the model are presented by the computer. The Revelatory paradigm encourages students' cooperation, production and initiation. Students work together, make decisions, argue, act and justify.

The teacher is not authoritarian. He/she leaves the students on their own to discover and make decisions. The teacher is not dominating nor controlling. The teacher is no more than a 'guide' or 'resource'. He/she facilitates and helps the students gain access to self learning materials.

In terms of the computer's role, Rushby (1979: 28) explains that "the computer acts as a mediator between the student and a hidden model of some

real-life situation. As the student interacts with the model hidden within the computer he develops a feeling for its behaviour under various circumstances and so is led to discover the rules which govern it". Higgins (1986: 37) also states that "the machine becomes something to talk about rather than just to talk to".

Examples Simulations
 Adventures

Simulations

Higgins and Johns (1984: 63) describe the word 'simulation' as a "general term covering a range of activities which involve decisions based on data from realistic situations". Hardisty and Windeatt (1989: 55) talk about simulations by saying "a simulation is a way of reproducing in the classroom as many features as possible of a situation that might be found outside the classroom".

A simulation can take the form of role play, a scientific experiment, a problem-solving lesson, driving a car or fighting a battle within which the learning process is inductive. Simulations are similar to games in the stimulation of fun, motivation and concentration. But simulations differ in the theoretical background adopted and in that it is not necessary to include competitive scoring. The computer is always the 'enemy' and students cooperate to beat it.

Characteristics

Types of Simulations

1. 'Exchange' simulations. In this type of simulation, the computer acts as a partner who exchanges an open ended dialogue with the user. The computer interviews the student, asks him/her questions, analyses responses or even offers advice. An example is 'Eliza' in which the computer plays the role of a psychiatrist who requests the patient (student) to type in his or her problems or worries. This simulation is "conversation for its own sake" (Higgins, 1983).

2. The situational simulation. This enables the student to acquire language in a specific area by presenting a situation which the student is expected to encounter in real life (e.g. visiting the doctor, booking a holiday). This kind of simulation takes two forms: (a) 'real time' simulation, and (b) 'move based' simulation (Higgins and Johns, 1984).

(a) 'Real time' simulation: In such a simulation, the action is continuous. The user must instantly react or he/she will fail by doing nothing. For an individual user, there is not much gain in language learning. With cooperative groups, language practice becomes possible, although, in such simulations, the students' attention is focused on the screen rather than on the group interaction. This is because the action is continuous.

(b) 'Move based' simulation: In this type of simulation, the display is constant on the computer, waiting for the users' decision. It gives the students time to react, discuss and use language (especially the modals 'must', 'may', and also 'if'). In this type of simulation, the students' response to the computer need not be elaborate. The aim of it is to give the student, the chance for real talk. A simulation of a battle requires various moves, strategies and plans to be discussed by informal student groups.

There are other kinds of classifications of simulation: (1) a simulation in which the process continues indefinitely, with no end; (2) as a problem which has definite outcome with success or failure .

Other types of simulation: (a) a role play: some simulations encourage students to take on various roles. For example, in a task that asks for identifying a murderer, the student takes on the role of a detective. Or, as in 'Yellow River Kingdom', the student may take the role of a ruler, a minister of defence or a minister of agriculture (this will be elaborated). These programs are called role plays in which students are required to adopt opinions, positions and roles. (b) Branching stories: in this type of simulation, the group is given a text to read. In this text there is a problem to solve. At the bottom of the screen, there are several courses of action that can be taken. Once the group takes an action, the consequences are displayed.

The structure of a simulation lesson

A simulation lesson contains: (1) a briefing, (2) execution, (3) de-briefing (Higgins and Johns, 1984).

1. The briefing part is handled by the teacher or by giving the students paper handouts about the task. This part prepares students for the activity. It enlightens them to the objective of the activity, and the roles or the functions they will fulfil.

2. Execution: The teacher's role is minimal and the computer carries out the task which takes the following pattern (Wellington, 1985):

- (a) a scenario is presented to the student
- (b) the student changes the parameters
- (c) another scenario is presented

3. De-briefing: In this part, the teacher has a very important role. He/she discusses with the students what they have done, the decisions they have taken and why.

Example: Yellow River Kingdom

This simulation is about a poor kingdom which depends on growing rice. This kingdom consists of three villages which are surrounded by a river to the west and mountains to the east. A dyke exists between the river and the fields. Bandits hide in the mountains.

The kingdom has two resources, the population itself and the baskets of rice which both feed the population and plant the fields. There are three seasons: the winter, the growing period and the harvesting season. The ruler (the student) is the one who decides about the numbers of people to be allocated to different activities: working in the fields, maintaining the dyke and protecting the villages from being attacked by the bandits. The allocation should be precise in order not to have unfortunate circumstances. If there is not enough people to maintain the dyke, the river may overflow into the field and destroy the harvest. If there is not enough

people to guard the villages, the bandits may steal the rice, or kill the villagers. Also, if there are not enough workers in the fields, the harvest may not be collected and, as a result, people may starve. Another decision required is the amount of rice that should be planted. This decision will affect the quantity of the harvest and the numbers of the rice baskets that are left for people to eat.

The ruler (the student), after deciding, types appropriate figures for a season into the computer. The computer then gives feedback about the ruler's decisions. Such consequences may include whether the river floods or not, or whether the bandits invade the villages or not. The computer then displays how many people died from floods, attack or hunger. Also the computer calculates the current population and numbers of rice baskets remaining. After that, the next season is presented which requires further decisions.

These consequences of a student's decisions are caused or affected by three factors: (1) the ruler's decision, (2) the circumstances in winter, (3) the strength of the bandits. The differences in the two last factors lead to different results each time the program is used. Some ruler's decisions result in the death of the entire population in a very short time. Other students make careful decisions which allow the population to survive satisfactorily for years and years.

Implementation in the classroom: This Simulation is divided into (1) preparation (briefing) (2) activity (execution), (3) follow up or feedback (de-briefing). In the preparation, the program is introduced to the students. The teacher explains sample seasons to introduce new vocabulary words (e.g. bandit, dyke), presents language functions such as: suggesting, reason giving, interrupting...., or suggests expressions such as 'may be we should... don't you agree that we should....., what if we.....'. In the activity part, the teacher divides the class into groups, each group works at its own pace.

This program can be used for either simulation or role play. In a simulation, students act as themselves. In a role play, students take on the role of a Ruler, Minister, or Advisor. In a simulation, lazy students may just type in their figures after very limited discussion. In role play, students take roles such as a Prime Minister

whose decision is final, a Minister of Agriculture (fields), a Minister of Defence (bandits) such that discussion is more probable.

The best way to ensure role play is by keeping the players away from the computer in order that they spend their time in intensive discussion and argument. For example, the Minister of Defence may fight to use as many people as possible to defend the village. He thinks that safety is the most important element in life, while the Minister of Agriculture may argue that there should be more people to maintain the harvest or people may die out of hunger. After debate, they make a specific decision and feed it into the computer which, in turn, gives them the consequences of the decision.

Feedback : In this feedback session, students talk about their experience with the program, what happened to them, were they able to rule the kingdom, for how many years. Students may be required later to write these experiences for homework, as a newspaper article or as a report from a Minister.

Advantages

1. Simulations have many advantages. They allow students to try out experiments and activities which may be dangerous, impractical or costly. This is applicable to language simulation. Travelling abroad may be impractical, costly or even impossible. Language simulations can solve this problem by acting as a substitute for travelling abroad, talking to native speakers and trying out linguistic skills in certain areas at specific times. This point leads one to talk about bridging the gap between classroom and real world.

2. Bridging the gap between classroom and real life: computer simulations can bring a skeleton version of the real world into the classroom. It can present a realistic scenario from life. One of the reasons why we learn a foreign language is because of the need to be multilingual in the future global village. As a result, bridging the gap between the classroom and the real world has become one of the most important concerns in language learning in recent years (e.g. in the ascendance of the Communicative Approach). Krashen (1985: 70) states "in my view the goal of the language class is to bring the student to the point where he or

she can use the language outside the classroom in understanding and communicating with native speakers".

Simulations present real life situations about which students talk, decide and communicate with each other. Simulation is a way to prepare the student to use the language outside the classroom.

3. Interaction / Communication / Oral Production:

In simulations, there are two types of interaction: (1) student-computer interaction which takes the form of a written communication between the student and the computer; (2) student-student/student-teacher interaction. Student-student communication takes place during the 'execution' part of the simulation lesson. The student-teacher communication occurs in the 'de-briefing' session when the students discuss with the teacher what they did and the linguistic problems they faced.

The most important thing in computer simulation is the student-student interaction not the student-computer interaction. Allison Piper at Ealing College and Scott Windeatt at Lancaster University have video-recorded groups working on CALL to analyse the kind of interaction that takes place (Piper, 1986). Phillips (1985: 29) says that simulation programs "usually involve the students, frequently working as one of a group in decision-making activities demanding the use of language in discussion, negotiation and argument". Kenning and Kenning (1983: 157) support this by explaining "computer simulations can thus be of great assistance in stimulating conversation; in confronting pupils with tasks to be carried out in the here and now, to prompt them to consult one another and argue the merits and demerits of a particular response. The conversation is not gratuitous, it has a genuine purpose - to try and arrive at a good solution - and this tends to make for a lively exchange".

Jones and Fortescue (1987) also argue that computer simulations provide a context for discussion. The students have reasons for speaking because they need to communicate their thoughts and opinions to their group. Jones and Fortescue (1987: 63) say that "computer simulation can provide motivating stimulus for such

work, as they offer both a focus for oral activity and a continually changing scenario for learners to talk about". Davies and Higgins (1985: 13) suggest that "there is no reason why the computer should not be used as a stimulus for group oral activity, with the teacher monitoring the response".

4. Motivation: One of the most important features of computer simulations is that they are very motivating. Jones and Fortescue (1987: 68) say that "the major advantage of computer simulations is that they are very motivating". Whittington (1984: 67) writes about simulation and its motivational effect. About the simulation 'Mary Rose', he says "it is the Mary Rose and the activities surrounding its excavation which motivate - not the pressing of the plastic keys of a microcomputer".

5. Provision of feedback: Computer simulations provide feedback of effects and consequences of students' decisions. This feedback stimulates another kind of discussion. In the decision-making process, students argue and discuss. After receiving the computer's feedback, they again discuss their decision's effects.

Another point should be mentioned about computer feedback which may be an advantage and disadvantage at the same time. Often feedback is 'authoritative'. The learners accept it as being the result of their decisions. At the same time, if this similar feedback comes from the teacher, it may not be so readily accepted. Students do not argue with the computer's judgment. On the contrary, they accept it as being completely wise, unbiased and fair. This type of feedback (as acceptable and wise) allows the activity to manage itself. Students discuss certain problems, decide, type in their decision, get feedback from the computer, discuss again, then go on to the next move. The activity becomes self-organised and self-managed. This frees the teacher to act as a helper when his or her help is needed.

6. Computer simulation's advantages over other media simulations:

(a) It provides instant feedback.

(b) It can provide graphics which are very effective (e.g. maps and diagrams). It can add animation of events (e.g. growth, movements, births, deaths...)

(c) It can provide music.

(d) “unlike ordinary simulations, computer simulations do not have to be started from scratch since they have a built in impetus” (Kenning and Kenning, 1983: 155).

7. The student's role/teacher's role: The student's role in computer simulation is an advantage. Papert (1980) believes strongly in the importance of students being in charge of the learning process. He suggests that highly successful learning takes place when the student programs the computer rather than the computer programs the student. This is applicable to computer simulation in which the student has partial control. He/she decides what position to take, the computer displays the consequences.

In simulations, the teacher is regarded as an integral part of CALL processes. The teacher is not completely uninvolved as in programmed learning. Although the teacher is no longer controlling the learning process, he/she still participates in the briefing session, in the execution session when he/she circulates among the groups to monitor and help when needed, and in the de-briefing session.

8. Simulations have psychological advantages. Computer simulations are called 'judgment-free' applications (Kenning and Kenning, 1983). They are not like drill and skill programs. The computer's function is not to catch out the students. On the contrary, it provides them with opportunities for language acquisition. Because simulations are 'judgement-free' applications, students' errors are not highlighted, but allowed to go by uncorrected. It is much the same as in real life. This may relieve the students' anxieties, lower their affective filter and allow them to practice language in a very relaxing atmosphere.

Disadvantages

1. Computer simulations assume that pupils are capable of making the leap from a real life situation to a computer representation. In a simulation, it is doubtful that what is learnt from the model is a perfect replica of what would be learnt from practical experience. Real life experience provides a most memorable and rewarding acquisition of language. Bullock (1988: 61) says “a simulation is only a representation, and before all practical and fieldwork activities are replaced by

computer simulations, it would be important to consider what might be lost". Sitting down at a computer is not really like fighting a battle or visiting a doctor.

Higgins and Johns (1984) defend computer simulations by saying that criticising the unreality of simulations is invalid. It is similar to saying that reading fiction is not the same as experiencing real life. Both have their own different effect on language learning. Higgins and Johns (1984: 36) confirm that "the computer can however, abstract from these real life activities just enough to permit some suspension of disbelief, and can calculate the effects of chance and of material factors so quickly and efficiently that it presents outcomes which we can accept as likely".

2. Sometimes simulations become so motivating that students slip back into their first language. Hardisty and Windeatt (1989: 55) say "there is a good chance that discussion will take place in the students' mother tongue, in the case of monolingual classes".

3. In computer simulations, the conversation between students flows naturally. The problem occurs when the inexperienced teacher intervenes during the simulation, to handle a language problem or to give some advice. Interrupting the students may destroy the natural, authentic flow of the conversation. Students may forget what they were discussing or which stage they reached before they were interrupted. So the teacher should provide feedback or advice either after the students discuss and settle on a decision, at a natural stop or in the de-briefing session.

4. Learning style: Every student has his own learning style or cognitive style. Some students may have the kind of learning style which makes them more or less comfortable with this type of learning. As a result, they may or may not progress. The problem arises when students, who do not like open ended tasks (as with simulations) and cooperative learning, are required to take part in such computer simulations.

5. 'Exchange' simulations take the form of an open ended dialogue between the computer and the student. The disadvantage is that the computer is unable to

conduct effectively an open ended, authentic dialogue with the student. Ahamad et al. (1985: 8) comment that “it has neither the vocabulary, nor the ability, to understand the enormous range of utterances possible in any human language. It cannot handle ambiguity with any confidence”.

6. Many simulations are complex, as a result, they are time consuming. Students take time to learn how to use them. When they learn how to deal with the intricacies, they move to the exploration and investigation of them which also takes much more time.

7. Some teachers claim that using simulations does not stimulate oral work. This may be due to a lack of preparation. Simulations need to be well structured and well prepared for.

8. Simulations are difficult to write because they require huge amounts of data (especially 'exchange' simulations).

9. Authoritative feedback: This may lead the student in the long run to treat or think of the computer as a 'superbrain' that is the all knowledgeable . The students may believe in the superiority of the machine over human beings and over themselves. Also, students' acceptance of the computer's judgement as being inarguable does not reflect real life. In real life people are always required to make determining judgments.

Adventure

Characteristics

1. Adventure programs put the user in an imaginary world (e.g. of dungeons, dragons, goblins and other monsters) full of problems to be solved. The world most of the time is like a maze. Higgins and Johns (1984: 66) say “the underlying scenario is that of exploring a maze”. The users are encouraged to enter this maze, in quest of something (e.g. treasure) to try to survive the dangers around this quest, search for and find a safe way to get out of the maze. While doing so, they meet with good and evil characters, they see hazards galore, take useful

instruments, they get lost, injured or killed. The users may find caves that lead to passage ways and tunnels. In specific places within this maze, there are limited actions to take, limited directions to follow.

2. Adventures have a problem solving or puzzle-solving element which makes them very attractive and interesting.

3. In adventures, students type in 'simple English' usually verb- non phrases without articles or prepositions (e.g. take knife, give map).

4. Kenning and Kenning (1983: 157) say that in adventure programs, students will find "moves matter more than language".

5. In adventure programs, "the computer acts as the player's eyes, ears, arms and legs" (Jones and Fortescue, 1987: 71) since the task is always full of danger and violence.

6. Language gains: In adventure programs, the information is given in text form. The player has to read the text on the screen in order to pick up clues and to mix the new information with what has been learned before. In general, adventure programs provide the student with real chances for 'reading' for 'meaning' (Higgins and Johns, 1984). Also language gains take place when the users try to find their way around the maze by typing into the computer their questions or their instructions, or by choosing from the options the computer provides on the screen. Oral communication can be achieved when students work in cooperative groups.

7. Adventure games are similar to simulations. Sometimes it is not clear whether a certain program is an adventure or a simulation. However there are some differences by which one can distinguish a simulation from an adventure. Those differences are (1) adventures deal with exotic topics while simulations deal with more realistic topics; (2) simulations are more open ended and deal with problems that do not have or require one single correct answer. They contain cyclical scenarios with some random variation, whereas adventures contain a single story that has a definite plot and end.

Types of Adventures

1. Adventures which require the user to type in his response;
2. Multiple choice adventures in which the computer displays options from which the user can choose to keep the program running. This type of adventure avoids the problem of 'natural language input'.

Another classification is: (1) imaginary adventure; (2) more realistic adventures.

Examples

1. Flash Rogers. This is a very simple and short adventure game which can be dealt with in a single lesson. The task in this adventure game is to help 'Susie Starlet' (the victim) be rescued from the evil King Kong. King Kong has kidnapped her and escaped to his island castle. To fulfil this task, the user (the hero) should find a plane to fly over mountains, kill the villain and enter his castle. Before working on the task, the teacher should explain some vocabulary items (e.g. hangar, unlock, altitude), explain the situation and ask the students to record their movements. Also, the teacher should tell the students that the program understands limited grammar.

The learners work in groups by exploring the terrain. The adventure contains 'squares' from which the users move either north, south, east or west. This can be accomplished by typing 'go north' or 'go south'....etc. In one square (a house), the user may find a gun and decide to take it. They then type 'take gun'. Or in a forest, they may find a map, so the students type in 'take map'. The students do not know the usefulness of the gun or the map but later if they get lost, they will need to use the map. They can type 'read map', so that the computer displays the map of the adventure which shows them the route to the island and the square in which they are. Other squares 'hide' petrol, water and a key.

When the students get in the plane (which is in the hangar), they may press a key to take off. They may crash into the roof of the hangar because first they must get out of the hangar before taking off. The students will usually fail several times, until eventually they succeed in reaching the castle and getting into it. They will

then be able to rescue the heroine, and fly her home. The hero then asks her to marry him. The program displays 'yes' or 'no' randomly.

During this adventure students converse, argue, suggest, criticise and explain. The teacher circulates from group to group, helping and giving hints. After the students fulfil the task, they are given follow up activities which take the form of questions around the adventure, or are requested to write a narrative about the adventure and give details of the solution.

2. London adventure. This adventure is designed for EFL students. It has an inbuilt language-teaching element. In this adventure students practise asking for information and using appropriate utterances. This adventure allows the user to play the role of a tourist in London. It provides him or her with tasks to fulfil: exchanging money, buying cards and sightseeing. The computer displays a menu of options which the student uses to choose where to go. When the computer calls for a decision, the student can choose which option is the most appropriate. This adventure is put in a more true-to-life setting than Flash Rogers.

Advantages

1. The potential of adventure programs in language learning are: (a) they develop reading skills; (b) they develop oral skills; and (c) present realistic language expressions.

(a) Adventure games can develop reading skills. Mullan (1981: 51) describes his work with five to eleven year olds in reading skills using the Microsoft program adventure (Dungeons and Dragons): "it would seem apparent that the children have to use higher reading skills to a great extent. They have to reason backwards from the printed word, project into the future using the implications in the text and have to face the added difficulty of devising their own recording methods". Saunders (1987) has developed an adventure in French called the 'Dark Castle' whose aim was to provide the students with reading material. Saunders (1987: 76) does not claim that his students, after using the 'Dark Castle', will be better readers, or that they will learn much, but he says "it does afford them the opportunity to achieve more through reading than they might otherwise, and to

experience reading as something enjoyable rather than as an unrewarding task". Saunders (1987: 76) believes that adventure games make "the reading of a foreign language a more realistic and enjoyable exercise than is traditionally available". Higgins and Johns (1984) think that adventures give the students a genuine opportunity to 'read' for 'meaning'. In order that the students solve the problem and find their way through the maze, they have to read and understand the information which is presented in a textual form.

(b) Adventure games can develop oral skills. When students in the group try to find their way out of the maze, many utterances are produced such as 'I shouldn't go that way, if I were you....we ought to have gone up instead of down'. Those utterances flow naturally without being elicited. Students may learn language from each other easily. Jones and Fortescue (1987: 71) say about adventures that "they can generate a lot of enthusiastic and communicative oral language as learners work in groups toward the solution, can form the basis for various oral and written post-mortem activities". They emphasise that the value of a computer adventure game lies basically in its ability to be used as a stimulus for group discussion and communication. The useful and rich language is very much 'off screen'.

(c) There are other kinds of adventures (other than the dungeons and dragons type) which present real life situations, like catching trains or ordering meals. Within these types of adventures, the student is exposed to more realistic language expressions and functions.

2. Motivation: Jones and Fortescue (1987) consider computer adventure games as 'powerful motivators'. Kenning and Kenning (1983: 159) say "adventure games can be harnessed to brighten up language courses". Mullan (1981) also believes in their "terrific motivational aspect". Pamela and Maddison (1987: 26) write about adventure games that "they may well motivate some otherwise reluctant learners". Davies and Higgins (1985) mention how attractive and how able adventure games are in capturing attention. They report seeing a German student of English holding a dictionary and spending the whole day on an adventure game.

Disadvantages

1. There are not many adventures written for EFL students, as a result many teachers turn to general commercial adventures which are not specifically EFL targeted.
2. Commercial adventures are widely available, and are not always suitable for EFL students because (a) they are very difficult and complicated, sometimes students get stuck to the extent that they become unable to continue the activity. This will affect negatively the progress and the motivation of the student. Chandler (1982: 25) explains that adventure games "can sometimes be destructively frustrating if the group fails to find the correct solution"; (b) they contain exotic language, they are too "outlandish in content and/or vocabulary requirements" (Jones and Fortescue, 1987: 73). Davies and Higgins (1985: 30) say that "the biggest drawback of adventure is that they tend to be set in romantic, horrific or just plain eccentric settings.....what the linguist really requires, however, is a more down to earth environment"; (c) they are time consuming to use in class, most of them take weeks and even months to solve. It is usually impossible to finish a commercial adventure in one lesson.
3. As stated earlier, the adventure has a single story with a definite plot and end. Once the students play the game, they learn all about it, its tricks and hidden dangers which do not differ or change if the users run the program again. This has two disadvantages: (a) the adventure game can't be used for more than one time because, if used again, the students will learn nothing new and will get bored; (b) there are some students who will have already used the adventure and give novices the answers. Running the same adventure in class may encourage those students to help their group to fulfil the task easily without allowing any experimentation, discussion and conversation to take place.
4. Adventure games often use 'sub-standard' English with a very restricted form of expression (e.g. take gun, read map). This has many possible unfortunate implications:

- (a) Adventure games may reinforce the use of this type of English;
- (b) students may use it outside the classroom to communicate with others;
- (c) they may consider it as being the correct form of English;
- (d) in activities other than adventures, this type of English is not accepted. This conflict may lead the student to feel confused;
- (e) adventure programs may not help to develop (or may inhibit) more complex forms of language either in oral or written form.

Self (1985: 34) in discussing the usefulness of adventure games says that "the sentences displayed are usually poor samples of English literature". He even wonders how such illiterate programs (adventures) can develop proper linguistic skills.

5. Motivation: Self (1985) criticises adventure games by saying that they are not necessarily motivating. Self (1985: 36) explains that "a pupil is motivated when he identifies with the objectives to which the learning leads". He continues "computer games are alluring, involving, and even addictive but they are not necessarily motivating". He gives the reason that the program users do not have learning objectives. When one asks the player about his objective, he will say "to get the treasure" not to develop any reading skills!

6. Like simulations, adventures should be carefully chosen and well prepared by the teacher with integration into a systematic and sequential program of language learning.

(3) The Conjectural Paradigm

Theoretical background

Conjectural programs are similar to Revelatory programs. They both adopt the same theoretical ideas. The main difference lies in the control the student possesses over the learning process. In Revelatory programs, the representation consists of a model of a situation ready made by the programmer. The student's role is to experiment with the 'external' variables around the model, but not to change the model itself (the internal variables). In Conjectural programs, the

student is the one who creates the model of a situation which he/she may then use and test .

Higgins (1983) provides comparisons between the 'magister' and the 'pedagogue' roles in learning activity. The magister is the authoritarian who takes the function of delivering knowledge and who is obeyed by the student. The pedagogue is the slave, the one who obeys and provides answers when asked. The difference lies in the extent to which each one holds control over the learning process. In the 'magisterial' approach, the control is with the teacher. In the 'pedagogical', it is with the student. Higgins applies these two approaches to CALL. CALL adopts the magisterial approach within the Instructional paradigm in drill and skill and tutorial programs. On the other hand, CALL adopts the pedagogical approach (partially) within the Revelatory and the Conjectural paradigm reflected by what Johns (1982) calls "the exploratory programs" in which the student uses the computer to investigate the language and to test out hypothesis.

So what are Exploratory programs? What theoretical concepts do they adopt? (1) Exploratory programs are a reaction against the use of the computer as a magister; (2) Exploratory programs ensure that learning is gained by trial and error (by discovery); (3) the underlying concept is that it is possible to create knowledge through one's own experience. The focus is on the students' exploration of information in a specific area; (4) Higgins and Johns (1984: 71) mention that "the aim is not the establishment of language habits, but the development of strategies for use inside and outside the classroom for the exploration and puzzling out of the target language and its underlying regularities".

Types of Conjectural Programs

First one should ask what is meant by Conjectural learning? Higgins (1986: 38) explains that it is "what occurs when students sit down to work out rules from data to form hypotheses and test them, or to rationalise their partial knowledge into a system which they can share with somebody else". In the Conjectural Approach, the student joins what he/she passively or partially knows to the external task that he/she wants to perform. Higgins (1986: 41) says "the task is often one which

involves passing on the knowledge gained; creating the question machine was a kind of teaching". Conjectural learning requires the students to be in charge of their learning, to decide the order which they will follow to tackle the assignment, to evaluate and to judge.

There are (mainly) two types of Conjectural programs: (1) In the first kind, the computer is fed with rules which the students try to explore and discover by typing in their own examples (e.g. 'A/an' program). (2) The other type is more complex, and requires the computer to understand both the rules and the situation. In such types of programs, the student may modify the situation and converse with the computer using natural but limited conversation (e.g. John and Mary program).

Concerning the role of the student, the student has full control over the learning process. He/she is in charge of his/her own learning. In the previous paradigms, the computer acts as a 'quiz master', but in this paradigm, the role is reversed since the student acts as quiz master. The student is the one who puts the questions and assesses the answers. He/she becomes the task setter. In traditional programs, the machine sets the tasks for the student to solve, but in this program "it is up to the student to set tasks for the machine to solve" (Chandler, 1983: 94). "The user creates a model of a situation himself and then may go on to test it" (Wellington, 1985: 61). The student participates in the decision making activity and takes part in the shaping of the material. He/she is more responsible for his/her own learning. This paradigm implies that the student is the best judge of what is suitable in a specific area or at a specific time. The student is alert enough and capable of handling the learning situation. As a result, students (in this paradigm) do not sit and wait for others to supply them with 'ready made' material, but instead they take initiatives and explore language. Rushby (1984: 33) comments: "it is the pupil who is in control of the learning rather than the other way about, he is brought much closer to instructing or programming the computer than in the instructional or revelatory forms".

The teacher takes on the role of a helper not a controller. During sessions when the students are exploring language by the use of the computer, the teacher circulates and helps when needed. After the students finish, they discuss their findings with the teacher who monitors the progress made.

The computer takes the role of a pedagogue, the slave who obeys and provides help. Rushby (1984: 33) defines the role of the computer as “assisting the pupil in his manipulation and testing of ideas and hypothesis”. When one compares the role of the computer in the Instructional paradigm with its role in the Conjectural paradigm, one will recognise that in the first the computer provides the problem to be solved and then reinforces, while in the second the computer neither provides the task to solve, nor reinforces it, only invites the student to use the language to explore a situation. So the computer acts as an informant, helper or partner.

Examples:

- (1) 'A/An' program
- (2) John and Mary

1. 'A/An' program. In this program the student types in a noun or a noun phrase. The computer then displays the correct form of the indefinite article either 'a' or 'an'. In this activity, the student explores the computer's knowledge limits. He/she types in examples for which the computer may be unable to provide the right article (in an attempt to defeat it). Then the student tries to make inferences about what linguistic rules the computer uses as a basis for its response. This program allows the student to investigate and explore language, and the principles behind correct use.

There are other programs that deal with other rules like the s-ending, the ing-ending and the ed-ending in the past tense. How do students use these programs? The teacher allows groups of students to try out their hypotheses at the keyboard. Each group has a dictionary and grammar book as a reference to check the computer's answers. Then they discuss their findings as a whole class. Students explain the rules, including the cases which the computer missed.

2. The other type of program puts the computer in a position in which it can understand and produce natural language. In the John and Mary program, a natural language interaction is produced and exchanged between the computer and the learner. The program illustrates a room with a door that leads to a kitchen.

Two figures are displayed, John and Mary. This program has a situational element one can recognise. The learner is free to experiment with this situation. (1) The student can make statements about what is displayed on the screen and the computer reacts. For example, the student types 'Mary is in the lounge', the computer comments 'I agree' or 'I disagree' if she is not. (2) The student can ask questions about the situation; (3) or by pressing the 'return' key, the computer can generate questions of its own about the situation. The student either answers them or the computer does. (4) The student can ask the computer to change the situation by typing in, for example, close the door, bring Mary in.....etc., the computer then obeys. Or the learner can use all of four modes at the same time (e.g. the student asks the machine questions, changes the situation, and asks it more questions around the new situation).

Advantages

1. The computer's ability to understand and respond to natural language, can be "of immense benefit in language learning: the computer would become a patient and authoritative interlocutor that a learner could make use of whenever he chose to" (Jones and Fortescue, 1987: 93).
2. The use of exploratory programs may develop students' study skills. To check the computer's response, they will have to use the dictionary and a grammar book. This, in time, will develop their study skills.
3. Motivation. Such types of programs may motivate students. Jones and Fortescue (1987: 92) explain that "the possibility of catching out the machine can be a powerful motivation and can lead to lively discussion". Higgins (in Davies and Higgins, 1985: 52) also says that "it provides interesting opportunities for language practice".
4. Also this type of program may encourage group discussion. Chandler (1983: 94) talks about those programs that they "can be powerful stimulators of group discussion".

5. Language can be practised in a 'non threatening' environment (low affective filter). For example, the 'John and Mary' type of program, as Higgins (in Davies and Higgins, 1985) says, belongs to 'Grammar Land' which is similar to Papert's 'Math Land' within which students can practise language grammar in a 'non threatening' environment. Higgins believes that "they are territory to be visited rather than systematic exercises to be worked through. The program itself imposes no order on the events and issues no criticism other than "I don't understand" (Davies and Higgins, 1985: 53). This may create a relaxing and amusing learning context.

6. The role the student plays within this paradigm has many advantages. The students are in charge and responsible for their learning. This has many consequences. Taylor (1980) expresses how useful and effective the student's function as a tutor and the computer's function as a tutee are. When students act as tutors, they gain new insights into their own thinking. Also when teachers see how their students can benefit from seeing themselves as tutors and treating the computer as a tutee, they enrich and broaden their understanding of education. "As a result extended use of the computer as tutee can shift the focus of education in the classroom from end product to process, from acquiring facts to manipulating and understanding them" (Taylor, 1980: 4).

Luehrmann (1980) in his article 'Should the computer teach the student, or vice-versa?' argues that students learn more deeply, and acquire more insights into the process of learning than they would from being tutored by software created by others. Bullock (1988: 62) agrees and says about this type of program "holds the promise of being an effective device for acquiring cognitive process - the teaching of how, rather than what to think". Higgins (1986: 44) says "the benefits may come in the form of sudden insights". In reality learners differ, some may enjoy this program and report gains from it. Papert (1980) in his book 'Mindstorms', talks about a kind of 'mental unblocking' that may be created by practising Conjectural activities. He mentions a study which lasted for a year. The computers were put in average seventh grades classrooms. The students worked on 'computer poetry'. In this activity, they produced a piece of poetry by feeding the computer with syntactic structure to generate sentences.

During this study a day came when one student, called Jenny, very excited by discovering something, said “now I know why we have nouns and verbs” (Papert, 1980: 48). In spite of studying and being drilled for years, Jenny appeared to be ignorant about the differences between nouns, verbs and adverbs. It was only when she engaged in this type of computer program she gained a full understanding of them. “She had not been able to make any sense of what grammar was about in the sense of what it might be for” (Papert, 1980: 49).

Taking the role of an initiator, feeding the computer and setting the structure, allowed the student to make sense and to understand. To enable the computer to generate poetry, she needed to classify words into categories, needed to teach it how to choose a word from a suitable class to make correct English sentences. Papert (1980: 49-50) says “what she learned about grammar from this experience with machines was anything but mechanical or routine, her learning was deep and meaningful. Jenny did more than learn definitions for particular grammatical classes, she understood the general idea that words can be placed in different groups or sets; and that doing so could work for her. She not only ‘understood’ grammar, she changed her relationship to it”. Even her image of herself changed, her performance also changed, consequently her low/average grades changed to straight ‘A’s.

Disadvantages

1. In the second type of Exploratory program, the computer is required to understand and produce natural language. The ability to communicate in a natural language needs a knowledge of the world which can never be possessed by a computer. The linguistic ability the computer has is very limited. The language only extends to what it has been programmed to understand.
2. Exploratory programs of the second type are difficult to write.
3. They take time (at least ten times as long) to write.
4. They are expensive.

5. To be produced, they require much more effort and as Jones and Fortescue (1987: 97) say "for the programmer the reward does not as yet justify the effort".
6. This type of program may or may not appeal to different learners because there are different students with different styles of learning. As a result, this particular type of program will definitely have different degrees of success with various types of students.
7. The student is responsible for his own progress. The problem is that learners cannot always judge when they get wrong answers especially with new material.
8. This type of program may create problems for the student who is not used to an autonomous type of school learning. This kind of program makes more demands on the students. The activities and the role the students play in these programs differ from the other programs. In these programs, the learner should be active because success in learning depends on his activity. To avoid this problem, students should be well prepared and self motivated.
9. Higgins (1986) explains one difficulty about such types of program. He describes it as having no structure of its own and no clear starting and finishing point. It is impossible to write an 'exit test' for this type of program, and as a result it is difficult to demonstrate what the student has mastered in the session, and difficult to prove that these programs work.
10. As mentioned earlier, the teacher's role is to guide and help, but the problem lies in how and when to intervene. Kemmis et al. (1977: 32) discuss this problem: "Perhaps the biggest difficulty in practice within the conjectural paradigm is that of developing students to the point where the machine becomes a 'mere' tool for the pursuit of other learning. On the one hand, there is the problem of helping computer-naive students to use the machine as a 'scratch pad' when the ideas they are pursuing are themselves complex and subtle; then, on the other hand there is the problem of helping them, after they have reached this level of mastery of the machine as a tool, to free themselves from the categories it imposes on the way they think about the problems".

The Emancipatory Paradigm

Theoretical background

The computer within the first three paradigms (Instructional, Revelatory and Conjectural) is able to improve and enhance the quality of learning while the computer within the Emancipatory paradigm is able to reduce 'unauthentic labour'. Consequently, it may enhance the quality of learning. The use of the computer within the fourth paradigm is not based on specific educational views or theories of education.

The student in this paradigm has full control over the machine. The computer is, in this paradigm, used as a labour-saving device, a tool, (for example, for calculating, for statistical analysis, drawing graphs). It is used as an "unintelligent, tedium-relieving slave in aiding his or her learning process" (Wellington, 1985: 62).

In any learning task there are two kinds of labour: (1) authentic labour; (2) unauthentic labour. Authentic labour is the main, important, valuable and 'indispensable' part of the learning task. Unauthentic labour is not central to learning but still important. It is just an 'accessory' to student learning. It makes learning possible and facilitates it. It is a necessary part of a task and instrumental to valued learning but not valued for its own sake. For example, the student may be required to carry out calculations to reach the final results of a research study. Carrying out calculations is not the main part of learning in this example, the final result is. The most important thing is reaching the final results. Calculating is unauthentic labour a task already mastered by the student and repeated as a means to an end, and not an end in itself.

This paradigm treats the computer in two ways: (1) it uses it as a tool to serve the students who use it whenever and wherever they want; (2) the computer is partly used in the learning situation to engage the unauthentic part of learning activity.

Advantages

1. The computer can act “as a means of reducing the work load of the student” (Rushby, 1979: 33). “The computer is a machine which excels at rapid, accurate calculations and information handling, and is a very suitable means of reducing the amount of unauthentic labour in learning processes, supporting the student by providing him with facilities for calculation, information retrieval and soon” (Rushby, 1979: 34).
2. The computer takes a 'time-saving' role. It reduces the time the student spends to fulfil a task. For example, the computer can carry out calculations which take a very long time, or are impossible to be performed. Taylor (1980: 3) says of computers as a tool: “their use can pay off handsomely in saving time and preserving intellectual energy by transferring necessary routine clerical tasks of a tedious, mechanical kind to the computer”.
3. While using the computer as a tool, the student may learn something. In this respect Taylor (1980: 8) says “use of the computer in tool mode may teach the user something during use, but any such teaching is most likely accidental and not the result of any design to teach”.

Example: Word Processing

Characteristics

Word processing gives the computer a totally different function. Jones and Fortescue (1987: 52) say “instead of being an evaluator that matches student input against pre-written answers, the computer is being used more as an unintelligent workhorse, an electronic scratch pad that simply displays what the student writes”. Following the Emancipatory paradigm, word processing “is a device for reducing unauthentic labour par excellence” (Phillips, 1986: 5).

What should one learn in order to word process? (Hardisty and Windeatt, 1989):

1. Learn how to start the word processor and reach the part where one can start typing;
2. One needs to be aware of how to (a) type upper and lower case letters, (b) delete and insert a letter, a word or even a paragraph, (c) save the text which one has typed onto a disk, (d) load text which means taking a copy of the text that is on a disk and put it into the memory of the computer, and (e) print a text;
3. As one gains more experience and confidence, extra word processing functions can be learnt (a) moving words, lines, paragraphs or even blocks of text around, (b) modifying and justifying the presentation of the text (formats, margins, left and right justifications, underlining, italicising, using large or heavy prints), (c) deleting texts, and (d) merging texts.

How can the word processor be used in language classrooms?

The word processor's main use is for writing, either for guided writing or for free writing. In a guided writing activity, the piece of writing is already provided. The students are not required to write from scratch, they just use the ready made piece of text, which they alter in some way. It may be a dialogue which is not complete, or the words of one of the speakers are missing. It can be a passage which needs changing tense from present to the past tense. In a free writing activity the student produces a piece of writing from scratch. The student begins with an empty page. The use of word processors in free writing can be divided into three steps: (1) type a text, move it around, delete, insert, replace, edit, (2) save the text onto disc, (3) print it onto paper.

No doubt the word processor can be used for writing, but in addition to that, it can be used to fulfil other functions. Underwood and Underwood (1990) offer several ways in which word processors can be exploited: (1) it can be used as an electronic worksheet for basic skills practice, (2) it can be used to develop advanced reading skills, (3) to decode a text, (4) to develop an understanding of text (story) structure, and (5) to encourage planning. They believe that word

processors are very useful tools for developing reading skills. They have several features like 'find and delete' which may be used in activities to develop some reading skills. For example in 'jumbled text' (this will be explained later) , a text is presented not in its natural sequence, but in a non sequenced order. A student's job is to reorder the text. The student will have to understand the meaning of each jumbled passage to try to reconstruct the text. In an attempt to fulfil this task, the student uses several skills (e.g. extracting the meaning from sentences, thinking of the clues that lead to text cohesion, such as grammatical structures, dates, and sequences of events). This exercise can be used on paper but the use of the machine enables the student to change and revise several times easily and have a clean, high quality final copy of the text.

Windeatt (1988) provides useful exercises that can be used both for teaching learners how to use word processors and for exploiting word processing functions for language learning. Some of these exercises will now be mentioned:

(1) The exercise type that uses the word processor's editing facilities:

(a) Deletion/insertion/over writing

In this exercise, the text is displayed on the screen. The student will: (a) identify mis-spellings and correct them, (b) find and correct grammatical mistakes, (c) type in deleted words in the text, and (d) find and delete the extra words that have been introduced into the text.

(b) Block move/copy/delete

The student can manipulate phrases, sentences or paragraphs by using the 'block' move, copy or delete facilities. An **example** is 'Jumbled text'. The students are given a task that involves jumbled sentences or paragraphs and are required to reorder them. First of all, students decide which paragraph should be moved and where it should be placed. Second, the students move the 'cursor' to the beginning of the paragraph and mark it, and they then mark the end of the paragraph (using a special key). Third, they move the cursor to the place they chose to re-place the paragraph. Fourth, they press the appropriate key, so that the

marked paragraph will be seen in its new location. The students can mark parts of the text, move them around the screen and repeat this operation until they feel that they have placed the text in the right order. Windeatt (1988: 60) says "the advantage of using the word processor for this kind of exercise is that the learner can see the result of his choices in context, before deciding on a final version".

(c) Search and replace

Example: The students are given a story. The task is to change the name of the hero from Ali to Sali. What should the student do? (1) load the text and read it on the screen, (2) use the 'search and replace' facility to change all occurrences of Ali into Sali, (3) change 'he' to 'she', 'him' to 'her' and other changes like 'suit' to 'dress'.

(2) Exercise type: practice of language and study skills:

(a) Making notes: By the use of editing facilities, the student can take a complete text and produce notes from it by removing the irrelevant points from the text on the screen, leaving just the main points to form a summary. Or the student can highlight (by changing the colour), capitalise or underline the important points.

(b) Expanding notes: In this exercise the student is provided with notes and required to expand them into a complete text.

(c) Using a text as a model: The editing facilities of the word processor can help the student to exploit a text and use it as a model. An **example** is when the student is provided with a passage that describes a town. The student is asked to adapt it to provide a description of his or her own home town.

Advantages

1. Word processing has advantages over pen and pencil writing because it provides the students with the ability to revise, correct, delete and expand easily whenever they want. Higgins and Johns (1984: 84) say "foreign language learners can benefit from the facilities a word processor provides, namely reforming the text

to accommodate any insertions, deletions or reordering so that they always see the text in the form in which it will be printed". Word processing allows students to experiment, they can add words to see how they look in context. Windeatt (1988: 57) points out that "the significance of word processing for language teaching lies in the way in which these powerful editing facilities can encourage in learners the process of forming, testing and refining hypotheses about the target language". Underwood and Underwood (1990: 119) support this by saying that word processing "can be considered to be an open ended and flexible tool with which children can learn to think about the structure and purpose of language".

2. Word processing frees students from the mess that takes place when the student uses a pen to cross out unneeded words and insert new items.

3. Jones and Fortescue (1987: 52) say that "the screen provides a more satisfactory focus of attention for group writing than a small piece of paper. A piece of paper may be, for some students in the group, upside down!

4. There are some students who suffer from poor pen skills due to lack of motor control. Using the keyboard can be very helpful to them and "can give a pride in work which may be carried forward to the production of hand written material" (Underwood and Underwood, 1990: 135).

5. Attitude: Experiments have shown that using word processing to teach composition skills to native speakers changed the learners' attitude toward writing. They were highly motivated to see a "clean copy" of their written texts (Higgins and Johns, 1984). The question is if the native speaker can benefit from word processing, can not the foreign language learner? Jones and Fortescue (1987: 6) argue that word processing "can do much to improve learners' writing skills and their attitude toward writing". Papert (1980: 30) says "I have seen a child move from total rejection of writing to an intense involvement (accompanied by rapid improvement of quality) within a few weeks of beginning to write with a computer".

Word processing does not only change the students' attitudes towards writing but also towards revising. Rewriting a text is laborious. As a result, the

students may hand their teacher their first draft as the final copy. But by using the word processor, the students become able to compose their first draft at the keyboard, to correct easily and hand it in neat and tidy. This may lead to the change of attitude towards revision. Many teachers complain that their students do not revise and correct their own written work, but after the use of word processors, students may revise and correct their writing. Underwood and Underwood (1990: 123) comment "a group of 19 year olds admitted they found it difficult to leave any inaccuracy upon the screen. Whenever they spotted a mistake they had to go back and correct it". Willer (1984) conducted a study with elementary school students which showed that the use of the word processor for writing improved the students' attitudes toward revision which encouraged them to spend more time revising their writing.

6. Motivation: The use of the word processor motivates the students to write. Underwood and Underwood (1990: 143) explain that "one reason is that their self image is enhanced, for example, by the production of work with a well designed, high quality finish. It may also be enhanced by the sense of control over one's environment". Wellington (1985: 158) says "pupils are generally highly motivated by this chance to polish and experiment with their own writing".

7. Word processing fosters collaborative writing (Chandler, 1986). In this respect, Underwood and Underwood (1990: 144-145) mention that "word processing is at its most effective as a stimulus to writing when it is a group learning and sharing activity. The computer puts writing in the public domain and allows a growth in shared writing, an increasingly valued activity, but one which is quite difficult to achieve using conventional writing techniques".

8. Word processors allow the student to shift emphasis from low level aspects of text production (e.g. spelling), to high level aspects of text production (e.g. content). Several studies were conducted with students of 9 to 11 years old. It was found that the students' main focus in writing is on minimising errors rather than forming the story. Editing is over emphasised, revising and re-drafting are neglected (Underwood and Underwood, 1990). When the word processor was presented, students recognised its ability to edit easily. Graham who was 10 years old said "it was good how you could go back and rub it out" and "it helps you with

spellings this, it's 'allright'" (Underwood and Underwood, 1990: 134). Students had no more need to focus on low level aspects of writing since the computer provides help. It freed the student to focus on the content rather than the form.

Dalton and Hannafin (1987) observed eighty, seventh grade children who were 12-13 years old, writing with and without the word processor. This observation lasted for a full academic year. The findings were:

(1) those who used the word processor neglected the planning process. They could edit easily and they felt that planning was not as important as it is in pen and paper writing;

(2) low achievers benefited more when using the word processor than when using conventional methods;

(3) students who used the word processor revised their text with less encouragement while the conventional writers needed much more encouragement;

(4) word processing students spend much more time on their task than conventional writers.

Underwood and Underwood (1990) also observed students writing with and without the use of the word processor. The study lasted for six months. One of the findings was that low-achieving students did much better when they used the word processor than low achieving students who wrote with pen and paper. For example, Adam and Heidi when using the word processor, appeared to write quantitatively more and with fewer errors. There was also evidence of a wider vocabulary, a more elaborate sentence structure and a more coherent written story than their matched pair who wrote with pen and paper.

The question is why do low achievers benefit more from word processing? Underwood and Underwood (1990: 138) report: "our two weakest children, Adam and Heidi, were initially surprised by being able to read their own work. They felt great pride at the smartness of their printouts. There is also considerable evidence

that a holistic (a holistic approach focuses on meaning and on composition as a whole, mechanical skills develop by the time, naturally), as opposed to reductive (a reductive approach focuses on discrete, isolated mechanical skills, e.g. spelling and punctuation) skills approach to writing can be especially effective in improving the writing skills of low achievers because these learners tend to become occupied by form rather than substance. The word processor encourages this holistic approach to writing”.

Disadvantages

Chandler (1986) lists several characteristics of word processors which seem to be disadvantageous:

1. The use of VDU leads the text to be public. The person who likes privacy, will have to clear the screen every time he/she finishes typing. Chandler (1986: 44) says “I noticed that whenever someone came into the room, I behaved like a guilty schoolboy and cleared the screen. It is a medium that demands to be shared”. Also detailed screen displays may not be helpful especially to early readers.
2. Writing with word processors may lead to the idea that writing has to be polished, because editing is so easy on the word processor. Chandler (1986) believes that the user can become obsessed by editing, over emphasising it to the extent that meaning, purpose, freshness and spontaneity may be lost.
3. Word processing is a very tidy activity. This state does not suit all kinds of people some may like less structure. They feel that word processing may lead them to be less creative. Chandler (1986) thinks that writing done with a word processor obscures its own evolution.
4. “Word processors distance us from what we have written” (Chandler, 1986: 44-45). Chandler claims that when one writes with a word processor, one can look at a piece of writing written earlier and not recognise it. It is so tidy and clean, that the writer feels that it is not he who wrote it.

5. The use of the keyboard leads to neglecting standards of penmanship. The over use of the word processor may put the future of handwriting in danger. It is possible that handwriting gets ignored. One should be quite aware that handwriting is valuable especially to one's sense of self. As Chandler (1986) says, one can express individuality and feelings through handwriting than with any print, through handwriting style, pressure and crossings out. It is possible that when the reader sees the handwriting of the writer, he forms impression about the writer. Handwriting can be very expressive of personality.

6. Some people may find that a word processor is far from convenient. The user has to switch it on, find a blank disk, and set the text format. It requires some kind of an effort in comparison to simply putting pen to paper.

7. It is possible that the writer will lose his written texts, pages or even chapters if he or she didn't save them.

8. It formalises and systematises what the writer wants to do. It requires the user to be more 'deliberate'. "You can become very conscious that you are not just jotting something down but composing a text" (Chandler, 1986: 45). It leads the writer to be more conscious of the process of writing.

9. Writing by hand is quicker for many students. Underwood and Underwood (1990) found that some students wrote quicker by hand.

10. One of the disadvantages of the use of the word processor is that a lack of keyboard skills can impede the students' progress. A study which lasted for six months was conducted by Underwood and Underwood (1990) observing 10 year olds writing with and without the use of the word processor. Jan, the most able student "was extremely disenchanted with the machine and her stories shrank both in size and creativity" (Underwood and Underwood, 1990: 137). Jan, as Underwood and Underwood point out, is a proficient pen user, she possesses the writing mechanics and the presentation skills, but when she was asked to use the word processor she got frustrated. "It slowed her down and she was no longer an expert. Her old skill was getting in the way of the new" (Underwood and Underwood, 1990: 139).

Another study by Dalton and Hannafin (1987) on seventh grade students showed that keyboard problems inhibit writing especially at the beginning of a project. "Many learners stated that they found typing time consuming and distracting when compared with pencil and paper writing. Some noted that typing problems also interrupted their concentration while attempting to write" (Dalton and Hannafin, 1987: 341).

Conclusion

This chapter consisted of two sections: the first one dealt with the definition of CALL as (1) Computer, (2) Assisted, (3) Language Learning. Within (1) the computer was presented as a machine and what components it has. Within (2) the underlying purpose behind the use of the word 'assisted' was considered, why the words 'based' or 'directed' are not used instead, and what the word 'assisted' implies about the role of the computer. Within (3) the 'language learning' term engages the question of where the computer can fit in the language learning/teaching situation.

The second section provided the four educational paradigms within which applicable CALL programs can operate. Those paradigms are: (1) the Instructional, (2) the Revelatory, (3) the Conjectural and (4) the Emancipatory paradigm. Each paradigm was presented in terms of its characteristics, examples, advantages and disadvantages.

Chapter Three

The Role of the Attitude/Motivation and Anxiety in Second or Foreign Language Learning

Introduction

This chapter evolves out of matters discussed in chapter one and chapter two. Chapter One reviewed methods of teaching English, in terms of instructional materials, techniques, activities and roles played by teachers and students. Chapter Two reviewed CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning), its different types of programs with their advantages and disadvantages.

This chapter will be divided into three sections. In section One Gardner's model (1979, 1985) will be presented as an attempt to study the role of social psychological variables in L2 (second language) learning. Three main areas: social milieu, motivation and anxiety, which are central to Gardner's model, will be presented in terms of:

1. their definition and nature
2. their role in language acquisition
3. empirical studies that support their effect on language acquisition
4. their relevance to the Kuwaiti context

The social milieu will be explained and the role it plays in L2 learning will be discussed (Gardner, 1979, 1985; Gardner et al, 1983; Clement and Kruidenier, 1983; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Chihara and Oller, 1978) with special reference to the social and cultural milieu in Kuwait.

Motivation will be considered in terms of its definition, nature, components, its relevance to the Kuwaiti context and the empirical studies that support its effect

on second language acquisition (Gardner and Lambert, 1959, 1972; Tucker et al., 1976; Clement et al., 1977a; Spolsky, 1969; Gardner et al., 1985; Glikzman et al., 1982; Naiman et al., 1978; Bialystok and Frohlich, 1978; Clement et al., 1980; Lukmani, 1972).

A detailed explanation of attitude as a component in motivation will be proposed in terms of its definition, classification, components and its role in L² learning. Research will be reviewed as to the effect of attitude on learning a second language (Jordan, 1941; Duckworth and Entwistle, 1974; Neidt and Hedlund, 1967, Gardner, 1979; Jones, 1949, 1950a, 1950b; Burstall, 1975a) and toward the L2 community (Mueller, 1971; Jacobsen and Imhoof, 1974; Spolsky, 1969; Clement et al., 1977a; Gardner, 1985) .

Anxiety also will be discussed in terms of its definition, levels, nature and effect on students' achievement. Research concerning the effect of anxiety on L² learning will also be reviewed (Kleinmann, 1977; Bailey, 1983; Chastain, 1975; Albusairi, 1992; Gardner et al., 1976; Tucker et al., 1976; Lalonde and Gardner, 1984; Clement et al., 1980; Nainman et al., 1978; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989).

Section Two of this chapter includes the educational factors that interact with foreign language students' attitudes and motivation in learning a foreign language. These factors are: the role of the teacher in class, methods of teaching, instructional material, class activities and classroom context. In section Three, CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) will be considered with regard to its effect on students' motivation and anxiety.

The research which builds on this and the previous chapters, has three main aims. The first aim is to determine the extent to which previous findings concerning the relationship between attitude/motivation and anxiety, and achievement in the foreign language, can be generalised to a sample of University students studying a foreign language in Kuwait. The second aim is directed towards identifying the methods of teaching, materials, activities and an appropriate teacher role (mentioned earlier in chapter One), so that students' motivation is harnessed in learning a foreign language. The last aim is to examine the effect of introducing computer programs into the language class (mentioned in chapter Two). In Kuwait,

these can be considered new instructional material that involves new classroom activities which may or may not motivate students and lower their anxieties.

Section One

Gardner's Socio-Educational Model of L2 Learning: An Overview

Gardner has presented models (Gardner, 1979, 1985) which are mostly identical. Therefore, this chapter will look at the latest version of this model (Gardner, 1985, 1988). This model is essentially a social psychological one. It concentrates on individual variables as they relate to achievement in the second language. In this model Gardner (1985) focuses on four classes of variables:

1. the social milieu
2. individual differences
3. the language acquisition context
4. outcomes

The first variable is **social milieu**. Gardner (1985: 146) explains that "a central theme of the model is that second language acquisition takes place in a particular cultural context. It proposes that the beliefs in the community concerning the importance and meaningfulness of learning the language, the nature of skill development expected, and the particular role of various individual differences in the language learning process will influence second language acquisition".

Within the notion of social milieu, there will be variations in a cultural belief that learning a second language (L2) is difficult or not important which may connect with a low level of achievement. "Individual differences in achievement will be related to individual differences in intelligence, aptitude, motivation, and/or anxiety" (Gardner, 1985: 146). But if the cultural belief is that learning a L2 is easy and that most individuals will be able to learn it, the level of achievement may be relatively high. Individual differences in achievement will be then related to individual differences in intelligence, aptitude, motivation and anxiety (Gardner, 1985).

Gardner (1985: 147) argues that "the cultural beliefs will influence not only the general level of proficiency in a second language that will be achieved in a community but also, and more importantly, those factors that will influence individual differences in achievement".

The second variable concerns **individual differences**. Gardner (1985) presents four different kinds of individual differences that have a direct effect on foreign language achievement. These are **intelligence, language aptitude, motivation** and **situational anxiety**. Each individual difference is important in terms of its effect on second language acquisition. Intelligence plays a role in language learning as it "determines how well or how quickly individuals understand the nature of any learning task or any explanations provided" (Gardner, 1985: 147). Also language aptitude "is defined as a series of verbal and cognitive abilities.... that would play a role in language learning in that individuals with high levels of ability would be able to generalize these abilities to the new language...." (Gardner, 1985: 147). Motivation is the "effort, want (desire), and affect associated with learning a second language" (Gardner, 1985: 147). Motivation determines how much effort one spends in acquiring a second language. Situational anxiety creates an inhibiting atmosphere that interferes with acquisition.

Gardner (1985) suggests that these four individual difference variables (intelligence, language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety) affect every individual's performance in a second language learning situation. The third variable is **the second language acquisition context**. Gardner (1985) distinguishes between **formal** and **informal contexts**. By a formal context, Gardner means the context in which language is taught intentionally (e.g. in classrooms), where students learn language by being trained and provided with explanations and systematic drills and instruction. By an informal context, Gardner (1985) refers to contexts where individuals are exposed to the language naturally, and language acquisition is almost accidental or unplanned. For example, listening to the radio, watching T.V. or travelling abroad and communicating with speakers of the foreign language, are all considered informal contexts for language learning. In an informal context, the aim is not instruction in the foreign language but rather exposure to other experiences (e.g. communication or entertainment). Formal and informal contexts may overlap. Watching a T.V. programme for both

learning and entertainment is an example of where the formal overlaps and merges with the informal.

In the formal context, the four individual variables will each affect the learning process. Gardner (1979: 198) argues that "differences in intelligence would reflect themselves in differences in schools taught second language skills simply because the more intelligent student would profit more from instruction since he could more easily understand the task. Language aptitude refers to those verbal abilities which are necessary to acquire specific second language skills (such as vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, etc.); therefore, it seems reasonable that it too would play a direct role in a situation where such skills are specifically taught. Motivation would be expected to play a direct role in the formal language training situation because it would serve to keep the student in the programme, influence his perceptions of the training situation, and serve as the basis for many reinforcements which might be obtained in the classroom. Situational anxiety, specifically French classroom anxiety, would be expected to influence achievement in the formal situation because the arousal of such anxiety would result in negative reinforcements and a tendency to withdraw from the situation".

In the informal context, where language is incidental, students may opt in or out. It depends on their level of motivation or anxiety. When the individual chooses to enter an informal situation, language gain will be influenced by his level of intelligence and language aptitude. Because individual variable effects depend on students entering the situation, they play secondary roles. Gardner (1985) suggests that the four individual differences relate to differences in achievement of language learned in a formal context, while in an informal context, motivation and anxiety relate more highly to language achievement than do intelligence and aptitude. Therefore broken lines are drawn to suggest the less direct influence of intelligence and language aptitude in an informal situation.

The fourth variable concerns **language outcomes**. Gardner (1985) explains that two outcomes result from the experience of learning a second language. One is referred to as **linguistic outcomes** which concerns L2 proficiency, vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. The other outcome is defined as **non linguistic products** which concern attitudes, cultural values, self

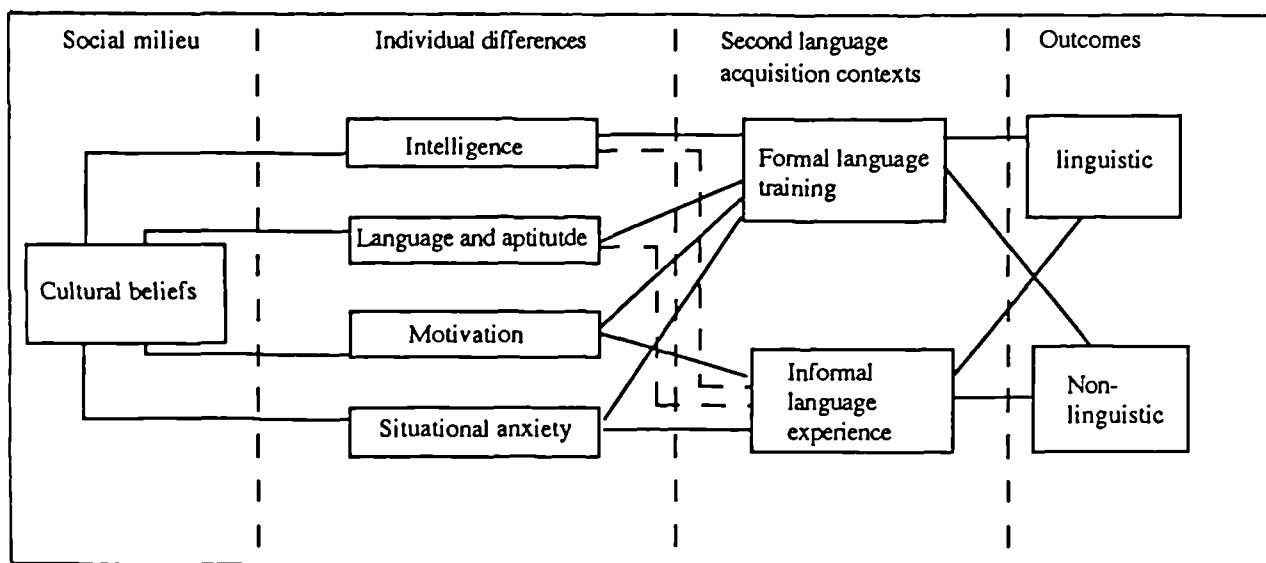
concept, motivation and interest in further language study. Both linguistic and non linguistic outcomes develop from both formal language contexts and informal language contexts. Outcomes depend on the nature of these contexts. For example, the Grammar-Translation Method in second language teaching develops linguistic outcomes such as accuracy in grammar, writing and reading and not oral production. The Audiolingual Method develops different linguistic outcomes such as vocabulary and oral production. Also, the nature of the informal language context, (e.g. listening to radio programmes) improves aural comprehension and develops appreciation of the other language community. In contrast, writing to a friend develops writing skills and promotes positive attitudes towards the individuals from the second language community. Gardner (1979: 200) concludes that "depending upon the nature of the particular formal language training or informal language experience, it is possible that different linguistic and non linguistic outcomes would develop".

These outcomes will, in turn, affect subsequent experiences in language learning. Gardner (1985: 150) states that "the model is not a static one but rather a highly dynamic model in which initial cognitive and affective variables influence an individual's behaviour in the language learning environment, and the interplay of these variables with the context produce non linguistic outcomes that influence subsequent affective variables in an ever continuing process". Baker (1992: 40) comments "outcomes feedback into the model. The experience of the classroom or film affects attitudes which affects motivation which, in a never-ending cyclical process, then affects continued experience in the classroom or other environments".

To conclude, this model is not to be seen as final. Gardner (1988: 102) points out that "the model was never intended to be one that would explain all, or even most, of the variance in second language learning because this would ignore the complexity of individuals as well as the language learning task. It was intended simply as a useful heuristic that could explain existing data, suggest possible processes that might be operating in second language learning, and indicate further directions for research".

The following figure represents the theoretical model.

Figure 1: Gardner's Model



Gardner (1985: 147)

In the next part, the social milieu, motivation and anxiety, mentioned in Gardner's model (1979, 1985), will be presented in terms of:

1. their definition
2. their role in language acquisition
3. empirical studies that support their effect on second language acquisition
4. their relevance to the context in Kuwait

Social, Cultural Beliefs

L2 learning should be looked upon as a process that occurs in a social context where the language learner lives. The language learner lives in a community that has its own beliefs about language, which, as Gardner (1979: 197) explains, "can influence the extent to which the various individual difference variables mediate achievement in a second language".

Gardner (1979: 195) gives an example: "if a student resides in a community where speakers of the other language are not valued, or where debate exists concerning the value of that language or the reasons for teaching it, the beliefs he takes with him into the language learning situation will differ from those he would hold if he were resident of an area where opposing cultural beliefs exist".

Gardner (1985: 146) goes on and explains that "languages are unlike any other subject taught in a classroom in that they involve the acquisition of skills or behaviour patterns which are characteristic of another cultural community. It is argued that any other subject such as mathematics, science, or history, involves the development of knowledge or skills which are a part of the heritage of the student's cultural community; a second language, on the other hand, is a salient characteristic of another culture. As a consequence, the relative degree of success will be influenced to some extent by the individual's attitudes toward the other community or to other communities in general as well as by the beliefs in the community which are relevant to the language learning process".

As mentioned earlier, Gardner's model "proposes that the socio-cultural milieu is important not only for the development of attitudinal/motivational characteristics but also for the role played by attitudes, motivation and language aptitude in second language learning. The model also proposes that socio-cultural milieu can play a large role in influencing the actual level of second language proficiency attained by students in general, because of the expectations imposed on them" (Gardner, 1985: 109).

Many studies support the point that social milieu influences the relationship between the individual difference measures and achievement in the L2. The next part of this chapter will review pertinent studies.

A study was conducted by Gardner (1979) to investigate whether the correlations between achievement in the L2 and the three individual difference measures (language aptitude, motivation and situational anxiety) are differentially influenced by the kind of the social setting, being monolingual or bilingual. This study suggests that social milieu affects the relationship between individual differences and achievement. The data were collected from 7 regions in Canada, some of which were monolingual and others were bilingual. The monolingual regions were Vancouver, Edmonton, Winnipeg and Kent County, Ontario. English is the dominant language in those regions. The bilingual regions were Ottawa, Montreal and Moncton where both English and French are used simultaneously in many business and social situations. In five of the regions, the sample of students investigated were in grade 7 to 11. In one region the sample of students were in grades 8 to 12. In the last region, students were in grades 9 to 11. The number of students in each sample was between 62 to 239, with a mean of 161. Students were given tests three times during the academic year. First they were given the Modern Language Aptitude Test; second, tests that assess attitudinal/motivational characteristics; third, tests that assess achievement in French which involved obtaining scores on objective measures of French achievement, French course grades at the end of the academic year and indices of speech proficiency. Significant correlations were found between the three individual difference measures and the three indices of French achievement in both the monolingual and bilingual regions. But because the social milieu in the monolingual regions differs from the social milieu in the bilingual regions, each one has its own particular and unique profile of relationships between the variables. "The average correlation are higher for the monolingual regions than for the bilingual ones" (Gardner, 1979: 204). Gardner (1979: 204) concludes that "in four instances, these differences are significant, indicating that the social context does, in fact influence the relationships between the individual difference measures and achievement in the second language".

A study conducted by Clement and Kruidenier (1983) assessed the effect of ethnicity (French vs. English), milieu (unicultural vs. multicultural) and target second language (French or English vs. Spanish) on the emergence of language orientations. The sample consisted of 871 students at grade 11 organised in eight groups according to the three factors (ethnicity, milieu and target second language) mentioned above.

Table 3: Sample size of Clement and Kruidenier study (1983: 279)

Group	Description of Group	N
Anglophones Unicultural	London Anglophones learning French	157
	London Anglophones learning Spanish	107
Multicultural	Ottawa Anglophones learning French	101
	Ottawa Anglophones learning Spanish	85
Unicultural	Quebec Francophones learning English	140
	Quebec Francophones learning Spanish	85
Multicultural	Ottawa Francophones learning English	120
	Ottawa Francophones learning Spanish	76

Sample sizes in each of eight groups differentiated according to ethnicity, milieu, and target language factors (Clement and Kruidenier, 1983: 279).

Subjects were given a questionnaire that contained 37 orientation items to represent reasons for studying L2. Students answered each question on a Likert type six point scale. The study was meant to compare orientations to language acquisition in various settings. The findings showed that students in all groups learned L2 for instrumental reasons, seeking new friendships, travelling and acquiring knowledge. Other factors differ according to specific subsets of the population. The integrative orientation was not found except in two groups: the multicultural Francophones and Anglophones learning Spanish.

This study showed that the learning context has an influence on language orientations. Clement and Kruidenier (1983: 288) conclude that the results they

reached suggest that the emergence of orientations is, to a large extent, determined by "who learns what in what milieu". Clement and Kruidenier (1983: 276-277) argue that many studies "provide evidence that the pattern of relationships between orientations and achievement in a second language might vary as a function of the context in which the learning takes place. The influence of the cultural milieu has also been acknowledged in recent theorising pertaining to the role of motivation in second language learning".

Gardner and Lambert (1972: 141) discussing their Philippine study, comment that "it seems that in settings where there is an urgency about mastering a second language as there is in the Philippines and in North America for members of linguistic minority groups, the instrumental approach to language study is extremely effective".

Gardner and Lambert (1972) conducted three studies in three American settings: Louisiana, Maine and Connecticut. Louisiana and Maine's subjects were English speaking Americans studying French as a L2 in bicultural settings. Connecticut subjects were Americans studying French as a foreign language in a monolingual setting. In all three studies, it was found that highly motivated students received high grades in French. However in each context, certain kinds of attitudes underlie motivation. In Maine the students' identification with the French teacher and sensitivity to other's feelings affected students' motivation. In Connecticut, students had higher integrative motivation.

Gardner, Lalonde and Pierson's (1983) investigation examined the adequacy of a causal model of second language acquisition (Gardner's socio-educational model). They investigated 18 variables gathered from 140 students who were studying French at the University of Regina in a unilingual anglophone city in the province of Saskatchewan where the ethnolinguistic vitality of French is low. Ninety-four students were in an introductory level course and 46 students were in a first year intermediate French course. Gardner's model links cultural beliefs, attitudes, motivation and situational anxiety to proficiency in a L2. The study findings support Gardner's socio-educational model. Proficiency in L2 was found to be related to prior achievement and motivation. Motivation was seen to be related to attitudes, which were in turn affected by cultural beliefs.

In this study, Gardner et al. (1983: 11) suggested that "those individuals who adopt the cultural belief that the objectives of the French course are important tend to hold integrative attitudes and favourable attitudes toward the language learning situation". This means that cultural beliefs have effects on individual difference variables which in turn affect achievement in L2.

Two further studies need consideration, one by Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977) in an ESL context, the other by Chihara and Oller (1978) in a foreign language context. Because of the difference in the social context, each study had different results. Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977) investigated graduate Chinese students working toward degrees in the U.S.A. It was found that there was a positive correlation between proficiency in ESL and attitudes towards oneself, towards speakers of native language and towards Americans. In this study, the students were placed in a context where the target language was used all around them. Chihara and Oller (1978) investigated Japanese students studying English as a foreign language. When their attitudes towards themselves, toward other Japanese, toward English speakers, toward travel to an English speaking country and toward learning English were assessed in relation to attained foreign language proficiency, weak correlations and even negative or insignificant correlations were found. The relationships found in this study didn't parallel those observed by Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977). The reason for this result might be because the relationship between attitudes and proficiency is different for students who experience language learning only in a formal classroom context. Chihara and Oller (1978: 67) conclude that "perhaps the contrasts in patterns of relationships for the Japanese subjects in this study and the Chinese subjects in that one can be explained by appeal to the difference between a foreign language context of learning and a second language context".

To conclude this section, Naiman et al. (1978: 4) state that "teachers and observers of language teaching know intuitively that the social, political and linguistic context of teaching and learning has a major influence on the learner, particularly on his attitudes and motivations. Most teachers, for example, know the value to their classes of parental support. Canadian teachers of French or English as a second language know how much their students' attitudes are influenced by political attitudes in the community".

Social and Cultural Beliefs in Kuwait

Concerning the social and cultural milieu that exists in Kuwait society, two major relevant points should be mentioned:

1. The foreign language context in Kuwait (compared with other ESL contexts).
2. The community's negative and positive beliefs about the importance of learning English and its utility.

1. The Foreign Language Context in Kuwait (compared with other ESL contexts).

English in Kuwait is considered a foreign language because it is not the mother tongue of almost all of the population in the country. The English language does not have an internal communication function. People use the Arabic language as a means of communication.

Comparing the L2 learner with the foreign language learner, the L2 learner needs the language to use within his or her own community, while the foreign language learner needs it to use it with a separate, distant, community (e.g. a community he/she doesn't live with, communicate with or has daily contact with). The L2 learner needs to learn the language because it has internal social functions. The L2 plays basic roles in the community in terms of government administration, politics, law, medicine, industry, newspapers, publications and education. Learning the L2 is functionally necessary, while learning the foreign language is not. One can live and manage without having to learn one word in a foreign language.

In Kuwait, one does not or may rarely have, daily contact with English speakers. Access to the English culture is only likely through reading the language at school, watching Channel Two English T.V. programmes, and travelling abroad either for tourism or for completing postgraduate studies. The language teacher is usually the only means of exposure to the language, this takes place in the formal classroom. This exposure lasts for a few hours a week. EFL practice (if the teacher allows for real practice) takes place only in the language classroom.

Students in Kuwait are required to learn English as a foreign language for two main reasons. First, English is an international language that one can use wherever one goes, to communicate with the foreign language speakers. Therefore, students are expected to be provided with the necessary functional language that allows them to survive, understand speakers of English and to be understood. Second, English is the language of science and technology. Most books and publications are available in English; many of these are not translated into Arabic. Experts and University teachers of scientific courses are either English speakers or are from an English background (e.g. an Arabic teacher who teaches in English). Therefore, English is used as a medium of instruction at the Colleges of Science at Kuwait University. As a result, other students are expected to be provided with the necessary language that develops their reading and writing skills.

Bialystok and Frohlich (1978: 328) comment about the effect of the environment that "although much of the evidence indicates a positive relationship between attitude and attained proficiency, the strength of this relationship foreign language actuates depending on factors relating to the learning context, for example, the correlation between attitude variables and achievement tends to be higher in cases where the environment provides many opportunities to communicate with the target language group". In this respect, Oller, Baca and Vigil (1977: 174) state that "attitudes would probably have a closer relationship to attainment of proficiency in a target language when the context of learning was an SL (second language) setting rather than an foreign language setting".

Albusairi (1992: 8-9) suggests that the linguistic context has a significant impact on the overall results from research studies. For example, an attitude variable correlates more highly with achievement in situations where English is a L2 or where large numbers of target language speakers live, than in situations where English is no more than a foreign language and where pupils are surrounded by their native language and have no chance or need to use the foreign language, as in Kuwait. In this foreign language Kuwaiti context, students in private English schools that use English as a medium of instruction may be affected by the English-only context differently from the students in public schools that use Arabic as a medium of instruction. The student in an English medium

school will need to learn the foreign language immediately and urgently. The different contexts may affect students' attitudes and motivation which may then affect their achievement in the language.

Furthermore, different linguistic contexts may encourage different types of motivation. For example in settings where the students have the chance to communicate, interact, and have real life contacts with speakers of the L2, the integrative motivation will be necessary for L2 achievement. But in settings where the language is no more than a foreign language (e.g. just used in classrooms), the instrumental motivation will be required for foreign language learning. Students in foreign language contexts are expected to lack or have little desire to be part of the target language culture. They are expected to have the desire to fulfil other goals which may be more utilitarian. Albusairi (1992: 45) in this respect states that "these considerations suggest that in foreign language learning (a foreign language) situations, especially with an international target language there may be no integrative motivation by itself to acquire English, but a great deal of instrumental motivation". Brown (1987: 116-117) argues that "in some cases, then, the foreign language does not carry with it the heavy loading that some have assumed to be characteristic of all language learning contexts". Also, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991: 174) say that "someone studying a target language as a foreign language would be less likely to aspire to integrate with the target language community than someone for whom the target language was a L2". Therefore, in Kuwait where English is a foreign language, students are expected to have a great deal of instrumental motivation.

2. Conflicting Beliefs about Learning English in Kuwait.

Negative Beliefs

Some Kuwaiti people think that because the English language is no more than a foreign language, there is no need to learn it. Learning it for them is a waste of time. It is neither important nor necessary. Others believe that it is difficult to learn a foreign language, and that it is expected that an individual will not be able to learn it, or will have considerable difficulty.

Some people think there is an inherent danger in learning English because it is an international language. Is EFL no more than a missionary movement that aims at working against the Arabic language and the Islamic religion? They even go further suggesting that learning English is a gradual step towards Westernising Arabic citizens (an Anglicising influence). Some people connect the ability to speak English with stereotypes of Western personalities (created by mass media). For example, at the University, the students who specialise in the English literature are looked upon as being very outgoing and more open compared to other students. They are regarded as individuals who have adopted Western characteristics that may contradict the Arabic culture and the Islamic religion.

Historically, some Arabic countries were colonised by English and French speaking communities. Therefore, several Arabic countries have a hostile attitude towards imperialist powers which may in turn have an effect on the learning of foreign languages. It is possible that some Kuwaities have such an attitude, although Kharma (1977a: 106) assures us that "in present day Kuwait, where the basic economic activities are commercial and depend to a great extent on English, the impact of that hostility (which has always been quite mild) on the learning of English in particular has been far less".

Concerning the Kuwaiti linguistic background and the status of the mother tongue, the association of Arabic with the Holy Koran, enables the Arabic language to have a very high status. Therefore, some Kuwaities do not only find that for all practical purposes their Arabic language is sufficient, but they are also proud of monolingualism. This factor may work against the motivation to learn a foreign language.

Positive Beliefs

Kuwait society suffers from a problem that most of its people are deeply in love with 'appearances'. They wear expensive clothes, buy expensive new cars and live in huge, luxurious houses (even though sometimes they can't afford them). This clarifies the reasons why some Kuwaities have positive beliefs towards English language learning.

One of the main beliefs that dominate the Kuwaiti society is the belief that the English language is the language of prestige and pride. Speaking English fluently is prestigious. There is a relationship between speaking English fluently and being from a high class. Therefore, some people while talking and explaining in Arabic, utter an occasional English word to show that they know English. The result is that they sometimes feel unable to express things in Arabic and happily code-switch. Others pretend to know English just because the English language is a prestigious one and it may signify them as of high class.

In Kuwait, there are private schools which are mainly founded for English-only speaking students who live in Kuwait. Private schools like the American school or the English school teach all the subjects through English, unlike the public schools which use the Arabic language as a medium of instruction. Many parents register their children in these expensive (almost 2600 pounds a year tuition) private schools. The students graduate with fluent English language proficiency. People from the middle class put their children in these schools, even if they cannot easily afford it. They are proud of having their children in these schools. Some parents are happy to have children who speak only English. They even talk to them in English at home and not in Arabic.

In terms of employment prospects, graduates from private (English) schools get employed quicker than graduates from public schools. In addition to this, jobs offered in the banks, the airport, ministries, law courts and other places require employees that obtain English proficiency, especially jobs' which are of high managerial level.

The English language is looked upon as the language of science and technology. To be a scientist, professional or an expert you have to have adequate English proficiency. Many people look at those who speak English fluently as being more educated.

With regard to English language utility, many people believe that learning English is economically necessary. It should be mentioned that almost every family has a servant. Most of these servants speak English. As a result, even simple, illiterate people believe in the importance of the English language because it

allows them to communicate with their servants to enable mutual understanding. Also, most of the Kuwaities are used to touring and travelling abroad, especially to the English speaking communities. So again, they need to learn the English language to be able to understand those communities.

With respect to Kuwaiti beliefs about English speaking communities, Kuwaities respect them and look at them as being modern, open, intelligent and as creators of technology. Kuwaities like them, especially after the war against Iraq (who invaded Kuwait in 1990), because they believe strongly that they were helped, saved and protected by the British and American army. After the liberation war, many people placed Bush's and John Major's photographs on their walls. Even children can be heard saying words and sentences in English like 'free Kuwait, we like America and Britain'.

Having considered the social and cultural milieu in Kuwait, this chapter now moves on to discussing motivation, its definition, nature and components.

Motivation

A consideration of motivation will be in terms of its definition, types, components, its relevance to the Kuwaiti context and review of literature concerning its effect on L2 learning. We start with the issue of definition.

Definition

First, some given definitions are presented:

"Motivation, factors within a human being or other animal which arouse and direct goal-oriented behaviour" (New Encyclopaedia Britannica, 1988: 364).

"A motive or motivating condition is any condition of the individual which initiates and sustains his behaviour, orients him toward the practice of a given task, and which defines the adequacy of his activities and the completion of the task" (McGeoch and Irion, 1952: 194).

Motivation is "an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action" (Brown, 1987: 114).

Motivation is "the application of incentives to individuals from whom action is desired" (Warren, 1934: 171).

Ausubel (1968: 368-379) identifies six desires or needs that underpin the construct of motivation: (1) the need for exploration, (2) the need for manipulation to operate the environment and create change, (3) the need for mental and physical activity, (4) the need for stimulation in the environment, by people or through ideas, (5) the need for knowledge, (6) the need for ego enhancement, to be known and accepted by others.

Maslow (1970) drew a hierarchical model of human needs that consisted of fundamental physical needs (air, water, food), the need for security, identity, self-esteem which led finally to self-actualisation.

Types of Motivation

A. Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation:

Intrinsic motivation comes from inside the learner. The learner likes and enjoys learning the language for its own sake, not for other purposes. Learning the language is pleasurable in itself. Extrinsic motivation comes from sources outside the learner. An individual with extrinsic motivation likes to learn the language because it fulfils materialistic purposes like educational or economic advantages or respect from others. Rewards for language learning may be acquired (e.g. exam success). Extrinsic motivation may become intrinsic when the learner experiences successful language learning processes that cause feelings of confidence and achievement (Albusairi, 1992: 31).

B. Integrative and Instrumental Motivation:

Two clusters of attitudes cause two types of motivation.

1. Integrative motivation:

Gardner and Lambert were influenced by Mowrer's (1950) 'autistic' theory of language acquisition. Mowrer (1950: 707-708) believed that the child learns a language in order to satisfy social needs, to communicate with people in the environment, to be similar to them and feel that he belongs to them. Therefore, when the infant starts to learn a language, he first comes to identify himself with language speakers and desire to be similar to them. The child expresses his identification by learning their code, the characteristic way they use it and by imitating their utterances. Gardner and Lambert (1972) believe that identification with language speakers also occurs with L2 speakers when one learns a L2. L2 learner should also have the same desire to identify with members of L2 group, and to adopt certain characteristics of their behaviour and language. Gardner and Lambert (1972: 135) state that "the learner, we argue, must be willing to identify with members of another ethnolinguistic group and to take on very subtle aspects of their behaviour, including their distinctive style of speech and their language".

So integrative motivation is "wanting to learn a language in order to communicate with people of another culture who speak it" (Richards et al., 1985: 185). "An integrative motive is employed when learners wish to integrate themselves within the culture of the second language group, to identify themselves with and become a part of that society" (Brown, 1987: 115-116). Gardner and Lambert (1972: 14) define integrative motivation as "a willingness or a desire to be like representative members of the 'other' language community, and to become associated, at least vicariously, with that other community".

2. Instrumental motivation:

Instrumental motivation is "wanting to learn a language because it will be useful for certain 'instrumental' goals such as getting a job, reading a foreign newspaper, passing an examination" (Richards et al., 1985: 185). "Instrumental

motivation refers to motivation to acquire a language as means for attaining instrumental goals: furthering a career, reading technical material, translation and so forth" (Brown, 1987: 115). It is "a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language" (Gardner and Lambert, 1972: 14).

C. Assimilative Motivation:

It is "the drive to become an indistinguishable member of a speech community, and it usually requires prolonged contact with the second language culture" (Brown, 1987: 117). Learners who have assimilative motivation are mostly young, learn both a L2 and the second culture to identify almost exclusively with the second culture.

D. Machiavellian Motivation:

This motivation reflects negative attitudes toward the L2 community, and is associated with the desire to avoid the culture of the L2 community.

Oller and Perkins (1978: 90) mention that "in special cases where the negative feelings are very strong and are coupled with the motive to overcome the people of the target culture. This latter case may produce faster learning due to what has been termed 'Machiavellian motivation'".

When a country colonises another country, the colonised country's people may fight to free their country from foreign rule and culture. These people may have strong negative attitudes towards the invading country, its people, its culture and language, and at the same time, have a high level of proficiency in the foreign language. This occurs because of the desire to get rid of foreigners and learning the foreign language is considered a machiavellian weapon in doing so.

Oller, Baca and Vigil (1977) found that Mexican Americans in the south west had anti-integrative motivation. They held negative attitudes towards the L2 community because they identified themselves with the colonised minority of Mexican Americans (or Chicanos). They had a machiavellian motivation which

explains the conclusion that Oller, Baca and Vigil (1977: 181) reached: "the more subjects were proficient in ESL, the lower they rated Americans....".

The Components of Motivation (Gardner, 1985)

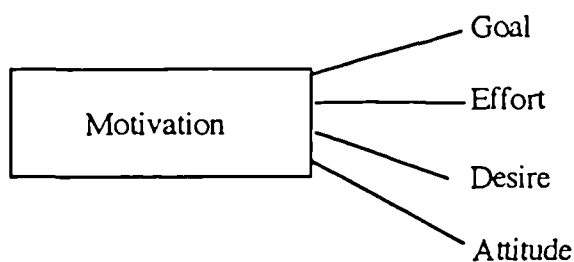
Motivation consists of four components:

1. A goal one tries to attain
2. An effortful behaviour
3. A desire or want to attain the goal
4. Favourable attitude one feels towards the activity.

Therefore, in assessing and measuring motivation to learn a language, the four components should be measured. Gardner (1985) calls them:

1. An individual's orientation to language study (integrative or instrumental) which reflects the goal of language learning.
2. Motivational intensity which refers to the degree of effort one expends to reach the goal.
3. A desire to attain the goal of learning the language.
4. Attitudes toward learning the language.

Figure 2: Components of Motivation



Each component will be explained and clarified.

1. Individual's orientation to language study (the goal of language learning)

This part concerns the question of why does a person learn a second language. One should have a goal. Many reasons are possible: to get a job, to be more educated, to be able to communicate with others when one travels, to pass exams. Gardner (1985: 51) says that "to reflect the kind of motivation for language learning, however, the reasons have to reflect some goal associated with language learning". For example if you ask a student, 'why do you study English' and he or she says 'because I have to' this statement does not involve any goal of L2 learning. This is just a reason for being in the classroom. Gardner (1985: 51) comments that "to qualify as goals of second language learning, the reasons must relate to learning the language".

Reasons for L2 study should reflect goals. Those goals can be classified into two main types of orientations:

1. integrative
2. instrumental

Lambert (1977: 23) explains that students' orientation takes two forms "an 'instrumental' outlook, reflecting the practical value and advantages of learning a new language, and an 'integrative' outlook reflecting a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group". Gardner and Lambert (1972: 3) argue that "the orientation is.....instrumental....if the purpose of language study are...utilitarian....., such as getting ahead in one's occupation.....In contrast, the orientation is integrative if the student wishes to learn more about the other cultural community because he is interested in....eventually being accepted as a member of that other group".

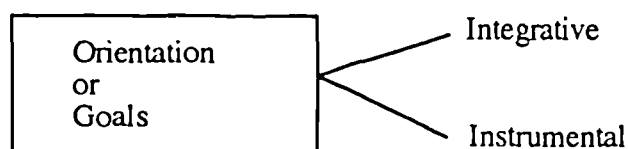


Figure 3: Types of Orientations (Goals of L2 Learning)

Examples of instrumental orientation may be presented in statement form (from Gardner, 1985):

- studying French can be important to me because I think it will some day be useful in getting a good job.
- studying French can be important to me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person.

An instrumental goal is self-oriented and individualistic. Instrumental orientation to learn a L2 can be for "vocational purposes, achievement, status, personal success, self-enhancement, self-actualisation, security and survival" (Baker, 1992: 32).

Examples of integrative orientation may be presented in these statements (from Gardner, 1985):

- Studying French can be important for me because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people.
- Studying French can be important for me because it will allow me to integrate more with the English speakers when I travel abroad.

An integrative goal is social and interpersonal. It has "conceptual links with the need for affiliation" (Baker, 1992: 32). Baker (1992: 32) also explains that an integrative orientation to a particular language "may concern attachment to, or identification with a language group and their cultural activities. Wanting to be identified with a defined group of 'other' language speakers, or wanting friendship within that group indicate an integrative orientation. The intensity of the implied interpersonal relationships may vary. At one end of the dimension may be gregariousness, with little attachment. At the other end of the dimension may be warm and close friendships. Somewhere in the middle comes sociability".

There is a difference between orientation and motivation. Gardner (1985: 54) explains that "orientation refers to a class of reasons for learning a second

language", while motivation is a construct that consists of attitudes toward learning the language, desire to learn the language and motivational intensity.

The essential point is to differentiate between the integrative orientation and the integrative motive. The integrative orientation refers to "that class of reasons that suggest that the individual is learning a L2 in order to learn about, interact with, or become closer to, the L2 community" (Gardner, 1985: 54). Integrative motive includes both orientation and motivation (attitude, desire and motivational intensity). Also, the instrumental orientation differs from the instrumental motive. The instrumental orientation refers to that class of reasons that suggest that the individual is learning a L2 "to gain social recognition or economic advantages" (Gardner and Lambert, 1972: 3). Instrumental motive includes both instrumental orientation and motivation (attitude, desire, and motivational intensity) Gardner (1985: 55) concludes that "the orientation reflects simply a goal which may lack motive power". Orientation is just one component of motivation.

2. Motivational Intensity (effortful behaviour to attain a goal)

Motivational Intensity is the "effect students are willing to invest in their studies and their persistence in studying the L2" (Snow and Shapira, 1985: 5).

Motivational intensity reflects one's effort to attain a goal. Each individual differs in his effort to achieve set goals. If one has great motivational intensity, this means that one expends a great amount of effort to attain a goal. Therefore, to assess the motivational intensity, the researcher should determine the amount of effort the individual expends or is willing to expend to learn the second language.

Gardner (1985) presents a methodology that is based on self-report measures. This measure consists of questions like: (taken from Gardner, 1985)

- When it comes to French homework, I:
 - (a) put some effort into it, but not as much as I could
 - (b) work very carefully, making sure I understand everything
 - (c) just skim over it

- If French were not taught in school, I would:
 - (a) pick up French in everyday situations
 - (b) not bother learning French at all
 - (c) try to obtain lessons in French somewhere else

- When I am in French class, I:
 - (a) volunteer answers as much as possible
 - (b) answer only the easier questions
 - (c) never say anything

"The self-report measures tend to focus on questions dealing with amount of effort spent on homework, willingness to take on special assignments, activity spent on improving level of knowledge and intentions about using available opportunities to improve French level" (Gardner, 1985: 53).

Factors that influence motivational intensity may be summarized as:

1. Desire or want
2. Attitude
3. Situational variables (e.g. difficult exams, tough teacher)
4. Personality variables (e.g. need achievement, compulsiveness).

3. Desire to Learn the Language

Desire to learn the language is mostly an affective aspect of motivation. It reflects one's want or need to learn the language.

Gardner (1985) presents an assessment methodology to measure L2 learning desire that is based on self-report measures. This measure consists of questions such as: (from Gardner, 1985)

- Compared to my other courses, I like French:
 - (a) the most
 - (b) the same as all the others
 - (c) least of all

- I find studying French:
 - (a) not interesting
 - (b) no more interesting than most subjects
 - (c) very interesting

- If it were up to me whether or not to take French, I:
 - (a) would definitely take it
 - (b) would drop it
 - (c) don't know whether I would take it or not

4. Attitude

In the socio-educational model, Gardner (1985) argues that attitude is not included as one of the individual differences because attitude is considered one of the components that constitute motivation. In this respect, Gardner (1979: 205) states that "social attitudes are relevant to second language acquisition not because they directly influence achievement but because they serve as motivational supports". Gardner (1985: 53) suggests that the desire to reach a goal and favourable attitudes toward the activity are "two emotional aspects of motivation". Gardner (1985: 56) goes on to argue that "in order to understand the role played by attitudes and motivation in L2 acquisition, it was necessary to conceptualise them as a complex organisation of attitudes and motivation". Gardner, Lalonde, and Pierson (1983: 11) support this by saying that "attitudes are important in L2 acquisition because they affect the individual's motivation to learn the language".

In the socio-educational model, it is hypothesised that attitudes influence a student's level of motivation. Gardner (1979) explains that an individual's attitudes are shaped by the social environment lived in. Those attitudes make a direct link between the cultural milieu and the motivation one has to learn a L2 and achievement in that language. Figure 4 presents this idea in a model.

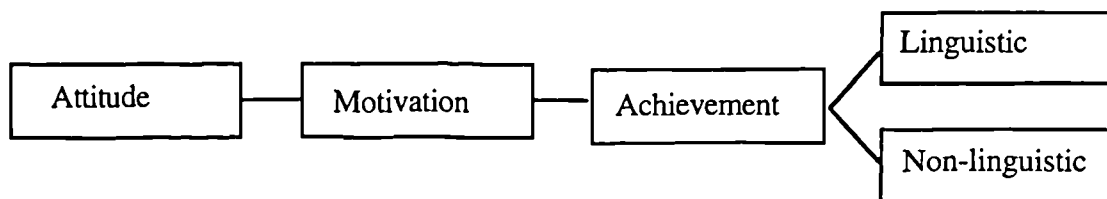


Figure 4: A model of attitude's relationship with motivation and achievement (from Gardner, 1979: 207).

Individual differences in attitude affect motivation which in turn affects achievement in the L2. Gardner, Lalonde and Pierson (1983: 11) in their study found that "integrativeness (INT) and attitudes toward the learning situation (ALS) are causally linked to motivation (MOT), which in turn causes second language achievement (ACH)".

Attitude, because of its importance, will be elaborated later in terms of its definition, classification, components and relevance to the context in Kuwait and the empirical studies that support its effect on students' achievement.

Motivation to Learn a Foreign Language and Its Relevance to the Kuwaiti Context

"Motivating factors may vary so widely from one community to another that what applies to one situation may not apply at all to another" (Kharma, 1977a: 103). When one discusses motivation, one should be very accurate and careful to specify the situation and context.

In the late 1950's and the early 1960's, most pupils in Kuwait lacked the desire to learn a foreign language because:

1. Kharma (1977a) argues that, in general, during the adolescent period, pupils start to form a kind of prejudice against foreign cultures. Therefore, they reject the values characteristic of those cultures. This may inhibit students' motivation to learn a foreign language.
2. Pupils didn't feel a necessity to learn a foreign language to communicate with foreign language speakers since they rarely travelled abroad.
3. Few students enrolled in Universities in a foreign country. Most of them enrolled in Arabic Universities where the Arabic language was the medium of instruction.
4. Concerning future careers, students, after graduation, were easily able to find jobs that didn't require knowledge of a foreign language. Therefore students didn't feel the need for a foreign language.
5. At that time, imported teachers were non native speakers. Some were not proficient in English, implemented boring drills, and used non attractive text books which lowered students' motivation to learn the foreign language.
6. One of the factors that minimised students' motivation was "over security" (Kharma, 1977b). The Kuwaiti students were provided for and protected by the government. Students' failure was mostly tolerated. They were given many opportunities to succeed. Such a policy might seem wise at first sight, but it had its disadvantages and side-effects. It led students to be dependent on the government. It reduced students' feeling of responsibility. It killed the incentive for hard work. Kharma (1977b: 81) argued that "the picture becomes clearer when we know that whatever the standard of the citizen's education may be, he is sure to get a job which may be either important or financially rewarding or both".

"In the late 1960's and early 1970's the evolution of a favourable attitude towards EFL started" (Al-Mutawa et al., 1985: 26). Many Kuwaiti students travelled

abroad seeking more education. To fulfil this objective, they needed to learn a foreign language. Increasing numbers of students joined Universities where English was the medium of instruction. Many jobs recommended a knowledge of English as an important requirement for recruitment.

Teachers became increasingly well trained and proficient. They implemented new language learning methods and techniques, used attractive text books and a greater variety of instruction material.

The 'over security' provided by the government began to change. Competition to obtain the higher status jobs became stronger. As a result, the motive to work hard increased, at least among certain types of pupils.

In addition, English medium mass media spread in Kuwait. The television that is present in every house shows interesting English speaking programmes. English is used in the cinema, magazines, brochures, handbooks, on tins, bottles of canned food, medicine and on other merchandise. Therefore in Kuwait, increasing numbers of people became curious and interested in learning the foreign language faced everywhere.

To conclude, although the context in Kuwait encourages students' motivation to learn a foreign language, many students still lack such a motivation and suffer from low levels of achievement in English (Kharma, 1977a, 1977b ; Al-Mutawa et al., 1985). What is the solution? Section Two of this chapter suggests realistic evolution in terms of:

- (a) The role of the teacher in class
- (b) Methods of teaching
- (c) Instructional materials
- (d) Class activities
- (e) Classroom context

Section Three of this chapter suggests introducing new instructional material (computer programs) into the language class in Kuwait as an attempt to partly address this problem.

Review of Literature Concerning the Effect of Motivation on L2 Learning

Many studies have investigated a possible association between motivation variables and achievement in the L2.

Gardner and Lambert's (1959: 267) study was designed to "determine the comparative importance of linguistic aptitude and certain motivational variables in learning a second language". The sample of the students investigated were 43 males and 32 females (English speaking) in grade eleven who had studied French as a L2 for about 7 years. Teachers were asked to rate their students' achievement and students were asked to complete a battery of tests: the 'psi-lambda foreign language aptitude battery, orientation index, attitude scale, motivational intensity scale, California F-scale and the audience sensitivity scale'. The result found by Gardner and Lambert (1959: 271-272) may be summarized: "analysis of the intercorrelations of these tests yielded two orthogonal factors equally related to ratings of achievement in French: 'a linguistic aptitude' and a 'motivational' factor. It was also found that maximum prediction of success in second language acquisition was obtained from tests of: verbal intelligence, intensity of motivation to learn the other language, students' purposes in studying that language, and one index of linguistic aptitude".

Gardner and Lambert (1972) conducted three studies in the U.S.A on pupils studying French as a L2. One study was in Louisiana which represented a bicultural setting. The sample consisted of 72 white boys and girls who were in their first year studying French and 24 high school students in their second year. They were American students from English speaking homes with experience of French Americans. Gardner and Lambert (1972: 37) stated that "grades in French - quite independent of intellectual capacity are dependent on the students' motivation to learn the language".

The other study was in Maine, which also represented a bicultural setting. The sample consisted of 145 students who were American from English speaking homes. Gardner and Lambert (1972: 43) found that "students with a strong

motivation and desire to do well in French coupled with a sensitivity for the feelings of others....do well in course work in French".

The third study was in Connecticut. The context was a large urban American community. Students investigated did not have experience of French Americans. The subjects were 74 high school students at the first level and 68 at the third level. Gardner and Lambert (1972: 56) concluded that "in all three studies we find that students with a strong motivation and desire to learn French obtain good grades in their French courses at school".

Tucker, Hamayan and Genesee (1976) investigated 3 groups of students; an early immersion group, a late immersion group and an English control group. The early immersion students began studying French language intensively in Kindergarten (at the age of five years) and continued in the same programme. The late immersion students studied French for one period per day until they reached grade seven at the age of 13 years old. After that they began studying French intensively. The control group started studying French for one period per day in kindergarten and continued under the same system. When the study was conducted, all the students were in grade seven. Four kinds of measures were used: cognitive measures, personality measures, attitudinal/motivational measures and measures of achievement. The four predictor factors were aptitude, personality, attitude and motivation and cognitive style. Only one predictor, attitude and motivation, contributed significantly to the prediction of the four measures of French achievement: the measure of general French achievement, test of reading comprehension, listening comprehension and oral production.

Several studies show that integrative motivation, in certain contexts, is more powerful than instrumental motivation, and is positively and significantly related to achievement in the L2.

Gardner and Lambert (1959: 271) found in their study that "the significant positive correlation between the orientation index and achievement in French indicates that the integratively oriented students are generally more successful in acquiring French than those who are instrumentally oriented. Further, the students

with the integrative orientation have more favourable attitudes towards members of the French group and are more strongly motivated to acquire their language".

Clement et al. (1977a) assessed the reliability of the attitudinal/motivational questionnaire, the relation of attitudes and motivation to achievement in the L2 and evaluated the relation of the context of the L2 acquisition to attitudes and achievement. The sample consisted of 130 Franco-Ontarian students in grade 7 and 8 learning ESL in a French school. Students were asked to fill out a questionnaire that consisted of 30 variables including attitudinal/motivational scores. Students' English achievement was also assessed.

Concerning the relation of attitudes and motivation to achievement in the L2. it was found that students who have positive attitudes toward learning English have high degrees of integrativeness and are strongly motivated to learn English. They see their English course as useful, interesting, easy and generally evaluate it positively. Those who have positive attitudes towards English Canadians also are interested in foreign languages and evaluate their teachers positively.

Clement et al. (1977a: 12) suggested that the "motivational component is important in the acquisition of English by Francophones". Clement et al. (1977a: 12-13) argued that "previous explanations.... of the functional significance of the integrative motive to second language acquisition have posited that it is important to second language achievement because it motivates the individual to enter into situations where second language skills can be developed". Therefore, this study demonstrates that "attitudes, anxiety and motivation are related to achievement in the second language" (Clement et al., 1977a: 2).

Gardner's (1985) measures of integrative/instrumental motivation takes the form of a questionnaire that asks directly for the reasons why an individual learns a foreign language. Reasons are classified as instrumental if they show that the language is used for utilitarian purposes such as to get a better job, to read books in the foreign language or to be able to be more educated. Reasons are classified as integrative when respondents show they want to be a member of the community speaking the language.

Spolsky (1969) developed another kind of instrument to measure the integrative motivation. Spolsky (1969: 275) suggests that "an individual is a member of the group speaking his native language: when he is placed in a second language learning situation, he may choose the speakers of his own language or the speakers of the second language as his reference group. Integrative motivation is related to a choice of the second language group. Our instrument was designed to show the learner's choice".

The sample investigated by Spolsky (1969) consists of four groups. The first group contained 79 foreign students who had just arrived in the U.S.A to study at an American University. They were proficient in English. The second group contained 71 similar students as in group one. The third group of 135 students were studying for the first time in Indiana University. The fourth group were 30 Japanese students.

Students were given questionnaires that elicited reasons for coming to the U.S.A and 'indirect' questionnaires that involve four lists of 30 adjectives (e.g. 'sincere' and 'stubborn'). In list one, students state how well each adjective describes them (self concept). In list two, they state how well each adjective describes the way they would like to be, in list three, students state how well each adjective describes people whose native language is the same as theirs, and in list four, how well each adjective describes native speakers of English. Each student's score on an English proficiency test was also obtained.

It was found that the degree to which a subject perceives himself as being like speakers of English correlated significantly with proficiency in English (Spolsky, 1969: 277). And the desire to be like speakers of English rather than to be like speakers of the native language (choosing speakers of English as his reference group which implied, from Spolsky's (1969) point of view, integrative motivation) correlated significantly with proficiency in English (Spolsky, 1969: 281).

Spolsky (1969: 281) concludes that "this study, then, has reaffirmed the importance of attitude as one of the factors explaining degree of proficiency a student achieves in learning a second language. His attitude to speakers of the language will have a great affect on how well he learns. A person learns a

language better when he wants to be a member of the group speaking that language".

Gardner, Lalonde and Moorcroft's (1985) study assessed the effect of language aptitude and attitude/motivation on L2 proficiency and the rate of learning French vocabulary (how well and how quickly students would learn the material in a controlled environment). The sample consisted of 170 students from an introductory psychology course. The effect of attitudes/motivation on L2 proficiency was located. Gardner et al. (1985: 225) suggest that "a composite measure of attitudinal/motivational characteristics AMI (Attitude/Motivation Index), correlated significantly with both objective and self-report indices of second language proficiency".

In order to examine the effect of attitudes/motivation on the rate at which L2 material was learned, students were given six trials to learn 25 English/French noun pairs. "The rate of learning is somewhat faster for the high AMI (Attitude/Motivation Index) than the low AMI subjects....those with more favourable attitudinal/motivational characteristics learn the material more rapidly" (Gardner et al., 1985: 220). Gardner et al. (1985: 226) added that "with respect to the effects of attitudes and motivation, on the other hand, it is more likely that individuals with the more positive affective predispositions work harder to acquire the material and that they are more interested in it.....high AMI individuals report trying harder to learn the material and being more interested in it".

Bialystok and Frohlich (1978) examined four factors: aptitude, field-independence, attitude and strategic language use for their effects on different kinds of language achievement (formal/oral, formal/written, functional/oral, and functional/written). The pupils were enrolled in 6 French L2 classes at grade 10 and 12 and were located in different schools in Toronto. Bialystok and Frohlich (1978) assessed students' attitudes and motivation by giving them Gardner and Smythe's (1981) National Test Battery which measured three areas: integrative orientation, motivational intensity and evaluation of the learning situation. It was found that "attitude showed a positive effect on the writing task" (Bialystok and Frohlich, 1978: 332).

2. Instrumental orientation: (a) need for achievement
(b) instrumentality
3. Evaluation of means of learning French: (a) teacher evaluation
(b) course evaluation
4. Motivation: (a) motivational intensity
(b) desire to learn French
(c) attitudes towards learning French
5. Lack of Ethnocentrism: (a) interest in foreign languages
(b) lack of ethnocentrism

(Naiman et al., 1978: 49)

The results were that integrative orientation, motivation, evaluation of the means of learning French and instrumental orientation had positive correlations with student hand raising. Naiman et al. (1978: 57) found that "all of the five sub scales of the attitude battery were inter-correlated. In addition, all of these sub scales were significantly correlated with student hand raising. Both integrative orientation and motivation were correlated with the experimenter's rating of the students' general attitude. In all cases, except for instrumental orientation, the attitudinal measures were correlated with student perception of classroom environment".

These two studies show that motivation and attitudes affect classroom behaviour which in turn affects L2 acquisition. In terms of the effect of attitudes and motivation on L2 achievement and persistence in language study, Gardner, Smythe, Clement and Glikzman (1976) conducted a study in which they located correlations between different sub scales and indices of achievement in French and students behavioural intention to carry on studying French. The sample comprised students in grades 7 to 11. The findings show that motivation and language aptitude are good predictors of L² proficiency. In terms of students' intention to continue language study, motivation is a stronger predictor than language aptitude. It was found that the drop outs were not those who have low

aptitude or low grades in French, but were those who were not integratively motivated (Gardner et al., 1976: 202). In terms of classroom participation, the integratively motivated students actively volunteered answers, were more interested in learning French and expended more efforts in and out of the classroom.

Clement, Gardner and Smythe's (1977c) study indicates that motivation affects persistence in L2 study and achievement. Clement et al. (1977c) assessed the motivational characteristics of Francophones learning ESL in Montreal. The sample consisted of 153 students who were in grade 10, and 151 students in grade 11. They were asked to respond to several attitudinal and motivational scales. The factors were identified as an integrative motive, self-confidence in English ("such self-confidence is associated with heightened motivation to learn and use English" (Clement et al., 1977c: 129)), academic achievement and alienation.

It was found that achievement in L2 is associated with an ability and a motivational component. The motivational aspects are related to certain kinds of attitudes referred to as an integrative motive. Clement et al. (1977c) found that measures of motivation contributed to two factors. One is the integrative motive, the other is self-confidence. This study suggests that integratively motivated students at grade 11 have behavioural intentions to continue English study. Clement et al. (1977c: 123) state that "while the individual's intention to study English is related to an integrative motive, his actual competence in the second language seems to be more closely related to a dimension of motivation which is best described as self-confidence derived from prior experience with the language". Concerning instrumental orientation, it was found in this study that instrumental orientation is not related to achievement in English. In addition to this, instrumental orientation was associated with feelings of alienation, "suggesting that such an orientation is indicative of emotional dissatisfaction rather than a potent motivating basis for L2 study" (Clement et al, 1977c: 132).

Clement, Gardner and Smythe (1980) assessed 223 students who were in grade 11 in Montreal. The variables included integrative motive, self-confidence with English and academic achievement.

The first factor, the integrative motive, received appreciable loadings from nine variables, which suggests that the pupil who has a favourable attitude toward learning English, also has favourable attitude toward English Canadians, and has both integrative and instrumental orientation. This pupil also "tends to frequently speak English with anglophones..., is motivated to learn English....., intends to continue studying English...." (Clement et al., 1980: 298). This study again hints that achievement in the second language is related to motivation and ability.

Clement et al. (1980: 299) conclude that the results "suggest that two motivational components are involved in the acquisition of English by Francophone students. One, the integrative motive.....the second one, self-confidence with English".

Other studies show that instrumental motivation in certain contexts, can be more powerful than the integrative motivation. Lukmani's (1972) study was conducted to find out whether Marathi speaking girls who are high school students in Bombay are integratively motivated to learn English or instrumentally motivated, and whether their motivation scores are related to achievement in English.

The sample consisted of 60 girls from a high school in which Marathi is used as a medium of instruction. The girls were from average to lower middle class Indian families who live in a non-westernised part of Bombay. They studied ESL for 7 years. The girls were given a questionnaire that consisted of four parts: attitudes to (1) Marathi speaking community, (2) the English speaking community, (3) self-concept and (4) ideal self-concept. In addition to the questionnaire, the girls were given a cloze test and a direct questionnaire that contained five instrumental and five integrative items regarding learning English.

The result was that "instrumental motivation was found to rank significantly higher than integrative motivation ($t = 6.20, p < .0001$)...close test scores correlated significantly with instrumental motivation ($p < .001$) but not with integrative motivations" (Lukmani, 1972: 264-265).

Lukmani (1972: 270-271) says that "on the basis of this, we can conclude that in this typical group of Marathi speaking high school students in Bombay, (1) instrumental motivation has been shown to be higher than integrative motivation, and (2) that the English speaking community of Indians is not necessarily considered their reference group, but it does represent some characteristics which they wish to acquire....proficiency in English was significantly related to instrumental and not to integrative motivation.....This indicates that English proficiency arises from a desire to use English not as a means of entry into a reference group, but as a tool with which to understand and cope with the demands of modern life".

Gardner and Lambert (1972) found a similar result in the Philippine study. The Philippine is a multiethnic nation. English in the Philippines is a second language, a medium of instruction, the language of the business world and of prestige. It is rarely a home language. The context in Philippine places a high instrumental value on English language proficiency because "the success in mastering this second language....determines one's upward mobility and one's future" (Gardner and Lambert, 1972: 122).

The sample consisted of 103 senior high school students who lived in Manila. Those students were required to fill out 3 tests, (1) questionnaire that measured attitude and motivation, (2) language aptitude measures, and a (3) test of English achievement.

One of the findings of Gardner and Lambert (1972: 130) mention was that "students who approach the study of English with an instrumental outlook and who receive parental support in their views are clearly more successful in developing proficiency in the language than are those who fail to adopt this orientation.....Apparently when there is a vital need to master a second language, the instrumental approach is very effective, perhaps more so than the integrative".

In the Maine study, Gardner and Lambert (1972) studied American students who were from English speaking homes and studying French in school as a L2. Gardner and Lambert found that those students were generally instrumentally oriented. Gardner and Lambert (1972: 141) conclude that "it seems that language

in settings where there is an urgency about mastering a second language - as there is in the Philippines and North America for members of linguistic minority groups - the instrumental approach to language study is extremely effective".

To conclude this section, it should be mentioned that "there is no single means of learning a L2, some learners in some contexts are more successful in learning a language if they are integratively oriented, and others in different contexts benefit from an instrumental orientation" (Brown, 1987: 116). In addition to this, Brown (1987: 116) points out that "the two types of motivation are not necessarily mutually exclusive". The L2 learner rarely becomes exclusively integratively motivated or exclusively instrumentally motivated. Most learners have a mixture of each kind of motivation. For example, a Kuwaiti student may learn English in Britain for academic (instrumental) purposes and for integrative purposes to integrate with the culture and people of Britain.

Attitude

Consideration of Attitude will be in terms of its definition, classification, components, relevance to the Kuwaiti context and review of literature concerning its effect on L2 learning. We start with the issue of definition.

Definition of Attitude

A stipulative definition of attitude is difficult and elusive. Following are various attempts:

"An attitude is a disposition to respond favourably or unfavourably to an object, person, institution or event" (Ajzen, 1988: 4).

"Attitude = the specific mental disposition toward an incoming (or arising) experience, whereby that experience is modified; or, a condition of readiness for a certain type of activity" (Warren, 1934: 24) .

An attitude is described by Droba (1933) as a mental disposition of the human individual to act for or against a definite object. Allport (1935) explains that

an attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organised through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objective and situations with which it is related.

Classification of Attitudes

1. Attitudes may be classified as being general or specific. For example an attitude toward learning English is specific because the object is specific (learning English) and the activity (learning) is determined. Attitudes toward foreign languages are general because the object (foreign language) is general, not limited to one language and includes many activities like learning, speaking or listening to the foreign languages.

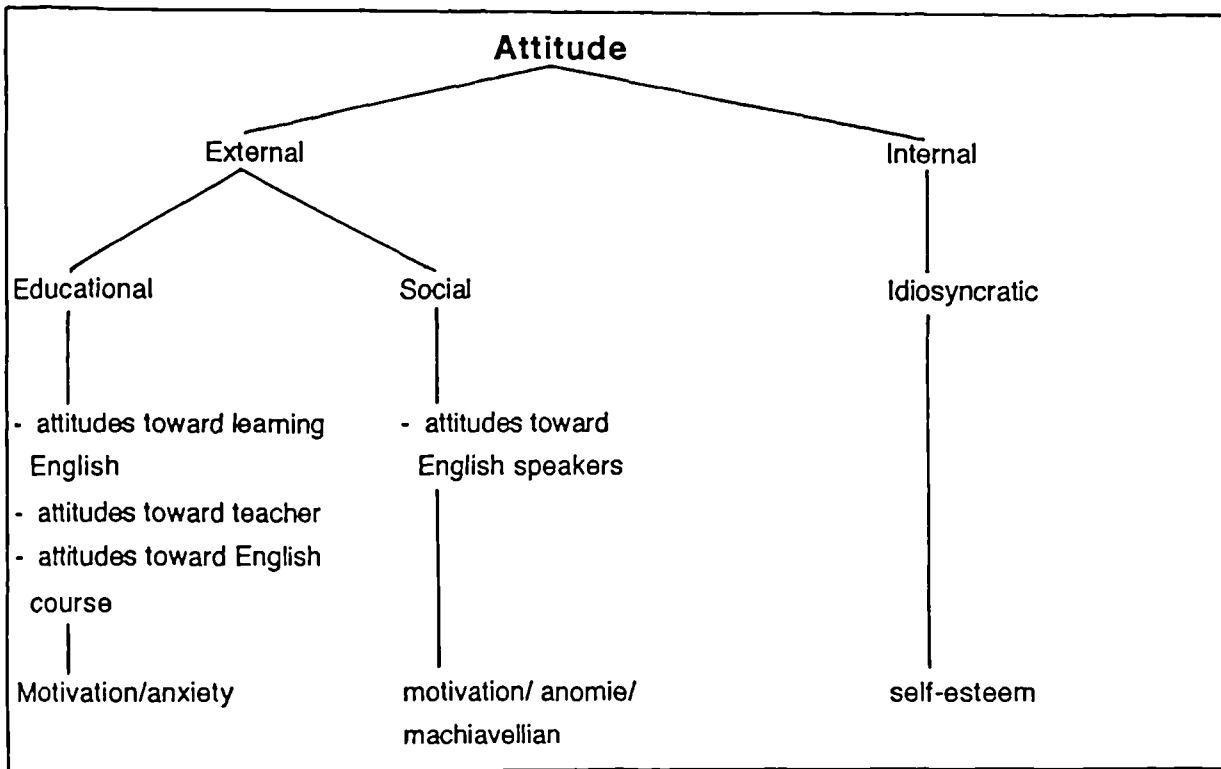
2. Attitudes can be classified according to their relevance to L2 achievement. "Relevance might best be defined simply in terms of the correlation between the attitude and the achievement variables" (Gardner, 1985: 41). For example attitude toward learning English (ESL) is more relevant to achievement in the English as a L2 than the attitude toward foreign languages.

3. Attitudes can be classified into educational or social. Educational attitudes are attitudes toward the teacher, the course and learning the language. Social attitudes focus on cultural elements such as attitudes toward speakers of the L2.

4. Hyde (1979: 28) classifies attitudes into external and 'internal. "External attitudes refer to those evaluations the learner directs towards factors outside himself (e.g., the work of the L2, of the L2 culture, and of his native language). Internal attitudes, on the other hand, refer to those evaluations which the learner directs towards inside himself (i.e., his competence, his ability, his self-worth and self-concept or self-esteem)".

Albusairi (1992: 26) presents a taxonomy of the construct attitude (see figure 5) that includes both Hyde's (1979) and Gardner's (1985) classification of attitudes:

Figure 5: Albusairi's (1992) taxonomy of the construct attitude



Hyde (1979) classifies attitude into two types of external attitudes that include feelings one holds toward outside objects such as attitudes towards a language, the teacher or the course and internal attitudes that include the attitudes one feels toward oneself. External attitudes can be classified into educational and social (Gardner, 1985). Educational attitudes relate to the classroom context. Those who have positive educational attitudes feel more comfortable in the classroom. Social attitudes relate to speakers of the L2. "Strong positive social attitudes may produce anomie (a feeling of social alienation), while negative feeling toward the target language produces a kind of solidarity termed Machiavellian motivation" (Albusairi, 1992: 26).

Components of Attitude

Attitude consists of three components:

1. Cognitive
2. Affective
3. Readiness for action.

1. The cognitive component involves thoughts and beliefs. It involves "responses that reflect perceptions of, and information about, the attitude object" (Ajzen, 1988: 4).

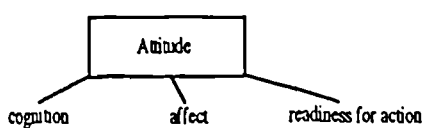
2. The affective component involves feelings towards the attitude object and "refers to the emotions one associates with an object, person, event, or idea. That is, something is pleasing or displeasing, it is liked or disliked" (Klausmeier, 1985: 376). For example, having a favourable attitude towards the English language means having positive feelings towards it.

Attitude measurement should cover both the cognitive and the affective components of attitudes. If attitude measurement concerns one of the components, either the cognitive or the affective one, it will tend to be a partial measurement.

3. The last component is readiness for action. "It is a behavioural intention or plan of action under defined contexts and circumstances" (Baker, 1992: 13). A Kuwaiti individual who has favourable attitudes towards learning English, may send his or her son abroad to learn English. Readiness for action does not always indicate an external behaviour (Baker, 1992: 13). The notion is of propensity rather than action.

Ajzen (1988: 22-23) defines a hierarchical model of attitudes: "The hierarchical model of attitude, then, offers the following account of the way in which attitudes affect behaviour. The actual or symbolic presence of an object elicits a generally favourable or unfavourable evaluative reaction, the attitude toward the object. This attitude, in turn, predisposes cognitive, affective and conative responses to the object, responses whose evaluative tone is consistent with the overall attitude".

Figure 6: Ajzen's (1988) Model of Attitudes



(The components of attitude, from Baker, 1992: 13)

What Affects Attitudes (with Reference to the Context in Kuwait)?

Many factors may affect attitudes (e.g. parents, institutions, mass media, rituals and political events).

- Parental effect: The "implicit belief was that the language of the home has an impact on attitudes" (Baker, 1992: 109). In general, individuals' attitudes often tend to match their parents.

- Institutional effect: "Various institutions may affect language attitudes" (Baker, 1992: 110). This occurs through the status given to the language (e.g. using it in law courts, banks, schools, business and administration). School is one of the most influential institutions affecting attitude.

In Kuwait, there are four kinds of schools. The first kind is monolingual using English as a medium of instruction in all subjects. Private English medium schools were founded basically for the English-only speakers who live in Kuwait. The second kind is called the bilingual school which uses English as a medium of instruction in some subjects and Arabic in other subjects. This is also private. The third kind is Arabic monolingual and private, being the same as the public schools with the exception that English is taught from kindergarten. The fourth kind is the public school which is monolingual, uses Arabic only, as a medium of instruction except in English. English is offered in the fifth year of schooling. Attending private English schools, bilingual schools or monolingual Arabic schools is expected to affect differently an individual's attitude towards the English language.

- Mass media effects: "Television, records, cassettes, videos, satellite broadcasts, films, radio and computer software are often regarded as having an influence on the language attitudes of teenagers in particular" (Baker, 1992: 110).

In Kuwait most radio and T.V. channels are totally devoted to Arabic. Channel Two shows English only T.V. programmes besides the rich availability of English video films, cassettes and satellite channels.

- Rituals: Many people in Kuwait celebrate Christmas day. They buy a Christmas tree and decorate it. Others invite friends to celebrate the day.
- Political events: The freeing of Kuwait mostly by the American and British army, from the Iraqi invasion (1990), had a very strong effect on attitudes in Kuwait. Attitudes to the English language appeared to become more positive.

A Review of Literature on the Effect of Attitudes on L2 Learning

The review of literature will be concerned with two types of attitudes, the educational and the social, and their relation to achievement in the L2.

1. Attitudes toward learning the language (the educational attitude)

Some authors believe that attitudes have merely a minor importance for successful L2 learning. Macnamara (1973: 251) argues that "the main thrust in language learning comes from the child's need to understand and to express himself". "A child suddenly transported from Toronto to Berlin will rapidly learn German no matter what he thinks of the Germans. Indeed, when he makes his first appearance on the street and meets German children, he is likely to be appalled by the experience. They will not understand a word he says; they will not make sense when they speak; and they are likely to punish him severely by keeping him in incommunicado.....His need to communicate has very little to do with what is commonly understood as an attitude to a people or its language" (Macnamara, 1973: 253).

However, several studies show that attitudes toward learning a L2 strongly relate to achievement in a language. Jordan (1941) measured students' attitudes toward five school subjects: French, Mathematics, History, English and Geography. He applied a Thurstone type of scale to 231 boys whose ages were from 11 to 15. The scale he used measured attitudes towards French as a school subject. The items were similar to those used in previous scales to measure attitudes toward learning French. Jordan (1941) found positive correlations between achievement in the five subjects and attitudes (some of which were low). Students' attitudes toward English and French correlated more highly with achievement than their

attitudes toward the other subjects (the correlation of French with achievement was the second highest correlation).

Duckworth and Entwistle (1974: 78) studied students' attitudes toward school subjects by using a repertory grid technique which contained four scales: interest, difficulty, freedom to express ideas and social benefit. The school subjects were nine: Chemistry, History, Geography, Biology, English, Physics, Mathematics, Latin and French. The students were 312 second years and 292 fifth years attending grammar school. Duckworth and Entwistle (1974) stated that "in the analysis of the relationships between attitudes and attainment, there were few significant correlations among second year pupils, except in French, but a much clearer set of relationships was found among fifth formers.....There was, however, a difference in the levels of correlation between groups of subjects. For English, history, geography and biology, the values were rather low on average (.15) while for mathematics, physics, chemistry and French the average value was 0.38".

Neidt and Hedlund's (1967) study explored the relationship between change in students' attitudes toward a class and final achievement in that class. The researchers administered five equivalent forms of an attitude scale that each involved 26 items. The subjects were 573 University students studying three courses: Microscopic Anatomy and Embryology, English Composition and First Year German. Seven measurements were used for each student: five attitude measurements, a measure of academic ability and final course grades. Attitudes were measured five times during the course. There was no significant correlation between attitudes toward learning anatomy and the final grades in anatomy. The five correlations for German were significant. For English, only the last two measurements of attitudes correlated significantly with students' final grades. Those three studies (Jordan, 1941; Duckworth and Entwistle, 1974; and Neidt and Hedlund, 1967) showed that attitudes toward language courses were more related to achievement in that course than were attitudes toward other subjects.

Gardner (1979: 193) argued that "second language, unlike virtually any other curriculum topic, must be viewed as a central social psychological phenomenon. The rationale underlying this view is that most other school subjects involve learning elements of the student's own cultural heritage.....most school

learning involves the acquisition of knowledge or habits which are already part of the make up of the culture with which the student identifies. Such is not the case with second languages, however".

Burstall (1975a) studied three age groups of students learning French as a foreign language, in English and Welsh primary schools. One of her purposes in this study was to find the relationship between attitudes towards learning a foreign language and students' achievement in the foreign language. She concluded that students' attitudes toward learning French were related to achievement in French.

Attitudes may also affect students' behaviour in class. Bartley (1970) measured students' attitudes towards language twice, once at the beginning of the course and eight months later. The 'stay ins' (students who continued in the language course) were compared to the 'drop outs' on their language attitudes. Both the pre and post test attitude measures of 'stay ins' showed more positive attitudes toward the L2 than the 'drop outs'. In addition, those who decided to drop out, showed a decreasing attitude from the beginning to the end of the term, while the remainder demonstrated relatively stable attitudes toward the language. Also Burstall (1975a) found that the students who had poor attitudes toward learning French dropped out of the course when they were allowed to.

Attitudes toward learning a L² relate to other factors namely:

1. gender
2. parents' attitudes
3. age
4. achievement

Jones (1949) conducted a study to measure pupils' attitudes towards Welsh as a L2. An attitude scale was constructed which involved 55 statements that expressed different degrees of attitude toward Welsh as a L2. These statements ranged from very unfavourable to very favourable attitudes. The sample consisted of 129 boys and girls whose ages were from 11+ to 13+, grouped in six different forms in a secondary modern school in the Rhondda Valley. They were all taught Welsh by the same teacher. The findings were:

1. Gender: Jones (1949: 48) stated that "there is a statistically significant sex difference in the results in favour of the girls". Females showed significantly more positive attitudes than boys.

2. Parents' attitudes: Jones (1949: 48) found that "Language conditions in the home exert a special influence on the pupils' attitude to Welsh as a second language". Students from homes where either the father or mother or both spoke Welsh showed more favourable attitudes than students of non Welsh speaking parents. Jones (1949) divided students into three categories: (1) students whose parents both spoke Welsh; (2) students whose mother or father only spoke Welsh; (3) students whose parents were non Welsh speaking. Jones (1949: 49) commented "there is a steady decline in scores as the linguistic conditions of the home become less and less Welsh".

Jones (1950) created a replication study measuring the attitudes and linguistic background of 211 pupils who were 11:6 to 15:5 years old grouped in eight different forms in a secondary modern school in a suburban area outside Cardiff. Jones (1950) found a gender difference and home language effect replicating the first study. Jones (1950) compared three groups of pupils' attitudes towards learning Welsh. The first group comprised students with Welsh speaking parents; the second with parents who knew little Welsh; the third with non speaking Welsh parents. The first and second groups demonstrated more positive attitudes than the third group who had less favourable attitudes.

3. Age: Gardner (1985: 44) states that "studies have also indicated that attitudes toward learning a second language become less positive with age". Jones (1949) pointed out that attitude towards Welsh is most favourable during the first year of secondary schooling and afterwards decline. "This is further illustrated by steady decline from year to year in the number of pupils who consciously endeavour to add daily to their vocabulary and also by a similar waning of interest in Welsh reading" (Jones, 1949: 50). Also, Jones (1950) and Jordan (1941) found that attitudes become less positive as students mature. In addition, Jones (1950) found that in the first two years of secondary schooling there was a slight but positive correlation between attitudes and attainment in Welsh. In the third and fourth years, the correlations between attitudes and

attainment were statistically significant. "The findings seem to suggest that attainment in Welsh is increasingly influenced by the pupil's attitude in the later stages of the course" (Jones, 1950: 132).

4. Achievement: Achievement in a language and attitude toward the language are linked. From research, Baker (1992: 44) concludes that "the higher the achievement, proficiency, and ability in a language, the more favourable the attitude. One key question in this research is the cause - effect relationship. Does favourable attitude lead to enhanced achievement? Or does greater attainment and proficiency suggest that attitudes cause achievement". Baker (1992: 44) answers that "attitudes and achievement may be both the cause and effect of each other". Burstall (1975a) suggests that attitudes might be dependent on prior achievement in the L2. Burstall (1975a: 399) argues that "the calculation of partial correlations indicated strongly that early achievement in French affected later attitudes toward learning French, and later achievement in French to a significantly greater extent than early attitudes towards learning French affected the subsequent development of either attitudes or achievement".

2. Attitudes Toward the L2 Community (social attitudes)

Several studies have showed that attitudes toward the L2 community relate to achievement in the second language.

Mueller (1971) investigated students' attitudes at the University of Kentucky, the students being enrolled in basic French courses. One of the questions this study attempted to answer was "what is the relationship between achievement and attitudes, especially students' attitudes towards the people whose language is being studied?" (Mueller, 1971: 291). 375 students were asked to fill out a questionnaire which partly inquired about students' attitudes toward French people. One of the results reached by Mueller was that some students were integratively oriented because they were interested in learning about the other community's culture, behaviour and concepts. Other students were instrumentally oriented because they looked at the language as a tool (e.g. for getting a better job). Mueller (1971: 293) suggested that "both the integratively and the instrumentally oriented students make the better language students". Mueller

(1971: 294) concluded that "the integratively oriented as well as the instrumentally oriented student is more successful in learning a foreign language, has a more favourable disposition toward the various aspects of the language, and is more tolerant of the effort required in learning the various skills than the student working primarily to satisfy a requirement".

Jacobsen and Imhoof's (1974) study concerned 600 Protestant missionaries who were currently residing in Japan. They studied the Japanese language intensively for at least 2 years. Research subjects were given an 80 item questionnaire. Each respondent to the questionnaire was rated on a one to five scale of Japanese speaking proficiency (low, low-medium, medium, medium-high and high). Every respondent was evaluated in two ways, one by self-reported evaluation, the other by an external evaluator. One of the factors investigated was Japanophilia (adjustment to Japan and Japanese). "It was hypothesised that adult students of spoken Japanese who experienced difficulties in adjustment to Japan would show lower achievement in attaining proficiency in spoken Japanese than adult students who found adjustment an enjoyable experience" (Jacobsen and Imhoof, 1974: 332). The relationship between ease of adjustment to Japan and achievement of proficiency in spoken Japanese was examined by obtaining data from the cosmopolitan Japanophilia scale which involved items which reflected difficulty or ease of adjustment to life in Japan, aims in learning Japanese in terms of integration into Japanese culture, adjustment to Japanese life, in terms of visiting Japanese homes and enjoying Japanese social events and activities and adjustment to correction of spoken language errors. Jacobsen and Imhoof (1974: 333) concluded that "analysis of this data indicates that an increase of scores on the cosmopolitan Japanophilia scale (i.e., away from culture shock, toward adjustment to Japan) paralleled increase in speaking proficiency. The hypothesis was therefore supported".

Spolsky (1969: 274) stated that "one of the most important attitudinal factors is the attitude of the learner to the language and to its speakers". 315 foreign student's attitudes, from 80 different countries living in the U.S.A were studied. Spolsky found significant positive relations between attitude towards English speakers and grades in English. One's reaction toward the second language group rather than toward one's own community was more significant.

Oller, Hudson and Liu's (1977) study concerned 44 students (16 females and 28 males), native speakers of Chinese who were given two types of measure of attitudes. One was similar to Spolsky's indirect measure of attitudes, the other one was similar to that of Lambert and Gardner's direct measures of attitudes, in addition to the cloze test as a measure of global language proficiency. 30 were students at the University of New Mexico and 14 at the University of Texas having lived in the U.S. for three and a half years. In this study, Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977) investigated the relationship between measures of students' attitudes toward self, the native language group (Chinese), the target language group (Americans), reasons for learning ESL, reasons for living in the U.S. and attained proficiency in ESL. The hypothesis was that positive attitudes, specifically toward the target language group, would relate to higher attainment in the target language, and negative attitudes especially those toward the target language group would relate to lower attainment in the target language. The results as indicated by Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977: 1) showed that "in general, attitudes toward self and the native language group as well as attitudes toward the target language group were positively correlated with attained proficiency in ESL ... Generally, learners who were apparently more integratively motivated performed better than those who were less integratively motivated".

Scherer and Wertheimer (1964) found that American College students with favourable attitudes toward Germans and towards themselves speaking German correlated with proficiency in German. Scherer and Wertheimer (1964: 242) explain that "more positive attitudes toward Germans and toward oneself speaking German and oneself speaking English tended to be associated with better performance".

Many studies support the statement that types of attitudes (e.g. toward L2 learning and towards the L2 community) influence students' achievement in the L2. However, "some attitude variables are more relevant than others" (Gardner, 1985: 50).

Gardner (1985) conducted 33 studies that included five different age/grade levels from seven regions across Canada. The size of the sample ranged from 62 to 238 with a median of 162. He used the educationally relevant measure of

attitudes (to learning French) and the socially relevant measure of attitudes (to French Canadians). He compared five attitude measures (1. attitude toward learning French; 2. interest in foreign languages; 3. attitude toward French Canadians; 4. evaluative reactions toward the French teacher; and 5. evaluation of the French course) and three aptitude measures with achievement in French. The mean correlations of the eight predictor variables were compared with nine different criteria (self-rating on writing, self-rating on understanding, self-rating on speaking, vocabulary, grammar, comprehension, grades and behavioural intention). Gardner (1985: 147) found that "considering all nine criteria, two predictors stand out as consistently being among the top three correlates. The attitudes toward learning French scale is always either the highest or second highest correlate, while the interest in foreign languages scale is always the second or third highest correlate. None of the other six predictors evidence such consistency".

Anxiety

Definition

Anxiety is commonly described by psychologists as a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object (Hilgard, Atkinson and Atkinson, 1971). Brown (1987: 106) says that anxiety "is associated with feelings of uneasiness, self-doubt, apprehension, or worry".

Levels of Anxiety

When anxiety is experienced at a global level, it is called trait anxiety. An individual has a trait anxiety when he or she becomes generally anxious about several things. It is "a more permanent predisposition to be anxious" (Scovel, 1978: 137).

When anxiety is experienced at a situational level, it is called state anxiety. State anxiety is specific, unlike trait anxiety, and related to particular events or acts (Brown, 1987).

Types of Anxiety: the facilitating and the debilitating

"There is a consistent relationship between the academic performance of a language student in the classroom and an anxiety measure" (Scovel, 1978: 132). Several studies have shown both positive and negative correlations between anxiety and language proficiency (e.g. Swain and Burnaby, 1976; Backman, 1976 and Chastain, 1975). Kleinmann (1977), provides an explanation why studies sometimes find negative correlations between anxiety and language proficiency and other times positive correlations. Kleinmann (1977) defines two types of anxiety that are behind such ambiguity: facilitating anxiety and debilitating anxiety.

Several linguists have sought to define those two types of anxiety. Scovel (1978: 139) explains that "facilitating anxiety motivates the learner to 'fight' the new learning task; it gears the learner emotionally for approach behaviour. Debilitating anxiety, in contrast, motivates the learner to 'flee' the new learning task; it stimulates the individual emotionally to adopt avoidance behaviour".

Rivers (1964: 92-93) suggests that "anxiety...can act as a drive or motivating force which will stimulate the student to greater efforts in the attempt to gain reassurance or to reduce anxiety....But when these unpleasant drives become intense, their full emotional effect becomes very disturbing and may express itself in various ways. The student may, for instance, seek escape in passivity, refusing to utter foreign language sounds aloud, and, in extreme cases, making only perfunctory efforts to learn anything associated with the foreign language".

Also, in this respect, Brown (1987: 106) states "the notion of facilitative anxiety is that some concern some apprehension over a task to be accomplished is a positive factor otherwise, a learner might be inclined to be 'wishy-washy', lacking that facilitative tension that keeps one poised, alert and just slightly unbalanced to the point that one cannot relax entirely". Spolsky (1989: 112) further comments "anxiety can have two effects that cancel each other out, leading to facilitation in some cases and interference in others. Up to a point, an anxious learner tried harder; beyond this level, anxiety prevents performance".

A Review of Literature Concerning the Effect of Anxiety on Students' Achievement in L2.

The first part of the review of literature shows that facilitating anxiety enhances language learning while debilitating anxiety interferes with language learning.

The second part will present the studies that suggest the negative correlation between high levels of anxiety and achievement, persistence and behaviour in the L2 class.

A. The role of facilitating and debilitating anxiety in L2 learning

Kleinmann's (1977) study comprised research on 39 foreign students taking an ESL course. Those 39 subjects consisted of two groups. group 1 were 24 native speakers of Arabic; group 2 were 15 subjects, 13 were native speakers of Spanish and 2 native speakers of Portuguese. Those two groups were the experimental groups. A third group, the control group, consisted of 15 native speakers of English.

The study investigated subjects' use of four English structures: passive voice, infinitive complements, direct object pronouns in sentences that contain infinitive complements and the present continuous tense.

It was predicted that Arabic students, compared with Spanish students, would find difficulty with passive and present progressive structures. Spanish and Portuguese students compared to Arabic subjects in turn might find difficulty with infinitive complement and direct object pronouns. It is also predicted that the students who find these difficulties will avoid using the structures. Kleinmann examined the English output of the Arabic and Spanish pupils by using several tests.

Kleinmann (1977) found a relationship between those who have facilitative anxiety, who used the difficult structures which their peers tended to avoid. The Spanish students who had high scores on facilitating anxiety measures used the

structures (infinitive complement and direct objectives) which were avoided by the remaining Spanish students. Also, the Arabic students who had high scores on facilitating anxiety measures used the passive voice more frequently which was avoided by remaining Arabic students.

Kleinmann (1977: 105) concluded that "the findings suggest avoidance operating as a group phenomenon, but within the particular avoiding group, use of the generally avoided structure is a function of the facilitating anxiety levels of the groups members". Kleinmann (1977: 106) continues "structures which otherwise would be avoided are likely to be produced depending on the effective state of the learner with respect to such variables as confidence, anxiety, and motivational orientation".

Bailey (1983) used a personal diary as a language learning research tool. She recorded things she perceived to be important in her learning experience of French. After reviewing her own and other's diary studies, she suggested a cyclic relationship between anxiety and negative competitiveness. When the student sees himself or herself as being less proficient than others, he or she may become competitive, and that leads in turn to anxiety. Also anxiety can cause competitiveness when one increases the effort to learn a language. When the learner becomes more competent, his anxiety decreases and when anxiety decreases, performance in the language increases (Bailey, 1983: 96).

Bailey (1983: 96) identifies the two types of anxiety that "in formal instructional settings, if such anxiety motivates the learner to study the target language, it is facilitating. On the other hand, if it is severe enough to cause the learner to withdraw from the language classroom (either mentally or physically, temporarily or permanently), such anxiety is debilitating".

Bailey (1983) sometimes suffered from the debilitating type of anxiety when learning French. Of this experience Bailey (1983: 76) wrote, "French classroom anxiety definitely interfered with language learning (at least in the short-term perspective) when I temporarily withdrew from the instructional setting".

Chastain's (1975) study was based on University students enrolled in Beginners French, German and Spanish courses. They were given three self-rating questionnaires that measured anxiety, outgoing versus reserved personality and creativity. The main aim was to investigate the relationship between specific student characteristics and final grades in French, German and Spanish.

Concerning test anxiety, Chastain found positive correlations between test anxiety and achievement in Spanish and German taught by traditional methods and found negative correlations between test anxiety and achievement in French taught by Audiolingual Methods. In this respect, Chastain (1975: 160) says "although test anxiety was a significant predictor only for Spanish, the correlations with final grade were high across languages. Surprising as it may seem, the direction of correlation was not consistent. In one case, French audio-lingual, the correlation was negative, in German, Spanish and all languages it was positive".

This leads back to the notion of the facilitating and debilitating types of anxiety. When anxiety is facilitative, students obtain higher grades. When it is debilitating, students obtain lower grades. Chastain (1975: 160) concludes by explaining that "perhaps some concern about a test is a plus while too much anxiety can produce negative results".

Albusiari (1992), in his study of Kuwaiti University students learning English as a foreign language, found that the Engineering students revealed higher levels of anxiety than did commerce students. The Engineering students were also more proficient in English than the commerce students. The Engineering students appear to have a facilitative type of anxiety that leads them to be more proficient in English.

B. The negative correlation between anxiety and achievement, persistence and behaviour in L2 classes

In Gardner, Smythe, Clement and Glikzman's (1976) study of pupils in grades 7 to 11 in Canada, (learning French as a foreign language), they found that there was a negative correlation between French classroom anxiety and students' scores on oral production skills and with their final grades in French. Gardner et al.

(1976: 202) state that "the negative correlation for French classroom anxiety indicates that the more anxious students are less proficient in speech skills".

Gardner et al. (1976) also found that students who tend to continue their French language studies have low levels of anxiety. In this respect, Gardner et al. (1976: 206) state that "the students who plan to continue are somewhat higher in need achievement, tend to have a higher level of language aptitude, report less anxiety within the French classroom.....and are less ethnocentric than the potential drop outs".

In Oller, Baca and Vigil's (1977: 182) study of Mexican American females in Mexico, they found that the subjects who defined themselves as being 'calm' and as being 'conservative, religious, shy, humble, sincere', had higher scores in a cloze test of ESL.

d'Anglejan and Renaud (1985) investigated the relationship among certain learner characteristics and the learning of French as a second language (FSL). The study was conducted on adult immigrants to Quebec ranging in age from 17 to 63. In their analysis, d'Anglejan and Renaud (1985) divided the subjects into two groups: (1) good learners (GL), and (2) poor learners (PL). The GL were those who were successful in learning French, the PL were not. One of the findings d'Anglejan and Renaud (1985: 10) reached was that "the PL group means for anxiety in class, age, and illiteracy are greater than those of the GL group...Higher levels of illiteracy and anxiety in the classroom coupled with greater age were related to lower scores in FSL achievement".

Ely (1986) investigated a causal model of L2 learning. This model focused on three constructs: language class discomfort which is "concerned with the degree of anxiety, self-consciousness or embarrassment felt when speaking the L2 in the classroom" (Ely, 1986: 3), language class risk taking and language class sociability. "The hypothesis is that those effective variables (mentioned above) influence students' voluntary participation in class and this voluntary participation in class in turn influences L2 proficiency" (Ely, 1986: 4).

Concerning the role of 'language class discomfort', it was predicted that language class discomfort decreases both language class risk taking and language class sociability. Discomfort in class inhibits students from taking risks with the language and excludes them from interacting with others. As a result, language class discomfort reduces classroom participation which then affects students' L2 proficiency.

The subjects were students taking first year University Spanish classes. Classroom participation was measured by classroom observation and audio recording. Three proficiency measures were obtained: oral fluency, oral correctness and written correctness. The results showed that "language class discomfort negatively predicted language class risk taking and language class sociability; language class risk taking positively predicted classroom participation; and classroom participation positively predicted oral correctness for the first quarter students" (Ely, 1986: 1).

Language class discomfort negatively affected both risk taking and class sociability. Therefore, it affected classroom participation indirectly through its negative influence on language class risk taking (Ely, 1986: 20).

In Clement et al.'s (1977c) study of 304 grade 10 and 11 Montreal francophone pupils learning ESL, they found that students who are self-confident tend to experience low levels of anxiety when they use the English language both in class and outside the class (or outside school). Clement et al. (1977c: 132) state that "the self-confidence factors isolated in this study receive major loadings from the two anxiety variables". Self-confidence, a dimension that involves a low level of anxiety, was strongly associated with indices of competence in the L2.

Tucker, Hamayan and Genesee's (1976) study was based on three groups of students who were all at grade seven. They were (1) an early immersion group, (2) a late immersion group and (3) an English control group. The aim of this study was to examine the role of different affective, cognitive and social factors in the acquisition of L2.

Concerning the role of anxiety, it was found that students who had low levels of French class anxiety had high scores on the 'test de Rendement' which measures certain French language skills: spelling, listening comprehension, vocabulary and grammar. Tucker et al. (1976: 222) stated that "for all students, then, high achievement on the test de Rendement was associated with factor P₃,.....and with factor P₄, defined as field independence, low French-class anxiety and low ethnocentrism".

Lalonde and Gardner (1984) examined the role of personality factors in L2 acquisition. The second aim was to integrate such factors into an adapted version of Gardner's model and to examine it using LISREL causal modelling. Subjects investigated were University students enrolled in introductory French as a L2 class in Ontario. Students were given several questionnaires and tests that measured their language achievement and other personality factors.

Concerning the role of anxiety in L2 learning, Lalonde and Gardner (1984: 234-235) found that "the relationships existing between motivation and achievement as well as between situational anxiety and achievement are more complex than Gardner (1979) proposed. As was hypothesised for the present model, both motivation and situational anxiety were mediated by self-confidence in French in their relationship with French achievement. The present data therefore suggests that motivation and situational anxiety determine the way students feel about their level of proficiency, and this confidence influences French achievement. The causal link between motivation and anxiety suggests, furthermore, that the more motivated individual will feel less anxious about the French learning situation and therefore have more self-confidence in his/her capabilities".

Clement, Gardner and Smythe (1980) studied 223 grade 11 Francophone students from Montreal. They found that students who rated themselves as being competent in speaking, reading, writing and understanding spoken English had little anxiety when they spoke in an English class, spoke in public in the presence of others, or when they wrote an English exam. Those students who had little anxiety also spoke English frequently with Anglophones, were more motivated to learn English, had a good knowledge of English on tests of aural comprehension and grammar, and were self-confident.

In Naiman, Frohlich, Stern and Todesco's (1978: 289) study of French pupils in grade 8 to 12 in Toronto, they found that "classroom anxiety, a high fear of rejection and similar feelings may be related to failure".

In MacIntyre and Gardner's (1989) study, the subjects were given a questionnaire that contained several anxiety scales to measure their levels of anxiety. Subjects learnt English equivalents of 38 French words and were tested by four trials. Subjects were asked to produce French vocabulary and recall the paired associates. One of the aims of this study was to investigate the relationship between anxiety and the learning and production of French vocabulary.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1989: 272-273) found that "a clear relationship exists between foreign language anxiety and foreign language proficiency". The results showed that "anxiety leads to deficits in learning and performance" (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989: 271). MacIntyre and Gardner (1989: 272) went further and suggested a causal model in which "foreign language anxiety causes poor performance in the foreign language which produces elevations in state anxiety".

Swain and Burnaby (1976) conducted a study on 63 kindergarten French immersion students and 68 students in the English programme studying French as a L2, in order to investigate the relationship between certain personality characteristics and L2 learning. Concerning anxiety, Swain and Burnaby (1976: 123) found that "anxiousness is highly negatively correlated with TL scores (-.69). In other words, the more anxious the student, the less likely he is to perform well in a test of reading in the second language".

Section Two

The Educational Factors that Influence Students' Attitude, Motivation and Anxiety

"The question proposed here is that if attitudes and motivation influence how well someone learns a L2, is it not equally possible that the experience of learning a L2 influences attitudes and motivation" (Gardner, 1985: 84). To be more specific, is it not possible that the role of the teacher, method of teaching, instructional material, classroom activities and classroom context all equally influence attitude and motivation. Gardner (1985: 168) states that "many other aspects may underlie such motivation, and a very promising research programme might focus on these other aspects....these other aspects might involve personality determinants, pedagogical techniques, teacher variables, etc."

Smith (1975) argues that any student who attends a language class has a set of attitudes. The student may feel that the language course he or she attends is boring, not interesting, difficult or irrelevant. A change in, or the reinforcement of such attitudes, may occur depending on the student's experience in class.

It has been mentioned in section One that, in general, many students in Kuwait lack the motivation to learn the foreign language (Kharma, 1977a, 1977b; Al-Mutawa et al., 1985; Albusiari, 1992). Section Two of this chapter argued that students' experiences in class affect their attitude and motivation to learn a foreign language. Therefore, students' experiences in class should be rewarding, motivating, interesting, relaxing and pleasant. Students' experiences in class are influenced by several factors which include:

1. The role of the teacher in class
2. Methods of teaching
3. Instructional material
4. Class activities
5. Classroom context

Kharma (1977a: 103-104) states that "in the foreign language teaching situation; in particular, it is also important to take into account the student's first experience with the language, the type and calibre of the teachers, the teacher's attitude to the teaching profession in general and to foreign language teaching in particular, the relationship between teacher and student, and the school's attitude to the language. Among the motivating factors one should not forget the textbooks used and the objectives of the syllabus, the modes of presentation and teaching of the language....".

As a part of this research, Kuwait University students will be asked about what motivates them more in terms of these factors mentioned above, in order to use their response for future action, as a basis to develop students' motivation to learn a foreign language and to make the learning of English a more pleasant experience.

Concerning the role of the foreign language teacher, it is expected that when a teacher learns a foreign language and then teaches it out of interest, this may affect and motivate the students whom he or she teaches. In Kuwait, it is not necessary that teachers learn and teach English out of interest, but it may be out of necessity (Kharma, 1977a). Teacher's lack of interest in teaching the foreign language may produce student lack of motivation to learn a foreign language. Other characteristics the teacher has may affect students' motivation, (e.g. having an enthusiastic personality may lead the learner to have a favourable attitude towards the teacher, which may be transferred to the foreign language taught by this teacher). The loving, caring, understanding and encouraging teacher influences students' attitudes toward the language class which then affect their desire to learn the language. Also, the teacher being efficient, sensitive to students' needs, creative and flexible may increase students' motivation to learn a foreign language. The teacher can simply enhance students' motivation by the way he or she treats students, (e.g. the way the teacher greets students with a warm welcome and smile).

Concerning methods of teaching, class activities and instructional material, they should all arouse students' interest and enthusiasm. In terms of method of teaching, "the general consensus nowadays seems to favour a method of teaching

English which is a combination of what is best in the audio-lingual, audio-visual, direct, cognitive and functional methods, which teaches language as a means of communication and which tries to create and develop communicative competence in the learner" (Kharma, 1977a: 108). The use of dull and uninteresting methods may create a frustrated and dissatisfied learner. This learner may not be enthusiastic or active in such a class where he or she feels lost.

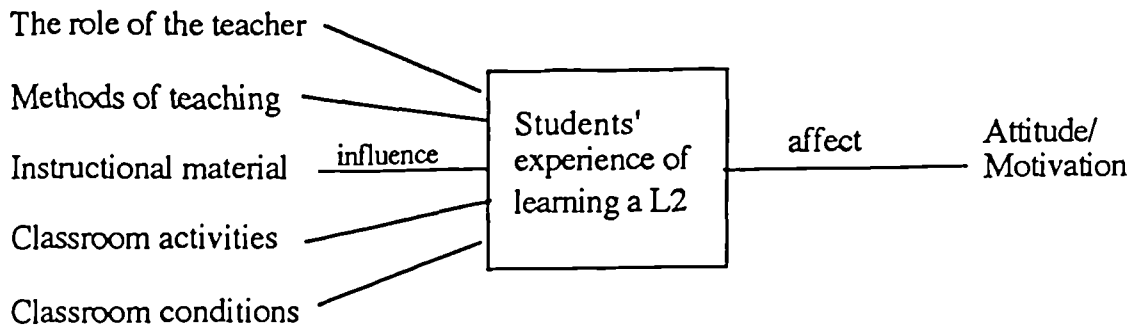
Classroom activities should be lively, vivid and stimulating to arouse interest. Classroom activities should employ humour, narrative and lively natural conversations to make language learning fun and pleasant. These activities can take the form of group work, role plays, debates, games, reading poetry, telling stories, making advertisements, writing newspapers articles and letters, listening to songs, having trips outside the University or conducting radio programmes.

The content of the textbook should be interesting, attractive and demonstrate appropriate language. The rich use of varied, attractive and stimulating instructional material like video films, cassettes, pictures, computer programs, besides the imaginative use of the language laboratory, may motivate students and create in them positive attitudes towards language learning.

When it comes to classroom climate, the ethos in class will affect students' attitudes and motivation to learn a foreign language. When the class is overcrowded, each student will not get sufficient attention from the teacher and time for practice. Gloomy, hot, badly furnished classrooms may lead students to dislike the class and the language learning process that occurs in such a class. A positive classroom atmosphere will attract students, refresh them and allow them to maintain a positive attitude towards the language class and the language learning.

The following figure represents and summarises Section Two of this chapter:

Figure 7: A Summary



Section Three

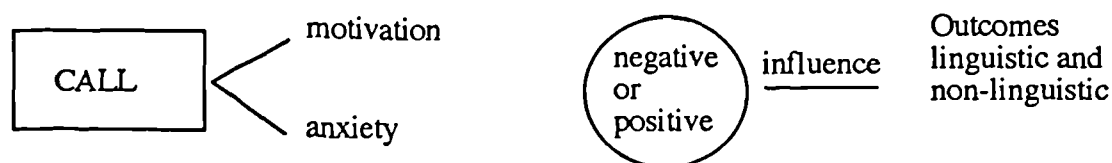
CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning)

In general, techniques of teaching used in class affect student's attitudes and motivation especially if there is innovation. Rivers (1964: 83) mentions that "the sheer novelty of the subject matter and of the distinctive methods of foreign language presentation awakens his curiosity or exploratory drive, and all the colourful material available for introducing a new culture keeps him alert and active". In this respect, Gardner (1985: 107) says that "where relatively brief innovations are introduced they might influence attitudes and motivation, particularly for those who become actively involved".

McInnis (1976) suggests that adopting some classroom innovations can cause attitude change. He studied the effect of a 'francobus' programme on grade 2 to 8 students' attitudes. The programme was represented by six actor-teachers who engaged in touring schools in a decorated bus, two or three times a year, visiting classrooms to sing, dance and teach French in the morning, and holding a theatre-in-the round, to conduct plays, show puppet presentations and establish group dancing and singing. In the first year, an assessment of attitude change caused by the 'francobus' was made. Two studies were conducted assessing pre and post test attitudes. One study demonstrated a significant positive effect on attitudes. The other study showed no significant effect. In the second year, pre and post test assessments showed significant positive changes in attitudes with students at grades 2 to 4.

Certain educational techniques have significant effects on students' attitudes, motivations and anxieties. How about CALL, does it affect the individual differences in terms of motivation and anxiety? If it does, is this effect negative or positive? What influence does it have on students' outcomes, linguistic and non-linguistic?

Figure 8: The Relationship Between CALL, Motivation, Anxiety and Outcome In FL Learning



The purpose of this study is to determine the extent to which a new experimental course in EFL, using computer programs will have a consistent effect on students' motivation and anxiety. This is an attempt to experiment with a technique with the aim of improving students' motivation and lowering their level of anxiety.

Review of Literature Concerning CALL's (Computer Assisted Language Learning) Effect on Students' Motivation and Anxiety

It is necessary to remind the reader that a detailed discussion about the role of CALL in terms of motivation and anxiety was presented in chapter Two.

The following version will be brief. It summarises what has been written in chapter Two because so little research has been conducted regarding the effect of CALL on students' motivation and anxiety.

CALL's effect on students' motivation

Concerning drill and skill programs, Roberts (1981) mentions CALL's usefulness in motivating teenagers to learn languages. Pamela and Madison (1987) argue that where rote learning cannot be avoided, computers can make it interesting. Windeatt (1986) found that students perceived the exercises on the computer as more enjoyable than non CALL exercises. Students liked using the computer, enjoyed the activity and insisted on continuing the task despite the limited time of the lesson. Beynon and Mackay (1987) also agree that CALL motivates alienated pupils.

Concerning computer games, they can provide motivation and create interest (Baker, 1983). Klier (1987) developed a microcomputer game around French culture and civilisation. When he implemented this game, he found that the students became motivated and wished to play again and again. Pearson (1986: 8-9) explains that computer games make learning more interesting by embedding a teaching point.

In terms of simulations, Jones and Fortescue (1987) point out that simulations are very motivating. Whittington (1984) observed his students working on the simulation 'Mary Rose', and concluded that simulations had a strong motivational effect on his pupils.

In terms of adventures, Jones and Fortescue (1987) consider computer adventures as 'powerful motivators'. Kenning and Kenning (1983: 159) argue that computer adventures can be used to brighten up language courses. Pamela and Madison (1987) think that adventures may motivate reluctant learners. Mullan (1981) believes in their 'terrific motivational aspects'.

When it comes to exploratory programs, they are often very motivating because they give students the opportunity to 'catch out' the machine (Jones and Fortescue, 1987) and allow for an interesting practice of language (Davies and Higgins, 1985).

In terms of word processing, the use of word processors motivates students to write. When students produce a clean, tidy, well-designed and high quality piece of writing, this enhances their self-image and motivates them more (Underwood and Underwood, 1990). Wellington (1985) agrees and argues that the provision of a word processor for students to experiment with their own writing creates high motivation.

CALL's effect on students' anxiety

Drill and skill programs can provide privacy. Those who suffer from high levels of anxiety, keep silent, do not raise their hands, fear participation in class and feel embarrassed by their mistakes, can work on their own using the computer in

order to build up their self-confidence and courage. Davies and Higgins (1985: 40) point out that the computer "has the patience of Job, does not mind how many errors the learner makes, is never sarcastic and does not laugh at stupid mistakes". Ornstein (1968) found that students were not embarrassed by their errors as they may be in 'student-teacher interaction'. MacDonald (1977: 185) argues that by offering privacy of risk, students can feel relaxed when making mistakes. CALL provides freedom to fail without embarrassment. Demaiziere (1983) found that CALL lowers students' level of anxiety. Kenning and Kenning (1983) argue that computer simulations are 'judgement-free'. They do not highlight students' errors but allow them to go by without the negativity of correction. This may relieve students' anxieties and encourage a more relaxing atmosphere.

Computer programs provide personalised and self-paced learning, making slow learners feel more relaxed (Ahmad et al., 1985). Drill and skill programs make some students feel less threatened because they know exactly what is expected from them.

Conclusion

This chapter presented a new element and integrated it with the two previously mentioned topics: the methods of teaching (in chapter One) and CALL (in chapter Two). This new element is social psychological, to be more specific, this new element focuses on the affective factors in second or foreign language learning: attitude/motivation and anxiety.

Section One attempted to provide an integrated summary of current theory and research by presenting **Gardner's model** to investigate the role of social psychological variables in L2 learning. The focus was mainly on three points in Gardner's model: the social milieu, motivation and anxiety. These three elements were discussed in terms of their definition and types, their role in language acquisition and their relevance to the context in Kuwait.

The social milieu was explained, and the role it played in L2 learning was focussed (Gardner, 1979, 1985; Gardner, Lalonde and Pierson, 1983; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Clement and Kruidenier, 1983; Chihara and Oller, 1978; Oller,

Hudson and Liu, 1977; Naiman et al., 1978), with special reference to the social and cultural milieu in Kuwait.

Motivation was presented in terms of its definition, types, components and empirical studies that support its effect on students' achievements in the L2. The types of motivation mentioned were:

1. Intrinsic and extrinsic
2. Integrative and instrumental
3. Assimilative
4. Machiavellian

The components of motivation discussed were:

1. Goal
2. Effort
3. Desire
4. Attitude

Empirical studies that supported the effect of motivation on students' achievement in L2 were outlined (Gardner and Lambert, 1959, 1972; Tucker et al., 1976; Clement et al., 1977a; Spolsky, 1969; Gardner et al., 1985; Glikzman et al., 1982; Naiman et al., 1978; Bialystok and Frohlich, 1978; Clement et al., 1980; Lukmani, 1972). Motivation to learn a foreign language and its relevance to the Kuwaiti context was introduced.

A detailed explanation of **attitude** was proposed in terms of its definition, classification, components, and its role in L2 acquisition. A classification of attitudes was defined as:

1. General or specific
2. According to their relevance to L2 achievement
3. Educational or social
4. Internal / External

Components of attitudes were defined as:

1. Cognition
2. Affect
3. Readiness for action

A wide variety of research was reviewed regarding the effect of attitudes toward learning the language (Jordan, 1941; Duckworth and Entwistle, 1974; Neidt and Hedlund, 1967; Gardner, 1979; Jones, 1949, 1950a, 1950b; Burstall, 1975a, 1975b) and toward the L2 community (Mueller, 1971; Jacobsen and Imhoof, 1974; Spolsky, 1969; Oller, Hudson and Liu, 1977; Clement et al., 1977a; Gardner, 1985).

Anxiety was also discussed in terms of its definition, levels, types and effect on students' achievement. Levels of anxiety were defined as:

1. State anxiety
2. Trait anxiety.

Types of anxiety were defined as:

1. Facilitating
2. Debilitating.

Research concerning the effect of anxiety on L2 acquisition was reviewed (Kleinmann, 1977; Bailey, 1983; Chastain, 1975; Albusairi, 1992; Gardner et al., 1976; Oller, Baca and Vigil, 1977; d'Anglejan and Renaud, 1985; Ely, 1986; Clement et al., 1977c; Tucker et al., 1976; Lalonde and Gardner, 1984; Clement et al., 1980; Naiman et al., 1978; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1989).

Section Two analyzed the role of the **teacher in class, methods of teaching, instructional material, class activities and classroom context**. In chapter One, these points were presented as means to describe each method of teaching. In this chapter, they were explained in terms of their effect on students' anxiety, attitudes and motivation to learn a foreign language.

In **section Three**, '**CALL**' was represented with a brief discussion of studies on its effect on students' motivation and anxiety.

This research intends to investigate three main areas. The first area concerns Gardner's model (1985) applied to an Arabic context. The researcher wants to find out the extent to which this model is applicable to the Kuwaiti EFL setting. The purpose is to determine the extent to which previous findings can be generalised to a sample of University students studying EFL in Kuwait. This part of the research will focus on the relationship between motivation/attitude and anxiety and achievement in the foreign English language.

This research intends to examine several specific points:

- whether students are motivated or not to learn EFL
- the kind of motivation students have: instrumental or integrative
- the relationship between motivation/attitude and students' achievement in EFL
- the relationship between anxiety and students' achievement in EFL

The second area. A review of literature shows that motivation is related to students' achievement in the second or foreign language learning (Gardner and Lambert, 1959; Tucker, Hamayan and Genesee, 1976; Clement et al., 1977a, 1977b & 1977c; Spolsky, 1969; Gardner et al., 1985; Glikzman et al., 1982; Naiman et al., 1978; Bialystok and Frohlich, 1978; Clement et al., 1980; Lukmani, 1972; Gardner and Lambert, 1972). Highly motivated students seem to achieve more than less motivated students. Therefore, the second research area is concerned with what motivates students learning EFL in terms of:

- (a) the role of the language teacher in class
- (b) the instructional material
- (c) methods of teaching
- (d) class activities
- (e) classroom context

The first area is theoretical and aims at examining whether Kuwaiti University students studying EFL are motivated or not to learn the foreign language and whether their motivation and anxiety are related to their achievement in EFL. The second area is relatively practical, examining students' views on a number of educational factors.

Some Kuwaiti students learning EFL are expected to be non-motivated. As an attempt to solve this problem, the second part of this research intends to inquire about the educational context, students' attitudes and what will motivate students more to learn EFL. This second part raises the question 'what educational factors students prefer more?' (For example, concerning the instructional materials, what do students like more, the use of video films, cassettes, language laboratory, newspapers.....or just a course book?).

Once we identify the methods, materials, activities that utilise students' motivation, we can use them to develop in the students, the desire to learn the foreign language.

The third area is again practical. In an attempt to solve the problem of the expected lack of motivation, the researcher introduces a new instructional material, which involves the use of computer programs in the EFL language class. Computer programs have never been used in Kuwait in language classes. Computer programs involving drills, games, simulations, adventures or even word processing have never been used by students learning EFL in Kuwait. Therefore, this part of the research raises the question of 'does the use of computer programs in the EFL language class affect students' motivation to learn a foreign language? Does it affect their level of anxiety? Does it affect students' achievement in the foreign language?'

To summarise and conclude, the first part of the research asks mainly: 'do motivation and anxiety have relationship with Kuwait University students' achievement in the foreign language?'

The second part of the research raises the question of 'what motivates students more' in terms of:

- (a) the role of the language teacher in class
- (b) the instructional material
- (c) method of teaching
- (d) class activities
- (e) classroom context

The third part of the research asks: 'does the use of computer programs in teaching ESL affect Kuwait University students' motivation and anxiety?' The next chapter begins to detail the research of this thesis.

Chapter Four

The Research Methodology

(The first piece of research)

Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher will specify the two objectives of the study. One objective is to determine the extent to which previous research concerning the relationship between attitude/motivation and anxiety, and achievement in the foreign language can be generalised to a sample of University students studying a foreign language in Kuwait. The second objective is directed towards identifying preferred methods of teaching, materials, activities and appropriate teacher role, so that Kuwaiti students' motivation in learning a foreign language is better understood.

The context of the research is described in this chapter by presenting information about the teaching of English as a foreign language in Kuwait, especially at Kuwait University. The Language Centre (the centre that is responsible for teaching English as a foreign language at Kuwait University) will be portrayed as will the College of Arts, Science and Sharia, where the research took place.

The chapter describes the research sample drawn from three groups of University students who were enrolled in English courses during the first semester (term) 1992-1993. 143 students were from the College of Arts, 143 students were from the College of Science and 123 students were from the College of Sharia. The chapter also defines the methodology used to collect the research evidence. The main methodology selected was a survey questionnaire.

The questionnaire used in the present study consists of 13 sections. Section A elicits personal information. Sections B, C, D, and E inquire about what students like in terms of class activities (B), instructional material (C), the role of the language teacher (D) and methods of teaching (E). Section F investigates students' desire to learn English. Section G examines students' motivational intensity. Sections H, I, and J investigate students' attitudes toward the English language (H), toward learning English (I) and toward native English speakers (J). Section K asks about students' purposes in studying English. Section L examines students' feeling of anxiety in the English class and section M inquires about the social milieu in Kuwait.

Finally, the chapter will discuss the pilot study, and the procedure followed with the questionnaire.

Research Aims

The research investigates two main areas. The first area concerns Gardner's model (1985) applied to an Arabic context. The research investigates the extent to which this model is applicable to the Kuwaiti EFL setting. Can previous findings be generalised to a sample of University students studying EFL in Kuwait? This part of the research focuses on the relationship between attitude, motivation and anxiety and achievement in the foreign English language.

This research intends to examine the specific issues listed below:

1. In terms of motivation, this research intends to investigate:

- whether students are motivated or not (and a comparison of colleges)
- the kind of motivation they have:
 - a-instrumental
 - b-integrative
- the relationship between motivation and students' achievement in English.

2. In terms of attitudes (attitudes toward the English language, toward learning the English language and toward native speakers of English) this research intends to examine:

- the kind of attitudes students have (positive or negative).
- the kind of attitudes students in each College own.
- the relationship between attitudes and students' achievement in EFL.

3. In terms of English classroom anxiety, this study aims at examining:

- whether students experience the feeling of anxiety in the English class (a comparison of colleges).
- the relationship between anxiety and students' attitudes and motivation to learn the foreign language.
- the relationship between anxiety and students' achievement in EFL.

The second area is concerned with what motivates students to learn EFL in terms of:

a- language class activities: how much do students like activities such as group work, pair work, role plays, debates, games, poetry and other activities?

b- language classroom context: how do students like the classroom context to be (e.g. number of students, furniture, air conditioning)?

c- the role of the language teacher in class: what do students prefer the role of the language teacher to be: dominating the class, giving frequent homework, explaining creatively or displaying other roles?

d- the instructional material: how much do students like instructional materials such as newspapers, video films, cassettes, language laboratories and other instructional materials?

e- methods of teaching: how much do students like certain methods of teaching like using Arabic in the English language class, emphasizing grammar or focusing on communication?

The first area is theoretical. It examines whether Kuwait University students studying EFL are motivated or not to learn the foreign language and whether their motivation and anxiety are related to their achievement in EFL. The second area is relatively practical. Some Kuwaiti students learning EFL are thought to be unmotivated. As an attempt to solve this problem, this research intends to inquire about the educational context that will motivate students to learn EFL. This second area raises the question 'what educational arrangements do students like more?' Once we identify the methods, materials, activities that increase students' motivation, we can use them to develop in the students, the desire to learn a foreign language such as English.

The Context of the Research

In Kuwait, English is regarded as a foreign language because it is neither the mother tongue of the population, nor the second language. English in Kuwait is one of the school subjects and the language of specific courses and text books at University. The main exposure to the English language in Kuwait is through school and T.V.

All students in Kuwait experience 12 years of schooling before entering the University. The first four years is called the elementary stage during which English is not taught. The second four years is called the intermediate stage, and the third four years is called the secondary stage. English is taught for the last eight years. Pupils spend between five and seven forty-five minute periods per week every year learning the English language.

This study was conducted on University students taking English courses offered by the Language Centre in Kuwait University. Therefore, some information needs to be presented about Kuwait University and its Language Centre.

Kuwait University

Kuwait University was established in 1966 consisting of the College of Science, Arts and Education and the Woman's College. At the beginning, there were a total of 418 students and 31 teaching staff, but recently, these numbers have risen to 15471 students and 821 members of faculty (Kuwait University general undergraduate catalogue, 1991-93: 19). Many other Colleges have been established: the College of Law; Commerce, Economics and Political Science; Engineering and Petroleum; Medicine; Sharia and Islamic Studies and the College of Post-Graduate Studies. Currently, the University is made up of seven undergraduate Colleges each of which provides a programme of courses that lead to the Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science degree. Each College is composed of departments.

The academic year consists of two semesters (terms). The semester is the sixteen-week period between the commencement and termination of academic study. The first semester runs from mid September to mid January. The mid-year vacation lasts for two weeks and follows the first semester exams. The second semester runs from the beginning of February to the end of May. Each week runs from Saturday to Wednesday. The summer vacation follows and there is also a summer semester which is intensive, running for approximately 6 weeks.

Recognizing the importance of learning foreign languages, the University established the Language Centre in 1973. Students need language classes especially at the Colleges where English is the medium of instruction. To ensure that the language needs of the students were met, the English Language Centre was created.

University regulations require all students to take a number of English courses which are compulsory in order to graduate. English language courses are thus obligatory and comprise part of the general University requirements for graduation.

At the beginning of each semester, the Language Centre conducts placement tests for all incoming students. The aim of these tests is to measure and assess the

language proficiency of the students so that they are allocated to the English language courses that are compatible with their language standard. If a student fails this test, he or she is obliged to take one or more remedial courses which are not credited until their English improves. Success on a remedial course allows transfer to the regular English credit courses.

The Language Centre consists of Units. Each Unit oversees the teaching of English in each of the Colleges: Arts; Economics, Commerce and Political Science; Education; Sharia and Islamic studies; Engineering and Petroleum; Allied Health; Law; Medicine; Science and Graduate studies. The defined objectives in teaching English differs in each College. Syllabuses and materials are devised by each individual English Language Unit. Each Language Unit has a supervisor, a number of teachers and secretarial staff. The Units have audio visual services such as typing and photocopying plus learning aids such as language laboratories, video facilities, and Unit libraries.

The Language Centre has a staff of approximately 160 teachers. Each lecturer teaches 12-15 hours per week. The students enrolled in the Language Centre number over 12,000.

The medium of instruction at the University is Arabic except for certain Colleges. These Colleges are: Engineering, Medicine, Allied Health and Science which teach all subjects in English. On the other hand, English is needed by all students as a library language for further research after graduating from the University, for further study overseas in an English speaking country, or as a job requirement, (e.g. as hostess).

The three Colleges involved in the research were College of Arts, College of Science and College of Sharia and Islamic studies. These will now be described along with details of their English language courses.

College of Arts

This is the oldest College of Kuwait University. The number of students in this College is huge compared to the other Colleges. "In the semester of the academic year 1986/87 the College accepted 4473 students. It also offered courses to 18950 students who had registered in sections that are offered each semester. The faculty totalled 106 during the first semester of the academic year 1986/87" (Kuwait University undergraduate catalogue, 1991-1993: 71) .

The College of Arts comprises eight departments: Arabic language and literature, English language and literature (students from English language and literature department are not included in this study), History, Geography, Philosophy, Psychology, Sociology and Social Work and Information.

The English Language Unit of the College of Arts operates a general English programme. It emphasizes the four skills areas: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The lower levels, English 099, 131 and 132 focus on the aural/oral skills, English 133 is a transition course, and English 134 concentrates on reading and writing.

A summary of the English courses in the College of Arts

The English courses in the College of Arts are: 099, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135 and 136.

English 099 (non credit-5 contact hours weekly)

English 099 is a remedial non-credited course which is given to students who fail and do not score high enough on the placement test to be placed in English 131. English 099 allows the students to practise the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. More emphasis is given to listening and speaking.

English 131 (3 credits-5 contact hours per week)

This is the first compulsory credit course. The main objective of this course is to enable students to have sufficient practice in learner-centered situations in order that students improve their reading, writing, listening and speaking skills. Listening, reading and writing strategies are focused on with regard to the use of English in the personal lives of the students.

English 132 (3 credits-5 contact hours per week)

This is a course in general English. It concentrates on communication. Reading exercises are used to reinforce the spoken language and extract information from materials like questionnaires, advertisements, and tables of statistics. In this course students are required to write paragraphs and letters on topics that reinforce structures and vocabulary contained in the syllabus.

English 133 (3 credits-5 contact hours per week)

This is a general English course at the intermediate level. It makes a gradual shift from listening and speaking to an emphasis on reading and writing.

English 134 (3 credits-5 contact hours per week)

This is a high intermediate course. It focuses strongly on students' reading and writing skills.

English 135 (3 credits-5 contact hours per week)

This is an advanced class that is designed to develop students' reading and writing skills.

English 136

This is the most advanced course in the Arts English Language Unit. The course stresses reading and writing. Speaking and listening are practised in class discussions. Class discussions are about readings, taped conversations and lectures.

College of Science

The College of Science is one of the largest Colleges. It comprises eight departments: Mathematics, Statistics and Operations research, Computer Science, Chemistry, Botany, Zoology, Microbiology, Geology and Physics.

The English language is used as a medium of instruction. Therefore, the English Language Unit in College of Science prepares and trains students to handle English medium instruction by offering English 097, 098, 161, 162 and 163.

A summary of the English courses in the College of Science

English 097 (non credit-10 contact hours per week)

This is given to students who do not score high enough on the placement test to be placed in English 161. It is a remedial course. Its main objective is to prepare students to handle English medium instruction. Therefore, it intensively revises reading and writing skills. The course is divided into two sections, each being taught for one hour a day: 097B (reading) and 097C (writing).

English 098 (non credit-5 contact hours per week)

This course concentrates intensively on reading and writing skills and is similar to 097 but at a higher level. For some students, 098 is their first course; for others, it is the course following 097, depending on their score on the placement test.

English 161 (prerequisite 097, 098 or placement test)

The main objective of this course is to develop writing skills and research skills. It stresses three different types of essay writing which are very beneficial for the students in College of Science who receive instruction through the medium of the English language. These three types are: structure process description, comparison, contrast and classification. Students also prepare and present 10 minute lectures. Through this course, students learn about research and text organization skills.

English 162 (prerequisite English 161)

This is a 3 hour per week credit course training students to write essays on many different subjects. The methodology used focuses on developing the reading and writing skills necessary to compose essays, both under examination conditions and in the context of research paper writing.

English 163 (prerequisite English 162)

This is an elective 3 hour per week credit course. This course concerns not only cognitive and linguistic goals but also affective goals that are necessary for developing reflective thinking. The course allows students to practise how to synthesise, analyze and evaluate materials. Written and spoken English receive equal attention.

The College of Sharia (Islamic Law) and Islamic studies

This college was founded in 1981. It comprises 4 departments:

1. Department of Quoranic Interpretation and Prophetic Tradition.
2. Department of Jurisprudence and Principles of Jurisprudence.
3. Department of Doctrine and Preaching Islam.
4. Department of Comparative Jurisprudence and Policy of Sharia.

The English Language Unit offers two English courses (151 and 152) which all Sharia students should take because no placement test is administered at this College.

A summary of the English courses in the College of Sharia

English 151 (3 credit-5 contact hours per week)

English 151 is an English for specific purpose course. It is the first English course offered in this College. English 099, the non credit course is not operated. Therefore, all students start with 151. Being the first course, it attempts to establish and improve basic skills in the areas of reading, listening, speaking and paragraph writing. The course is religiously oriented in order to suit the needs of Sharia students.

English 152 (3 credit-5 contact hours per week, prerequisite: English 151)

The objective of this course is to improve students' abilities in reading and writing at the paragraph level. Less concentration is given to listening and speaking. This course also aims at familiarising students with the vocabulary necessary to talk about Islam in English. Again, this course has a religious flavour. It exposes students to topics related to Islam.

The Sample of the Study

The sample investigated was drawn from three groups of University students who were taking required English courses during the first semester (term) 1992-1993.

Group 1 comprised Kuwait University undergraduates enrolled in the College of Arts where Arabic is the medium of instruction. The total number of Arts students is 143. 19 students were in English 099, 20 students were in English 131, 70 students were in English 132, 21 students were in English 133, 7 students were in English 134, and 6 students were in English 135.

Group 2 comprised Kuwait University undergraduates studying at the College of Science where English is used as a medium of instruction. The total number of Science students is 143. 40 students were from English 097, 35 students were from English 098, 35 students were from English 161, and 33 students were from English 162.

Group 3 comprised Kuwait University undergraduates enrolled in the College of Sharia and Islamic studies where Arabic is the medium of instruction. The total number of Sharia students is 123. 76 students were from English 151, and 47 students were from English 152.

The following two tables present the distribution of students by College and course.

Table 4: Distribution of Students by College

College	% of students
Arts	35.0
Science	35.0
Sharia	30.1 (percentages may not exactly equal 100% due to rounding up - and rounding down - by the computer)

Table 5: Distribution of Students by Course

Course	% of students
097	9.8
098	8.6
099	4.6
131	4.9
132	17.1
133	5.1
134	1.7
135	1.5
151	18.6
152	11.5
161	8.6
162	8.1

The sample investigated consisted of students who were studying different subjects. The following table portrays the subjects and the percentages of students.

Table 6: Subjects Studied and the Percentages of Students

Subjects studied	% of students
Arabic	6.9
History	4.9
Geography	3.7
Philosophy	1.2
Psychology	8.3
Sociology	9.8
Mathematics	5.4
Chemistry	2.9
Physics	4.4
Zoology	5.4
Botany & Microbiology	4.7
Geology	1.7
Biochemistry	1.0
Statistics	5.9
Computer	3.7
Islamic Studies	30.1

The total number of students in the research amounted to 409. Most of them were Kuwaities: (385 were Kuwaities and 24 were non Kuwaities). Also most of them were females: 343 students were females and 66 were males. 47.6% of the students were in their first year at the University, 26.1% of them were in their second year, 9.7% of them were in their third year and 16.6% of them were in their fourth year at the University. 20.8% of these students lived in Kuwait city, 27.6% of them were from Hawalli, 20.0% of them lived in Ahmadi, 7.8% were from Aljahra and 23.7% were from Farwania.

These three College groups were chosen because it was recognized that students in the Arabic medium Colleges had lower levels of achievement in English than students in the English medium Colleges. English doesn't have immediate importance to the students in the College of Arts because in this College, Arabic is the

medium of instruction. But it may be of importance to those who intend to take postgraduate studies abroad in an English speaking country, or to those who intend to have jobs that require a knowledge of English.

English has immediate importance to students in the College of Science because in this College, English is the medium of instruction. In addition to this, it is important for those who intend to take postgraduate studies or have jobs that require knowledge of English. Students of science have more contact with English native speakers because of the teaching staff. Many teachers in this College are native speakers of English.

English doesn't have immediate importance to students in the College of Sharia because in this College, Arabic is the medium of instruction. Even for those who intend to take postgraduate studies in Sharia, English is not important because they'll take their studies either in Egypt or in Saudi Arabia or any other Arabic country. Being very religious, the students in College of Sharia do not like Western habits. Some Sharia students believe that they should learn English in order to be able to spread Islam among English speaking people.

As a result, each group was expected to have different kinds of attitudes, orientations, motivations and reasons for learning the English language.

Methodology

The methodology used in this study is a survey questionnaire. This questionnaire consists of items taken from instruments used in previous studies. These items have been used in previous research studies (Gardner, 1979, Clement and Kruidenier, 1983; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner et al., 1983; Gardner 1985; Oller, Hudson and Liu, 1977; Chihara and Oller, 1978; Oller, Baca and Vigil, 1977; Albusairi, 1992; Spolsky, 1969; Gardner and Lambert, 1959; Tucker et al., 1976; Clement et al., 1977a; Gardner, Lalonde and Moorcroft, 1985; Bialystok and Frohlich, 1978; Glikzman, Gardner and Smythe, 1982; Naiman et al., 1978; Gardner, Smythe, Clement and Glikzman, 1976; Clement, Gardner and Smythe, 1980; Lukmani, 1972).

The questionnaire consists of several sections (see appendix 1):

1. **Section A:** requires personal details about the respondent.
2. **Section B:** asks the respondent "what do you think motivates you concerning class activities?"
3. **Section C:** asks the respondent "what do you think motivates you concerning instructional material?"
4. **Section D:** asks the respondent "what do you think motivates you concerning the role of the language teacher in class?"
5. **Section E:** asks the respondent "what do you think motivates you concerning methods of teaching?"
6. **Section F:** investigates the respondent's desire to learn English as a foreign language.
7. **Section G:** investigates the respondent's motivational intensity.
8. **Section H:** investigates the respondent's personal attitude toward learning English.
9. **Section I:** investigates the respondent's attitude toward the English language.
10. **Section J:** investigates the respondent's attitude toward native speakers of English.
11. **Section K:** investigates the respondent's purpose of studying English (orientation) .
12. **Section L:** investigates whether the respondent has anxiety in the English class.

13. **Section M:** asks the respondent's opinion about the place of learning English in Kuwaiti society.

The questionnaire, in Arabic and English, may be viewed in Appendix (1 & 2). The investigator modified and added items to make the questionnaire relevant and appropriate for the Kuwaiti students learning English as a foreign language.

Section A:

The first part of the questionnaire requires personal information: date of birth, grade point average (GPA), English level in the placement test, year of study, nationality, gender, type of school the respondent graduated from, the area lived in, fluency in the English language, the number of times a student has visited an English speaking country, the total time spent there, the number of hours spent watching English programmes on T.V., intentions after graduation and English course grade.

Section B, C, D and E:

The second part of the questionnaire asks what motivates students in terms of class activities, instructional material, the role of the language teacher in class and methods of teaching. The students indicate their response on a five point scale (prefer very much, prefer, do not know, prefer a little, do not prefer).

Section B:

Section B enquires as to what motivates students in varying class activities such as group work, pair work, using role play, using debates, playing games, telling stories, reading poetry, making advertisements and travel brochures and various other activities.

Section C:

This section asks the question "what motivates students in terms of instructional material?" Responses towards certain instructional materials such as newspapers in class, video films, cassettes, language laboratory and other materials are elicited in this section.

Section D:

Section D inquires about what motivates students in terms of the varying roles of the language teacher. Do students prefer the teacher who dominates the class, the teacher who gives frequent homework, the teacher who always corrects students' mistakes or the teacher who explains the lesson creatively?

Section E:

Section E requires students' response towards certain methods of teaching English such as: using Arabic in the English language class, emphasizing grammar, emphasizing communication, focusing on memorisation and other extra methods.

Section F : (Desire to Learn a Foreign Language)

This section comprises 8 multiple-choice items to measure the students' desire, want or need to learn the English language. This measure consists of questions such as:

-If I had the opportunity to speak English outside the University (e. g. in a restaurant or in the company with English Speakers), I would:

a-never speak English.

b-speak English most of the time.

c-communicate with them in Arabic in addition to using a few words of English.

-If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I:

a-would definitely take it.

b-would drop it.

c-don't know whether I would take it or not.

This measure is adapted from Gardner's (1985) "Desire to Learn French Scale".

Section G: (Motivational Intensity)

This scale involves eight multiple choice items to measure the strength of students' motivation to learn the English language. It investigates the effort students expend in learning English and their persistence in studying it. It involves questions such as:

-In studying English, I can honestly say that I:

a-do just enough work to get along.

b-will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work.

c-I try hard to learn English.

-Compared to my classmates in the English course I:

a-study harder than most students.

b-study as much as the other students.

c-study less than most students.

This measure is also adapted from Gardner's (1985) "Motivational Intensity Scale".

Sections H, I, and J: (Attitudinal Instruments)

The Attitudinal Instruments used in this research investigate students' attitudes toward learning the foreign language, students' attitudes toward the foreign language, and students' attitudes toward native speakers of the foreign language.

To investigate students' attitudes toward learning the foreign language, the researcher included items such as:

- I feel that learning English is useful for me.
- I enjoy learning English.
- Learning English is boring for me.

To investigate students' attitudes toward the foreign language, the researcher presented items such as:

- I find the English language interesting.
- I don't like speaking English.
- I find the English language difficult.

To find out students' attitudes toward native speakers of the foreign language, the investigator included items such as:

- I would like to meet native speakers of English.
- I have an unfavourable attitude towards English speakers.
- I like English speakers.

The students indicated their attitudes on a five point scale: (strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree).

This measure is adapted from Gardner and Lambert's (1972) motivational and attitudinal measure. Relevant statements were added by the researcher to fit the Kuwaiti context.

Section K: (Orientation Index)

This measure consists of a scale of 13 reasons why studying English is important. Some of these reasons reflect an instrumental orientation and others reflect an integrative orientation. Students indicate their response on a five point scale (strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree). Again this scale is adapted from Gardner and Lambert's (1959) motivational and attitudinal measure.

Examples of instrumental orientation included in the questionnaire are :

- To get a good job.
- Makes me a more educated person.

Examples of integrative orientation included in the questionnaire are:

- Allows me to integrate more with the English speakers when I travel abroad.
- Allows me to meet with varied people.

Section L: (Foreign Language Class Anxiety)

This scale comprises 20 items concerning students' feelings of anxiety or discomfort in the English class. Students indicate their response on a five point scale (strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree).

This scale contains items such as:

- I get nervous and confused when I am speaking English.
- I'm afraid of being pointed at by the teacher to answer.
- When I speak English in the class, I feel that my heart beat is increasing.

The measure of Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety is derived from several measures of Gardner (1985) , and Horwitz (1986). The scales were modified by the present researcher to make the scale appropriate for Kuwaiti students.

Section M: (Social Milieu)

This scale involves 21 items concerning the place of English in Kuwait society. Students gave their response on a five point scale (strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree).

This section presents items such as:

- There is no use in Kuwait for the English language.
- The English language is the language of prestige in Kuwait.
- There is no need to learn English in Kuwait.

Achievement measure:

To gauge students' achievement in English, the researcher included several questions which are presented below:

1. What is your GPA (grade point average)? (section A, Q2)
2. What is your level in the English placement test? (section A, Q3)
3. Rate how fluent are you in English compared with other University students? (section A, Q9)
4. If you have taken an English class before at the University, what was your grade? (grade in previous English class) (section A, Q14)
5. What was your grade in the mid-term exam in the English course you are taking now? (mid-term exam grade) (section A, Q15)
6. What was your final grade in the English course you are taking now? (course final grade) (section A, Q16)

A more detailed description of the achievement measures will now be presented.

1. GPA

GPA is the average students obtain in the General Secondary Education Certificate (GSEC) Examination. Students have 12 years of schooling which are divided into 3 stages: the elementary, intermediate and secondary. Each stage consists of four years. In the last two years of schooling students specialise either in Science or Arts. Science students take the following: Islamic education, Arabic, English, Mathematics, Physics, Chemistry and Biology. Students take exams in each subject. The final grade in all these subjects are added. Then, the average grade is calculated. Arts students take Islamic education, Arabic, English, French, Geography, History, Philosophy and Psychology from which their average grade is calculated.

The researcher considered students whose GPA is from 90 to 100 as Grade A, 'excellent students', from 75 to 89 as Grade B, 'very good students', from 68 to 74 as Grade C, 'good students', and from 60 to 67 as Grade D, 'pass students'. This is similar to the grading system used in Kuwait University. GPA is not students' grade point average in English only. English is just one subject among other subjects from which the students' average grade is calculated.

2. English placement test (EPT)

At the beginning of each semester, the Language Centre produces placement tests for all incoming students. The main aim of this procedure is to assess the English language proficiency of the students so that they are allocated to foreign language courses that are compatible with their language proficiency. If the students fail, they have to take one or more remedial courses which are not credited. For example, students in College of Arts take EPT. If they fail this test, they are required to take 099 which is the remedial, non-credit English course. Until these students' English improves, they are allowed to take the next English credit course, 131. Other students may be placed directly in English 131, 132 or 133. It depends on their language

standard. If they have low language standard, they'll be placed in low level courses and if they have high language standards, they'll be placed in more advanced courses.

The same occurs with students in the College of Science. When students take EPT and fail, they are required to start with the remedial non-credit course English 097 or English 098 or both of them. The level of English 097 is lower than English 098. According to the students' language proficiency, they are placed either in low level courses or high level courses. Students may be placed directly in English 161 or English 162.

The treatment of students from Sharia and Islamic studies is different. They are not required to take EPT, therefore their language proficiency is unknown. They also do not have non-credit English courses. They start directly with credit courses: English 151 and English 152.

This matter raises a problem in the research. The language proficiency of the students from College of Science and Arts is known. But the language proficiency of the students from College of Sharia is not known. Therefore, EPT will not be used in this study as an achievement measure.

3. Rate how fluent are you in English compared with other University students?

Students were required to rate themselves as near the top, better than average, about average, below average or near the bottom. The problem with this kind of measurement is that it is not objective but subjective. Some students may be over-confident and perceive themselves as being fluent and near the top while they are not! Others may be very fluent and near the top but lack confidence. Their ratings will be low. Therefore, the research cannot depend solely on this kind of achievement measure.

4. If you have taken an English class before at the University, what was your grade?

Many students left this question unanswered because many of them have not taken an English class before, and others have forgotten the grades they obtained previously.

5. What was your grade in the mid-term exam in the English course you are taking now?

6. What was your English course final grade?

The course final grade consists of: (a) a grade for course work that contributes 20% of the course grade. (b) a mid term exam grade that contributes 30% of the course grade. (c) a final exam grade that contributes 50% of the course grade.

The grades for course work are given for performance on quizzes, reports, homework and students' participation in class. The final grade for each course is reached by adding the course work grade to the mid-term and final exam grades. Therefore, the mid-term exam grade is not as good and comprehensive as the course final grade because it doesn't include the grade for course work. The course final grade is calculated on the same system used to calculate students' GPA (see appendix 3).

Language

The questionnaire was initially written in English. Following a series of draft versions, it was presented to students in Arabic, their first and dominant language. The Arabic and English versions may be viewed in Appendix (1 & 2). The language of presentation may affect response. In this case, the effect would be very slightly less favourable attitudes to English. However, it was felt important to allow students to respond in their stronger language.

Pilot Study

At the middle of the first semester of 1992, the questionnaire was typed and was ready to be piloted. It was tried out on 14 students who study English offered by the Language Centre in the English Unit of School of Education at Kuwait University. Those students were chosen because they are similar to those who later formed the sample of the study.

Through piloting the questionnaire, the researcher obtained information about the time students needed to answer the questionnaire; whether the instructions were clear or not; whether the questions were clear or ambiguous, and students' opinion and comments about the questionnaire. This enabled a more 'student friendly' final version.

Procedure

The researcher made arrangements with University administrators to conduct the survey. The researcher contacted the Language Centre to gain permission to attend the English language classes personally. The Language Centre informed the English language Units about the researcher's wish and asked them to co-operate.

At the end of the first semester 1992-1993, the investigator attended the foreign language classes and distributed the Arabic version of the questionnaire to students from the College of Science who were taking English 097, 098, 161 and 162, to students from the College of Arts who were taking English 099, 131, 132, 133, 134 and 135, and to students from the College of Sharia and Islamic studies who were taking English 151 and 152.

The researcher attended the English classes to distribute the questionnaires personally. She encouraged them to help by putting maximum effort into answering the questionnaire fully and honestly. By attending personally, the researcher could answer students' questions about the questionnaire and explain any items students didn't understand. Students were very helpful and co-operative.

Subjects were told that the purpose of the study was to improve language teaching in Kuwait University. They were asked to answer all the questions as accurately and as fully as possible. Also, they were informed that all answers would be anonymous and totally confidential.

Students were given 45 minutes to complete the questionnaire. These questionnaires were collected and checked quickly by the researcher to make sure that the students didn't miss questions or failed to answer some of them.

When the first semester 1992-1993 finished, the students' final grades in the English courses appeared. The researcher wrote on each student's questionnaire the final grade each student obtained in the English course.

Conclusion

This chapter has introduced the research aims and methodology. The chapter has also portrayed the Kuwaiti context where the research was conducted. Since English is considered a foreign language in Kuwait, the way English is taught at schools and at the University is detailed as well as the role of the University Language Centre. The chapter has discussed the sample of students in the study, the College they enrolled in and the English courses they are taking. The survey methodology used to collect data has been defined, the questionnaire introduced and the procedure of distribution described. The next chapter provides an analysis of the data emanating from the questionnaire.

Chapter Five

Analysis Of The Results (1)

(of the first piece of research)

Section One

Introduction

The chapter consists of two sections. Section One analyses the overall results from all students as a way of understanding basic trends in the data. Presenting the frequencies at this stage is important because they provide a basic portrayal of students' preferences, attitudes and ideas towards the research issues. The questionnaire consists of sections, and the results of each section will be presented in turn (see appendix 4 for full details of frequencies). In Section Two, the investigator carries out a latent variable analysis on the items in each section of the questionnaire.

The results of this chapter derive from a statistical analysis of the data from the questionnaire. The statistical analyses were performed using SPSS (The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences). The code book for these statistical analyses is given in Appendix 5.

The Frequencies

Section A: Personal details

The total number of the subjects under investigation amounted to 409. 94.1% of them were Kuwaities and 84.1% of them were females. The sample comprised University students enrolled in three Colleges: 143 of students were from the College of Arts, 143 were from the College of Science and 123 were from the College of

Sharia. Students were taking English courses during the first semester 1992 - 1993 (for more details about the distribution of students by course, major subjects, gender and nationality, see chapter four).

96.8% of respondents graduated from public schools; 0.5% of them were from private English schools; 0.2% of them graduated from private non English schools and 2.4% of them were from other schools.

When students were asked to rate themselves in terms of fluency in English compared with other University students, 18.8% of students said that they were near the top; 21.5% of them rated themselves as better than average; 43.0% of them expressed that they were about average; 11.2% of them mentioned that they were below average, and 5.4% of them said that they were near the bottom.

In terms of the number of visits the respondents had made to an English speaking country, 67.0% of students have never visited an English speaking country; 14.7% of them made one to two visits; 8.3% of them made three to five visits; 4.2% of them made five to ten visits and 5.9% of them had made over ten visits to an English speaking country.

When the respondents were asked about the total time they had spent in an English speaking country, 67.5% of them said 'none'; 3.2% of them had stayed for one week; 11.5% of them had spent two to four weeks; 6.8% of them had spent four to eight weeks there; 6.1% of them had stayed for two to six months; 1.0% lived for six months to a year there, and 3.9% of them lived in an English speaking country for over a year.

In terms of the average amount of time students spent watching the English channel on T.V. per week, 23.0% of students said that they don't watch it at all; 41.3% of them watch it for one to two hours; 22.7% of them spend two to five hours; 7.6% of them spend five to ten hours and 5.4% of them watch English language T.V. for over ten hours.

Concerning students' plans after graduation, 19.1% of students intend to take postgraduate studies in Kuwait; 9.5% of students want to commence postgraduate studies abroad at an English speaking University; 6.8% of them plan to obtain postgraduate studies at an Arabic University, while 14.3% of students plan to get a job that requires knowledge of English, and 50.3% of them want to get a job that does not require knowledge of English.

Regarding students' English grade in previous course (see table 7), 18.7% of students obtained (P) which means that they passed the non-credit English course; 15.4% of them obtained a C grade (good) and 13.0% of them received a B (very good) in their previous English course. Concerning students' Mid - term English grade in the course they are taking presently, 18.1% of them were awarded a C (good) and 15.6% of them received a B (very good) . The results of students' final English grades in the present course show that 16.5% of students obtained a C (good) and 13.7% of them awarded a B (very good).

The table below represents frequencies of students' grades in English.

Table 7: Frequencies of students' grades in English

	English grade in previous course %	Mid-term English grade %	Final English grade %
A	9.3	3.8	3.0
A-	9.3	5.9	10.2
B+	9.3	10.0	8.0
B	13.6	15.6	13.7
B-	4.2	15.6	11.7
C+	9.8	7.0	11.5
C	15.4	18.1	16.5
C-	3.3	5.9	7.5
D+	2.3	1.9	4.0
D	2.8	8.1	8.2
F (Fail)	1.9	7.8	5.7
P (Pass non-credit course)	18.7	0.3	0.0

Note: Figures in bold indicate modal responses.

Such background results show that most of the respondents were females and Kuwaities. 96.8% of them graduated from public schools which means that their English is not as fluent as graduates from English schools. Many of them have never visited an English speaking country where they can hear, use and communicate in the English language and meet with native speakers of English. 41.3% of students watch English programmes on T.V. for one to two hours per week which is short time. 50.3% of them intend to get a job that doesn't require knowledge of English. This shows that knowledge of English is not important for their career after graduation. English is not part of their future plans. In terms of students' fluency in English, most of the students rated themselves as being 'about average'. Even the results of their grades in previous course, their mid - term grade in their present English course and their final English grade, show that most of the students obtain between C (good) and B (very good) which also means that their English proficiency is 'about average'.

Section B: What motivates students concerning class activities and the class environment

Section B of the questionnaire asked students about what motivated them in class activities and the class environment. 26 items were listed and students were invited to respond on a five point scale (prefer very much; prefer; do not know; prefer a little; do not prefer). The results for all students are given in percentages in the table below.

Table 8: Frequencies of response to class activities and the class environment

		Prefer very much %	Prefer %	Do not know %	Prefer a little %	Do not Prefer %
1	Group work	26.2	31.9	10.1	17.8	14.1
2	Pair work	29.5	30.3	6.0	19.9	14.4
3	Individual work	11.3	10.8	7.3	23.6	47.1

4	Using role play	25.5	36.4	15.2	13.1	9.8
5	Students travelling abroad to learn the language	44.7	15.8	7.9	10.4	21.2
6	Students using the language in class as much as possible	60.9	22.2	3.2	10.3	3.4
7	The activities used encourage communication	69.4	20.4	2.0	6.4	1.7
8	Using debates	36.4	21.9	12.5	17.2	12.0
9	Play games	52.1	22.5	7.1	13.4	4.9
10	Tell stories	34.6	27.9	6.6	20.6	10.3
11	Read poetry	13.3	16.5	10.8	22.4	37.1
12	Write a diary	17.5	28.1	12.8	21.5	20.0
13	Make advertisements	17.0	31.2	13.0	24.6	14.3
14	Write newspapers articles (reports)	14.5	22.4	16.5	22.9	23.8
15	Write letters	25.5	30.6	8.6	22.3	13.0
16	Make travel brochures	18.6	27.9	13.2	21.3	19.1
17	Listen to songs	13.8	14.3	5.4	18.3	48.1
18	Have trips outside the University, to museums, exhibitions, markets, through which the talk is in English	42.6	23.4	7.1	11.8	15.0
19	Conduct a project in English, (e.g. a radio programme in English)	25.7	27.7	15.3	16.0	15.3
20	Tests	21.3	33.4	7.9	22.3	15.1
21	The chairs organised in a circle	25.2	20.0	19.2	13.0	22.7
22	The chairs organised in rows	16.0	26.0	13.3	20.4	24.1
23	The class room containing a library of English books, magazines, travel brochures and stories	33.8	30.6	9.8	18.6	7.1

24	The class has less than fifteen students	46.1	25.7	11.3	9.3	7.6
25	The class is well air conditioned	74.1	20.0	3.4	2.4	0.0
26	The class is well furnished	67.0	22.0	3.2	7.1	0.7

Students' main preference was for a well air conditioned and well furnished classroom. Given that Kuwait is hot and dry, it is of great importance to students to have suitable environmental conditions. 69% of students wanted class activities to encourage communication. This is closely followed by 61% of students who wanted the English language to be used in class as much as possible. This reflects a preference among Kuwaiti students for a communicative approach to language teaching. The table also suggests that students enjoy playing language games and having trips outside University. 45% of students were also keen to travel abroad to learn English.

There were three items which students didn't prefer: listening to songs, working on their own and reading poetry. Students didn't prefer listening to songs because from a religious, Islamic point of view, listening to songs is not permissible.

Section C: Preferences about instructional material

Section C of the questionnaire asked students about what they preferred concerning instructional material. This section contained a scale of ten items. The first six items were listed and students were invited to respond on a five point scale (prefer very much; prefer; do not know; prefer a little; do not prefer). On the next four items, students were asked to respond on a five point scale (strongly agree / SA; agree / A; neither agree nor disagree / NAND; disagree / D; strongly disagree / SD). The results for all students are given in percentages in the table below.

Table 9: Frequencies of response to the instructional material

		Prefer very much %	Prefer % %	Do not know %	Prefer a little %	Do not prefer %
1	Using English newspapers in class	18.4	32.7	9.1	24.6	15.2
2	Using video films	36.7	21.7	5.2	15.3	21.2
3	Using the language laboratory	26.5	28.5	20.8	14.4	9.9
4	Using cassettes	24.0	27.7	5.7	24.7	18.0
5	Using pictures and drawings in class	34.1	31.4	5.9	15.3	13.3
6	Using computer programs (in the future)	58.0	20.9	5.7	7.9	7.6
		SA %	A %	NAND %	D %	SD %
7	The instructional material should be interesting	74.7	23.6	1.2	0.5	0.0
8	The instructional material should suit students' needs	71.0	26.5	2.5	0.0	0.0
9	The course book should be suitable to the students' level of ability	81.7	17.6	0.5	0.2	0.0
10	The course book should be neither easy nor difficult	55.3	29.0	3.9	5.4	6.4

Students strongly agreed that the course book should be suitable to the students' level of ability and to their needs and should be neither easy nor difficult. They also strongly agreed that the instructional material should be interesting.

In general students preferred to use different types of instructional materials. 65.5% of students preferred using pictures and drawings in class. 58% of students

very much preferred using computer programs (in the future) in the language class. Computer programs are not currently used in Kuwaiti language classes. Students expressed such a response because they are curious to try out the new technology to learn English. 55.0% of students preferred using the language laboratory; 36.7% of students very much preferred using video films in class and 32.7% of students preferred using English newspapers in class.

Section C is different from section B. Section B asks for students' response towards class activities while section C asks for their response towards the instructional material used in class. For example, in section B, students are asked about their attitudes toward writing newspapers articles as an activity while in section C, students are asked about their attitudes toward using the newspaper as an instructional material (e.g. for providing topics for discussion or ideas to write about).

Section D: Preferred role of the teacher

Section D of the questionnaire asks students about their preference for the role of the language teacher. In this section, students were given 12 items concerning the role of the language teacher in class and were asked to rate each item on a five point scale (prefer very much; prefer; do not know; prefer a little; do not prefer). The results for all students are listed in percentages in the table below.

Table 10: Frequencies of response to the role of the language teacher

		Prefer very much %	Prefer %	Do not know %	Prefer a little %	Do not prefer %
1	The teacher dominates the class	2.5	4.2	2.2	8.8	82.4
2	The teacher encourages the student to speak English	77.3	17.1	0.2	4.9	0.5
3	The teacher gives frequent homework	12.5	20.0	3.2	37.4	26.9

4	The teacher gives every student the chance to talk in English in class	60.6	29.3	2.0	6.8	1.2
5	The teacher always corrects students' mistakes	57.9	25.4	3.4	11.5	1.7
6	The teacher gives the students the chance to choose the curriculum that is appropriate to their needs	45.2	24.7	13.0	10.8	6.4
7	The teacher explains the lesson creatively	61.3	24.3	6.1	5.1	3.2
8	The teacher has a relationship that is based on love and understanding between him/her and his/her students	87.8	8.1	1.0	2.9	0.2
9	The teacher is efficient	87.3	9.8	1.2	1.7	0.0
10	The teacher is a native speaker of English	37.3	21.9	5.9	20.1	14.7
11	The teacher enjoys teaching English	67.9	22.5	5.1	4.2	0.2
12	The teacher is flexible with students	87.3	11.0	0.2	1.5	0.0

Students' main preference was for a teacher who has a relationship with them that is based on love and understanding, and a teacher who is efficient and flexible with them. This reflects that students do not only want someone to teach them and supply them with knowledge. They also need someone who shows them love, understanding and flexibility, someone they like and feel comfortable with.

In addition to this, 77.3% of students very much preferred a teacher who encourages them to speak English and 60.6% of them very much liked a teacher who gives them the chance to talk in English in class. On the other hand, 82.4% of students didn't prefer the teacher who dominates the class. This shows that students in Kuwait prefer a communicative approach to language teaching. Students request language classes where they get a full chance to participate and use the language in class and where the image of the authoritative, dominating teacher disappears.

67.9% of the students expressed their strong preference for the teacher who enjoys teaching English and 61.3% of them preferred the teacher who explains the lesson creatively. However, 37.4% of students preferred 'a little' the teacher who gives frequent homework.

Section E: Preferred methods of teaching

Students were given nine items concerning methods of teaching and were asked to rate them on a five point scale (prefer very much; prefer; do not know; prefer a little; do not prefer). The results for all the students are portrayed in percentages in the table below.

Table 11: Frequencies of response to methods of teaching

		Prefer very much %	Prefer %	Do not know %	Prefer a little %	Do not prefer %
1	The language teacher uses Arabic in the English language class	12.5	15.4	3.4	37.5	31.1
2	The emphasis is on grammar more than anything else	29.7	29.9	5.6	23.3	11.5
3	The teacher explains in English only	18.7	22.9	2.9	27.3	28.3
4	The emphasis is on communication more than anything else	38.6	32.7	4.4	16.0	8.4
5	The emphasis is on reading and writing in English only	17.2	26.6	7.4	21.7	27.1
6	The emphasis is on listening and speaking in English only	16.9	20.8	9.5	23.7	29.1
7	The emphasis is on all aspects of English	61.1	21.3	3.7	11.5	2.4
8	The focus is on memorising not understanding the language taught in class	1.7	1.7	2.9	3.9	89.7
9	Bring in an outside English speaker to talk to the class from time to time	21.6	24.1	19.2	18.2	17.0

Students' opinions were ambiguous about the distribution of emphasis on aspects of English like grammar; listening and speaking, and reading and writing in the English class. In terms of emphasis on grammar, 29.7% of students preferred it 'very much', 29.9% of students 'preferred' it, and 23.3% of students preferred it 'a little'. In terms of emphasis on reading and writing in the English class, 26.6% of students 'preferred' it while 27.1% of students 'didn't prefer' it. In terms of emphasis on listening and speaking in the English class, 20.8% of students 'preferred' it while 29.1% of them 'didn't prefer' it. Their main preference was for having the emphasis on all aspects of English combined together. 61.1% of students very much preferred that all aspects of English be emphasised in the language class.

71.3% of students expressed their preference for communication being emphasised more than anything else, which supports the predirection for the communicative approach to language teaching. Also, 45.7% of students preferred having an outside English speaker to talk to them from time to time.

On the other hand, 89.7% of students strongly expressed their negative attitudes toward the method of teaching that focuses on memorisation, which reflects students' rejection of rote learning. Around 68.6% of students did not prefer using Arabic in the English language class and 55.6% of them didn't like the teacher to explain in English only. Students didn't want to be taught predominantly in Arabic nor all in English, which means that they recommend a combination of Arabic and English be used in class. Students require bilingual methods of teaching to be implemented in the language class.

Section F: Students' want, desire and interest in learning English

In section F, students were invited to respond to eight multiple choice items that reflect their desire, want and interest in learning English. The results for all students are presented in percentages as follows:

Frequencies of response to the eight items

1. During an English class, I would like:
 - a to have a combination of Arabic and English spoken = 60.3%
 - b to have Arabic more than English = 2.0%
 - c to have only English spoken = 37.7%

2. If I had the opportunity to speak English outside the University (e.g., in a restaurant or in the company with English speakers), I would:
 - a never speak English = 2.5%
 - b speak English most of the time = 60.8%
 - c communicate with them in Arabic in addition to using a few words of English = 36.8%

3. Compared to my other courses, I like English:
 - a the most = 26.9%
 - b the same as all the others = 43.8%
 - c least of all = 29.3%

4. If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I:
 - a would definitely take it = 46.1%
 - b would drop it = 15.2%
 - c don't know whether I would take it or not = 38.7%

5. I find studying English:
 - a very interesting = 45.3%
 - b a little interesting = 42.4%
 - c not interesting at all = 12.3%

6. Concerning the English programmes shown on channel 2 on TV, I watch them:
 - a sometimes = 37.7%
 - b as often as possible = 43.4%
 - c never = 18.9%

7. If I have had a servant who speaks English, I would:
 - a never speak English with her = 6.1%
 - b sometimes speak English with her = 55.9%
 - c always speak English with her = 38.0%

8. Concerning the English newspapers and magazines, I read them:
- a as often as possible = 10.5%
 - b sometimes = 32.5%
 - c never = 57.0%

Students' response to four of the above items shows that students have a strong desire to, and interest in learning English. 60.8% of them said that they would speak English most of the time if they had the opportunity to speak English outside the University (e.g. in a restaurant or in a company with English speakers). 46.1% of students said that they would definitely take English, if it were up to them whether or not to take it. 45.3% of students expressed that they find studying English very 'interesting' and 42.4% of them find it 'a little interesting'. 43.4% of students mentioned that they watch English programmes shown on T.V. as often as possible.

Students also expressed moderate positive responses to another three items in section F that reflect their desire to learn English. 43.8% of them said that, compared to their other courses, they like English the same as the other courses; 55.9% of students pointed out that if they had a servant who speaks English, they would sometimes speak English with her; and 60.3% of them expressed that, during an English class, they would like to have a combination of Arabic and English spoken. However, 57.0% of them said that they never read English newspapers and magazines.

Section G: Students' motivational intensity

In section G, students were invited to respond to eight multiple choice items that reflect the degree of effort they expend in learning English and their persistence in studying it. The results for all students are shown in percentages as follows:

Frequencies of response to the eight items

1. If English were not taught in University, I would:
 - a pick up English by watching channel 2 or reading English Newspapers = 33.0%
 - b not bother learning English at all = 14.2%
 - c try to obtain lessons in English private institutes = 52.8%

2. When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I:
 - a immediately ask the teacher for help = 81.9%
 - b only seek help just before the exam = 12.7%
 - c never ask for help = 5.4%

3. When it comes to English homework, I:
 - a put some effort into it, but not as much as I could = 39.6%
 - b put a lot of effort into it = 56.7%
 - c don't put any effort into it = 3.7%

4. In studying English, I can honestly say that I:
 - a do just enough work to get along = 30.6%
 - b will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work = 19.6%
 - c try hard to learn English = 49.9%

5. When I am in an English class, I:
 - a always participate by raising my hand to answer questions = 33.8%
 - b sometimes participate by raising my hand to answer questions = 49.5%
 - c rarely say anything = 16.7%

6. Compared to my classmates in the English course, I:
 - a study harder than most students = 11.2%
 - b study as much as the other students = 69.7%
 - c study less than most students = 19.1%

7. During the English class, I:
 - a concentrate on what is said in class = 51.3%
 - b sometimes become absent minded = 46.9%
 - c become absent minded most of the time = 1.7%

8. In terms of preparing for the English class
- a I always prepare by reading the material that will be taught in class = 17.8%
 - b I sometimes prepare by reading the material that will be taught in class = 57.7%
 - c I never prepare = 24.4%

Students' response to the five items in section G shows that they have a strong motivation to learn English. They expend a lot of effort in learning it; they try hard and have great persistence in studying it. 81.9% of students said that they immediately ask the teacher for help when they have a problem understanding something they are learning in English class; 56.7% of them expressed that when they have English homework, they put a lot of effort into it; 52.8% of students pointed out that if English were not taught in University, they would try to obtain lessons in English private institutes; 51.3% of students said that during the English class, they concentrate on what is said in class, and 49.9% of them mentioned that in studying English, they try hard to learn it.

Students also expressed moderate positive responses to the other items in section G that reflect their strength of motivation to learn English. 69.7% of students said that compared to their class mates in the English course, they study as much as the other students; 57.7% of them expressed that, in terms of preparing for the English class, they sometimes prepare by reading the material that will be taught in class and 49.5% of them mentioned that, when they are in an English class, they sometimes participate by raising their hands to answer questions.

Section H: Personal attitudes toward learning English

Section H of the questionnaire asked students about their attitudes toward learning English. 12 items were listed and students were invited to indicate their attitudes on a five point scale (strongly agree / SA ; agree / A; neither agree nor disagree / NAND; disagree / D; strongly disagree / SD). The results for all students are presented in percentages in the table below.

Table 12: Frequencies of attitudes to learning English

		SA %	A %	NAND %	D %	SD %
1.	I feel that learning English is useful for me	69.4	24.2	2.9	1.7	1.7
2.	I enjoy learning English	43.1	36.7	9.6	6.7	3.9
3.	Learning English is boring for me	3.9	8.6	10.1	35.2	42.1
4.	Learning English is an important part of my education	50.9	32.9	6.4	6.6	3.2
5.	I dislike learning English	4.9	5.2	7.9	27.0	55.0
6.	I would like to learn as much English as possible	58.4	27.3	5.7	6.2	2.5
7.	I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English	16.0	25.6	17.4	29.2	11.8
8.	I love learning English	47.3	36.0	6.6	6.4	3.7
9.	Learning English is a waste of time	2.0	2.9	5.9	29.8	59.4
10.	I plan to continue learning English	22.2	22.7	30.5	15.5	9.1
11.	It is of no benefit for me to learn English	1.2	2.2	5.1	30.8	60.6
12.	When I leave University, I shall give up the study of English entirely	8.3	8.6	33.7	21.8	27.6

The table above suggests That the dominant attitude is one of favourability towards learning English. There is a definite degree of positiveness towards learning English in Kuwait. Learning English is seen as useful, enjoyable, likable and important for them. Students agreed strongly on statements that support the learning of English, such as: learning English is useful for me; I would like to learn English as much as possible; learning English is an important part of my education; I love learning English and I enjoy learning English. Students disagreed strongly on statements that are against the learning of English, such as: it is of no benefit for me to learn English; learning English is a waste of time; I dislike learning English and learning English is boring for me. Such negative responses to negative statements

about learning English confirm that students are generally supportive of learning the English language. However, students feel unsure about their future plans concerning continuing or giving up the study of English.

Section I: Attitudes toward the English language

Section I of the questionnaire asked students about their attitudes toward the English language. 12 items were listed and students were invited to indicate their attitudes on a five point scale: (strongly agree / SA; agree / A; neither agree nor disagree / NAND; disagree / D; strongly disagree / SD). The results for all students were presented in percentages in the table below.

Table 13: Frequencies of attitudes toward the English language

		SA	A	NAND	D	SD
		%	%	%	%	%
1.	I find the English language interesting	39.4	40.1	9.5	5.9	5.1
2.	I don't like speaking English	4.7	10.6	7.6	44.2	32.9
3.	I like listening to the English language	38.9	47.5	5.2	4.0	4.5
4.	I find the English language difficult	11.1	19.9	14.0	41.0	14.0
5.	I feel sorry for those who are unable to speak English	24.8	39.6	16.2	11.1	8.4
6.	I don't like watching Channel Two on TV because it shows English only programmes	7.4	7.1	10.3	36.9	38.2
7.	I find the English language easy	12.1	41.6	15.1	21.3	9.9
8.	I prefer the English language to the Arabic language	9.9	9.6	12.8	35.5	32.3
9.	I find the English language boring	3.9	9.4	11.8	45.6	29.3
10.	I find speaking English is prestigious	22.6	32.5	13.4	16.9	14.6
11.	When I speak English, I feel that I'm more educated	29.9	38.2	11.5	9.3	11.0

12.	I hope to put my children in a private English school so that they speak English fluently	36.4	22.5	9.5	8.6	23.0
-----	---	------	------	-----	-----	------

The table above suggests that the dominant attitudes are in favour of the English language. There is again a definite degree of positiveness towards the English language in Kuwait. The English language is seen as interesting, easy, prestigious, likable and not boring. 79.5% of students find the English language interesting; 47.5% of students said that they like listening to the English language; 41.6% of them find the English language easy; 39.6% of them said that they feel sorry for those who are unable to speak English; 38.2% of students feel more educated when they speak English; 36.4% of them hope to put their children in private English schools and 38.2% of them find speaking English prestigious.

Students reflect their positiveness towards the English language by disagreeing on statements that are not in favour of the English language. 45.6% of students disagree with "I find the English language boring"; 44.2% of them disagree with "I don't like speaking English"; 41.0% of students disagree with "I find the English language difficult" and 38.2% of them strongly disagree with "I don't like watching English programmes on T.V." However, 67.8% of students disagree with the statement that says "I prefer the English language to the Arabic language". Through section I of the questionnaire, students show their very positive attitudes toward the English language, but not to the extent that they prefer it to their own Arabic language.

Section J: Attitudes toward native speakers of English

Section J of the questionnaire asked students about their attitudes toward native speakers of English. 24 items were listed and students were invited to indicate their attitudes on a five point scale: (strongly agree / SA; agree / A; neither agree nor disagree / NAND; disagree / D; strongly disagree / SD). The results for all students are presented in percentages in the table below.

Table 14: Frequencies of attitudes toward native speakers of English

		SA	A	NAND	D	SD
		%	%	%	%	%
1.	I would like to meet native speakers of English	31.1	44.0	11.2	7.6	6.1
2.	I have an unfavourable attitude towards English speakers	2.0	7.6	15.4	48.0	27.0
3.	I like English speakers	18.3	44.9	22.8	9.0	5.0
4.	English speakers are dishonest	3.2	8.4	48.0	29.1	11.3
5.	English speakers are hard workers	21.9	30.0	31.9	12.3	3.9
6.	English speakers are utilitarian	12.3	15.2	44.7	20.1	7.6
7.	English speakers are efficient	10.1	27.8	46.4	11.3	4.4
8.	English speakers are well mannered	18.3	34.7	31.3	12.2	3.4
9.	English speakers are unintelligent	2.7	5.6	43.9	37.3	10.5
10.	English speakers are unfriendly	2.7	11.7	35.7	38.6	11.2
11.	English speakers are polite	10.3	31.8	41.6	12.1	4.2
12.	English speakers have no morality	4.4	13.2	41.1	28.9	12.5
13.	English speakers are trustworthy	4.4	16.7	56.2	15.0	7.6
14.	English speakers are unclean	6.4	7.1	40.0	32.9	13.5
15.	English speakers are educated	13.2	37.0	34.1	11.0	4.7
16.	English speakers are very open	24.0	42.1	20.0	11.7	2.2
17.	English speakers respect human rights	11.8	30.1	32.8	17.6	7.6
18.	English speakers are corrupt	7.6	12.8	42.3	29.5	7.9
19.	English speakers are not cheerful	3.4	6.8	33.5	46.9	9.3
20.	English speakers are democratic	13.9	37.4	35.7	9.3	3.7
21.	English speakers are progressive in science	21.0	41.1	27.2	7.7	3.0

22.	English speakers are not kind	2.2	5.6	49.1	36.9	6.1
23.	English speakers like justice	6.9	28.3	45.2	13.3	6.4
24.	English speakers are not humorous	2.2	5.6	44.7	38.6	8.8

Students' response to the 24 items show that Kuwaiti students have favourable attitudes toward native speakers of English. Kuwaiti students like native speakers of English and see them as honest, hard workers, efficient, well mannered, intelligent, friendly, polite, clean, educated, cheerful, democratic, kind, progressive in science and humorous.

The table above shows that 48.0% of students disagree with the statement that says "I have an unfavourable attitude towards English speakers"; 44.9% of students express that they like English speakers and 44.0% of them also express that they would like to meet with native speakers of English which reflects a degree of positiveness towards English speakers.

41.1% of students believe that English speakers are progressive in science; 37.3% of students look at English speakers as intelligent and 37.0% of them agree that English speakers are educated which shows that Kuwaiti students admire English speakers intellectually and academically.

This may be because English speakers (mainly from U.S.A and U.K) helped to liberate Kuwait from the Iraqi invasion. 37.4% of students agreed that English speakers are democratic; 30.1% of students believed that English speakers respect human rights and 28.3% of them pointed out that English speakers like justice.

Moreover, 46.9% of students see English speakers as cheerful; 38.6% of them disagree with the statement that describes English speakers as not humorous, and 38.6% of students disagree with the statement that describes them as unfriendly. Thus, the dominant attitudes of Kuwaiti students are in favour of English speakers.

In section J of the questionnaire, the 'neither agree nor disagree' category is prominently used. This means that on many items, either students had neutral opinions or were uncertain about their attitudes toward native speakers of English. This may be because it is difficult to generalize. For example, it is difficult to consider all English speakers as corrupt, not kind or polite. There are some English speakers who are corrupt or not kind, and some other English speakers who are good and kind.

Section K: The purpose of studying English

Section K of the questionnaire asked students about their purpose in studying English. 13 items were listed and students were invited to respond on a five point scale: (strongly agree / SA; agree / A; neither agree nor disagree / NAND; disagree / D; strongly disagree / SD). The results for all students are given in percentages in the table below.

Table 15: Frequencies of response to the 13 items of the purpose of studying English

		SA	A	NAND	D	SD
		%	%	%	%	%
1.	Allows me to be more at ease in the English speaking community	18.9	28.9	11.5	24.0	16.7
2.	To get a good job	25.6	45.2	17.0	8.1	4.2
3.	Allows me to meet with varied people	32.2	53.0	8.9	4.0	2.0
4.	Makes me a more educated person	35.0	44.6	8.4	7.9	4.2
5.	Allows me to integrate more with the English speakers when I travel abroad	38.7	41.4	11.0	4.7	4.2
6.	Other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English	22.1	28.7	23.0	17.6	8.6
7.	Allows me to have more friends	24.4	43.8	18.5	8.4	4.9
8.	To continue my postgraduate studies at a foreign University	35.6	32.9	12.8	8.6	10.1

9.	Be able to participate more freely in the activities of English speaking cultural groups	24.4	38.3	21.2	9.6	6.4
10.	Enable me to communicate with my servants	28.9	60.5	3.9	3.9	2.7
11.	Enable me to read the English instructions written on medicines, goods and industrial imports	57.2	39.3	2.5	0.5	0.5
12.	Think and behave like English speaking people	17.4	24.8	20.1	23.3	14.3
13.	To pass my exams and graduate from the University	40.2	40.9	11.8	5.4	1.0

Section K includes 'instrumental' and 'integrative' orientations toward English. Students' response to section K reflects both instrumental and integrative orientations toward English. The utilitarian as well as the integrative value of the English language are strongly in evidence as the above table suggests.

First, in terms of the instrumental value of the language, students' response is as follows: At the University, students are required to take specific English courses, otherwise they wouldn't graduate. This is why 81.1% of students mention that it is important for them to study English to pass their exams and graduate from the University. Because most of Kuwaitis have servants who speak English, 60.5% of students agreed that studying English is important to them because it enables them to communicate with their servants. 57.2% of students expressed that learning English enables them to read English instructions written on medicine, goods and industrial imports. Most of the products available in Kuwait are imported from abroad. Consequently, details and instructions are mostly written in English and not Arabic. Therefore, knowing English will enable respondents to understand what's written. 45.2% of them confirm that studying English is important because it will be useful in getting a good job. In Kuwait, well paid jobs (e.g. in companies or banks) require a knowledge of English. 44.6% of students suggest that studying English is important because it makes them more educated.

Second, in terms of the integrative orientation towards English, the students' response is as follows: 53.0% of students think that knowledge of English is important for them because it allows them to meet with varied people. 43.8% of them stressed that it allows them to have more friends. Kuwaities travel abroad a lot. Therefore, 41.4% of them said that English is important because it allows them to integrate more with English speakers when they travel abroad. 38.3% of students expressed that studying English enables them to participate more freely in the activities of English speaking cultural groups, which again reflects an integrative orientation towards English.

Section L: Anxiety in the English class

Section L of the questionnaire invited students to respond to 20 items concerning their feelings of anxiety or discomfort in the English class. Students indicate their response on a five point scale: (strongly agree / SA; agree / A; neither agree nor disagree / NAND; disagree / D). The results for all students are given in percentages in the table below.

Table 16: Frequencies of response to the 20 items of anxiety in the English class

		SA	A	NAND	D	SD
		%	%	%	%	%
1.	I feel embarrassed when I volunteer answers in the English class	8.3	21.3	5.6	41.4	23.3
2.	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in the English class	6.9	20.7	10.3	37.7	24.4
3.	I feel that the other students speak English better than I do	9.4	27.8	17.0	33.3	12.6
4.	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking English	8.8	27.5	7.4	39.2	17.2
5.	I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English	10.4	19.5	8.1	39.0	23.0

6.	I think a lot about my answer before uttering it	25.2	49.3	5.4	15.9	4.2
7.	I always feel that what I'm going to say will be wrong	5.9	14.3	14.5	43.3	21.9
8.	I'm afraid of being pointed at by the teacher to answer	9.8	23.1	7.6	37.8	21.6
9.	When I speak English in the class, I feel that my heart beat increasing	13.3	24.6	7.6	35.0	19.5
10.	I often look at my watch hoping that time passes quickly	14.5	17.2	10.3	37.7	20.3
11.	I feel worried when the language teacher criticises me	14.3	29.0	8.6	31.0	17.2
12.	I become absent minded	3.7	10.8	9.6	47.7	28.3
13.	I find it difficult to concentrate	3.7	13.5	8.8	52.2	21.8
14.	I sometimes get a headache	2.7	16.7	8.6	44.0	28.0
15.	I move a lot in class without reasons	2.0	8.6	6.4	47.2	35.9
16.	When the language teacher asks me to answer, my mouth becomes dry	3.9	8.1	8.1	47.5	32.3
17.	I often become nervous	4.2	10.8	5.4	49.8	29.8
18.	I feel that other students look at me because I am not good at English	4.2	5.9	7.4	42.6	39.9
19.	Sometimes in class, when I read something I don't understand it; out of class, I understand it easily	10.5	26.5	10.3	34.1	18.6
20.	I tend to stutter in English	10.3	17.2	6.6	37.7	28.2

Students' response to the items in section L shows that they do not obtain feelings of anxiety or discomfort in the English class. In general, students express disagreement with the statements that reflect feelings of anxiety in the English class. As the table portrays: 52.2% of students disagree with the statement "I find it difficult to concentrate". 49.8% of students show disagreement with "I often become nervous".

47.7% of them do not seem to become absent minded in the English class. 47.5% of them disagree with "when the language teacher asks me to answer, my mouth becomes dry". 47.2% of them say that they don't move a lot in class without a reason. 44.0% of them do not feel that they get a headache in the English class. The statement: "I always feel that what I'm going to say will be wrong" does not apply to 43.3% of students. Similarly "I feel that other students look at me because I'm not good at English is a statement which doesn't apply to 42.6% of students. 41.4% of them do not feel embarrassed when they volunteer answers in the English class. 19 out of 20 items obtained "disagree" as the most frequently occurring category which suggests that students' feeling of anxiety doesn't particularly exist in the English class. However, 49.3% of students agree that they think a lot about their answer before uttering it, which is a normal reflective process people go through before giving answers.

Section M: Opinions about learning English in Kuwait society

In section M, students were asked to give their opinions about the place of learning English in Kuwait and about Kuwaities' attitudes toward the English language and were invited to respond to 21 items. Students gave their response on a five point scale: (strongly agree / SA; agree / A; neither agree nor disagree / NAND; disagree / D; strongly disagree / SD). The results for all students are given in percentages in the table below.

Table 17: Frequencies of students' response to the place of learning English In Kuwait society

		SA %	A %	NAND %	D %	SD %
1.	There is no use in Kuwait for the English Language	4.9	6.1	6.6	44.0	38.3
2.	The English language is the language of prestige in Kuwait	24.5	42.8	12.4	14.4	5.9

3.	There is no need to learn English in Kuwait	2.0	2.2	4.4	39.7	51.7
4.	Many Kuwaiti parents put their children in private English schools so that they will speak English fluently	35.4	35.4	10.8	11.5	6.9
5.	It is difficult for someone to learn the English language in Kuwait	4.9	13.5	9.1	52.6	19.9
6.	Talking in English is prestigious in Kuwait	18.2	31.5	21.4	17.5	11.3
7.	Learning English enables Kuwaities to communicate with others abroad	58.7	37.8	1.0	0.7	1.7
8.	The English Language in Kuwait will harm the Arabic language	10.8	15.2	16.0	43.2	14.7
9.	Graduates from private English schools in Kuwait deserve to gain better job opportunities than graduates from public schools	15.3	14.0	14.3	27.6	28.8
10.	Speaking in English shows that the speaker is from a high class in Kuwait	6.6	23.1	11.8	32.4	26.0
11.	Learning English will Westernise Arabs	11.5	15.7	17.4	35.9	19.4
12.	It is important to take postgraduate studies abroad in English	11.1	31.7	18.2	28.0	11.1
13.	More and more jobs in Kuwait (e.g. in banks, airport, companies) will require English language proficiency	38.1	49.6	5.4	4.9	2.0
14.	Learning English will harm the Islamic religion	5.2	6.9	14.3	47.3	26.4
15.	The English language is the language of science and technology in Kuwait	25.1	43.3	12.3	13.8	5.4
16.	Learning English enables Kuwaiti people to communicate with their servants	21.6	63.9	5.4	7.6	1.5
17.	To be an academic expert in Kuwait, you have to learn English	28.3	39.3	20.3	10.0	2.3
18.	Learning English means gaining Western habits that are not required by Arabs	2.0	4.7	11.3	44.8	37.2

19.	The fluent English speaker in Kuwait seems more educated than the non English speaker	17.4	34.4	16.0	22.4	9.8
20.	Even Kuwaiti parents of low income put their children in private schools so that their children speak English fluently	11.0	30.4	28.4	21.6	8.6
21.	Kuwait society is so proud of the Arabic language that it feels no need to learn English	7.4	9.1	17.4	46.6	19.6

The table above suggests that, **from the students' point of view**, the dominant Kuwaiti attitudes are in favour of the English language in Kuwait society. There is a definite degree of positiveness toward learning English in Kuwait. Kuwaities see English as useful, prestigious and academic.

Most Kuwaities have servants (mainly from the Phillipines, India and Srilanka) who speak English. Therefore, 63.9% of students agree that learning English enables Kuwaiti people to communicate with their servants. Having very hot weather in summer in Kuwait encourages Kuwaities to travel abroad a lot, where they need to use the English language. As a result, 58.7% of students strongly agree that learning English enables Kuwaities to communicate with others abroad.

52.6% of students do not think that it is difficult for someone to learn the English language in Kuwait. 51.7% of students strongly disagree about that there is no need to learn English in Kuwait. 46.6% of them do not believe that Kuwait society is so proud of the Arabic language to the extent that it feels no need to learn English, and 82.3% of them do not agree that there is no use in Kuwait for the English language. In the contrary, 49.6% of students strongly agree that more and more jobs in Kuwait (e.g. in banks, airport, companies) will require English proficiency. Students' response reflects their strong belief in the instrumental importance of the English language in Kuwait society.

47.3% of students do not believe that learning English in Kuwait will harm the Islamic religion; 43.2% of them do not think that English will harm the Arabic language; and 44.8% of them point out that learning English does not mean gaining Western habits that are not required by Arabs. Students' response to these three items reflect their positive attitudes toward learning English in terms of its effect on Islam, the Arabic language and in terms of Westernisation.

Students believe that the English language has educational prestige in Kuwait society. This is obvious from their response to several items in section M. 43.3% of students supported the item: "the English language is the language of science and technology in Kuwait"; 42.8% of them also stressed that English is the language of prestige in Kuwait; 39.3% of them expressed that if one wants to be an academic expert in Kuwait, he / she has to learn English, and 70.8% of students pointed out that many Kuwaiti parents put their children in private English schools to speak English fluently.

Students' response to 19 items out of the 21, shows, from the students' viewpoint, that Kuwait society values and regards the English language highly. However 56.4% of respondents disagree on the statement "graduates from private English schools in Kuwait deserve to gain better job opportunities than graduates from public schools". This may be because 94.1% of the respondents graduated from public schools while only 0.5% of them were from private English schools. Thus, many students do not like the bias towards graduates from English schools and against them in terms of job opportunities. Furthermore, 32.4% of students disagree with "speaking in English shows that the speaker is from a high class".

While section M has a degree of similarity to sections H and I, there are differences of focus. Sections' H and I aim is to find out students' personal attitudes towards learning English as well as the English language as a construct, while section M's aim is to find out Kuwaiti society's attitudes toward English, through the students' response. Section M is an attempt to understanding the social milieu: the cultural beliefs that dominate the context in Kuwait, concerning the English language.

Conclusion of Section One

In this chapter so far, the frequencies were presented to show the direction of students' response towards a given item. The trends of the data can be summarized as follows: In section B of the questionnaire, students' main preference was for a well air conditioned and well furnished language classrooms. Students preferred communicative cooperative class activities. In section C, students preferred the instructional material to be interesting and suitable for them. They liked using different types of instructional materials in class. From section D, it is clear that students prefer a loving, understanding, flexible and non authoritative teacher who applies the communicative approach to language teaching. In section E, the dominant preference of students was towards the communicative approach and bilingual methods to language teaching, and neglecting the methods that depend on memorisation and rote learning. Students' response to items in section F reflects their strong desire and interest in learning English. Section G reflects their strong motivation to learn English by expending considerable effort in learning it. In sections H, I and J, there was a definite degree of positiveness towards the English language, towards learning it and towards the native speakers. Students' response to section K reflects both instrumental and integrative orientations toward English. The frequencies in section L imply that students do not have feelings of anxiety or discomfort in the English class. Finally, the response to section M shows, from the students' point of view, that the dominant attitudes Kuwaities have, are in favour of the English language in Kuwait.

With 195 variables in the database, analyses of, for example, age, College, geographical area and gender trends in the results cannot proceed without data reduction among the attitudinal variables. Hence, the next section of this chapter proceeds to consider data reduction of the attitudinal variables via latent variable analysis.

Section Two

Introduction

The questionnaire consists of 13 sections: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L and M (see Appendix 1). Each section contains a scale of a number of items. The researcher investigated whether the items within each scale were measuring one or two or more entities to find out if the scale is unidimensional or multidimensional.

The statistical process is to submit the items of the scale to a latent variable analysis. The outcome of latent variable analysis will indicate whether there are one or more dimensions to the scale. The process also presents a latent variable score for each student on the dimensions. This score is based on a weighting of items which provides and increases consistency, discrimination and validity (Baker, 1992). Regarding this technique, Baker (1992: 56) writes "the preferable term for the resulting scale is a latent variable rather than a factor scaleThis term accurately conveys the idea that some thing underlying is being measured. The phenomena being considered are hypothetical. The term latent variable contains the idea that a representation has been assembled from a variety of indicators, of a hypothetical, underlying variable".

Latent Variable Analyses

Summary of the Procedure

For this research, the investigator carried out a latent variable analysis (also historically called factor analysis) on the statements in each section of the questionnaire, as mentioned earlier, to find out the possible underlying pattern of relationship amongst the statements and to establish commonality amongst the various statements. Factor analysis aims to classify, correlating all items with one another and grouping them into categories. Applying factor analysis will ensure unidimensionality of individual factors and ensure that the items measure the same entity.

The items in each section were entered into the factor analysis which grouped them into various categories of highly related statements. Statements in each dimension have loadings. The higher the loadings, the greater the weighting the variable has on that dimension. Squaring the loadings and then summing them provides the eigenvalue. The eigenvalue shows the amount of variance a dimension has contributed to the total variance of all the items in each section of the questionnaire.

The researcher has to decide on the number of factors to be extracted. This procedure can be aided by drawing a Scree graph with the eigenvalue plotted against the factor number. The number of factors which appear before the straight line (s) (the scree or screes) is regarded as the number of factors to be extracted. As an additional attempt to locate the best solution, one, two, three, four and five solutions were extracted for the items in each section to see which solution is the most interpretable. A comparison of these solutions was conducted. Much deliberation, and close inspection of the Scree test, directed the researcher toward the most appropriate solution.

Test Results

The respondents were required to tick the appropriate box in the questionnaire according to the degree of their agreement or disagreement with an attitude statement. The raw scores were first coded as part of the data preparation. They were then fed into the computer, applying SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) for analysis. The factor analysis started with the calculation of Pearson correlations. This resulted in a matrix of coefficients for the variables to be analysed. Consequent to the production of correlation matrix, the eigenvalue was calculated to produce the Scree test (Cattell, 1966). Factors were then rotated according to Varimax criteria. The Varimax method used in this computer package is the "Orthogonal" method whereby the matrix from the initial factor solution is rotated to get a more interpretable solution. Finally, the computer program produced a matrix with loadings of all the statements on extracted factors. Statements with significant loadings were arranged in descending

order and analysed. The minimum value of significance was determined by referring to Child's table C2 (Child, 1970: 100) based on Burt - Banks formula (Child, 1970: 97). Variables with low loadings were neglected, while those with high loadings were considered for inspection. Low loadings reflect that statements may lack reliability or are specific, idiosyncratic or unique.

The use of latent variable analysis resulted in the following scales:

Section B

Section B contains a scale of 26 items regarding what students prefer in terms of class activities and the class environment. These 26 items were submitted to latent variable analysis. Analysis of the Scree Test (see Appendix 6) and inspection of different rotated solutions suggested the presence of three dimensions. The first dimension is listed below with item weightings above 0.40; the second dimension is listed below with item weightings above 0.35 and the third dimension is listed below with item weightings above 0.30. Determination of the cut off point for loadings was guided by the Burt-Banks formula and reference to Baker (1992).

Dimension 1 (Factor 1): Name: Preference for Active Literacy

V34	Write newspapers articles	0.78
V35	Write letters	0.73
V33	Make advertisements	0.70
V36	Make travel brochures	0.66
V32	Write a diary	0.65
V39	Conduct a project in English	0.64
V31	Read poetry	0.56
V30	Tell stories	0.53
V38	Have trips outside the University	0.48

(Note: V34, V35 etc. refers to the coding of variables used in the statistical analysis - see coding book in Appendix 5. 0.78, 0.73 etc. refers to the item weightings).

Dimension 2 (Factor 2): Name: **Preference for Active Oracy**

V27	The activities used encourage communication	0.70
V26	Students using the language in class as much as possible	0.63
V28	Using debates	0.46
V30	Tell stories	0.39
V29	Play games	0.35

Dimension 3 (Factor 3): Name: **Preference for Structure in the Language Class**

V22	Pair work	0.49
V23	Individual work	0.48
V41	The chairs organised in a circle	0.47
V46	The class is well furnished	0.39
V21	Group work	0.38
V45	The class is well air conditioned	0.37
V42	The chairs organised in rows	0.35
V38	Have trips outside the University	0.30

Section: C

Section C contains a scale of ten items regarding what students prefer concerning the instructional materials.

The ten items regarding what students prefer in terms of instructional materials in section C of the questionnaire were submitted to latent variable analysis. Analysis of the Scree Test (see Appendix 7) and inspection of different rotated solutions, suggested that the ten items best fitted one dimension. One latent variable only was found, with six out of the ten items loading over 0.40. The items excluded by virtue of their low loadings were items seven, eight, nine and ten (see Appendix 1, section C).

The highest loadings were found on the following items:

Dimension 1 (One latent variable): Name: **Attitude to Instructional Material**

V49	Using the language laboratory	0.55
V50	Using cassettes	0.54
V51	Using pictures and drawings in class	0.49
V47	Using English newspapers in class	0.47
V48	Using video films	0.44
V52	Using computer programs(in the future)	0.43

Sections: D, E, F and G

Section D contains a scale of 12 items regarding what students prefer the role of the language teacher to be. Section E contains a scale of nine items concerning what students prefer in terms of methods of teaching. Section F contains a scale of eight items that reflect students' want or desire to learn English. Section G contains a scale of eight items that reflect the effort students spend in learning English.

These 37 items in sections D, E, F and G were submitted to latent variable analysis. Analysis of the Scree Test (see Appendix 8) and inspection of different rotated solutions suggested the presence of four dimensions. The first dimension is listed below with item weightings above 0.40, the second dimension is listed below with item weightings above 0.35, the third dimension is listed below with item weightings above 0.30 and the fourth dimension is listed below with item weightings above 0.30.

Dimension 1 (Factor 1): Name: **Students' Desire to Learn English**

V80 Compared to my other courses, I like English 0.67

- 1- the most
- 2- the same as all the others
- 3- least of all

V82	I find studying English	0.64
	1- very interesting 2- a little interesting 3- not interesting at all	
V81	If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I:	0.59
	1- would definitely take it 2- don't know whether I would take it or not 3- would drop it	
V78	During an English class, I would like:	0.58
	1- to have only English spoken 2- to have a combination of Arabic and English spoken 3- to have Arabic more than English	
V69	The language teacher uses Arabic in the English language class	-.57
V79	If I had the opportunity to speak English outside the University, I would:	0.54
	1- speak English most of the time 2- communicate in Arabic in addition to using a few words of English 3- never speak English	
V84	If I have had a servant who speaks English, I would:	0.48
	1- always speak English with her 2- some times speak English with her 3- never speak English with her	
V85	Concerning the English newspapers and magazines, I read them:	0.46
	1- as often as possible 2- some times 3- never	

V72 The emphasis is on communication more than any thing else 0.45

V60 The teacher gives every student the chance to talk in English in class 0.43

Dimension 2 (Factor 2): Name: **Effort Students Spend in Learning English**

V93 In terms of preparing for the English class 0.69

- 1- I always prepare
- 2- I some times prepare
- 3- I never prepare

V88 When it comes to English homework, I: 0.56

- 1- put a lot of effort into it
- 2- put some effort into it, but not as much as I could
- 3- don't put any effort into it

V91 Compared to my classmates in the English course, I: 0.49

- 1- study harder than most students
- 2- study as much as the other students
- 3- study less than most students

V89 In studying English, I can honestly say that I: 0.48

- 1- try hard to learn English
- 2- do just enough work to get along
- 3- will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work

V92 During the English class, I: 0.43

- 1- concentrate on what is said in class
- 2- sometimes become absent minded
- 3- become absent minded most of the time

V87 When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I: 0.36

- 1- immediately ask the teacher for help
- 2- only seek help just before the exam
- 3- never ask for help

V90 When I am in an English class, I: 0.36

- 1- always participate by raising my hand to answer questions
- 2- sometimes participate by raising my hand to answer questions
- 3- rarely say anything

Dimension 3 (Factor 3): Name: **Preferred Teacher Role**

V65 The teacher is efficient 0.66

V64 The teacher has a relationship that is based on love and understanding between him/her and his/her students 0.51

V60 The teacher gives every student the chance to talk in English in class 0.46

V58 The teacher encourages the student to speak English 0.46

V68 The teacher is flexible with students 0.46

V61 The teacher always corrects students' mistakes 0.44

V67 The teacher enjoys teaching English 0.42

V63 The teacher explains the lesson creatively 0.34

Dimension 4 (Factor 4): Name: **English Language Distribution and Preference**

V74 The emphasis is on listening and speaking in English only 0.51

V73	The emphasis is on reading and writing in English only	0.51
V71	The teacher explains in English only	0.44
V72	The emphasis is on communication more than anything else	0.30

Sections: H and I

Section H contains a scale of 12 items which reflect students' varying attitudes toward learning English. Section I contains a scale of 12 items which reflect students' attitudes toward the English language.

These 24 items in sections H and I were submitted to latent variable analysis. Analysis of the Scree Test (see Appendix 9) and investigation of various rotated solutions suggested the presence of three dimensions. The three dimensions located by latent variable analysis are listed below.

Dimension 1 (Factor 1): Name: General Attitude to English

V104	It is of no benefit for me to learn English	-.74
V101	I love learning English	0.74
V102	Learning English is a waste of time	-.73
V98	I dislike learning English	-.72
V99	I would like to learn as much English as possible	0.71
V94	I feel that learning English is useful for me	0.70
V96	Learning English is boring for me	-.66
V97	Learning English is an important part of my education	0.62
V95	I enjoy learning English	0.62
V106	I find the the English language interesting	0.60

V114	I find the English language boring	-0.58
V105	When I leave University, I shall give up the study of English entirely	-0.57
V103	I plan to continue learning English	0.54
V107	I don't like speaking English	-0.54
V100	I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English	-0.46

Dimension 2 (Factor 2): Name: Attitudes Toward English in terms of its Educational Prestige

V115	I find speaking English is prestigious	0.82
V116	When I speak English, I feel that I'm more educated	0.81
V117	I hope to put my children in a private English school so that they speak English fluently	0.71
V113	I prefer the English language to the Arabic language	0.45
V111	I don't like watching Channel Two on T.V. because it shows English only programmes	-0.36

Dimension 3 (Factor 3): Name: Affective Attitudes to English

V112	I find the English language easy	0.75
V109	I find the English language difficult	-0.71
V114	I find the English language boring	-0.50
V95	I enjoy learning English	0.42
V96	Learning English is boring for me	-0.39
V106	I find the English language interesting	0.39
V98	I dislike learning English	-0.33
V101	I love learning English	0.32

Section: J

Section J contains a scale of 24 items that reflect students' attitudes toward native speakers of English. These 24 items in section J were submitted to latent variable analysis. Analysis of the Scree Test (see Appendix 10) and inspection of different rotated solutions suggested the presence of two dimensions. The first dimension is presented below with item weightings above 0.40 and the second dimension is presented below with item weightings above 0.35.

Dimension 1 (Factor 1): Name: Negative Attitudes Toward Native Speakers of English

V135	English speakers are corrupt	0.70
V139	English speakers are not kind	0.69
V127	English speakers are unfriendly	0.66
V136	English speakers are not cheerful	0.63
V123	English speakers are utilitarian	0.61
V141	English speakers are not humorous	0.60
V129	English speakers have no morality	0.59
V131	English speakers are unclean	0.58
V121	English speakers are dishonest	0.48
V120	I like English speakers	-.42
V119	I have an unfavourable attitude towards English speakers	0.41
V126	English speakers are unintelligent	0.40

Dimension 2 (Factor 2): Name: Positive Attitudes Toward Native Speakers of English

V125	English speakers are well mannered	0.71
V138	English speakers are progressive in science	0.64
V122	English speakers are hard workers	0.64

V124	English speakers are efficient	0.62
V134	English speakers respect human rights	0.61
V140	English speakers like justice	0.60
V137	English speakers are democratic	0.59
V128	English speakers are polite	0.59
V132	English speakers are educated	0.57
V130	English speakers are trustworthy	0.49
V120	I like English speakers	0.44
V133	English speakers are very open	0.43
V118	I would like to meet native speakers of English	0.37

Section: K

Section K contains a scale of 13 items that reflect students' purpose in studying English. The 13 items in Section K were submitted to latent variable analysis. The Scree Test (see Appendix 11) was analysed and different rotated factors were investigated. One latent variable was found. The analysis suggested that the 13 items best fitted one dimension. On the unrotated latent variable matrix, the 13 items loaded between 0.40 and 0.79 on the latent variable. That is, all items had high weightings on the latent variable and are listed below:

Dimension 1 (one latent variable): Name: The Purpose of Studying English

V145	Makes me a more educated person	0.79
V144	Allows me to meet with varied people	0.73
V143	To get a good job	0.72
V148	Allows me to have more friends	0.68
V146	Allows me to integrate more with the English speakers when I travel abroad	0.67
V147	Other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English	0.63

V150	Be able to participate more freely in the activities of English speaking cultural groups	0.63
V149	To continue my postgraduate studies at a foreign University	0.62
V152	Enable me to read the English instructions written on medicines, goods and industrial imports	0.53
V151	Enable me to communicate with my servants	0.47
V142	Allows me to be more at ease in the English speaking community	0.46
V153	Think and behave like English speaking people	0.42
V154	To pass my exams and graduate from the University	0.40

Section: L

Section L contains a scale of 20 items concerning students' feelings of anxiety or discomfort in the English class. The 20 items in section L were submitted to latent variable analysis to find out whether there are one or more dimensions to the scale. The Scree Test was analysed (see appendix 12) and various rotated solutions were inspected. One latent variable only was found. The analysis suggested that the 20 items best fitted one dimension. On the unrotated latent variable matrix, the 20 items loaded between 0.40 and 0.83 on the latent variable which shows that all items had high weightings on the latent variable.

The one dimension located by latent variable analysis is as follows:

Dimension 1 (One latent variable): Name: **Anxiety in the English Class**

V158	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking English	0.83
V174	I tend to stutter in English	0.83
V162	I'm afraid of being pointed at by the teacher to answer	0.83
V159	I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English	0.80
V170	When the language teacher asks me to answer, my mouth becomes dry	0.78
V161	I always feel that what I'm going to say will be wrong	0.77
V156	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in the English class	0.76
V171	I often become nervous	0.74
V163	When I speak English in the class, I feel that my heart beat increasing	0.73
V172	I feel that other students look at me because I am not good at English	0.73
V155	I feel embarrassed when I volunteer answers in the English class	0.70
V167	I find it difficult to concentrate	0.68
V157	I feel that the other students speak English better than I do	0.68
V173	Sometimes in class, when I read something I don't understand it; out of class, I understand it easily	0.66
V164	I often look at my watch hoping that time passes quickly	0.65

V165	I feel worried when the language teacher criticises me	0.59
V166	I become absent minded	0.56
V168	I sometimes get a headache	0.48
V160	I think a lot about my answer before uttering it	0.47
V169	I move a lot in class without reasons	0.40

Section: M

Section M contains a scale of 21 items regarding the place of English in Kuwait society. The 21 items in section M of the questionnaire were submitted to latent variable analysis. Analysis of the Scree Test (see Appendix 13) and inspection of different rotated solutions suggested the presence of three dimensions. The first dimension is listed below with item weightings above 0.40; the second dimension is listed below with item weightings above 0.35, and the third dimension is listed below with item weightings above 0.30.

Dimension 1 (Factor 1): Name: **Attitudes Toward English for Status and Prestige in Kuwait**

V180	Talking in English is prestigious in Kuwait	0.77
V193	The fluent English speaker in Kuwait seems more educated than the non English speaker	0.67
V176	The English language is the language of prestige in Kuwait	0.60
V178	Many Kuwaiti parents put their children in private English schools so that they will speak English fluently	0.59

V184	Speaking in English shows that the speaker is from a high class in Kuwait	0.58
V189	The English language is the language of science and technology in Kuwait	0.56
V194	Even Kuwaiti parents of low income put their children in private schools so that their children speak English fluently	0.52
V183	Graduates from private English schools in Kuwait deserve to gain better job opportunities than graduates from public schools	0.51
V191	To be an academic expert in Kuwait, you have to learn English	0.46
V181	Learning English enables Kuwaities to communicate with others abroad	0.45
V190	Learning English enables Kuwaiti people to communicate with their servants	0.44

Dimension 2 (Factor 2): Name: **Attitudes to Westernisation and Harm to Islam**

V188	Learning English will harm the Islamic religion	0.76
V192	Learning English means gaining Western habits that are not required by Arabs	0.65
V185	Learning English will westernise Arabs	0.61
V182	The English Language in Kuwait will harm the Arabic language	0.57

Dimension 3 (Factor 3): Name: Negative Instrumental Attitudes to English in Kuwait

V177	There is no need to learn English in Kuwait	0.72
V175	There is no use in Kuwait for the English Language	0.67
V187	More and more jobs in Kuwait (e.g. in banks, airport, companies) will require English language proficiency	-.33
V195	Kuwait society is so proud of the Arabic language that it feels no need to learn English	0.32

An overall factor analysis was also conducted. All variables from Section B to Section M were entered into the analysis. The Scree Test was analysed and various rotated solutions were inspected (see Appendix 14). Five latent variables were located, and full details are given in Appendix (15). The latent variables from the overall analysis were not utilised. It was considered that the series of latent variable analyses on the sections provide a psychologically and educationally more sensitive, comprehensive and valid data reduction. The overall latent variable analysis provided dimensions which were too broad to enable a maximally sensitive, sound and detailed analysis.

Conclusion

The questionnaire consists of 13 sections. Each section contains a scale of a number of items. The researcher inspected whether the items within each scale were measuring one or more entities to find out if the scale is unidimensional or multidimensional. The items of the scales were submitted to a latent variable analysis. A number of factor solutions were extracted, and the researcher decided on a specific

number of factors based on close inspection of the Scree test. Each factor was named after carefully investigating the various statements loading highly on each factor.

Table 18: Final Solutions from the Latent Variable Analysis

Section	Factor No.	Factor Name	
B (26 items)	1	Preference for active literacy	(B1)
	2	Preference for active oracy	(B2)
	3	Preference for structure in the language class	(B3)
C (10 items)	1	Attitude to instructional material	(C1)
DEFG (37 items)	1	Students' desire to learn English	(DEFG1)
	2	Effort students spend in learning English	(DEFG2)
	3	Preferred teacher role	(DEFG3)
	4	English language distribution and preference	(DEFG4)
HI (24 items)	1	General attitudes to English	(HI1)
	2	Attitudes toward English in terms of its educational prestige	(HI2)
	3	Affective attitudes to English	(HI3)
J (24 items)	1	Negative attitudes toward native speakers of English	(J1)
	2	Positive attitudes toward native speakers of English	(J2)
K (13 items)	1	The purpose of studying English	(K1)
L (20 items)	1	Anxiety in the English class	(L1)
M (21 items)	1	Attitudes toward English for status and prestige in Kuwait	(M1)
	2	Attitudes to Westernisation and harm to Islam	(M2)
	3	Negative instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait	(M3)

These latent variables will be compared (in the next chapter) with age, gender, year in College, nationality, student's English fluency, number of visits to English speaking countries, time spent in English speaking countries, time spent watching English programmes on T.V., student's grades in the English course and student's intention after graduation.

Chapter Six

Analysis Of The Results (2)

(of the first piece of research)

Introduction

First, the chapter examines differences between varying groups among the sample on the latent variables scores. For example, possible differences between students from varying Colleges, courses, grade levels and of different gender are examined. Such analyses attempt to highlight whether different attitudes, opinions and beliefs exist. Second, it investigates the correlations between the factors (see Appendix 16) and the following variables: age, GPA, grades in English mid-term and final exams and self perceived level in English

A comparison is made between the mean scores of different groups within the sample by a one way analysis of variance. The sample is divided just 'one way' for each analysis. To obtain 'mean squares', the result of the 'sum of squares' is divided by the degree of freedom (D.F.). The 'F - ratio' is then obtained which provides a significance or confidence value.

In a full multivariate ANOVA, comparison can be carried out between the mean scores of groups within the sample. Using the ANOVA analysis, the sample may be categorised in many ways, thus various variables can be inspected. Twelve independent variables were investigated using ANOVA. They were College, major subject, English course level, year of study, nationality, gender, area, level in English, visits to English speaking countries, time spent in English speaking countries, time spent watching channel two on T.V. and career intention.

Differences between students on the latent variables in terms of:

Colleges

A one-way analysis of variance comparing different Colleges was carried out to determine if any difference existed on the 18 factors (see list of factors in appendix 16). There were three groups of students: students from the College of Arts, students from the College of Science and students from the College of Sharia.

Inspection of the ANOVA results comparing these three groups revealed statistically significant differences as presented in the table below.

Table 19: Differences between Colleges

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B1	0.00001	(1) Arts=0.11 (2) Science=-.39 (3) Sharia=0.35	2 cf 1 2 cf 3	2 prefer more literacy
B2	0.04	(1)=-.00 (2)=-.12 (3)=0.15	2 cf 3	2 prefer more oracy
B3	0.03	(1)=-.02 (2)=-.11 (3)=0.16	2 cf 3	2 prefer more structure of language class
C1	0.00001	(1)=-.06 (2)=-.21 (3)=0.33	2 cf 3 1 cf 3	2 prefer more instructional material
DEFG 1	0.00001	(1)=0.05 (2)=-.41 (3)=0.45	2 cf 1 2 cf 3 1 cf 3	2 have more desire to learn English
DEFG 2	0.00001	(1)=-.25 (2)=0.24 (3)=0.01	1 cf 3 1 cf 2 3 cf 2	1 expend more effort in learning English
DEFG 3	0.4	(1)=-.03 (2)=-.02 (3)=0.08	N.S	

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
DEFG 4	0.01	(1)Arts=0.08 (2)Science=-.16 (3)Sharia=0.10	2 cf 1 2 cf 3	2 prefer more English only in language class
HI1	0.0003	(1)=-.00 (2)=-.21 (3)=0.26	2 cf 3 1 cf 3	2 have more positive general attitudes to English
HI2	0.00001	(1)=-.31 (2)=-.33 (3)=0.79	2 cf 3 1 cf 3	2 have more positive attitudes to English in terms of educational prestige
HI3	0.26	(1)=0.04 (2)=-.09 (3)=0.06	N.S	
J1	0.0008	(1)=0.12 (2)=0.11 (3)=-.27	3 cf 2 3 cf 1	3 have less positive attitudes toward native speakers of English
J2	0.00001	(1)=-.31 (2)=-.18 (3)=0.59	1 cf 3 2 cf 3	3 have less positive attitudes toward native speakers of English
K1	0.00001	(1)=-.24 (2)=-.32 (3)=0.73	2 cf 3 1 cf 3	2 show more purposes for studying English
L1	0.07	(1)=0.14 (2)=-.03 (3)=-.12	N.S	
M1	0.00001	(1)=-.23 (2)=-.26 (3)=0.61	2 cf 3 1 cf 3	2 have more positive attitudes to English for status & prestige in Kuwait
M2	0.001	(1)=0.08 (2)=0.11 (3)=-.25	3 cf 1 3 cf 2	3 believe that learning English leads to westernisation and harm to Islam
M3	0.00001	(1)=0.10 (2)=0.13 (3)=-.29	3 cf 1 3 cf 2	3 have less positive attitudes to the use of & need for English in Kuwait

The maximum number of students in each group:

(1)Arts=142
(2)Science=141
(3)Sharia=116

In these and subsequent tables, Factor refers to the latent variable analyses reported in the previous chapter; Confidence refers to the significance value given by the ANOVA; Mean refers to the average score of each College (denoted at 1, 2, 3) on each factor with an overall mean of 0.0 and a standard deviation of 1.0; Difference refers to significant differences between group means located by the Student-Newman-Keuls test; Explanation provides a brief explanation of significant group mean differences.

Students from the College of Science tended to show more favourable attitudes to an emphasis on literacy and oracy, structure in English class and in using instructional material. They appear to have more desire to learn English and prefer more to be taught in English only. In terms of attitudes to English, Science students have the strongest positive attitudes to English in general, and to English in Kuwait specifically, and to native speakers of English. They regard English as prestigious and express more purposes for studying English. Science students had such attitudes because English has an immediate importance to them. English is the medium of instruction in College of Science. In addition, they have more contact with English native speakers because of the teaching staff. Many teachers in this College are native speakers of English. In terms of effort expended in learning English, Science students seem more confident about their capabilities in the English language. Therefore, compared with Arts and Sharia students, in studying English, Science students are more effortless.

Students from the College of Arts had less favourable attitudes toward literacy in the English class. This is because the College of Arts is an Arabic medium College, unlike the College of Science. However, Arts students emphasise oracy, structure in the English class and using instructional materials. Compared with Science and Sharia students, Arts students expend the most effort in learning English. They have positive attitudes to English in general, to English in Kuwait, and to native speakers of English. They regard English as prestigious and have a clear purpose in studying English. In general, Arts students have a degree of positiveness toward English, but not as strong as Science students. Arts students have such positive attitudes because

they like learning languages in general and they are aware of the importance of English in Kuwait, in travelling abroad and in their future career.

On the other hand, Sharia students showed the least preference for having literacy and oracy emphasised in class, having structure in the English class, or in using instructional material. Compared to Science and Arts students, Sharia students have the least desire for English and the least preference to be taught in English only. They expend less effort in learning English. Moreover, they have less favourable attitudes to English, and to native speakers of English. They don't regard English as prestigious, but believe that it leads to Westernisation and harms Islam. Therefore, they have the least reason for studying the language.

There is no conflict between Islam and people from other religions in Kuwait. On the contrary, Islam encourages Moslems to know others, to integrate with them and learn their languages. Being from an Islamic religious background is not the reason why students from the College of Sharia express such attitudes toward English and native speakers of English. It is because those students do not have a real need for English, neither in their present studies nor in their future career. English does not have immediate importance to them. In this College, Arabic is the medium of instruction. Even for those who intend to take postgraduate studies in Sharia, English is not important because they will take their studies either in Egypt, in Saudi Arabia or in any other Arabic country where a knowledge of English is not required. Their less favourable attitudes to native speakers of English may be due to the Western habits native speakers practise, which Sharia students do not like and Islam forbids them to follow (e.g. alcohol, infidelity in marriage, promiscuity).

Major subjects

A one-way analysis of variance with students of different major subjects was carried out to determine if any difference existed between them on the 18 factors (see list of factors in appendix 16). There were seven groups: Arabic language students, Humanities students, Social sciences students, Maths students, Physical sciences students, Biological sciences students and Islamic studies students.

Inspection of the ANOVA comparing these seven groups showed statistically significant differences on certain factors as detailed in the following table.

Table 20: Differences between students of different major subjects

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B1	0.00001	(1)Arabic language=0.13 (2)Humanities=0.31 (5)Social Sciences=0.02 (8)Math, Stat, Comp=-.33 (9)Physical Sciences=-.48 (11)Biological Sciences=-.37 (17)Islamic Studies=0.34	9 cf 5,2,17 11 cf 2,17 8 cf 5,2,17	(9), (11) and (8) have more preference for active literacy in the English class
B2	0.16	(1)=-.09 (2)=0.18 (5)=-.05 (8)=-.02 (9)=-.20 (11)=-.16 (17)=0.15	N.S	
B3	0.19	(1)=-.00 (2)=-.04 (5)=0.00 (8)=-.21 (9)=-.11 (11)=0.01 (17)=0.16	N.S	
C1	0.00001	(1)=-.08 (2)=0.12 (5)=-.15 (8)=-.19 (9)=-.40 (11)=-.05 (17)=0.33	9 cf 2 9 cf 17 8 cf 17 5 cf 17 11 cf 17	(9), (8), (5) and (11) have more preference for using instructional material in class while (17) and (2) have less preference
DEFG 1	0.00001	(1)=0.17 (2)=0.21 (5)=-.05 (8)=-.41 (9)=-.34 (11)=-.48 (17)=0.45	11 cf 5,1 11 cf 2,17 8 cf 5,1 8 cf 2,17 9 cf 1,2 9 cf 17 5 cf 17	(11), (8) and (9) have the greatest desire to learn English (17) have the least desire to learn English

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
DEFG 2	0.0001	(1)Arabic Language=-.14 (2)Humanities=-.19 (5)Social Sciences=-.33 (8)Math, Stat, Comp=0.16 (9)Physical Sciences=0.41 (11)Biological Sciences=0.19 (17)Islamic Studies=0.01	5 cf 17 5 cf 8 5 cf 11 5 cf 9 2 cf 9	(5) and (2) expend the greatest effort in learning English (17), (8), (11) and (9) expend the least effort in learning English
DEFG 3	0.71	(1)=0.08 (2)=0.03 (5)=-.12 (8)=-.01 (9)=-.10 (11)=0.03 (17)=0.08	N.S	
DEFG 4	0.13	(1)=0.20 (2)=0.09 (5)=0.04 (8)=-.16 (9)=-.17 (11)=-.15 (17)=0.10	N.S	
HI1	0.004	(1)=-.03 (2)=0.09 (5)=-.04 (8)=-.08 (9)=-.35 (11)=-.28 (17)=0.26	9 cf 17 11 cf 17	(9) and (11) have the most positive attitudes toward English (17) have the least positive attitudes toward English
HI2	0.00001	(1)=-.22 (2)=-.23 (5)=-.38 (8)=-.26 (9)=-.46 (11)=-.31 (17)=0.79	9 cf 17 5 cf 17 11 cf 17 8 cf 17 2 cf 17 1 cf 17	(17) have the least positive attitudes toward English in terms of its educational prestige
HI3	0.04	(1)=0.34 (2)=0.22 (5)=-.13 (8)=-.15 (9)=0.10 (11)=-.19 (17)=0.06	N.S	

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
J1	0.01	(1)Arabic Language=0.05 (2)Humanities=0.00 (5)Social Sciences=0.22 (8)Math, Stat, Comp=0.13 (9)Physical Sciences=0.10 (11)Biological Sciences=0.09 (17)Islamic Studies=-.27	5 cf 17	(17) have the least positive attitudes toward native speakers of English
J2	0.00001	(1)=-.29 (2)=-.06 (5)=-.43 (8)=-.15 (9)=-.28 (11)=-.13 (17)=0.59	5 cf 17 1 cf 17 9 cf 17 8 cf 17 11 cf 17 2 cf 17	(17) have the least positive attitudes toward native speakers of English
K1	0.00001	(1)=-.01 (2)=-.21 (5)=-.33 (8)=-.24 (9)=-.43 (11)=-.33 (17)=0.73	9 cf 17 5 cf 17 11 cf 17 8 cf 17 2 cf 17 1 cf 17	(9), (5), (11), (8), (2) and (1) have more purposes for studying English (17) have the least purposes
L1	0.34	(1)=0.00 (2)=0.07 (5)=0.21 (8)=0.05 (9)=-.13 (11)=-.06 (17)=-.12	N.S	
M1	0.00001	(1)=0.04 (2)=-.13 (5)=-.38 (8)=-.14 (9)=-.35 (11)=-.36 (17)=.61	5 cf 17 11 cf 17 9 cf 17 8 cf 17 2 cf 17 1 cf 17	(17) have the least positive attitudes toward English for status and prestige in Kuwait
M2	0.02	(1)=0.01 (2)=0.06 (5)=0.0.12 (8)=0.19 (9)=0.03 (11)=0.07 (17)=-.25	17 cf 5 17 cf 8	(17): English leads to Westernisation and harm to Islam

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
M3	0.0007	(1)Arabic Language=0.07 (2)Humanities=0.00 (5)Social Sciences=0.16 (8)Math, Stat, Comp=0.09 (9)Physical Sciences=0.04 (11)Biological Sciences=0.29 (17)Islamic Studies=-.29	17 cf 8 17 cf 5 17 cf 11	(17) have the least positive instrumental attitudes toward English in Kuwait

Note: The numbering system for groups reflects a computer recoding of major subjects.

The maximum number of students in each major subject: (1)Arabic Language=28
(2)Humanities=40
(5)Social Sciences=74
(8)Math, Stat, Comp=60
(9)Physical Sciences=41
(11)Biological Sciences=41
(17)Islamic Studies=116

The above table suggests that physical sciences, biological sciences and maths students tended to show more favourable attitudes to having active literacy and various instructional materials in the English class. They appear to have a higher desire to learn English. However, they spend less effort in learning the language. They have positive general attitudes to English. They believe that English has status, use and prestige in Kuwait. They have more positive attitudes to native speakers of English and express more purposes for studying it. Such students are from the College of Science where English is used as a medium of instruction. Therefore, they need English and appreciate it.

Arabic language and humanities students have less preference for literacy and the use of instructional materials in the English class and have less desire to learn English. This is because they come from the College of Arts where Arabic is the medium of instruction. However, social sciences students prefer using instructional materials in class and have a strong desire to learn English. In general social sciences, humanities and Arabic language students spend much effort in learning English; express positive attitudes to English and to native speakers of English and have clear purposes in studying English.

English course level

A one-way analysis of variance comparing different English courses was carried out to determine if any difference existed on the 18 factors (in appendix 16). There were eleven courses: courses 097, 098, 161 and 162 which are offered at College of Science; 099, 131, 132, 133 and 134, which are offered at College of Arts, and 151 and 152 which are offered at College of Sharia.

The courses offered at the College of Science are: 097 which is a remedial non credited course given to students who fail and do not score high enough on the placement test to be placed in English 161. 098 is similar to 097 but at a higher level. 161 is the first compulsory credit course. 162 is the second, more advanced credit course. The courses offered at the College of Arts are: 099 which is a remedial non credited course given to students who fail and do not score high enough on the placement test to be placed in English 131. 131 is the first compulsory credit course at the elementary level. 132 is the second compulsory credit course at the upper elementary level. 133 is a general English course at the intermediate level. 134 is a high intermediate course. The courses offered at the College of Sharia are: 151 which is the first compulsory English course at a lower level and 152 which is the second English course at a higher level.

Investigation of the ANOVA comparing these eleven courses showed statistically significant differences on certain factors as revealed in the following table.

Table 21: Differences between students enrolled in different English courses

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B1	0.00001	(097)=-.43	161 cf 132	097
		(098)=-.14	097 cf 132	161 } From Science
		(099)=0.41	161 cf 133	162
		(131)=-.14	161 cf 151	prefer more literacy in class
		(132)=0.12	097 cf 151	while
		(133)=0.28	162 cf 151	099
		(134)=-.22	161 cf 152	132 } From Arts
		(151)=0.29	097 cf 152	133
		(152)=0.41	162 cf 152	151 } From Sharia
		(161)=-.59	161 cf 099	152
	(162)=-.38		prefer less literacy in class	
B2	0.20	(097)=-.30	097 cf 151	097 } From Science
		(098)=-.06		prefer more oracy
		(099)=-.01		151 } From Sharia
		(131)=0.04		prefer less oracy
		(132)=-.07		
		(133)=0.14		
		(134)=0.02		
		(151)=0.29		
		(152)=-.05		
		(161)=-.08		
(162)=-.00				
B3	0.18	(097)=-.00	N.S	
		(098)=-.05		
		(099)=0.08		
		(131)=-.30		
		(132)=-.02		
		(133)=0.10		
		(134)=0.12		
		(151)=0.18		
		(152)=0.13		
		(161)=-.33		
(162)=-.09				
C1	0.00001	(097)=-.35	097 cf 151	151 } From Sharia
		(098)=0.00	161 cf 151	have less preference for using
		(099)=0.20	134 cf 151	instructional material in class
		(131)=-.30	131 cf 151	
		(132)=-.02	162 cf 151	
		(133)=-.04	132 cf 151	
		(134)=-.31	098 cf 151	
		(151)=0.47	152 cf 151	
		(152)=0.09		
		(161)=-.34, (162)=-.12		

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
DEFG 1	0.00001	(097)=-.21 (098)=-.56 (099)=0.52 (131)=0.18 (132)=-.02 (133)=0.14 (134)=-.55 (151)=0.61 (152)=0.21 (161)=-.60 (162)=-.29	161 cf 132, 133, 131, 152, 099, & 151 098 cf 132, 133, 131, 152, 099, & 151 099 cf 134, 162 & 097 151 cf 134, 162, 097& 132	161, 162, 097 & 098 From Science have more desire to learn English 134 & 132 from Arts have also more desire to learn English while 099, 131 & 133 from Arts have less desire 151 & 152 from Sharia have less desire (151) have the least desire
DEFG 2	0.00001	(097)=0.15 (098)=0.50 (099)=-.67 (131)=-.16 (132)=-.25 (133)=-.35 (134)=0.38 (151)=0.09 (152)=-.10 (161)=0.07, (162)=0.25	099 cf 161 099 cf 151 099 cf 097 099 cf 162 099 cf 134 099 cf 098 133 cf 098 132 cf 098 152 cf 098	099 133 } From Arts expend 132 } effort in learning English while 134 expend less effort 152 from Sharia expend effort but 151 expend less 097, 098, 161 and 162 from Science expend the least effort in learning English
DEFG 3	0.16		N.S	
DEFG 4	0.15	(097)=-.07 (098)=-.13 (099)= 0.14 (131)=0.00 (132)=0.05 (133)=0.18 (134)=0.15 (151)=0.09 (152)=0.11 (161)=-.05, (162)=-.42	162 cf 151	162 from Science want English only in the language class
HI 1	0.001	(097)=-.08 (098)=-.36 (099)=0.06 (131)=0.36 (132)=-.06 (133)=0.02 (134)=-.29 (151)=0.43 (152)=-.02 (161)=-.13, (162)=-.28	098 cf 151 162 cf 151 132 cf 151	098 } From Science 162 have more positive attitudes to English 132 } From Arts have also more positive attitude to English while 151 } From Sharia have the least positive attitudes

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
HI2	0.01	(097)=-.40 (098)=-.31 (099)=-.08 (131)=-.73 (132)=-.27 (133)=-.35 (134)=-.18 (151)=0.64 (152)=1.07 (161)=-.40 (162)=-.20	151 & 152 cf 161 cf 097 cf 133 cf 098 cf 132 cf 162 cf 134 cf 099 cf 131 152 cf 151	151 } From Sharia 152 have the least favourable attitudes toward English in terms of its educational prestige
HI3	0.01	(097)=0.25 (098)=-.12 (099)=0.21 (131)=0.04 (132)=0.04 (133)=0.05 (134)=-.14 (151)=0.17 (152)=-.13 (161)=-.54 (162)=-.02	161 cf 132 161 cf 151 161 cf 097	(161) from Science have more positive affective attitudes to English while (097) from Science also have less positive attitudes (132) from Arts have less positive attitudes (151) from Sharia have less positive attitudes
J1	0.001	(097)=-.06 (098)=0.15 (099)=-.06 (131)=0.32 (132)=0.10 (133)=0.22 (134)=0.01 (151)=-.39 (152)=-.05 (161)=0.45 (162)=-.05	151 cf 132 151 cf 161	151 } From Sharia have the least positive attitudes to native speakers of English 132 } From Arts and 161 } From Science have the most positive attitudes to native speakers of English
J2	0.00001	(097)=-.12 (098)=-.33 (099)=-.15 (131)=-.51 (132)=-.26 (133)=-.30 (134)=-.55 (151)=0.52 (152)=0.71 (161)=-.25 (162)=-.05	151 & 152 cf 134 cf 131 cf 098 cf 133 cf 132 cf 161 cf 099 cf 097 cf 162 152 cf 151	151 } From Sharia 152 have the least positive attitudes toward native speakers of English

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
K1	0.00001	(097)=-.25 (098)=-.32 (099)=-.17 (131)=-.47 (132)=-.16 (133)=-.24 (134)=-.37 (151)=0.72 (152)=0.74 (161)=-.40 (162)=-.32	151 & 152 cf 131 cf 161 cf 134 cf 098 cf 162 cf 097 cf 133 cf 099 cf 132	151 } From Sharia 152 have the least purposes for studying English
L1	0.004	(097)=-.25 (098)=0.01 (099)=0.22 (131)=-.44 (132)=0.18 (133)=0.34 (134)=0.32 (151)=-.28 (152)=0.13 (161)=0.30 (162)=-.17	151 cf 132	(151) feel of anxiety in the English class while (132) do not
M1	0.00001	(097)=-.32 (098)=-.31 (099)=-.21 (131)=-.44 (132)=-.20 (133)=-.24 (134)=-.10 (151)=0.53 (152)=0.75 (161)=-.16 (162)=-.26	151 & 152 cf 131 cf 097 cf 098 cf 162 cf 133 cf 099 cf 132 cf 161 cf 134	151 } From Sharia 152 have the least positive attitudes toward English for status and prestige in Kuwait
M2	0.02	(097)=0.15 (098)=-.06 (099)=0.08 (131)=-.14 (132)=0.06 (133)=0.28 (134)=0.25 (151)=-.17 (152)=-.36 (161)=0.30 (162)=0.05	152 cf 161	(152) believe that English leads to westernisation and harm to Islam (161) disagree

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
M3	0.00001	(097)=-.20 (098)=0.14 (099)=-.01 (131)=0.09 (132)=0.11 (133)=0.20 (134)=0.11 (151)=-.44 (152)=-.03 (161)=0.43 (162)=0.19	151 cf 152 151 cf 132 151 cf 098 151 cf 162 151 cf 133 151 cf 161 097 cf 161	(151) and (097) have the least positive instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait

The maximum number of students in each course:	097=39	098=35
	099=19	131=20
	132=69	133=21
	134=13	151=72
	152=44	161=35
	162=33	

The above table shows that students from the English courses: 097, 098, 161 and 162 which are from College of Science, have more favourable attitudes to having literacy and oracy in the English class and using instructional material. They have a relatively strong desire to learn English. However, they expend the least effort in learning it, compared with the other students in the other courses. In addition, students on these courses have positive attitudes to English in general. They regard English as prestigious. They do not support the idea that 'English leads to Westernisation and harm to Islam' (especially course 161). They have more favourable attitudes toward native speakers of English (especially course 161) and have more purposes in studying English (specifically course 161). Moreover, students on courses 098, 161 and 162 have more favourable attitudes to English in general and have positive instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait (except students on course 097 who have less positive attitudes). This is may be due to their very low level of English. The 097 course is a remedial English course, required of those who have very low proficiency in English.

In the College of Arts, students on courses 099, 132 and 133 show less preference for active literacy while those on courses 131, 132 and 134 prefer instructional material. Students on courses 134 and 132 have more desire in learning English, but students on courses 099, 131 and 133 have less desire. This reflects that the advanced students have a stronger desire and 'low level' students have less desire. Course 099, 133 and 132 students expend greater effort in learning English while on course 134, the advanced students expend less effort. In general, students in the English courses at College of Arts have positive attitudes to English in terms of its educational prestige; have positive attitudes to native speakers; have more purposes in learning English; express more positive attitudes toward English for status and prestige in Kuwait and express more favourable instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait. They express a degree of positiveness toward English, but not as strong as the students enrolled in the English courses at College of Science.

Year of study

A one-way analysis of variance comparing students in different years of study was carried out to see if there is any difference between them on the 18 factors (in appendix 16). There were four groups: students from year one; students from year two; students from year three and students from year four. In general, there was no significant difference between the four groups using the ANOVA statistical technique except on two factors. On the 'anxiety' factor, it appears that the first year group had more anxiety in the English class. It can be hypothesised that being a freshman at College with its new environment may create, amongst the first year group students, relatively stronger feelings of discomfort and anxiety. More advanced and experienced students in years two, three and four may have more confidence and less feelings of anxiety.

On the 'effort expended in learning English' factor, there is a significant difference between year two students and the other three groups. Year two students spend more effort in learning English. This is may be because students in their first year face the new University life which includes a totally new educational system and a new environment. Students need time to adjust . After adjusting, they start in their

second year to expend more effort in their studies. In their third and fourth year they may get relax more or find learning English less interesting.

The following table portrays the one-way analysis of variance comparing students in different years of study.

Table 22: Differences between students in different years of study

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B1	0.34	(1)=-.03 (2)=0.12 (3)=-.19 (4)=-.00	N.S	
B2	0.78	(1)=-.03 (2)=0.02 (3)=-.09 (4)=0.06	N.S	
B3	0.78	(1)=-.03 (2)=0.05 (3)=-.08 (4)=-.00	N.S	
C1	0.34	(1)=0.02 (2)=0.05 (3)=-.19 (4)=-.07	N.S	
DEFG 1	0.37	(1)=-.07 (2)=0.11 (3)=-.06 (4)=0.05	N.S	
DEFG 2	0.001	(1)=0.11 (2)=-.29 (3)=0.10 (4)=0.01	2 cf 4 2 cf 3 2 cf 1	2 spend greater effort in learning English
DEFG 3	0.15	(1)=0.01 (2)=0.13 (3)=-.10 (4)=-.15	N.S	

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
DEFG 4	0.20	(1)=0.00 (2)=-.00 (3)=-.19 (4)=0.15	N.S	
HI1	0.83	(1)=-.03 (2)=0.06 (3)=-.05 (4)=-.03	N.S	
HI2	0.08	(1)=0.04 (2)=0.14 (3)=-.00 (4)=0.10	N.S	
HI3	0.21	(1)=0.04 (2)=-.16 (3)=-.03 (4)=0.09	N.S	
J1	0.45	(1)=0.01 (2)=0.06 (3)=0.09 (4)=-.15	N.S	
J2	0.94	(1)=0.01 (2)=-.00 (3)=-.07 (4)=-.04	N.S	
K1	0.13	(1)=-.07 (2)=0.18 (3)=-.00 (4)=-.09	N.S	
L1	0.05	(1)=-.13 (2)=0.18 (3)=0.04 (4)=0.08	1 of 2	(1) feel of anxiety in English class
M1	0.38	(1)=-.08 (2)=0.10 (3)=0.02 (4)=0.01	N.S	

Factor	Confidence Mean		Difference	Explanation
C1	0.91	(1)kuwait City=-.00 (2)Hawalli=-.01 (3)Ahmadi=-.05 (4)Aljahra=0.12 (5)Farwania=0.01	N.S	
DEFG 1	0.55	(1)=0.11 (2)=-.08 (3)=-.08 (4)=0.04 (5)=0.04	N.S	
DEFG 2	0.001	(1)=0.09 (2)=0.23 (3)=-.20 (4)=-.08 (5)=-.16	2 of 3 2 of 5	(3) and (5) expend more effort in learning English (2) expend the least effort
DEFG 3	0.33	(1)=0.00 (2)=0.00 (3)=-.02 (4)=0.28 (5)=-.09	N.S	
DEFG 4	0.06	(1)=0.22 (2)=-.02 (3)=-.11 (4)=0.02 (5)=-.08	N.S	
HI1	0.86	(1)=0.06 (2)=0.02 (3)=-.09 (4)=0.02 (5)=-.02	N.S	
HI2	0.04	(1)=0.20 (2)=-.22 (3)=0.06 (4)=0.04 (5)=0.01	2 of 1	(2) have more positive attitudes toward English in terms of its educational prestige
HI3	0.82	(1)=0.01 (2)=0.07 (3)=0.00 (4)=-.02 (5)=-.08	N.S	

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
J1	0.16	(1)Kuwait City=0.00 (2)Hawalli=0.15 (3)Ahmadi=-.17 (4)Aljahra=-.17 (5)Farwania=0.03	N.S	
J2	0.37	(1)=0.11 (2)=0.08 (3)=-.07 (4)=-.16 (5)=-.07	N.S	
K1	0.15	(1)=0.18 (2)=-.10 (3)=0.09 (4)=-.08 (5)=-.10	N.S	
L1	0.74	(1)=-.02 (2)=0.04 (3)=-.10 (4)=-.06 (5)=0.07	N.S	
M1	0.08	(1)=0.23 (2)=-.12 (3)=-.07 (4)=0.08 (5)=-.02	N.S	
M2	0.007	(1)=-.15 (2)=0.20 (3)=-.21 (4)=0.06 (5)=0.05	2 cf 3 2 cf 1	(2) disagree that English leads to Westernisation and harm to Islam
M3	0.48	(1)=-.00 (2)=0.07 (3)=-.13 (4)=-.07 (5)=0.04	N.S	

The maximum number of students in each area: (1)Kuwait City=84
(3)Ahmadi=78
(5)Farwania=95

(2)Hawalli=111
(4)Aljahra=31

The table suggests the lack of significant differences between the five groups except on three factors. On the 'effort expended in learning English' factor, it appears that Hawalli students expend less effort in learning English, while Ahmadi and Farwania students expend more effort. Hawalli students seem more confident about their capabilities in the English language. Therefore, they do not spend effort in studying English. On the attitudes factors, Hawalli students show more positive attitudes to English in terms of its educational prestige, while Kuwait City students show less favourable attitudes. Also, Hawalli students disagree that English leads to Westernisation and harms Islam, while Kuwait City and Ahmadi students share less positive opinions on this factor. That Hawalli students have such attitudes may be because they come from educated, progressive and relatively, rich and open families who frequently travel abroad and place their children in expensive private English schools. Kuwait City and Ahmadi students are mostly of Saudi Arabia origin. They are more conservative and more religious.

Self perceived level in English

A one-way analysis of variance with subjects of different self perceived abilities in English was carried out to determine if any difference existed between them on the 18 factors. There were five groups: students who perceive themselves as near the top, above average, about average, below average and near the bottom in English. Inspection of the ANOVA comparing the five groups showed statistically significant differences on most of the factors as revealed in the following table.

Table 24: Differences between students of different self-perceived level in English

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B1	0.0002	(1)Near the top=-.23 (2)Above average=-.22 (3)About average=0.04 (4)Below average=0.43 (5)Near the bottom=0.42	1 cf 5 1 cf 4 2 cf 3,4 2 cf 5 3 cf 4	(1) and (2) have more preference for active literacy in class

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B2	0.0005	(1)Near the top=-.34 (2)Above average=-.09 (3)About average=0.10 (4)Below average=0.24 (5)Near the bottom=0.27	1 cf 3 1 cf 4 1 cf 5	(1) have more preference for active oracy in class
B3	0.52	(1)=0.08 (2)=-.08 (3)=0.01 (4)=-.12 (5)=0.15	N.S	
C1	0.006	(1)=-.22 (2)=-.16 (3)=0.10 (4)=0.19 (5)=0.15	1 cf 3 2 cf 3	(1) and (2) have more preference for instructional material
DEFG 1	0.00001	(1)=-.65 (2)=-.30 (3)=0.14 (4)=0.63 (5)=1.09	1 cf 2,3 1 cf 4,5 2 cf 3,4,5 3 cf 4,5 4 cf 5	(1) and (2) have more desire in learning English (5) have the least desire
DEFG 2	0.00001	(1)=-.30 (2)=-.16 (3)=0.07 (4)=0.35 (5)=0.44	1 cf 3,4,5 2 cf 3,4,5 3 cf 4	(1) and (2) spend the greatest effort in learning English (5) spend the least effort
DEFG 3	0.09	(1)=-.01 (2)=-.15 (3)=0.04 (4)=0.25 (5)=0.44	2 cf 4	(2) prefer teacher role
DEFG 4	0.06	(1)=0.12 (2)=0.08 (3)=-.00 (4)=-.28 (5)=-.17	N.S	
HI1	0.00001	(1)=-.30 (2)=-.26 (3)=0.03 (4)=0.41 (5)=1.03	1 cf 3,4,5 2 cf 3,4,5 3 cf 4,5 4 cf 5	(1) and (2) have more positive to English

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
HI2	0.0005	(1)Near the top=0.39 (2)Above average=-.13 (3)About average=-.15 (4)Below average=0.11 (5)Near the bottom=0.14	1 cf 3 1 cf 2	(2) and (3) have more positive to English in terms of its educational prestige
HI3	0.0001	(1)=-.65 (2)=-.28 (3)=0.15 (4)=0.60 (5)=0.92	1 cf 2,3 1 cf 4,5 2 cf 3,4,5 3 cf 4,5	(1) and (2) have the most positive affective attitudes to English
J1	0.01	(1)=-0.09 (2)=-0.15 (3)=-0.01 (4)=-.33 (5)=-.39	4 cf 3 4 cf 1 4 cf 2	(4) have the least positive attitudes to native speakers
J2	0.005	(1)=-0.10 (2)=-.26 (3)=-.00 (4)=0.08 (5)=0.55	2 cf 3 2 cf 5	(2) have the most favourable attitudes to native speakers
K1	0.003	(1)=0.03 (2)=-.27 (3)=0.02 (4)=0.13 (5)=0.55	2 cf 3 2 cf 5	(2) have more purposes for studying English
L1	0.00001	(1)=0.79 (2)=0.24 (3)=-.12 (4)=-.69 (5)=-1.17	5 cf 4,3 5 cf 2,1 4 cf 3,2,1 3 cf 2,1 2 cf 1	(5), (4) and (3) feel of anxiety in English class (1) and (2) do not feel of anxiety
M1	0.007	(1)=0.30 (2)=-.15 (3)=-.07 (4)=-.04 (5)=0.31	1 cf 2 1 cf 3 1 cf 4	(1) have less positive attitudes to English as prestigious in Kuwait
M2	0.74	(1)=0.01 (2)=0.08 (3)=-.03 (4)=0.01 (5)=-.17	N.S	

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
M3	0.00001	(1)=0.11 (2)=0.20 (3)=0.03 (4)=-.46 (5)=-.54	5 of 3,1,2 4 of 3,1,2	(4) and (5) have the least positive instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait

The maximum number of students in each group: (1)Near the top=75 (2)Above average=88
(3)About average=172 (4)Below average=45
(5)Near the bottom=21

The students who perceive themselves as more able in English prefer active literacy, active oracy and instructional material in the English class. They have a greater desire to learn English and spend effort in learning it. They have more positive attitudes to English and to native speakers of English, and have more purposes in studying it. In addition, they do not feel anxious in the English class.

On the other hand, students with less self perceived proficiency in English tend to have less preference for active literacy, oracy and instructional material. They have less desire to learn English and spend little effort in studying it. They express less positive affective and instrumental attitudes to English and to native speakers of English. They express fewer purposes for studying English and suffer from a higher level of anxiety in the English class.

Visits to English speaking countries

A one-way analysis of variance with students who made different numbers of visits to English speaking countries was carried out, to find out if there is any difference between them on the 18 factors. There were five groups of students: students who have never visited an English speaking country, students who made one to two visits, three to five visits, five to ten visits and over ten visits.

Investigation of the ANOVA comparing the five groups revealed statistically significant differences on specific factors. The results can be viewed in the following table.

Table 25: Differences between students who made different numbers of visits to English speaking countries

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B1	0.003	(1)Non=0.10 (2)1 to 2=-.06 (3)3 to 5=-.01 (4)5 to 10=-.45 (5)over 10=-.60	1 cf 5	(1) have the least preference for literacy (5) have the most preference
B2	0.59	(1)=0.01 (2)=0.11 (3)=-.12 (4)=-.08 (5)=-.18	N.S	
B3	0.56	(1)=0.03 (2)=-.12 (3)=-.12 (4)=0.17 (5)=0.02	N.S	
C1	0.36	(1)=0.05 (2)=-.09 (3)=-.06 (4)=-.18 (5)=-.18	N.S	
DEFG 1	0.0001	(1)=0.12 (2)=-.09 (3)=-.06 (4)=-.72 (5)=-.55	4 cf 2 4 cf 1 5 cf 2 5 cf 1	(5) and (4) have more desire in learning English (1) and (2) have the least desire
DEFG 2	0.07	(1)=-.06 (2)=0.06 (3)=0.31 (4)=-.15 (5)=0.20	N.S	

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
DEFG 3	0.71	(1)Non=0.00 (2)1 to 2=-.07 (3)3 to 5=0.16 (4)5 to 10=-.11 (5)Over 10=-.07	N.S	
DEFG 4	0.70	(1)=0.01 (2)=-.05 (3)=0.10 (4)=-.23 (5)=0.02	N.S	
HI1	0.13	(1)=0.04 (2)=0.08 (3)=-.12 (4)=-.41 (5)=-.34	N.S	
HI2	0.06	(1)=0.08 (2)=-.28 (3)=-.00 (4)=0.12 (5)=-.25	2 cf 1	(1) have less positive attitudes toward English in terms of its educational prestige
HI3	0.41	(1)=0.03 (2)=-.01 (3)=0.04 (4)=-.38 (5)=-.20	N.S	
J1	0.002	(1)=-.09 (2)=-.01 (3)=0.13 (4)=0.71 (5)=0.37	1 cf 4 2 cf 4	(1) and (2) have less positive attitudes toward native speakers of English (4) have the most positive attitudes
J2	0.29	(1)=0.06 (2)=-.18 (3)=0.00 (4)=-.18 (5)=-.16	N.S	
K1	0.001	(1)=0.12 (2)=-.29 (3)=-.01 (4)=-.50 (5)=-.35	2 cf 1	(1) have the fewest purposes for studying English (2) have more purposes

Factor	Confidence Mean		Difference	Explanation
L1	0.04	(1)Non=-.05 (2)1 to 2=-.09 (3)3 to 5=0.05 (4)5 to 10=0.49 (5)Over 10=0.43	N.S	
M1	0.13	(1)=0.08 (2)=-.22 (3)=-.06 (4)=-.26 (5)=-.11	N.S	
M2	0.19	(1)=-.05 (2)=-.00 (3)=0.20 (4)=0.28 (5)=0.19	N.S	
M3	0.02	(1)=-.06 (2)=0.07 (3)=-.01 (4)=0.53 (5)=0.22	1 of 4	(1) have the least positive instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait (4) have more positive attitudes

The maximum number of students in each group: (1)Non=262 (2)1 to 2=59
(3)3 to 5=39 (4)5 to 10=17
(5)Over 10=24

Students who have never visited an English speaking country have less preference for active literacy in the English class. They have less desire in learning English and less positive attitudes to English in terms of its educational prestige and in terms of its use and need in Kuwait. They also have less favourable attitudes toward native speakers of English.

Students who visited an English speaking country only once or twice, also have less desire to learn English and less favourable attitudes to native speakers. However, they believe that English has educational prestige, therefore, they have a purpose in studying English.

Students who have made over five visits to English speaking countries express more preference for active literacy. They have a greater desire to learn English. They have more favourable attitudes toward native speakers of English and have more positive instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait. They believe that there is a use for English and need to learn it in Kuwait. They have more purpose in studying English.

The more visits the student makes, the higher degree of positiveness the student has towards English and native speakers of English. This is may be because these visits give one the opportunity to use the language naturally, feel its importance as a means of communication, and get to know and meet with native speakers.

Time spent in English speaking countries

A one-way analysis of variance with subjects who spent different periods of time in English speaking countries was carried out to see if there is any difference in the 18 factors. There are five groups of students: students who have never spent any time in English speaking country; students who have spent from one to four weeks, from four to eight weeks, from two to six months and over six months.

Inspection of the ANOVA comparing the five groups showed statistically significant differences on seven factors. These differences can be seen in the table below.

Table 26: Differences between students who spent different periods of time in English speaking countries

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B1	0.008	(1)Non=0.10 (3)1 to 4 weeks=-.11 (4)4 to 8 weeks=-.32 (5)2 to 6 months=-.04 (6)Over 6 months=-.59	1 of 6	(6) prefer more literacy (1) prefer less literacy

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B2	0.62	(1)Non=0.01 (3)1 to 4 weeks=0.05 (4)4 to 8 weeks=0.07 (5)2 to 6 months=-.19 (6)Over 6 months=-.22	N.S	
B3	0.33	(1)=0.02 (3)=-.05 (4)=-.21 (5)=-.11 (6)=0.28	N.S	
C1	0.29	(1)=0.05 (3)=-.01 (4)=-.25 (5)=-.08 (6)=-.18	N.S	
DEFG 1	0.0001	(1)=0.13 (3)=-.01 (4)=-.52 (5)=-.47 (6)=-.40	1 cf 4 1 cf 5 1 cf 6	(1) have the least desire in learning English (4), (5) and (6) have more desire
DEFG 2	0.08	(1)=-.06 (3)=-.01 (4)=0.31 (5)=0.30 (6)=0.05	N.S	
DEFG 3	0.71	(1)=0.00 (3)=0.10 (4)=-.17 (5)=-.02 (6)=-.06	N.S	
DEFG 4	0.999	(1)=0.00 (3)=0.00 (4)=0.00 (5)=-.03 (6)=-.01	N.S	
HI1	0.25	(1)=0.05 (3)=-.01 (4)=0.02 (5)=-.23 (6)=-.39	N.S	

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
HI2	0.15	(1)Non=0.08 (3)1 to 4 weeks=-.22 (4)4 to 8 weeks=-.14 (5)2 to 6 months=-.04 (6)Over 6 months=-.18	N.S	
HI3	0.33	(1)=0.03 (3)=0.03 (4)=-.31 (5)=0.00 (6)=-.17	N.S	
J1	0.01	(1)=-.09 (3)=0.06 (4)=0.53 (5)=0.20 (6)=0.07	1 cf 4	(1) have the least positive attitudes to native speakers (4) have the most positive attitudes
J2	0.06	(1)=0.07 (3)=-.10 (4)=0.10 (5)=-.19 (6)=-.48	1 cf 6	(1) have the least positive attitudes to native speakers (6) have the most positive attitudes
K1	0.002	(1)=0.12 (3)=-.20 (4)=-.44 (5)=-.27 (6)=-.17	1 cf 4 1 cf 3	(1) have less purposes for studying English
L1	0.03	(1)=-.05 (3)=-.09 (4)=0.55 (5)=0.06 (6)=0.22	4 cf 3 4 cf 1	(1) and (3) feel of anxiety in English class (4) do not feel so
M1	0.05	(1)=0.08 (3)=-.28 (4)=-.01 (5)=-.22 (6)=-.00	1 cf 3	(3) believe that English has status and prestige in Kuwait (1) have less positive attitude in this term
M2	0.17	(1)=-.06 (3)=0.06 (4)=0.10 (5)=0.35 (6)=0.06	N.S	

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
M3	0.14	(1)Non=-.06 (3)1 to 4 weeks=0.02 (4)4 to 8 weeks=0.30 (5)2 to 6 months=0.14 (6)Over 6 months=0.20	N.S	

Note: The numbering system for groups reflects a computer recoding of the independent variable.

The maximum number of students in each group: (1)Non=266 (3)1 to 4 weeks=60
(4)4 to 8 weeks=28 (5)2 to 6 months=25
(6)Over 6 months=20

Students who have never spent any time in an English speaking country tend to show less preference for active literacy in English class. They have less desire to learn English and less favourable attitudes to native speakers of English, and express less motivation for studying English. They believe that English has neither status nor prestige in Kuwait. They experience the feeling of anxiety and discomfort in the English class.

Students who have spent over six months in English speaking countries have more preference for active literacy in the English class. However, students who have spent over four weeks and up to six months or more in English speaking countries have the greatest desire to learn English, the most positive attitudes to native speakers and the least feeling of anxiety in the English class. Furthermore, they have more purposes for studying English.

The longer time a student spends in English speaking countries, the more favourable attitudes the student has toward learning English and toward native speakers. It seems that the length of stay in an English speaking country may contribute to attitude change. When student spends a long time in an English speaking country, he/she is exposed to the English language in a context that allows for more practice in using the language. Such practice causes more fluency and more confidence which in turn creates positiveness toward learning English and towards native speakers of English.

Time spent watching the English channel (channel 2) on T.V.

A one-way analysis of variance with students who spend different periods of time watching channel two on T.V. (English only programmes), was carried out to see if there is any difference on the latent variables. There were five groups of students: students who do not watch ch. 2 at all; students who watch it for one to two hours per week; from two to five hours; from five to ten hours and over ten hours.

Investigation of the ANOVA comparing the five groups showed statistically significant differences on most of the factors. These differences can be seen in the table below.

Table 27: Differences between students spending different periods of time watching ch.2 on T.V.

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B1	0.00001	(1)Non=0.56 (2)1 to 2 hours=-.03 (3)2 to 5 hours=-.16 (4)5 to 10 hours=-.47 (5)Over 10 hours=-.70	5 cf 3,2,1 4 cf 2,1 3 cf 1	(1) have the least preference literacy (5) prefer more literacy The more they watch ch.2, the more they prefer literacy
B2	0.07	(1)=0.18 (2)=-.03 (3)=0.01 (4)=-.23 (5)=-.25	N.S	
B3	0.001	(1)=0.27 (2)=-.09 (3)=-.01 (4)=-.31 (5)=-.00	1 cf 4 1 cf 2	(1) have less preference for structure in class
C1	0.00001	(1)=0.57 (2)=-.07 (3)=-.18 (4)=-.51 (5)=-.42	1 cf 4 1 cf 5 1 cf 3 1 cf 2 2 cf 4	(1) have less preference for instructional material

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
DEFG 1	0.00001	(1)Non=0.54 (2)1 to 2 hours=0.03 (3)2 to 5 hours=-.24 (4)5 to 10 hours=-.59 (5)Over 10 hours=-.60	1 cf 2,3 1 cf 4,5 2 cf 3,4,5	(1) and (2) have less desire in learning English while (3), (4) and (5) have more desire
DEFG 2	0.04	(1)=0.22 (2)=-.06 (3)=-.04 (4)=-.22 (5)=0.14	N.S	
DEFG 3	0.16	(1)=0.19 (2)=-.09 (3)=0.00 (4)=0.02 (5)=-.07	N.S	
DEFG 4	0.82	(1)=0.03 (2)=0.01 (3)=-.07 (4)=-.03 (5)=0.13	N.S	
HI1	0.00001	(1)=0.41 (2)=-.06 (3)=-.11 (4)=-.28 (5)=-.33	1 cf 2 1 cf 3 1 cf 4 1 cf 5	The more students watch ch.2, the more positive attitudes they have toward English (1) have the least positive attitudes to English
HI2	0.00001	(1)=0.61 (2)=-.12 (3)=-.13 (4)=-.49 (5)=-.36	1 cf 2 1 cf 3 1 cf 4 1 cf 5	(1) have less positive attitudes to English in terms of its educational prestige The more they watch ch.2, the more positive they are
HI3	0.05	(1)Non=0.09 (2)1 to 2 hours=0.10 (3)2 to 5 hours=-.11 (4)5 to 10 hours=-.26 (5)Over 10=-.26	N.S	
J1	0.07	(1)=-.24 (2)=0.08 (3)=0.00 (4)=0.23 (5)=-.01	1 cf 2	(1) have the least positive attitudes to native speakers of English

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
J2	0.00001	(1)=0.49 (2)=-.05 (3)=-.22 (4)=-.29 (5)=-.21	1 cf 2 1 cf 3 1 cf 4 1 cf 5	(2), (3), (4) and (5) have more positive attitudes to native speakers of English (1) have the least positive attitudes
K1	0.00001	(1)=0.63 (2)=-.17 (3)=-.14 (4)=-.39 (5)=-.17	1 cf 2 1 cf 3 1 cf 4 1 cf 5	The more students watch ch.2 the more purposes they have for studying English (1) have the least purposes
L1	0.30	(1)=-.15 (2)=-.01 (3)=0.05 (4)=0.09 (5)=0.30	N.S	
M1	0.00001	(1)=0.45 (2)=-.14 (3)=-.06 (4)=-.34 (5)=0.03	1 cf 2 1 cf 3 1 cf 4	(1) have less positive attitudes to English in terms of its status and prestige in Kuwait
M2	0.001	(1)=-.33 (2)=0.10 (3)=0.10 (4)=-.05 (5)=0.13	1 cf 2 1 cf 3	(1) think that English leads to westernisation and harm to Islam
M3	0.00001	(1)=-.44 (2)=0.12 (3)=0.12 (4)=0.11 (5)=0.20	1 cf 2 1 cf 3 1 cf 4 1 cf 5	(1) have the least positive instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait (2), (3), (4) and (5) have more positive attitudes

The maximum number of students in each group:

(1) Non=91
(2) 1 to 2 hours=164
(3) 2 to 5 hours=91
(4) 5 to 10 hours=30
(5) Over 10 hours=22

Students who do not watch channel two on T.V. at all show a degree of negativity towards English. They appear to have less preference for literacy, structure in class and instructional material. They reveal less desire for learning English and express less favourable attitudes to English. They do not see English as

having educational importance, status, prestige or having use in Kuwait. They regard it as leading to Westernisation and harm to Islam. Moreover, they have less positive attitudes to native speakers of English and less purposes for studying English.

The more respondents watch the English channel on T.V., the more they prefer literacy and instructional material, the greater desire for English they feel, and the more positive attitudes to English and native speakers of English they express. They regard English as academic, educational, prestigious and useful in Kuwait. In addition, the more students watch channel 2, the more purposes for studying English they express. Those who like watching English programmes like the English language, like learning it and like the native speakers of English.

Career intentions

A one-way analysis of variance was carried out to see if there is any difference between students with different career intentions after graduation. There were five groups of students: students who intend to take postgraduate (PG) studies in Kuwait; students who intend to take postgraduate (PG) studies at an English University; students who intend to take postgraduate (PG) studies at an Arabic University; students who intend to find a job that requires knowledge of English, and students who intend to have a job that does not require knowledge of English.

Inspection of the ANOVA comparing the five groups showed statistically significant differences on most of the factors. These differences are portrayed below.

Table 28: Differences between students with different career intentions

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
B1	0.00001	(1)PG studies in Kuwait=-.02 (2)PG studies at English University=-.68 (3)PG studies at Arabic University=0.00 (4)English job=-.39 (5)Arabic job=0.25	2 cf 1 2 cf 3 2 cf 5 4 cf 1 4 cf 5	(2) and (4) prefer more literacy

Factor	Confidence	Mean		Difference	Explanation
B2	0.04	(1)PG in Kuwait=-.20 (2)PG at English Univ=-.12 (3)PG at Arabic Univ=-.00 (4)English job=-.08 (5)Arabic job=0.13		1 cf 5	(1) prefer more oracy
B3	0.48	(1)=0.00 (2)=0.03 (3)=-.26 (4)=-.08 (5)=0.02		N.S	
C1	0.0006	(1)=-.05 (2)=-.25 (3)=-.20 (4)=-.28 (5)=0.16		5 cf 4 5 cf 2	(2) and (4) prefer more instructional material in class
DEFG 1	0.00001	(1)=-.08 (2)=-.72 (3)=-.03 (4)=-.71 (5)=0.40		5 cf 1,2 5 cf 3,4 3 cf 2,4 1 cf 2,4	(2) and (4) have more desire to learn English (5) have the least desire
DEFG 2	0.23	(1)=-.22 (2)=-.03 (3)=0.09 (4)=-.00 (5)=0.04		N.S	
DEFG 3	0.55	(1)=0.04 (2)=0.03 (3)=-.28 (4)=0.05 (5)=-.00		N.S	
DEFG 4	0.28	(1)=-.08 (2)=-.02 (3)=0.22 (4)=-.14 (5)=0.04		N.S	
HI1	0.00001	(1)=0.06 (2)=-.47 (3)=-.09 (4)=-.42 (5)=0.19		5 cf 2 5 cf 4 1 cf 2 1 cf 4	(2) and (4) have more positive attitudes to English (5) and (1) have less positive attitudes

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
HI2	0.04	(1)PG in Kuwait=0.08 (2)PG at English Univ=-.23 (3)PG at Arabic Univ=0.40 (4)English job=-.21 (5)Arabic job=-.01	4 cf 3	(4) have more positive attitudes to English in terms of its educational prestige
HI3	0.00001	(1)=-.13 (2)=-.30 (3)=-.22 (4)=-.38 (5)=0.26	5 cf 1 5 cf 2 5 cf 3 5 cf 4	(5) have the least positive affective attitudes to English
J1	0.07	(1)=-.07 (2)=0.27 (3)=-.09 (4)=0.22 (5)=-.08	N.S	
J2	0.02	(1)=0.14 (2)=-.38 (3)=0.25 (4)=-.17 (5)=0.00	1 cf 2	(2) have more positive attitudes toward native speakers of English
K1	0.00001	(1)=0.04 (2)=-.57 (3)=0.44 (4)=-.29 (5)=0.08	2 cf 1,5,3 4 cf 1,5,3	(2) and (4) have more purposes for studying English
L1	0.00001	(1)=0.13 (2)=0.46 (3)=0.28 (4)=0.18 (5)=-.24	5 cf 2 5 cf 4 5 cf 1	(2), (4) and (1) feel comfortable in English class (5) feel less comfortable
M1	0.06	(1)=0.08 (2)=-.22 (3)=0.24 (4)=-.26 (5)=0.01	N.S	
M2	0.15	(1)=-.04 (2)=0.34 (3)=-.03 (4)=-.08 (5)=-.01	2 cf 5	(5) see English leads to Westernisation and harm to Islam

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Difference	Explanation
M3	0.10	(1)PG in Kuwait=-.00 (2)PG at English Univ=0.23 (3)PG at Arabic Univ=-.12 (4)English job=0.19 (5)Arabic job=-.05	N.S	

The maximum number of students in each group:

(1)PG in Kuwait=76
(2)PG at English Univ=38
(3)PG at Arabic Univ=27
(4)English job=56
(5)Arabic job=195

The above table suggests that students who need English for their future careers such as those who intend to take postgraduate studies at an English University and students who intend to find a job that requires knowledge of English after graduation, have a definite degree of positiveness towards English throughout all the factors. Those who do not need English for their future career, like those who intend to take postgraduate studies in Kuwait or at an Arabic University, or those who intend to find a job that does not require knowledge of English, tend to show less positive attitudes to English throughout the factors.

Students who intend to take postgraduate studies at an English University and students who intend to have a job that requires knowledge of English have more preference for literacy, oracy and instructional materials in the English class. They have a greater desire for English and more positive attitudes to English and to native speakers of English. They like the English language more, and see it as educational and prestigious. They disagree that 'English leads to Westernisation and harm to Islam', especially those who intend to travel abroad to study at an English University. They show more purposes for studying English and less anxiety in the English class.

The other three groups who do not need English for their future career have less favourable attitudes to English, especially those who intend to have a job that does not require knowledge of English. They have the least degree of positiveness. However, the group of students who intend to take postgraduate studies in Kuwait are

more positive than the other two groups, maybe because postgraduate studies in Kuwait also require some knowledge of English. In general, the three groups of students tend to show less preference for literacy, oracy and instructional material in class. They have less desire for English, less favourable attitudes to English and to native speakers of English. They like English less and regard that it is not prestigious, leads to Westernisation and harm to Islam. They have less purpose in studying English and more feelings of anxiety in class.

The researcher carried out a one-way analysis of variance with students of different nationalities: Kuwaities and non Kuwaities, and with students of different gender: males and females, to see if there is any difference between them on the latent variables. The investigator considers this analysis as neither reliable nor representative enough due to the very few numbers of non Kuwaities and males in this study. Therefore, the tables of the results of this analysis are given in Appendices (17 and 18).

A variety of analyses were run to try to detect interactions (by two way and three way ANOVAs). No significant interactions were found between pairs or triples of any background variables.

Correlations

The following data (table 29) contains the correlations between the factors (see list of factors in Appendix 16) and the following variables: age, GPA, grades in English mid-term exam, English final grades and self perceived level in English.

Table 29: Table of correlations

Variables Correlated	Size of Correlation	Significance Level	Explanation
V5 with DEFG1	0.1288	0.012	Older students=More desire to learn English
V5 with J1	-.1133	0.031	Older=More positive attitudes to native speakers
V6 with DEFG4	-.1135	0.026	Higher GPA=Less preference for English only

Variables Correlated	Size of Correlation	Significance Level	Explanation
V6 with HI3	-.1279	0.015	Higher GPA=Less positive affective attitudes to English
V6 with L1	0.1227	0.016	Higher GPA=Higher anxiety
V19 with B1	0.1464	0.009	Higher grades in mid term=More preference for literacy
V19 with B2	0.2178	0.0001	Higher grades in mid term=More preference for oracy
V19 with B3	-.1345	0.017	Higher grades in mid term=Less preference for structure in English class
V19 with C1	0.1108	0.036	Higher grades in mid term=More preference for instructional material
V19 with DEFG1	0.3778	0.0001	Higher grades in mid term=More desire to learn English
V19 with DEFG2	0.1890	0.0001	Higher grades in mid term=More effort spent in learning English
V19 with DEFG4	-.1335	0.012	Higher grades in mid term=Less preference for English only in class
V19 with HI1	0.3026	0.0001	Higher grades in mid term=More positive attitude to English
V19 with HI2	-.1993	0.0001	Higher grades in mid term=Less positive attitude to English in terms of its educational prestige
V19 with HI3	0.3892	0.0001	Higher grades in mid term=More positive affective attitudes to English
V19 with L1	-.4023	0.0001	Higher grades in mid term=Less anxiety
V19 with M1	-.1503	0.004	Higher grades in mid term=Less positive attitude to English for status and prestige in Kuwait
V19 with M3	-.1789	0.001	Higher grades in mid term=More positive instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait
V20 with B1	0.1182	0.029	Higher final English grade=More preference for literacy

Variables Correlated	Size of Correlation	Significance Level	Explanation
V20 with B2	0.1629	0.003	Higher final grade= More preference for oracy
V20 with B3	-.1439	0.008	Higher final grade=Less preference for structure
V20 with DEFG1	0.3151	0.0001	Higher final grade=More desire for English
V20 with DEFG2	0.2992	0.0001	Higher final grade=More effort expended
V20 with DEFG4	-.1022	0.044	Higher final grade=Less preference for English only in class
V20 with HI	0.2659	0.0001	Higher final grade=More positive attitudes to English
V20 with HI2	-.1831	0.0001	Higher final grade=Less positive attitudes to English in terms of prestige
V20 with HI3	0.3457	0.0001	Higher final grade=More positive affective attitudes to English
V20 with L1	-.3645	0.0001	Higher final grade=Less anxiety
V20 with M1	-.1222	0.016	Higher final grade=Less positive attitudes to English for status and prestige
V20 with M3	-.1552	0.002	Higher final grade=More positive instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait
V13 with B1	0.2339	0.0001	Higher self perceived level in English=More preference for literacy
V13 with B2	0.2302	0.0001	Higher self perceived level in English=More preference for oracy
V13 with C1	0.1726	0.001	Higher self perceived level in English=More preference for instructional material
V13 with DEFG1	0.4988	0.0001	Higher level in English=More desire for English
V13 with DEFG2	0.2556	0.0001	Higher level=More effort expended
V13 with DEFG4	-.1302	0.010	Higher level=Less preference for English only
V13 with HI1	0.3331	0.0001	Higher level=More positive attitude to English

Variables Correlated	Size of Correlation	Significance Level	Explanation
V13 with H13	0.5171	0.0001	Higher level in English=More positive affective attitudes to English
V13 with J1	-.1461	0.005	Higher level in English=More positive attitudes to native speakers
V13 with K1	0.1180	0.019	Higher level=More purposes for studying English
V13 with L1	-.5220	0.0001	Higher level in English=Less anxiety
V13 with M3	-.2250	0.0001	Higher level in English=More positive instrumental attitudes to English in Kuwait

(Note: V5, V6, V13 etc. refers to the coding of variables used in the statistical analysis - see coding book in Appendix 5).

It was found that only two factors correlated significantly with age. It seems that the older the students, the more desire to learn English and the more positive their attitude to native speakers of English. This is because as students become older, they become more mature and experienced and learn to recognize the importance of learning English. However, no relationship was found between age and the other factors. Age appears not to be a strong predictor of language attitudes, at least in this study.

It was found that three factors correlated significantly with GPA. It appears that the higher GPA students have, the less the preference for the use of 'English only' in class; the less positive are their affective attitudes to English and the higher their anxiety. When a one way analysis was carried out, it appeared that students who have the highest GPA were from the College of Sharia. College affiliation thus explains this result. That is, the correlations with GPA are explained by the College of the students rather than GPA itself.

In terms of students' grades in the English mid-term and final exam, it appears that the higher the grades obtained by the students, the more preference they have for

literacy, oracy and instructional material in class; the greater the desire for learning English; the more effort will be expended in learning English and the more positive will be students' affective and instrumental attitudes toward the English language. The higher the grades, the less preference for structure and the use of 'English only' in class, the less the anxiety towards learning the English language and the less positive will be students' attitudes toward English in terms of status and prestige in Kuwait.

The same results were found with the 'self perceived level in English' factor. The higher the self perceived level in English, the more preference for literacy, oracy and instructional material, the more desire to learn English, the greater effort the students expend, the more favourable is their attitude (affective and instrumental) to English and to native speakers, the more purpose they have in studying English, the less preference for the use of 'English only' in class and the less anxiety towards learning English.

The correlations between the factors (in Appendix 16) are presented in table 30.

Table 30: Correlation Coefficients

	B 1	B 2	B 3	C 1	DEFG 1	DEFG 2
B1	1.0000	.1150*	.0490	.4436**	.4814**	.1224*
B2	.1150*	1.0000	.0262	.3927**	.3705**	.1102*
B3	.0490	.0262	1.0000	.2488**	-.0344	-.0952
C1	.4436**	.3927**	.2488**	1.0000	.4077**	.0867
DEFG1	.4814**	.3705**	-.0344	.4077**	1.0000	.0743
DEFG2	.1224*	.1102*	-.0952	.0867	.0743	1.0000
DEFG3	.1518**	.3738**	.2391**	.3917**	.0503	.0144
DEFG4	.1788**	.0213	.1018	.0655	.0375	-.0518
HI1	.3820**	.3312**	-.0469	.4115**	.6192**	.2815**
HI2	.2756**	.1177*	.2041**	.2742**	.1951**	.0448
HI3	.2507**	.1482**	-.0671	.1409**	.5466**	.1898**
J1	-.1927**	-.0788	-.1119*	-.1842**	-.2248**	.0089
J2	.2507**	.0529	.1510**	.2563**	.2635**	.1579**
K1	.3866**	.2296**	.2186**	.4279**	.3925**	.0906
L1	-.1169*	-.2684**	.1490**	-.1604**	-.4560**	-.3016**
M1	.2761**	.0880	.2225**	.1884**	.1624**	.0512
M2	-.0922	-.1081*	-.0721	-.1505**	-.2009**	-.0714
M3	-.2866**	-.0916	-.0649	-.3123**	-.3222**	-.1424**

	DEFG3	DEFG4	HI1	HI2	HI3	J1
B1	.1518**	.1788**	.3820**	.2756**	.2507**	-.1927**
B2	.3738**	.0213	.3312**	.1177*	.1482**	-.0788
B3	.2391**	.1018	-.0469	.2041**	-.0671	-.1119*
C1	.3917**	.0655	.4115**	.2742**	.1409**	-.1842**
DEFG1	.0503	.0375	.6192**	.1951**	.5466**	-.2248**
DEFG2	.0144	-.0518	.2815**	.0448	.1898**	.0089
DEFG3	1.0000	.0239	.1642**	.1078*	-.0778	-.1548**
DEFG4	.0239	1.0000	-.1200*	.0814	-.0792	-.0491
HI1	.1642**	-.1200*	1.0000	.0782	.1573**	-.1791**
HI2	.1078*	.0814	.0782	1.0000	-.0400	-.2052**
HI3	-.0778	-.0792	.1573**	-.0400	1.0000	-.1506**
J1	-.1548**	-.0491	-.1791**	-.2052**	-.1506**	1.0000
J2	.0583	.0870	.1986**	.5944**	.1005	-.0341
K1	.2492**	.0659	.2959**	.6811**	.1176*	-.3117**
L1	.0031	.1555**	-.4163**	.1159*	-.5035**	.1634**
M1	.1709**	.1137*	.1014	.7022**	-.1010	-.1630**
M2	-.1080*	.0030	-.2663**	-.1713**	-.0659	.2437**
M3	-.1426**	.1004	-.4256**	-.2178**	-.1725**	.2188**

	J2	K1	L1	M1	M2	M3
B1	.2507**	.3866**	-.1169*	.2761**	-.0922	-.2866**
B2	.0529	.2296**	-.2684**	.0880	-.1081*	-.0916
B3	.1510**	.2186**	.1490**	.2225**	-.0721	-.0649
C1	.2563**	.4279**	-.1604**	.1884**	-.1505**	-.3123**
DEFG1	.2635**	.3925**	-.4560**	.1624**	-.2009**	-.3222**
DEFG2	.1579**	.0906	-.3016**	.0512	-.0714	-.1424**
DEFG3	.0583	.2492**	.0031	.1709**	-.1080*	-.1426**
DEFG4	.0870	.0659	.1555**	.1137*	.0030	.1004
HI1	.1986**	.2959**	-.4163**	.1014	-.2663**	-.4256**
HI2	.5944**	.6811**	.1159*	.7022**	-.1713**	-.2178**
HI3	.1005	.1176*	-.5035**	-.1010	-.0659	-.1725**
J1	-.0341	-.3117**	.1634**	-.1630**	.2437**	.2188**
J2	1.0000	.5145**	-.0689	.5907**	-.1024	-.1822**
K1	.5145**	1.0000	-.0594	.6568**	-.2472**	-.3324**
L1	-.0689	-.0594	1.0000	.1406**	.2529**	.2472**
M1	.5907**	.6568**	.1406**	1.0000	-.0104	-.0842
M2	-.1024	-.2472**	.2529**	-.0104	1.0000	.1546**
M3	-.1822**	-.3324**	.2472**	-.0842	.1546**	1.0000

* - Signif. LE .05

** - Signif. LE .01

(2-tailed)

The matrices of correlations in table 30 suggest that there was relatively little overlap between the factors. The number of correlations above 0.50 form 9 out of 103 possible correlations (9.27 % of the total).

Motivation consists of components (Gardner 1985): purpose for studying English; desire to learn English; effort expended in learning English and attitudes toward English. The correlations in table 12 suggest that these components, in addition to attitudes to native speakers of English and anxiety in the English class are modestly related.

The desire to learn English tends to be connected with holding a favourable affective and instrumental attitudes toward English and native speakers of English, having more purposes for studying English and feelings of less anxiety in the English class. Students who expend more effort in learning English, tend to have more positive affective and instrumental attitudes to English and to native speakers of English and lower levels of anxiety.

Positive attitudes toward English are found amongst students who have a desire to learn English, who expend more effort in studying English, who reveal more purposes for studying English and less feeling of anxiety in the English class. Having more reasons for studying English tends to be connected to a stronger desire to learn English, more favourable affective and instrumental attitudes to English and to native speakers. Being anxious in the English class tends to be related to a less favourable attitude (affective and instrumental) to English and native speakers of English, less desire to learn English and less effort expended in studying English as is expressed in the negative correlations.

Conclusion

When one-way analyses were carried out, it was found that students from the College of Science, taking the English courses 097, 098, 161 and 162, whose major subjects are physical sciences, biological sciences and maths, had the most favourable attitudes to literacy, oracy and instructional materials in class. They

appeared to have the strongest positive attitudes to English, to native speakers of English, and more purpose for learning English.

Students from College of Arts, taking the English courses: 099, 131, 132, 133 and 134, whose major subjects are Arabic language, humanities and social sciences, had less preference for literacy in the English class. However, compared with Science and Sharia students, they expend the most effort in learning English. They have positive attitudes to English and to native speakers. They express clear purposes for studying English. They have a degree of positiveness but not as strong as Science students.

Students from College of Sharia, taking the English courses 151 and 152, whose major subject is Islamic studies had the least preference for literacy, oracy and instructional material, the least purposes for studying English and the least favourable attitudes to English and to native speakers of English.

There was a significant difference between students of different years of study only on the 'anxiety factor' and 'effort spent to learn English factor'. It appeared that the first year students had more anxiety in English class, and the second year students expend the most effort in learning English. In terms of geographical areas, students from Hawalli had the most positive attitudes to English and to native speakers of English, while Kuwait City and Ahmadi students showed the least positive opinions.

An analysis of self perceived English proficiency differences showed that those who perceive themselves as more able in English expressed more preference for literacy, oracy and instructional material in class. They had a greater desire to learn English, spent more effort, expressed more purposes for studying English and felt more positive towards English and speakers of English than those who perceive themselves as less proficient in English.

In terms of visits to English speaking countries and the time spent there, it was found that the more visits the student makes and the longer time student spends there, the higher degree of positiveness the student has towards the English language,

studying English and towards native speakers of English. The more students watch channel two on T.V., the more favourable attitudes to English and native speakers such students have and the greater desire to be proficient in English.

An analysis of students' future career intentions showed that students who need English for their future careers (such as those who intend to continue their postgraduate studies at an English University and students who intend to have a job that requires knowledge of English), have a definite degree of positiveness toward English throughout the factors. Those who do not need English for their future career (like those who intend to take postgraduate studies in Kuwait or at an Arabic University or those who intend to have a job that doesn't require knowledge of English), tend to show less positive attitudes to English and learning English throughout the factors.

In summation, when the data was analysed, it was found that the more one is exposed to the English language, through being in an English medium College, visiting and staying in an English country or watching English programmes on T.V., and the more one needs the English language either for present studies or for future career, the more one appreciates English and reveals positiveness towards the language.

When the correlations were inspected, it appeared that GPA and age are not good predictors of language attitudes in this study. On the other hand, a student's ability in English has a significant relationship with the factors investigated. The higher a student's ability in English, the more preference for literacy, oracy and instructional material; the greater the desire to learn English; the more effort the student spends in learning English and the more favourable is a student's attitude toward the English language. Moreover, the higher a student's level in English, the less anxiety the student feels in the English class. In addition, the correlations show that the components of motivation are related.

Chapter Seven

Computer Assisted Language Learning in Kuwait: A Research Study

(The second piece of research)

Introduction

This chapter will detail the second piece of research. It will examine one kind of EFL instructional material, computer programs. It will investigate the effect of CALL programs on students' motivation to learn English, their feelings of anxiety in the language class and their achievement in English. This study is based on observation, interviews and written reports. It is conducted on a group of Kuwait University undergraduates enrolled in a required English course. Students are taught the required curriculum supported by computer lessons. In this chapter, the researcher will describe each computer session in terms of the computer program used, the type of exercise introduced, the number of students attending the class, a description of what happened in the class, students' reaction towards the programs used, followed by some evaluative analysis. The overall results reached by the investigator will be discussed.

The Aim of the Study

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the effect of introducing computer programs into Kuwait University language classes which in this context would form totally new instructional material.

The previous research chapter aimed at investigating whether attitude, motivation and anxiety have some kind of a relationship with students' achievement in the foreign language, and at identifying the methods of teaching, materials, activities and an appropriate teacher role, that students most like, so that students' motivation can be harnessed in learning English as a foreign language (EFL).

This chapter goes deeper by examining one kind of EFL instructional material, computer programs. The present study investigates the effect of computer programs on students' motivation to learn English as a foreign language. Do students like computer programs? Do they enjoy using them? Do computer programs reduce or increase students' motivation to learn a foreign language (FL). The present research examines the effect of computer programs on students' feelings of anxiety in the language class. Do students feel anxious in class while using computer programs? Do they feel comfortable and relaxed when they use computer programs? Consequently, will computer programs affect students' achievement in the FL?

The researcher examines three types of computer programs, drill and skill programs, games and a simulation. This study will try also to answer the question of 'which computer programs do students most like or dislike and why?'

In summary, this part of the research intends to examine four main questions:

1. Does using computer programs to teach English as a foreign language affect students' motivation to learn the language?
2. Does using computer programs to teach EFL affect students' feeling of anxiety in the foreign language class?
3. Does using computer programs affect students' achievement in the English language?
4. Which computer programs do students most like or dislike?

Table 31: Summary of the aims of the study

<u>A. Aim 1: Find whether:</u>	
Attitude Motivation Anxiety	} are related to students' achievement in FL
<u>B. Aim 2: Identify:</u>	
Methods of teaching Activities Teacher role Instructional material	} that students most like
<u>C. Aim 3: Find whether:</u>	
Instructional material: 'CALL'	} affect Students' motivation, anxiety and achievement in FL

The Context of the Research

This study was conducted at the Kuwait University, on students in the School of Education, enrolled in the English language course 110 offered by the Language Centre. Some information about the Kuwait University and the Language Centre was presented in chapter four. Kuwait University consists of several Colleges, and the School of Education is one of them. The School of Education was admitted into the University in the academic year 1981-82. The College offers programmes that lead to the Bachelor of Education.

As mentioned in chapter four, the Language Centre has English Units in each College, and the English Language unit at the School of Education is one of them. The English Language Unit at the School of Education offers four English courses. English '099' is a remedial non-credit English course. Students take the course when they fail the English Placement Test (EPT). The other English courses are '110' the low intermediate level course, '111' the upper intermediate course, and '112' the advanced course.

The students observed in this study were enrolled in English 110. English 110 is designed for students at the low intermediate level of academic reading and expository writing. This course focuses on developing reading skills and advanced grammatical structures. The writing skills practised in this course focus on using basic grammar structures and sentence patterns to write about personal events, to reflect on the environment and express ideas. It is a three credit course that requires five contact hours per week.

Most of the students that enrolled in the School of Education are females. Very few males enter this College because Kuwaiti males in general do not wish to enter the teaching profession.

The researcher chose students from the School of Education for several reasons. The School of Education has facilities other Colleges do not have. It has computer laboratories where students are freely allowed to use computers. Therefore, the researcher can use this laboratory. The researcher did not have the problem of preparing computers for the students under investigation. Students in the School of Education are required to take courses in computers offered by the Educational Technology Centre. As a result, the investigator expected the students to have a basic knowledge of computers. Also for administrative reasons, the researcher chose this College. The researcher knows the teaching staff and the administrators of this College. She expected their co-operation and understanding. The School of Education is the place where the researcher will work after the completion of her studies.

The Sample of the Study

The sample observed comprises a group of Kuwaiti University undergraduates who were taking the required English course 110 offered by the English Language Unit at the College of Education during the first semester (term) 1992-93. The group consists of 14 students.

The researcher chose to observe students from English 110 for various reasons. The first reason is because English 110 emphasises developing reading proficiency and grammar skills. In this course, intensive use of drills is provided to teach grammar which matches the style of one of the computer programs the researcher examined. These programs are mainly drill and practice programs. English 110 enables the teacher to use computer programs that are very relevant to the course syllabus. The course books were:

1. A basic English grammar exercises with key by Eastwood (1990).
2. Intermediate Reading Practice by K.S. Folse (1985).

Another reason why students from English 110 were chosen was that they varied from 'Excellent' (A) students to 'Fail' (F) students. They were neither very weak (as students from English 099) nor very advanced (as students from English 112). They were low intermediate students. If English 099 was chosen, the researcher would only observe the effect of computer programs on low English level students, and if English 112 was chosen, the researcher would only observe the effect of computer programs on advanced students. Students in English 110 vary from low to intermediate (and from the researchers' observation) to relatively advanced students.

The sample contains 14 students, four of them were rated by the researcher as (A) excellent students, three were rated as (B) very good students, four were rated as (C) good students, two of them as (D) pass students and one as a (F) fail student.

The researcher used several achievement measures to rate the students observed. This may be listed as:

1. A Placement test score from specific courses. For example the 'D' and 'F' students were placed in English 099 before taking 110.
2. Participation in class with the observer rating the proficiency of each student.
3. A Midterm exam grade.
4. A Final exam grade.
5. Asking students about the grades they gained in their previous English courses.

The sample consisted of females only. As mentioned earlier, very few males study at the College of Education. Even though the researcher tried her best to add males to the class, it was impossible because of time and course clashes. The computer programs contained materials that were relevant to English 110 and not to other courses where males were present. Also it was difficult to change the time of the course because the observer made administrative arrangements to use the computer laboratory which was only free at 9 a.m.

Methods Used

The technique the researcher used to collect data, was observation. The researcher chose this method because through observation method, the researcher can record the detail and complexity of behaviour. The case study observation took place over one semester which lasts 16 weeks. The investigator developed an intimate and informal relationship with the subjects she observed.

As Cohen and Manion (1980: 99) suggest "The purpose of such observation is to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of the unit with a view to establishing generalisations about the wider population to which that unit belongs". Bell (1987: 88) also declares that observation 'is a technique that can often reveal characteristics of groups of individuals which would have been impossible to discover by other means".

Case study observations are sometimes attacked for being subjective, biased, impressionistic and idiosyncratic. They lack the accuracy of quantifiable measures. There is a possibility that the observer loses an objective perspective and becomes centred on the peculiarities of a situation. Observation is criticised for its lack of external and internal validity. The external validity of this method is questionable because of the subjective and idiosyncratic nature of participant observation. Are the results applicable to other situations? Also the internal validity is questioned because the researcher's judgement may be affected by a close involvement in the group under investigation.

To attempt to overcome the limitations of observation, the researcher conducted interviews with the students, during which students talked about the programs they used and about their attitudes towards them. The researcher also asked the students to write a report about their attitudes after each computer lesson. In addition, at the end of the term, a summative reporting session was conducted. In this session, students discussed with the researcher the experience of using CALL. The researcher prepared a questionnaire to guide the discussion. The questionnaire (see appendix 19) enquires about students' attitudes towards using computers in the language class. The students were asked to indicate their attitudes on a five point scale: strongly agree, agree, neither agree nor disagree, disagree, strongly disagree.

The questionnaire consisted of 20 items (in appendix 19). These items mainly aim at measuring students' feelings of anxiety when using 'CALL'. Examples from the questionnaire are:

Q1. I feel anxious when I work on computer programs.

Q6. I feel frustrated when I work on open-ended tasks.

Q9. I feel anxious when the computer corrects my mistakes.

Students' motivation to learn English by using computers was examined. Students' motivation can be measured by reference to a number of different criteria including expressed enjoyment and interest while using computers, having positive attitudes towards 'CALL', a desire to learn English by using computer programs, and a willingness to invest effort in learning the language. Examples of questions follow:

Q5. I feel pleased when the teacher asks us to work on computer programs (reflects enjoyment and interest).

Q19. Compared to other language courses I have taken before, this one I'm taking now is the best because it uses computer programs (reflects positive attitudes).

Q10. After I'd used computer programs, I felt that I liked the English language course more (reflects desire).

Q13. When the same exercise which is in the course book is shown on the screen, I work harder to answer it (effort).

So in summary, the research methods used were: (1) observation, (2) interview, (3) written self report and (4) discussion guided by a questionnaire.

Research Procedure

The researcher made administrative arrangements with the Language Centre to allow her to teach an English class at the level of English 110 at the College of Education. The researcher also made administrative arrangements with the Department of Curriculum and Instruction and with the Educational Technology Centre to allow her to use the computer laboratory once a week for an hour. At the beginning of the academic year 1992-93, the researcher taught English 110 at School of Education for a full semester which lasted for nearly 16 weeks. The researcher taught students the curriculum that was required by the Language Centre. The investigator d'nd't invent or use new content but integrated computer programs into the regular curriculum.

The role of computer programs in the class

The researcher decided to use computer programs as supplementary instructional material. The computer was not used for controlling and guiding the language class. In this class 'CALL' (Computer Assisted Language Learning) was predominantly used. The computer was used to assist, in an additional, auxiliary role. It was just a small part of the total language learning context. The researcher took her students once a week for one hour to the computer lab to use the computer programs to reinforce what they had learnt earlier. The researcher was the one who taught, guided, made decisions and directed the class not the computer.

The researcher in this study assumed that computers can never take the role of the teacher who has control over a class, students, and the materials to be taught. The investigator agrees with Higgins and Johns (1984: 8-9) that "it is impossible for a machine to replace a human being totally in any of these roles.....It is over ambitious to see the computer as a teacher.....Our own concern is to suggest that the computer can best assist teachers if it is seen not as a replacement for their work but as a supplement to it, and that its potential should be explored across the whole range of activities involved in teaching".

After deciding on the role of the computer in this class, the researcher chose the types of programs that could best serve the curriculum taught in English 110. As mentioned earlier, English 110 focuses intensively on grammar and developing reading skills. The researcher chose drill and practice programs as the most suitable for the students. These programs provide drills and practice of grammatical rules that are required in the course.

The researcher introduced these computer programs: 'Choice Master', 'Vocab' 'Gap Master' and as a change, the researcher introduced the simulation 'Fast Food'.

To summarize: the researcher took on three main functions: teaching students the required curriculum, preparing exercises to be presented to students through the computer, and observing students' reactions to CALL.

In the next section, the researcher will discuss each session in which students used computer programs. Each session will be described in terms of: the name of the program used, the type of the exercise written by the researcher, the number of students who attended the class and a description of what happened in class, followed by the analysis. Recommendations will be given concerning which programs to use, how to use them and when to use them in the next chapter.

CALL Class (10 October 1992)

Introduction to the first computer class (10 October 1992)

In the first class, the researcher told her students that she would introduce new instructional material aided by computer programs. The researcher used the normal course books and explained the required curriculum.

The researcher explained to the students the present and past tenses in English. Then the researcher prepared a computer program that contained exercises on the tenses. The computer program that was used was a Drill and Skill program called 'Choice Master'.

Drill and Skill program: Choice Master (Jones, 1987):

In this program, the computer acts as a trainer to develop grammatical skills by repetition. The researcher explained the grammatical rules, then asked the students to use the computer programs as a kind of skill revision or skill reinforcement.

In design, this program consists of (a) Stimulus, (b) Learners' response and (c) Feedback. This program presents a stimulus that takes a multiple choice exercise form, accepts the students' response to the exercise and checks it. It may provide clues and give help if needed.

Choice Master is an authoring program for Computer Assisted Language Learning by Christopher Jones (1987). It is a multiple choice test authoring package. It enables the teacher to write exercises with up to 50 items. Each item contains a question (or stem) and up to five options, in addition to feedback messages that can be associated with certain options. This program gives the learner a choice of 'Tutorial Mode' which gives immediate feedback after each answer and 'Test Mode' which gives feedback at the end of the exercise.

Choice Master has other features which are:

- There is a browse option: Students, can browse through the items and answer them in any order.
- There is a 'Scratch Pad' facility in Test Mode: Students can change their minds about any item at any time.
- Answers / distracters can be up to 2 lines.
- The introduction screen can be up to 18 lines as can the help screen.
- There is a writer / editor program with word-processing capabilities that can make authoring very quick and easy.
- There is a repeat error message feature. The teacher doesn't have to retype the same error message several times.
- There is a dual printer option which prints out either a paper record for the teacher or a paper exercise for the student.

In order that students use Choice Master, they need to be provided with an IBM PC or PC compatible microcomputer with at least 256k Ram, A single disk drive (5.25 or 3.5) is sufficient. The Choice Master package contains the teacher program and the student program.

The teacher program

Choice Master contains the authoring program which enables the instructor to write Choice Master exercises, edit them and print them. When the teacher inserts the disc (typing CMT), the teacher program will appear. The main menu will be presented providing the choices:

1. Create a new exercise: In this option, the teacher gives the new exercise a title. Then she can begin to write the first item in the exercise.

2. Edit an existing exercise: First, the teacher selects the exercise which she wants to edit from a list of exercises on the disc. Then the screen displays the following choices:

- add an item: In this part the teacher types a multiple choice question which consists of a stem and a number of options. On the screen the teacher will see a marked space within which she can write the question. Beneath this she will see:

A
1
2
3
4

in which she can type the options. In (A), she should type the correct answer, and in 1-4 the distracters. An **example**:

She _____ to school yesterday.

- A. Went
- 1. Go
- 2. Will go
- 3. Gone
- 4. Goes

After that, the teacher can type in any feedback message to accompany the learners' choices. The teacher can type a 'positive' message to accompany the right answer and an 'error message' to accompany the wrong answer.

- Edit an item: The teacher can make changes and edit any item.

- Move an item: The teacher can enter the items in any order and rearrange them.

- Delete an item: The teacher can omit any item she doesn't want.
 - Edit into screen: This option allows the teacher to write an introduction screen.
 - Edit help screen: The teacher can write the help screen that contains information for the learner to call while doing the exercise.
 - Change to random / linear order: This option allows the teacher to present the items she wrote in linear order or in a random order.
 - Save the exercise.
 - Return to main menu.
3. Print an exercise: The teacher can print out either the teacher or student record. The teacher's print out will include the exercise with its introduction, help screen and all messages and will keep the correct answer as choice (A). The student print out cancels the messages and scrambles the choices in each item. A student print out can be used as a paper-based multiple choice exercise.
 4. Rename an exercise. The teacher can select the exercise she wants to rename and then types in the new name.
 5. Re-order exercise on disk. The teacher can make the exercises appear in a different order from that in which they were entered.
 6. Delete an exercise.
 7. Change colours.
 8. Run student program: This option enables the teacher to try the program out.
 9. Exit.

The student program

The student program contains the programs and exercise files which learners need to work with 'Choice Master'. It doesn't contain the authoring program with which a teacher can create exercises. When students insert the disk in drive A, and type 'CM', they will be presented with the following choices:

Tutorial Mode
Test Mode
Change Colour
Exit

When students begin with the Tutorial Mode, the screen displays the introduction, and asks them to press the space bar to start. Question 1 then appears with its options. The student will have to choose one of the options. The computer will tell the student if his or her answer is right or wrong and additional feedback messages will be displayed. If the student is wrong, he/she will be given a second try. If the student's second choice is also wrong, he/she will be shown the correct answer. The program gives scores: 2 points for a correct answer on the first attempt, 1 for a second try correct answer.

Students have the ability to view the help screen, to see the introduction or to stop and exit from the exercise. After exiting from the exercise, the students are offered the following choices:

- See your score: A breakdown of students performance is displayed (how many questions, the students answered right first time, right second time and completely wrong). The score is displayed both as a percentage and as a fraction.
- Review your answer: If the student has wrong answers, he/she can see the correct answers.
- Do the exercise again.

- Do another exercise: Students can select another exercise from a list of titles.
- Change to Test Mode: Test Mode enables the students to test themselves as if they were in an examination. It is similar in many ways to the Tutorial Mode but it differs in that the score is not displayed. The program does not give immediate feedback after an answer and the students are free to browse as they wish at any time. The students can come back to a question they have already answered and change it.
- Change the colours: Students can re-set the screen colours.
- Exit.

Description

'Choice Master' / No of students 7 / at The School of Education in Kuwait University / English 110, at the Computer Laboratory.

The author prepared copies of student programs that contained multiple choice exercises about the present and past tense. The teacher distributed the disks to the students, gave an introduction which included some information about the computer as a machine, software, hard disk, keyboard and other relevant points. Then the researcher introduced the computer program which students were going to work on, and demonstrated to the students the way to operate the computer and how to run the program.

The researcher noticed that students were confused and frustrated. Therefore, she went around to each student to show each one how to operate the program. The researcher kept moving around the students to help, and to answer any questions. Students only had 45 minutes to work on the exercise. Most of the time was spent on showing the students how to run the program.

Although running the program was easy, students waited for the researcher to come around and operate it for them. From what the researcher saw, students didn't

like using the computer. They complained to each other. Most of them were nervous. The atmosphere was tense. Students' faces, eyes and movements showed their rejection of the machine.

One of the students talked directly to the teacher informing her that other English 110 classes were being taught without using 'CALL'. The student asked, "Why do we have to have computer programs?" She continued to ask the teacher "Is this class meant to teach us English or computers?"

There was much noise in the class. Students kept asking and inquiring about the programs much of the time. They seemed dissatisfied. Very little time was left to answer the exercise. Therefore, they answered very few questions. Even while answering these few questions, they got stuck and made mistakes which made them very unsatisfied.

The teacher informed students that they were allowed to borrow the disks to work on the exercise in their spare time. Students didn't like this suggestion. They expressed disapproval. None of them took a disk from the teacher.

At the end of the class, the researcher tried to keep the students behind to be able to answer more questions on the exercise. The students refused to stay in class. They gave the researcher excuses that they had to rush away because they had other classes and other engagements. Students suggested they could do the same exercises on paper, "and that paper work is much easier and faster". Another student said "We need time to understand how to use the computer. This will of course waste class time, while using paper will save time. Paper-based exercises are much easier". Another student said when the class was over "Oh, I thought the class time would never pass". Another student expressed her fear when using the machine by saying "I think having an exercise on the computer screen frightens me while having the exercise on paper is much easier, at least it will not frighten me as the machine does".

To sum up, most of the students didn't like the first session using 'CALL'. They were unhappy, annoyed, frustrated and scared. They didn't show any co-operation or

simple acceptance of the program. Some students expressed verbally their rejection of 'CALL', others expressed it non-verbally. Only two students worked on the programs silently. They didn't show any kind of response (neither a response of approval and satisfaction nor a response of rejection).

Analysis (10 October 1992)

This was the first class using 'CALL', and students' rejection was expected. Some people reject new contexts and a new atmosphere. Students in this class were faced with a new situation, a new type of instructional material, a new class, the computer laboratory and new kinds of activities. Some students will feel frustrated or anxious because of the change. People seem to dislike change at the beginning. Kuwaiti students using 'CALL' for the first time were not impressed. However, students didn't work on the microcomputer for enough time to allow them to discover its advantages and benefits. They spent most of the time learning to operate the machine and didn't spend sufficient time on the program itself. May be it was the researcher's mistake to force the students to work on the exercise displayed on the computer. The researcher could have delayed this until the students learnt how to use computers and feel relaxed and ready to deal with the exercise. In that class, students were required to immediately familiarise to both the computer as a machine and the exercise as an educational assignment.

In future introductory use of 'CALL', the researcher would give students the chance to be computer literate first and then provided with educational exercises.

Students' main criticism was focused on the comparison between paper-based exercises and computer-based exercises. They commented that both exercises are similar with the difference that paper-based exercises are much easier and faster than computer-based exercises. Their criticism was due to the troubles they faced and the time they took to run the program. If they use paper-based exercises, they will only need a pen to write directly onto paper. Students also complain that the computer is unable to move through computerised exercises as easily as it is to turn through the pages of a book. Students didn't even feel comfortable reading from the screen.

Students didn't spend enough time on the computer program to discover the differences between the two types of exercises, particularly those favouring CALL.

Students' rejection of 'CALL' is partly due to the methods of teaching English in Kuwait which students are used to. The methods are very formal such that students stick to the course book, memorise rules and have frequent exercises on paper. Therefore, students rejected using the computer as a way of teaching English. They looked at computer programs as an informal way of teaching, which such students are not used to. As a result, students believed that computer programs waste their time.

Finally, it should be mentioned that the class consisted of 14 students. Seven of them attended and seven were absent. Two students out of the 7 who attended the class didn't show a rejection of 'CALL'. The other 5 students didn't like 'CALL'.

CALL Class (17 October 1992)

Description

Choice Master (present and past tense) / No of students present was 13 / at the School of Education / Kuwait University / English 110 / at the Computer laboratory.

In the previous class using 'CALL' , only 7 out of 14 students attended the class. They didn't have sufficient time to work on the exercise. The researcher decided to ask students to use the same program and the same exercise again.

On the 17th of October 1992, students were taken to the computer laboratory. This time 13 students attended, one student was absent. The researcher had already made 14 copies of the computer program. She distributed the programs to the students. The students who were absent in the previous class seemed to be enthusiastic to know about their loss in the previous class. They were impatient to work with the disks.

The researcher divided the class into two groups. One group consisted of the students who attended before the previous class using 'CALL', and the second group consisted of the students who were absent.

Group One

This time group one had the full 45 minutes to work on the exercise. They operated the computer and ran the program. They helped each other to tackle the exercise and answer it. The teacher allowed them to use their notes, their course book or class mates' help to answer the exercise. The teacher informed them that the computer would keep their scores. Then the teacher left these students and went to group two. Students depended on themselves; they didn't call the teacher and worked hard on the exercise. Each student had her own computer on which she worked individually. The researcher noticed that the students' emotional state became different. They seemed more relaxed and comfortable. Whenever they found any difficulty, they opened their notes to find out the answers, and sometimes they asked each other.

The investigator recognised that the scoring system created a competitive atmosphere. Students were very cautious not to obtain wrong answers. They were competing against the machine. Whenever they gave wrong answers, they showed disappointment by saying "oh no" or by talking to the machine (e.g. "No don't reduce my score" and non-verbally by changing their faces and hitting the desk with their hands!

In general, students in group one seemed to adapt better than on the first day of using 'CALL'. They concentrated on the exercise, smiling most of the time and trying to get all the answers correct. Some of the students finished the exercise early. The teacher asked them to go around to help the other students. Then the researcher asked them about their feelings toward using 'CALL'. One said "I really enjoyed my time. I felt that the exercise was like a game and the computer was like a toy to play with". Another student said "I didn't expect to enjoy the lesson using 'CALL' after that first day. I even thought of dropping the course because of using the computer, but now

I'm more happy and will never drop the course". Most of the students in this group changed their minds about using 'CALL'. They liked it more than before.

Group Two

After working briefly with group one, the researcher devoted her time to the second group. She gave them an introduction about the computer and some information about running it. This group seemed much better in adapting and showed co-operation. They tried operating the program by themselves. They seemed more happy to tackle a new way of teaching English. They started to work on the exercise simply and silently except for few questions about things they didn't understand. Because group 2 operated the program early, they had the chance to answer the exercises and manipulate the computer system. They expressed how interesting it is to have a colourful screen instead of a dull white piece of paper. They talked about the feedback messages given by the computer, in contrast with paper work. Also they liked the scoring system. A student said, "The computer allows me to see my score immediately. This forced me to be very careful with answers to the questions and obtaining marks. This will also save the teacher's time. The teacher will not have to go home with large numbers of papers to correct".

Students in group 2 liked the change brought about by 'CALL'. One student said that "'CALL' made changes but not for the worst, but for the best, in my opinion. It made us change the class, the activities we perform in class and the materials we use. It provided an informal atmosphere for us to experience, and broke the everyday, boring routine which we suffer from".

At the end of the class, the teacher invited the students to borrow the disks to work on in their free time. Only three students took the disks. When they returned the disks, they talked to the teacher about the difference between the exercise on the computer and exercises on paper, the advantages of computers over paper work in terms of providing a visually attractive presentation, providing sound and music, keeping a score, providing immediate feedback and helpful messages.

To sum up, group one who didn't like 'CALL' earlier seemed happier than they were before. They enjoyed the exercise displayed by the computer. Group two (who worked for the first time on 'CALL') appeared to be excited at a change in the language classroom. They had displayed a positive response towards 'CALL'.

Analysis (17 October 1992)

The students gradually recognised the benefits of the computer and its advantages over paper work. 'Choice Master' provided the learner with immediate feedback (in Tutorial Mode). In addition to this, the teacher wrote messages to accompany all answers in order that a wrong answer would bring an instant positive learning gain. By these messages the teacher provided feedback which was more helpful than just 'right' or 'wrong'.

Students regarded that messages were beneficial for three reasons. Messages could give a hint to help the learner identify the correct answer on a second try. Messages could explain why a certain answer was wrong, and messages could provide supplementary information.

Students in this class felt that they were not wasting their time. The computer was not just an instrument that displays an exercise that could otherwise be presented on paper. They recognised that, through its immediate feedback and its teaching messages, there was more to gain educationally. Therefore, they were more relaxed than they were in the previous class where they felt that using the computer was wasting their time.

CALL Class (21 October 1992)

Introduction to class 21 of October 1992

The teacher explained to the students the vocabulary items in lesson one. The students knew the meaning of the vocabulary items in lesson 1, put them in sentences and had read the passage in their course book that contained the vocabulary items.

Then the researcher located the most suitable computer program by which students could practise the vocabulary list. The researcher decided to use the computer program called 'Vocab'.

Vocab (Jones, 1989)

This program trains students to practise and revise vocabulary items and to memorise them. This program reinforces what the teacher has taught her students.

Vocab / drill and skill games

Vocab is an authoring program for Computer Assisted Language Learning written by Christopher Jones (1989). It contains six vocabulary teaching games and activities for the computer. Each game is a drill and practice program that is competitive and exciting. Drill and skill type of programs (like Choice Master) can be tedious boring. Therefore, some drill and skill programs (e.g. Vocab) are turned into games that students enjoy and learn from indirectly at the same time as playing.

Vocab can be used in any subject where vocabulary knowledge counts. It consists of six word games: which word, anagrams, skullman, alpha game, mindword and wordorder. Vocab (like Choice Master) contains a teacher program in which the teacher can write, edit, delete, rename, copy or print word lists. It also contains a student program. In order to be able to use Vocab, one needs an IBM or PC compatible with at least 512 K RAM or an IBM PS / 2.

The teacher program

The teacher program enables the teacher to create, edit and print word lists for Vocab. When the disk is inserted typing (VCT), the teacher program appears with its main menu which displays these options:

- Write a new word list
- Edit an existing word list
- Convert a word store list
- Utilities menu
- Change colours
- Run student program
- Exit

1. Write a new word list

When the teacher chooses this option, the edit menu is given:

- add an item: here the teacher can write a head-word, context sentence and a clue sentence. Word lists can be up to 50 words. Each word is followed by a context sentence and a clue sentence. Sample word list (Jones, 1989: 4):

Word 1: 'apple' context sentence: An_____a day keeps the doctor away.

Clue sentence = A hard round sweet fruit growing on a tree: can be green or red.

- Edit an item: where the teacher can scroll through the items until she finds the one she wishes to delete.

- Edit into screen: this option enables the teacher to write an introduction of up to 12 lines.

- Save the word list

- Return to previous menu

2. Edit an existing word list

First, the teacher chooses the word list which she wants to edit by choosing its name. Then she will see the edit menu and proceed with editing.

3. Convert a wordstore word list

3

This option allows the teacher to take entries which she has created with the Eurocentres / wida program wordstore and recycle them as items for Vocab.

4. Utilities menu

Contains these options: print word list, rename a word list, change order of word list on disk, merge two word lists, delete a word list and exit to previous menu.

5. Change colour: the teacher can reset the screen colours.

6. Run student program: enables teacher to try out the word list she has just written.

7. Exit: ends the program.

The student program

The student program involves the word list which students need to work with Vocab. When students insert the disk in drive A, typing (VC), the main menu appears:

- Select a game
- Change colours
- Turn sound off
- Exit

Select a game

When the student chooses 'select a game', the computer presents six vocabulary games:

1. Which word is a multiple-choice vocabulary test. The program shows a sentence with a gap, and four randomly chosen words from the list in addition to the correct word which goes with the sentence. The student selects the word which fits in the gap.

Example (Jones, 1989: 8):

When she saw me standing there she turned as red as a?
Shrimp
Lobster
Crab
Scampi
Seaweed

2. Anagrams: In this game, the program displays an anagram of a word (a word with its letters jumbled), and requires the student to unscramble it. **Example**: ahyp, the student unscrambles the word into 'happy'.

3. Skullman: This is based on the 'Hangman' game. In this game, a word is reduced to 'blobs' and the student is invited to restore it, letter by letter. The student writes one letter at a time. If the letter that the student types is in the word, the program inserts it in the correct place (or places, if the letter occurs more than once). If it is not in the word, the student loses a 'life'. With every life that the student loses, the program adds a section to a diagram of a skull (not a hanged man as in the original version of the game). If the student fails to restore the word before the skull is completed, he/she loses the game and the program provides him/her with the answer. The skull is in seven sections, so one has seven lives. After the sixth, the student is warned 'last life'.

4. Alpha game: This is a guessing game, and depends on alphabetical order. The student is asked to guess the word the computer is hiding. The student types a whole word and the program informs him/her whether the hidden word is before or after his/her guess in alphabetical order (whether it would be written before or after it in the dictionary). For example, if the hidden word is 'toothbrush' and the student's last guess was 'together' the computer displays, 'after together' (Jones, 1989: 10).

5. Mindword: This is also a guessing game. It is similar to 'Jot' or 'Word Master Mind'. The program asks the student to guess a hidden word. The number of letters in the word is given by the program. The student writes a whole word and the program shows how close the guess is to the hidden word in the following way:

(£) This sign stands for each letter the student has to correctly guess. (\$) This sign for each letter is a guess which is correct but is in the wrong position.

Example (in Jones, 1989: 10-11):

This word has 4 letters:
Most
Grab \$
Beat \$\$
Bare ££
Came £££
Cake ££££ (answer)

6. Word order: In this game, a jumbled sentence is presented with its elements in the wrong order. The student has to reconstruct the sentence by rearranging the elements into the correct order.

Example (in Jones, 1989: 11):

You
,
time
tell
can
please
?
the
me
(Answer, Can you tell me the time, please?)

When the student chooses a game, a menu of word lists appears on the screen. This program has features which are in all these games. The student can see a summary of the rules of the current game, can see the introduction to the current word list or can abandon the game. In most of the games, the student can get help by pressing special keys which display the context sentence or the clue sentence or both. In all games, items in each word list are displayed in random order. In addition to all these features, there is a scoring element.

When the student finishes, the following menu appears:

- Repeat the game
- Choose a different word list
- Play a different game
- End

Description

Vocab / No of students 14 / at School of Education / Kuwait University English 110 / at the Computer Laboratory.

On the 21st of October 1992, students were in the computer laboratory. The teacher distributed copies of programs to the students that contained six vocabulary games.

First, the teacher demonstrated to the students how to load the required program 'Vocab' that contains the vocabulary list taught in lesson 1. Then the teacher proceeded to explain to the students how to play each game, using the keyboard, the arrow keys and the special keys for help, introduction or clues as needed. After that, the teacher took few minutes to answer one or two questions from each game to show the students the steps needed to play the game. This was to make sure that students became totally aware of what they were going to do and the way to play each game.

When the researcher finished, she invited the students to start working. Most of the students ran the program with ease. Some students were still unfamiliar with the way to operate the computer program. The researcher had to walk around to help these students.

Students worked cooperatively and were totally involved in the games. They responded differently to each game. In 'Which word', students seemed serious, answering the questions, helping each other, explaining to each other points and vocabulary items. The researcher noticed that students were very eager to find the

correct answer (due to the presence of a scoring system). Therefore, they went back to their books and notes. Whenever they found any difficulty, they immediately asked the teacher. Students could be described as being serious and hard workers. They seemed to find the game simple and easy. They informed the teacher that they gained educationally from this exercise and didn't find it a waste of their time. When the students finished this game, they moved on to 'anagrams'.

In 'anagrams', students appeared to be a little bored. 'Anagrams' as a game is simply a spelling exercise. This game trains students to memorise the spelling of the words in Lesson 1. It is similar to a dictation exercise with the difference that 'anagrams' has the flavour of a game. Even though a flavour of competitiveness and excitement was added into this type of activity, some students felt bored and unhappy, except for the A (excellent) students and the F (fail) and D (pass) students who liked this game. Those who were bored with the exercise told the teacher "We all agree that 'anagrams' are very good for teaching spelling. But when the computer rewrites the letters slowly, we feel bored and a lot of time is lost. We wonder why the computer rewrites the letters of the word after the student types it correctly?" Those who didn't like this game asked the teacher to allow them to move to the other game ('skullman'), while those who liked 'anagrams' asked the teacher to borrow the disks to have more practice and time to work on this game so as to memorise the words perfectly. One student said to the teacher "I liked the game 'anagrams' because it made me memorise the words more easily and allowed me to remember them more quickly". Another student at the end of the class commented, "I liked anagrams. It was the best game I played because it allowed me to memorise the words in an interesting way. When I make mistakes, the computer forces me to compete and insist on writing the correct answer. It makes it difficult for me to forget the vocabulary words I practised".

Then students moved to work on 'Skullman'. The researcher noticed that students were really enjoying their time working on this game. Students were talking, laughing and sometimes shouting while playing this game. The researcher heard them talking to the Skullman saying "Please don't die, don't die!" when they answered incorrectly. One of them hid her head when she was warned 'last life'. Students worked attentively on this exercise, and were excited. For example, one of the

students told the investigator that she would 'never forgive herself' because she killed this poor man lots of times. Another student said "I liked the games we are playing, especially Skullman because it changed the atmosphere in the classroom. Instead of enduring a boring classroom atmosphere, we are in one that is full of enjoyment, excitement and happiness. It is the best English class I have ever had. I learned much and enjoyed myself at the same time. Time passes so quickly in this class".

All students liked this game except for one student who is an A (excellent) student. She played the game very well, but she seemed unhappy. She didn't interact with the class, and didn't show enjoyment. When she was working on 'Which word' and 'anagrams' she seemed more motivated. After the class, the researcher asked her whether she liked the program. She told the researcher that she didn't enjoy it because there was so much noise in class that she couldn't concentrate on her work (even though she did very well in the exercise). She commented that students should be given more serious programs, otherwise they will waste their time. This student wasn't comfortable during this exercise. She felt that playing games wastes students' time.

Students worked only on 'Which word', 'Anagrams' and 'Skullman'. No time was left to work on the other games. A number of students insisted on working beyond the end of the lesson. Again, at the end of the class, the teacher invited her students to borrow the disks. Nine students borrowed the disks. These students were mostly the high achievers and very low achievers.

Analysis (21 October 1992)

Students were more relaxed and comfortable in this class than they were in earlier classes although not all of them were 100% familiar with the computer. They still had difficulties especially when they used the keyboard to type.

On 'Which word', the students had to find the correct word to fit a specific context. All the students were serious while working on this exercise because they felt that it was a good test of vocabulary knowledge. It was also a relatively easy game

because it was based on the multiple choice principle. Students didn't have to think much, they didn't have to supply the word from their own active vocabulary. They only had to select a word from a list of five alternatives.

The next two games were more difficult and more of a challenge. These were guessing games that could help a great deal, because they motivated the students to undertake an activity which could be termed 'lexical search' (Jones, 1989: 19). The game 'Anagrams' forced the students to mentally search for the word that consisted of the jumbled letters presented by the computer. The researcher observed that the average students were bored while playing the game because, as they pointed out, the game taught spelling which they didn't like. Also, the words were displayed on the screen letter by letter so slowly that it made students lose interest in the game. However, the very high and low achievers were interested because they felt that they were practising spelling in a motivating way. They recognised that they memorised the spelling of the words in a different way. Instead of studying the spelling by traditional ways, they are now using the computer with a game-like program.

The high achievers liked computer activity as an alternative way of practising spelling. The low achievers liked 'CALL' because it was motivating, encouraging and interesting. The high achievers basically were motivated to learn the language. They wanted to practise it and they searched for any chance that allowed them to develop proficiency. They found that this game provided a good chance to practise the language. On the other hand, the low achievers who normally didn't like the language nor learning it, wanted anything that motivates learning English. They found that these games motivated and encouraged them to practise the language.

All the students liked the game 'Skullman'. It was found to be a motivating guessing game in which the learner mentally lists as many words as possible that belong to a specific category. The students enjoyed this activity because it contained a motivating, competitive and interesting flavour. Students worked hard trying to guess correctly in order to beat the machine, not losing 'lives' and to win. Learning became fun.

One 'high achiever student' didn't like this kind of activity because it created an atmosphere that led students to laugh, joke and make noise. To this student, this was not education. Education must be formal. Games were for fun, not for education. She considered CALL a waste of time. Such serious students prefer the old formal, traditional exercises. Those students believed that, for learning to take place, there should be a more serious, quiet atmosphere. Learning doesn't take place in contexts where students play and entertain themselves.

Games in Language learning

Learning vocabulary is a major problem in EFL in Kuwait. Students complain about having to memorise long lists of words. The computer aims to solve this problem. Students mentioned to the observer that they, previously, had to rote-learn lists of vocabulary items by writing them on a piece of paper to memorise them. This is a traditional and boring way of learning vocabulary. As a result, many students gave up learning these lists. Many students said that they had stopped making any effort to learn the vocabulary items. When the computer program 'Vocab' was introduced, students knew that 'Vocab' was a new method to learn vocabulary. They knew that learning vocabulary was the main aim of this program. They noticed that learning now became more interesting and enjoyable. 'Vocab' contains games that stimulate language learners. Previously, the teacher used to create paper exercises to revise vocabulary. These exercises were dull and boring. But through using the computer, these exercises were not boring any more because they are turned into guessing games which students find very attractive especially with their competitive scoring.

Kenning and Kenning (1983: 115) comment about games in language teaching applications that "it is now widely realised that this is an area with plenty of scope which may make a significant contribution to both language acquisition and learner motivation". The researcher observed that students using computer games became more motivated to practise the language. Students became more interested, worked harder on the program than they did before, and started to have (especially the low achievers) more positive attitudes toward learning a foreign language. However,

games do not appeal to every student. The more serious students may resist such kind of programs.

CALL Class (28 October 1992)

Description

'Vocab' / No of students 14 / School of Education.

The teacher gave more vocabulary items to her students. She allowed them to read the passage in the course book that contains these new vocabulary items. Then she informed them that she had prepared another computer program that involves these new vocabulary items for them to practise. The researcher noticed that the students welcomed this idea.

On the 27th of October, a day before having the computer programs, the researcher asked the students whether they were ready for the computer lesson. Most of them answered that they'll be glad to have the computer program. Others said that they will study the words at home in order that when they play the games, they win and get the full mark.

On the 28th of October, all students were present in the computer laboratory. The teacher distributed the copies of the programs, showed students the way to run the required program and again explained briefly each game and the way to play it. The teacher then informed the students that they have the freedom to choose the game they most want to play. She told them that it was not compulsory to play all the games.

The teacher observed that all the students started with 'Which word'. The researcher noticed that students became used to the program and answered the questions quickly. Students were working more seriously than before. Then some students moved to work on 'Anagrams', and others on 'Skullman'. Again, those who

worked on Anagrams were the very high and the very low achievers. They spent most of the class time on this game. They seemed very satisfied.

All the students, except one, worked on 'Skullman'. Again, students seemed to enjoy their time while playing the game. The student who didn't play the game 'Skullman' moved to 'Word Order'. She worked on the exercise seriously and obtained full marks.

No time was left to play the other games. At the end of the class, the teacher invited the students to borrow the disks. Very few borrowed them. The students told the teacher that they had practised the vocabulary items well and that there was no need for them to replay the games. They even commented to the teacher, "If you want to give us a test, we are ready now".

It should be mentioned that students, while playing the game, helped each other, swapped answers, explained points, provided meanings of words for each other and went back to their notes and books. Sometimes when in difficulty they sought help from the teacher. The class atmosphere was co-operative, motivational, with a desire to practise the vocabulary items.

CALL Class (9 November 1992)

Description

Vocab / 13 students / School of Education

The teacher had informed the class that they would have 'CALL' on the 9th of November. One of the students asked the teacher to delay this computer lesson because she would not be able to attend the class on the 9th of November. She wouldn't wait to miss the class because she enjoyed using the computer programs. The teacher couldn't delay and invited this student to borrow the disk.

The teacher told her students that, whenever they studied new vocabulary items, they were going to have the computer program 'Vocab' to practise the new words and to memorise them.

On the 9th of November, 13 students were in the computer laboratory. The teacher, as usual distributed the disks that contained the program 'Vocab' which included the same games but with different vocabulary items and new context and clue sentences. Also, this class differed from the previous two classes. In the previous two classes, each student worked on 'Vocab' individually. The students sought help from their classmates when needed, but they didn't work as a team. In this class, the teacher suggested that students compete against each other. Therefore, the teacher decided to structure a team competition. The teacher divided the students into four groups to compete against each other. The group who obtained the highest score won.

Each team worked on 'Which word'. The observer noticed that students worked harder in competition. They collaborated to obtain the right answer. Each student in the group called out the words she thought of, while previously, each student used to review the word silently and work individually. The researcher recognised that students were more motivated, more enthusiastic and more serious so as to win and reach the highest score. Whenever they found any difficulty, they went back to their notes and books.

The class consisted of 4 teams, of 3 or 4 members. The high achievers were in charge of each team. The low achievers seemed more confident, more relaxed and more involved in the games. Whenever they gave wrong answers, the high achievers corrected them and explained to them why they were wrong. Sometimes, the high achievers made mistakes and the low achievers corrected them. There was true co-operation among the students within each team. Student communication took place mostly in Arabic. They rarely use the English language. They just gave the answer in English and justified it in Arabic. The observer kept asking students to use the English language while communicating, but they spoke in English when the teacher came close to them and spoke in Arabic when the teacher walked away.

When the 4 teams finished the exercise 'Which word', the teacher announced the group who had won. The team who won was very pleased and those who didn't win promised to win the next game. When students worked on 'Anagrams', they again worked hard doing their best to win. Then they moved to work on 'Skullman'.

At the end of the class, the teacher found students had enjoyed their time. One said "This is the best English class we have ever had". One student said that at the very beginning of using 'CALL', she thought of dropping the course. Now she says "I'm very happy because I didn't drop it".

The teacher asked her students to write their response towards using 'Vocab' in competitive teams. Their response can be summarised in the following points:

- Students believe that 'Vocab', in general, is good practice for new vocabulary.
- Students say that 'Vocab' allows them to practise and memorise the words more easily and in an interesting atmosphere.
- Students feel that if they keep on using these programs regularly, their level in English language will improve.
- Students became more motivated when playing the computer games.
- They make more effort while playing the games.
- They are interested and relaxed. They do not feel time passing.
- They liked the English class more than they did before.
- They think that using 'CALL' one hour per week is not enough. They should have more hours.

- The computer programs should contain all the curriculum, not just the vocabulary items.
- Students like the co-operative learning environment and the competitive atmosphere.
- Some students complained that they were still unable to operate the computer program which forced the teacher to re-explain the way to operate it every time 'CALL' was used in class which causes loss of time.
- Two students also complained that the computer gives only a 'right / wrong' judgement but does not give an indication of where the mistake lies. This proves tiresome for the students and leads one to loose confidence and motivation to continue working on the exercise.

Analysis (9 November 1992)

Through the three lessons using 'Vocab', it was obvious that these games entertain, teach and motivate students. These games entertain because they provide sound. When a student responds to a question, they display an attractive presentation, colours, graphics and animation, and keep scores which adds to the element of competitiveness.

These games teach because they provide the students with activities and exercises to practise the vocabulary items. 'Vocab' is a drill and skill program that is turned into a guessing game. Its main objective is to train students to use the vocabulary items. This program teaches students different things (Jones, 1989: 19-20) which are:

1. Placing the correct word in context. In 'Which word', the student is trained to identify the correct word to fit a specific context.

2. Meaning. This program drills students to memorise the meanings of the vocabulary items. It provides the clue sentence that helps the students to locate the meaning of a word.

3. Spelling. In 'Anagrams' and 'Skullman', the student reconstructs a word letter by letter. As a result students learn to spell.

4. Alphabetical order. 'Alpha game' allows the student to practise the skill of putting words in alphabetical order as in the dictionary.

5. Word order and sentence grammar. In 'Word order' the student is required to put the words of a sentence in the correct order. Through this activity, the student learns the rules of word order in the target language and other aspects of sentence grammar.

6. Logic and problem solving. This allows students to practise problem solving and logical thinking.

The co-operative learning atmosphere

When students were structured into teams, they worked in a co-operative learning atmosphere which was, from an educational point of view, more beneficial. Students in groups call out the words that they think of instead of just reviewing them silently. In this way, each student triggers each other's memory pooling their knowledge. The whole group is provided with words which previously only one individual could think of. In a group, one can often learn more and enjoy more. The low achievers feel more secure because, in a team, they can obtain help from others. High achievers in such teams will have the chance to play the role of a teacher.

The researcher concludes, from her observations, that the co-operative learning environment was more effective than the individualistic learning environment. Students performance in teams was better than individualistic performance. Students

in teams worked harder, felt more secure, and achieved much better. Students even declared that playing as a team was more fun.

However, the researcher recognised some disadvantages. Student to student communicative interaction was mostly in Arabic. In addition to this, cooperative activities might not appeal to all students. Some students with a more introverted learning style might resist these kinds of activities.

CALL Class (16 November 1992)

The students had already taken lessons about grammatical rules: the simple present, present continuous, simple past and past continuous tenses. To practise these grammatical rules, 'gap fill' exercises around these rules were prepared via the computer.

'Gap Master': drill and practice program (Jones, 1988a)

In this lesson, 'Gap Master' was tried out. In this program, the computer acts as a trainer. It develops skills until they become habitual and automatic. This program follows the training approach to language learning that involves drill and practice. It adopts the assumption that repetition is required to internalise a piece of behaviour.

Gap Master is an authoring program for creating a 'gap fill' exercise. In this program, the teacher can type texts of up to 12 lines long, with gaps. To use 'Gap Master', one should have an IBM PC or PC compatible microcomputer with at least 256K Ram. 'Gap Master' contains the teacher program and the student program.

The teacher program

This program allows the teacher to type 'Gap Master' exercises, edit them and print them out on paper. When the teacher inserts the disk in drive A, typing GMT, the program displays the main menu that presents these options:

- Create a new exercise
- Edit an existing exercise
- Print an exercise
- Rename an exercise
- Re-order exercises on disk
- Delete an exercise
- Change colours
- Run student program
- Exit

Create a new exercise: First the teacher gives the new exercise a title, then begins to write the exercise with gaps (which will be described in 'Add a page').

Edit an existing page: First the teacher chooses the exercise she wants to edit from a list offered on the disk, Then the edit menu appears:

- Add a page
- Edit a page
- Move a page
- Delete a page
- Edit into screen
- Save the exercise
- Return to main menu

Add a page: In this option, the teacher can enter a text with gaps and hints. To type a text, the teacher can simply use a word processor. To create a gap in the text, the teacher can surround the answer by square brackets (e.g. Yesterday I [went] to school). When the student program is run, the example will appear as: Yesterday I [] to school. Teacher can include a hint with a gap. A hint is a short message that appears at the bottom of the screen if the learner presses (F5). To write a hint, the teacher types the hash (#) sign after the answer, then types the hint (e.g. Yesterday I [went # verb go in the past tense] to school).

Edit a page: If the teacher chooses this option, the computer presents page 1. At the bottom of the screen, these choices are displayed. F1 edit Pg. Up and Pg. Dn: move to another page. Esc: quit by pressing F1, the teacher can edit the page. The teacher can move a page to change the order in which pages of text appear, delete a page to

remove an entire page from an exercise, edit into screen, edit help screen, save the exercise and return to main menu. Then, if the teacher chooses the option print an exercise, the teacher can obtain a print out. Via the option rename an exercise, the teacher can select the exercise she wishes to rename and type in the new name. By the option re-order the exercise on disk, the teacher can make the exercise appear in a different order from that in which it was entered. By delete an exercise, the teacher can select the exercise she wants to cancel. By change colours, the teacher can set the screen colours. Then the teacher can choose 'run student program' option, to try out the program. The exit option ends the program.

The student program

This program contains the program and exercise files that students need to work with Gap Master. It doesn't involve the authoring program that allows teachers to write and edit exercises. When students insert the disks in drive A, and by typing GM, they'll be presented with the following options:

- Exploratory mode
- Test mode
- Change colours
- Exit

Exploratory mode

If the student chooses this option, a gapped text or sentences appear. The student can see that each gap is represented by an empty pair of square brackets []. The students will notice that the cursor will be flashing at the first gap in the text where the student can type an answer.

The student can use the help features which include the introduction, the help page, the cancel feature by which students can cancel a current answer, the shape feature which gives the student a skeleton of an answer in which each letter is replaced by a small rectangular 'blob', the hint and the answer. As soon as the student writes an answer, feedback is displayed.

Test mode

Test mode is similar to Exploratory mode. They differ in that in test mode the program doesn't provide feedback after each answer. Students can see their final score and know about which gaps they filled correctly when they finish the exercise by choosing the option 'review your answer' from the end menu. Also, in test mode, the shape feature and the hint feature are not available. Answers are not provided until the end when the students review their answers. The running score of the student is not displayed.

When the students exit from the program, they see these options:

- See your score
- Review your answer
- Do the exercise again
- Do another exercise
- Change to test mode (or explanatory mode)
- Change colours
- End

Description

'Gap Master' / No of students 14 / School of Education

First, the teacher gave the students a lesson about grammatical rules in the English language. Then she reviewed with the students the simple present, present continuous, simple past and past continuous tenses. The teacher has a habit in that at the beginning of each class, she usually reviews quickly the grammatical rules and the vocabulary items students have previously learnt. The teacher recognised that when she informs her students that they are going to have computer programs about specific English items, students study them a day before, at home and come prepared. Therefore, when the teacher reviewed the present and the past tense with her students, most of the students responded correctly to most of the questions which suggested that students had gone through the tenses in the English language before attending the class. The teacher asked them the reason why they prepared for the

computer based lesson, while they do not prepare for the normal lessons. They informed her "We feel that we should study what the computer program will be about. We feel that we should gain full marks. The computer stimulates us and creates a feeling of challenge within ourselves".

The teacher distributed the disks that contained the 'Gap-Fill' exercises about the present and the past tenses. Because this was a new program, the teacher conducted a short introductory session, in which she worked through a few questions in the exercise, demonstrating each feature in use: the 'introductory', 'help screen', 'shape' and 'hint'. It was necessary for the teacher to give some initial instruction on how to use the program because, although the students' program is easy to use, its special features like exploratory mode, 'shape' and 'hint' will be under-used unless the teacher makes students aware of their potential.

Students started answering the gap-fill exercises. Each student had her own computer. Students were serious and co-operative while answering the exercise. They worked very hard on each question. They sometimes used the 'help' screen and the 'hint' feature to help them to reach the right answer.

The observer noticed that all the students were calm, relaxed and satisfied. Students didn't show any sign of annoyance or objection. They worked on the program doing their best to give the correct answer to obtain the full mark. At the end of the class, after finishing the exercise, the teacher asked the students about their opinion of 'Gap Master'. They all agreed that this program allowed them to practise grammatical drills on the present and past tenses. They all believed that they benefited from the program and liked it. The teacher invited the students to borrow the disks. Many of them did.

Analysis (16 November 1992)

Students expressed that they benefited from this program and liked it. The students noticed that this program has features that allowed them to get the most of it.

These features are:

- The program includes two modes: the exploratory mode and the test mode. In the exploratory mode, the students can make an unlimited number of tries at any gap. The student can fill each gap as many times as she wants and the program will respond each time if the answer is correct or incorrect. The student can see the 'shape' of the answer. The student also can ask for a hint which is a message that will help to fill in a particular gap. On the other hand, 'help' is available to show the student the information which applies to the whole exercise. The program will always inform the student whether 'help', 'hint' or the answers are available for any gap, and which keys the student has to press for them. The student can follow the help, hint and feedback displayed to reach the correct answer. In test mode, the student is treated as if she is in an examination. The student can also fill each gap as many times as she likes but the program doesn't tell whether the answer is right or wrong until after finishing the exercise.
 - The student can browse from gap to gap, and can come back to a gap whenever she wants to, to change any answer she has given.
 - Word processing features are available in this program which make it simple to type, delete and correct.
 - In addition to these features, there are many permutations in using 'Gap Master' (Jones, 1988a).
1. Cloze passages: Gap Master is ideal for writing cloze passages. A text can be written and gaps are added. The cloze passage can be a text written with words deleted at regular intervals and students are asked to fill them in to reconstruct the

passage. Or the cloze passage can be a text with 'function' gaps (like prepositions, articles) or with 'semantic' gaps (like nouns, adjectives, verbs) and students are asked to fill in the gap.

2. Sentence completion: By 'Gap Master', the teacher can also create gap-fill exercises based on individual sentences, individual words or even parts of words. A sentence completion exercise can be made based on structure, vocabulary or usage.

3. Word building: In this exercise the student is supplied with a head word in its root form (e.g. care) and student is asked to type in the suitable form of the word in the gap (e.g. careful, careless). Or students can be asked to make changes to turn nouns into verbs, verbs into adjectives and so on.

4. Tables and Grids: The teacher can set up tables or grids for students to fill in. The tables can be based on: Grammatical items (e.g. word tenses), comprehension exercises (e.g. true / false), based on information typed on paper or the help screen, or based on a vocabulary **example**:

Noun	adjective	verb
Care	[]	[]
[]	[]	Inform
[]	Special	[]

5. Games: 'Gap Master' can be used imaginatively to create games such as:

- Anagrams where the teacher types a word with letters jumbled up and asks the students to type the word (e.g. yphpa [] the answer is happy).

- Mind word: The gap looks like this: don [] board (in Jones, 1988a: 30). The student has to type a short word that will join with "don" and "board" to create two new words. The answer is "key" (donkey-keyboard).

- Blankety blank: The student sees a word for example 'Head', and she must type in another word which goes with it (e.g. ache = headache, Master = Head master).

- Poems: If the students have studied a poem previously, they can be provided with it 'gapped' and students can be asked to fill in the missing words. Or it can be an exercise in imagination in which students are asked to guess what the poet wrote.

- Songs: Students can be supplied with a cassette recorder with headphones to listen to a song as many times as they like and be provided with this song typed with some words 'gapped out'. The student can try to fill in the missing words.

Students became aware of the benefits of this program therefore they enjoyed it. After students have taken their mid term exam, they informed their teacher that they were astonished to have such good results, especially in grammar. Some of the students obtained full marks in grammar, other got most of the grammar questions correct. They told their teacher that they had never scored in grammar so well before. One of them said "This is the first time in my life I got this high score in grammar". Another student commented "I started to understand grammar in this class". From the researcher's conversation with the students, they told her that this is due to the teacher, the way she teaches, her patience and creativity while teaching and due to the computer programs, particularly 'Choice Master' and 'Gap Master' (which mainly drill them in grammar and allow them to practise grammatical rules in a new way).

CALL Class (30 November 1992)

Description

'Choice Master' / No of students 14.

Two weeks had elapsed. Students expressed their wish to have 'CALL' more often. It was part of students' EFL curriculum that they engage in 'sentence study'. In 'sentence study', students are required to understand the exact meaning of the sentence. For **example**: Carol really wants to buy that new T.V. but she says that it is

too expensive because she only has 200 Dollars. How much might the T.V. cost? \$250, \$100, \$150 or \$200?

The teacher thought that 'Choice Master' was the most suitable program that allows students to practise 'sentence study'. In 'Choice Master' (as mentioned earlier) the teacher types in the items. A 'Choice Master' item contains a question (stem) and up to 5 options. Feedback messages can be associated with specific options.

Example

"The teacher told all the students except John to answer the questions on page 15. Who didn't have to do the question?"

- A. John
- 1. All the students.
- 2. All the students except John.
- 3. The teacher.
- 4. All the students and John.

'Choice Master' introduces two modes to the students: the tutorial and the test mode. In tutorial mode, the computer presents immediate feedback whenever the students give the answer. Also the computer offers clues or explanations when the students select the wrong answer. In test mode, the students are treated as if they are in an examination. The students give the answers but they are not offered feedback or clues, until they complete the exercise (the test).

The teacher explained to the students how to understand the sentences more fully. She introduced several English expressions and idioms that had specific meanings. Then the researcher informed her students that they would have a multiple choice exercise in which they would be presented with a sentence and four choices. Students were asked to choose the correct statement that reflected the closest meaning to the sentence. An important element in this exercise was that, in this program, the teacher supplied the students with the explanations of why some choices were wrong and others were right.

The teacher distributed the disks and asked pairs of students to work together. Previously, students had worked individually and then in groups. This time they worked in pairs. At the beginning of the class, the teacher reminded her students about the way to run the program and asked them to choose the tutorial mode.

The researcher noticed that pairs of students discussed the answers, provided ideas and explanations about why certain options were correct or incorrect. Students spent their time thinking and discussing. Students were serious and worked hard to understand each point in each question.

Their discussions were mainly in Arabic. Whenever the teacher came close to them, they tried to use the English language. When the teacher was busy with other students, they switched into Arabic language. Sometimes when a pair of students were unable to find the correct answer, they examined the messages written by the teacher which explained why such an answer was correct and other answers were not. Students seemed totally engaged in the exercise, asking, inquiring, explaining and suggesting other answers. Students didn't work competitively in this class. They were curious to find out why certain answers were wrong. Because students worked on the exercise slowly, discussing intensively each point, the class time was soon over. Students didn't finish the exercise. So students suggested to the teacher that they borrow the disks to work on the exercise in their free time.

Analysis (30 November 1992)

The researcher observed that students really enjoyed this 'CALL' session. Students informed the teacher that they were eager for the computer class and would like such a class for more than once a week.

Most of the students were gaining an interest in 'CALL' because they are using the most recent technology which gives them the feeling of pride and achievement. Other students think that 'CALL' adds variety to EFL classes. Most of the students believed that this multiple choice exercise was very helpful because the computer gave the reasons why some answers were wrong and others were correct.

After having several sessions using computers, students started to become more mature in attitude. They gradually began to understand the computer and its functions. Students started to discover its advantages and disadvantages. Students at the beginning looked at the machine as a toy and as new technology forced into the classroom. After this class, the observer noticed that students started to understand the machine as a new technological means to learn a second language with both advantages and disadvantages. Students started comparing CALL with other means of learning a foreign language. They compared it with the normal EFL course book. They found out that in addition to the computer's attractive presentation, colourful screen and sound, the computer provides feedback while the book doesn't supply students with any response. Also students can use computer programs to assess themselves, to measure their progress and to learn the language. 'Choice Master' includes a 'test mode' which is suitable for assessment purposes, and 'tutorial mode' which is designed for testing as a means of learning because it gives immediate feedback. Furthermore, answer options can be presented in random order as can questions. This makes the learner who answers the exercise more than once, unable to identify the right answers mechanically by their place in the exercise.

Not only did students compare computers and course books, they also compared computers and teachers. They all agreed that computers can do what teachers cannot do and teachers can do things computers cannot do. The computer can endlessly provide students with exercises, feedback, help and individual attention. With the computer, the student can answer all the questions by himself. With the teacher, the student may not get enough individual attention. At the same time, students believe that teachers as human beings are more powerful than computers and that computers should never replace teachers. The teacher has the ability to manage activities in class and prepare students to perform these activities effectively. The teacher can monitor students' progress, create tasks, respond to students' needs and interests, can create an enjoyable environment, can act as a model who represents the foreign language, and can respond to students enquiries.

Students discussed the tasks in the Arabic language. They do not communicate in English except with the teacher. This is because English in Kuwait is a foreign language. Students rarely use English therefore, they do not feel confident to use the English language. Students keep on using the Arabic language because they feel more comfortable, more able to express their ideas, and more confident in their home language. To avoid this problem, the teacher must always encourage students to use the English language while talking to each other. The teacher can encourage students by praising them verbally when they speak in English, or by telling them that they'll get high marks in the course if they use English only.

CALL Class (14 December 1992)

Introduction to class 14th of December 1992

Students had used the computer to drill themselves in certain skills, to practise the language and to memorise specific items. This time students used the computer as an 'examiner'. The teacher gave the students a test displayed on the screen of the computer instead of on paper.

Students were tested on the vocabulary items they had taken in lesson 4. The teacher chose the program 'Vocab'. 'Vocab' contains games (as mentioned earlier) Which Word, Anagrams, Skullman, the Alpha game, Mindword and Word Order. In this test the students used 'Which Word' which is a multiple choice vocabulary test. The students were given a 'gapped' sentence on the screen and five randomly chosen words. The students had to select the one which goes in the gap.

Example

Before I drink my tea, I [?] my spoon into it.

Dip
Exist
Allow
State
Swim

The students can select an answer by using the arrow keys to highlight it, and then press 'enter'. The student can have up to four attempts at each question.

The scoring system was as follows: there were four points for each question. The student loses one point for each wrong attempt and for calling for help. In order that the student obtains help, she can press <F3> to get the clue sentence, which leads the student to lose two points, or <F4> to see the answer, which makes the student lose all her points. When students finish the test, the computer will present their score to the teacher.

Description

That was the fourth class using the program 'Vocab'. As usual, the teacher mentioned briefly the way to run the program although students were now familiar with the program. Then the teacher informed her students that they were going to have an exam on the vocabulary items from lesson 4 on the computer screen. Students had to work individually on the test. They were not allowed to talk to each other, help each other or ask the teacher. The teacher also explained the scoring system.

The students answered the questions silently. The observer noticed that students were not, as usual, working happily, but looked anxious. Many of them made mistakes while responding to the computer. Sometimes they meant to give an answer, but they highlighted another one by mistake, or they pressed <F4> which displays the answer when they really wanted the 'clue sentence' and not the answer which led them to lose all their points. Most of the students were confused. They lost most of the points, not because they did not know the answer, but because they were in an anxious and nervous state which made them use the wrong keys and select the wrong options.

Students asked their teacher to give them another exam to make up for this test. Most of the students (even the high achievers) obtained low marks. Students didn't like the exam on the computer at all. They informed the observer that they would like to

have their exam on paper. Some students said "we feel more relaxed if we have our exam on paper. Having an exam is a terrifying event, and having it on the computer makes it even more terrifying".

Analysis (14 December 1992)

The observer asked students about the reasons why they preferred tests on paper. Students gave the researcher these reasons:

1. This was the first time they had an exam on a computer screen and not on paper. When they saw the exam on the screen, they became confused. They were almost shocked to be forced to have an exam presented by a new technology. The students told the teacher that they felt the same as when they first used the computer. When they first used the computer, they didn't like it or enjoy it. They even rejected it and thought of dropping the course. The same feeling took place when students had to take the exam displayed by the computer. They rejected having the exam on the computer. Their rejection took the form of confusion, frustration, getting most of the answers incorrect, and using the computer program keys improperly which led them to lose points.

2. The second reason for the negative response involves a comparison between an exam on paper and on a computer. The exam on paper is simple. It consists of questions written on a piece of paper and requires students responses to these questions. The students can simply respond by thinking of the correct answer, and then use a pen to put down this response. The student usually concentrates in such an exam. In a test presented by the computer, the students believe that there are many distractions that do not allow the student to concentrate on the exam. With a computer, the student has to switch on the machine, put in a disk, run the program, use the keyboard to input the responses and seek for help or clues. This procedure, from the students' point of view, does not allow them to be solely involved in answering the exam. It doesn't allow the student to concentrate deeply on the questions. Students feel that they are dealing with both a test and a machine while with paper based tests students feel that they are dealing with the test only.

3. The scoring system: A number of students (especially the low achievers) expressed their annoyance in getting immediate feedback regarding responses and scores. When they found that they had made so many mistakes, and were losing points, they felt disappointed and lost interest in completing the exam. They prefer not to see their score immediately.

4. Other students disliked the program 'Vocab' because they are unable to delete their answer. After pressing 'enter', the student cannot change her mind and go back to enter another response. In a paper based exam, the student can answer the question, move to another question, and go back to the previous question to change the answer. There might be many deletions and edits, but the student is satisfied that she was able to include the answers she wanted. Students have control over the final set of answers given to the teacher.

5. The computer can frustrate the student. For example, what will a student do if she spends a full hour or more answering an exam on a computer, finishes the exam without saving it, and then gives the disk to the teacher to find out that she has lost all her answers. Paper tests do not give such problems.

CALL (Class 20 December 1992)

Description

Fast food / No of students 14.

The researcher decided to give her students a new type of computer program: a simulation. The observer chose the 'Fast food' simulation (The British Council, 1986). The investigator followed certain steps in order to familiarise the students with this program.

The first step: The researcher prepared a reading comprehension passage that described the running of a fast food stall at an exhibition. This passage involved a written version about a stall holder who talks about his own experience in running a

fast food stall. The objective of this step is to familiarise students with the idea of running a Fast Food stall, to familiarise them with types of problems a fast food stall holder may face and to familiarise them with the types of fast food items (such as burgers, hot dogs, round rolls, frankfurters), the language used for describing the weather (such as wet, rainy, hot, sunny) and vocabulary items that are relevant to the playing of the simulation (such as profit, stock, invest, perish, entrance fee).

On the 20th of December, the teacher distributed written handouts titled 'My fast food stall' (see appendix 21). The teacher pre-taught the vocabulary items that existed in this reading passage which were relevant to the playing of the simulation. The teacher explained the passage and allowed students to read it and use the vocabulary items in varying contexts to fully understand and practise them.

The second step: The teacher divided the class into groups to discuss the reading passage. The main objective of allowing students to have group discussions is to prepare them to use the language functions (e.g. suggestions, opinions, inferences, making predictions about the effects of the weather forecast, agreeing on decisions).

Students didn't use the computer or see the simulation on the computer screen during the lesson. The main aim was to prepare students to use the computer program: 'Fast Food'.

CALL (Class 21 December 1992)

Description

On the 21st of December, the teacher moved on to the third step, in which she gave her students a printed handout that described in detail the simulation 'Fast Food' (see appendix 22). Again the teacher explained what was written on the handout and allowed her students to read it and ask about any unclear points.

The fourth step was demonstrating how to play the simulation. The researcher gave her students printed sheets of instructions as displayed by the computer to familiarise students with the conventions of the program (see apendix 23). The teacher started by switching on the machine and inserting the disk. The researcher explained each point in the program 'Fast Food'.

'Fast Food' is a simulation in which learners compete with each other or with the computer in the running of a fast food stall at an imaginary exhibition. When one runs the program, the screen will display the following:

```
Fast Food
what do you want to do ?
- play the game
- change the time limit
- see instructions
- finish the program
-----
use the arrow keys and press RETURN to make your choice
```

To start the game, the option 'play the game' should be selected.

Option One play the game.

When one selects this option, the first day's trading starts. At the top of the screen, the learner will always see a reminder of the function keys. Beneath it, on the left of the screen, one will see the credit limit which changes when one completes each cycle. Beneath the function key panel, in the middle of the screen, one sees the clock which informs about how much time one has left for the buying and pricing . The time limit for these two stages is 10 minutes which commences as soon as the program is run. When 30 seconds remains, a bell rings and when the time finishes, there is a buzzer. To the right of the screen one finds a reminder of the amount spent which changes after the purchase of each ingredient. Then in the bottom half of the

screen, the list of ingredients, their unit cost, currently-held stock, and stock being purchased in the current day's trading are displayed.

Buying Stock: To buy an ingredient, the player must use the arrow key to highlight a specific ingredient, and then type in the number of items one wishes to buy and press RETURN. The computer automatically calculates the costs and total spent. When one finishes buying one's own ingredients, one presses TAB. Then the computer asks the player whether he/she really wants to finish, by presenting in the command line: OK (Y/N)? When one presses N, the buying phase continues, which gives the player the chance to make changes or corrections. When one presses Y, the computer takes the player on to the price setting stage.

Price setting: In this stage, the screen looks exactly the same as the previous one, but this time it displays the items that are sold. To set prices, one should use the arrow keys and type in the price and then press RETURN (the same as buying ingredients). When one finishes pricing, the player presses TAB. The computer again checks by displaying: OK (Y/N)? which allows the player either to continue with the price setting stage or move on to the simulation of the day's trading. During the two stages, one can use the function keys F1 or F2. F1 displays the weather forecast for the day. F2 displays the number of people who were in the exhibition on the same day last year.

The day's trading: In this stage, the computer displays a simulation of a digital clock and a message informing the player that he/she is sold out of the items. This stage provides the player with feedback on the success of his trading for the day.

Summary of the day's results: In this stage the computer presents a summary of the player's trading results for the day. This includes information about the gross and net profits, the items sold, if the player has unsold stock which is perishable, or unsold stock which is not perishable that can be used for the next day's trading.

News flashes: A news flash may appear during one or more days of trading. These news flashes are random. They affect the number of visitors who attend the exhibition on that day and consequently affect students' buying and pricing strategies.

Summary of the week's trading: When the player completes six days, the computer presents the summary of the overall success of the players' policies by displaying the total profit or loss for the whole week.

The final screen will be as follows:

Fast Food congratulations you have completed the 6 days trading and your final credit is £ _____ and you have stock worth £ _____
--

On the 21st of December, students read the printed handout that described the simulation 'Fast Food' (in appendix 22). Then the teacher introduced the program, ran the program and demonstrated how to play it.

CALL Class (23 December 1992)

Description

'Fast Food' / No of students 10.

On the 23rd of December, students were taken to the computer laboratory to play the game. The observer noticed that students still felt uncomfortable, so she demonstrated the game. Then the researcher divided the class into groups, each group competed against the other groups to get the most profit. Although the teacher explained and demonstrated how to play 'fast food' the students kept inquiring about the simulation. The observer noticed that students were still not comfortable. Their concentration was mainly on the screen. There was very little group discussion. Even when discussion took place, it was in Arabic. When the teacher came close to them, they focused on what the computer displayed. When the teacher walked away, they

discussed the actions to take in Arabic. Students didn't use the language functions introduced by the teacher (suggesting, predicting, agreeing, disagreeing). Students didn't complete the work sheets. Very few of them recorded their decisions about quantities, prices and amounts sold and their daily profit or loss, on the work sheets distributed by the teacher (see Appendix 24). Every group appointed a spy to watch other groups and to bring information about other groups' buying and pricing strategies. When the spy came back to her group, she reported information back to her own group in Arabic.

In general, on the first day of trading, students seemed lost. But later, they became more familiar with the simulation and played much better. They started to understand what was going on and started to enjoy it. They gradually got involved in the game, and concentrated on marketing goals.

Because students kept talking in Arabic, the teacher informed them that they would have the same program 'fast food' on the 26th of December but this time they would have to speak in English.

CALL Class (26 December 1992)

Description

'Fast Food' / No of students 9

The teacher gave a quick introduction about the program and reminded the students to use only English while discussing matters or when reporting information. In this class, students performed much better than in the previous class. They started working on the game more seriously, thinking deeply before deciding on actions and discussing more thoroughly than before. Students looked more knowledgeable about what to do and how to do it. In the previous class, students concentration was on the game and on how to play the game. Subsequently they became aware of the game, and concentrated on competing against the other groups and on winning.

Students tried to follow their teacher's instruction about using English only. Students still used the Arabic language especially when they became excited and when they needed to persuade others about specific points, (when the teacher was far away). Students finished before the class time was over. Therefore, the teacher discussed with them what they have done, the decisions they had taken and why.

The researcher recognised that the high achievers' response towards this kind of program was different from the low achievers' response. It was obvious that the high achievers didn't like this program. They kept asking the teacher "is it part of the required curriculum? Do the other students in course 110 take the same lesson? Will this program be included in the final exam? Will we be tested on the vocabulary items we learnt in this lesson?" When students were informed that this lesson is not part of their required curriculum, and they will not be tested on it, they started complaining about the program. The low achievers liked this program, and didn't complain about it. Unlike the other computer classes, students started to skip the computer classes when Fast Food was introduced. On the 20th of December, all the students attended the class. On the 21st of December, two students were absent. On the 23rd of December, four students didn't attend the class. On the 26th of December, five students skipped the class.

At the end of the class, the teacher invited the students to borrow the 'Fast Food' simulation. All the students apologised for not being able to work on 'Fast Food' because they had to prepare and study for their final exams. Instead, students asked the teacher to give them exercises through the program 'Vocab' that will contain all the vocabulary items they had taken in English 110 to study for the final exam.

Analysis (26 December 1992)

The observer noticed that some students liked the program, others did not. Mostly, those who did not like the program were the best students in the class. They were the high achievers and hard workers of that class. They informed the observer that they prefer drill and skill programs over the simulation programs. The reasons are:

1. Simulations are an open-ended type of program. Drill and skill programs are not. They present a stimulus which takes the form of a question, wait for the students' response to the question, accepts it and checks it. Drill and skill programs focus on factual recall and practice which students, with certain learning style, may like more. Drill and skill programs appeal to students who prefer rote learning. Simulations are totally different from drill and skill programs. Simulations allow students to learn by discovery. It puts the student in charge of his own learning. It forces the learner to participate in the decision making process and to participate in the shaping of the material. Students are encouraged to gain problem solving skills. Students are expected to learn by experience not by rote learning. In a simulation, students are encouraged to co-operate with each other, produce and initiate actions. Students must work with each other, take decisions, discuss, argue and justify. So students who don't like open-ended tasks and co-operative learning will not feel comfortable in such a class.

In drill and skill programs, students feel guided. They are presented with the material and encouraged to rote learn it or memorise it. In a simulation lesson, some students may feel lost because they are invited to learn by experience and by discovery.

2. Students didn't like simulations. They preferred drill programs over simulation program because they are not used to this type of learning. Students in Kuwait University are taught directly and formally and are very much guided by the teacher. They are rarely given the chance to depend on themselves or learn informally by their own experience. Therefore, it was normal that they reject this type of program because they are not familiar with the informal type of learning that is presented by computer simulations. Students are used to the type of learning in which the teacher dominates the class. The teacher explains the lesson, discusses and controls the class. In an English class where computer simulation is used, the teacher does not dominate the class. On the contrary, the teacher leaves learners on their own to discover and produce decisions. The teacher is just a guide or resource who facilitates and helps learners.

3. The 'Fast Food' simulation was not relevant to the course curriculum. Students, especially the high achievers, kept asking whether the simulation was part of the course curriculum. When students knew that it was not, they started to feel that they were wasting their time with an activity which would not be included in their final exam.

4. Other students believed that this kind of program was only for fun. Students didn't gain any educational benefits and there was very little student to student conversation in English.

Other students (especially the low achievers) liked this type of program for the following reasons:

1. They have a kind of learning style which made them more comfortable with this type of learning. Those students informed the teacher that they hated rote learning and that simulations do not require students to memorise rules and fragments as in drill and skill programs. These students considered simulations to be the best type of computer programs for learning. They felt that this program was more interesting than the drill and practice programs.

2. This simulation bridged the gap between classroom and real life. 'Fast Food' presented to the students a realistic scenario of running a fast food stall. Fast food presented a real life situation about which students talked, decided and communicated.

3. Although student to student communication was not intensive as intended and it was mostly in Arabic, students felt they were involved in decision-making activities which forced them to use the language in negotiation and argument. When the teacher required students to use English on the class 26 of December, though students found difficulty in expressing their opinions in English, there was a lively exchange because simulations have the ability to stimulate conversation, and to provide a genuine purpose for interaction. Students needed to consult each other and argue to reach a solution.

4. Other students confessed that 'Fast Food' was very motivating because it encouraged competitiveness. Each group was invited to compete against the other groups and gain the most profit.

5. Some students mentioned that they felt more relaxed while using this program because, unlike drill and skill programs, it left students to type in their response without giving feedback as 'wrong' or 'right'. Students' mistakes were not highlighted. This, as students mentioned, relieved their anxieties and created a more relaxing atmosphere. Therefore, Kenning and Kenning (1983) called computer simulation a 'judgement free' application because it allows students' errors to go uncorrected.

The observer noticed that unlike the other computer classes, students started to become absent from the computer simulation classes. Students gave three main reasons for not attending the class: First, they said that they didn't like the computer simulation 'Fast Food' for the reasons mentioned earlier. Second, students felt no need to attend because this lesson about 'Fast Food' was not taught to other classes having English 110. It was not part of the required curriculum and it would not be included in the final exam. Third, it was the researcher's mistake to give students this type of computer program at the end of term. Students were busy preparing for their final exams. Students wanted to concentrate on other classes or other subject materials that were involved in the final exam. It was a bad timing to provide students with a computer program which was totally new, involving new type of learning (learning by discovery). Normally students become anxious at the final examination period. Students like to study hard, not to waste their time on things they would not be tested on.

Whenever students conversed with each other, they used the Arabic language. The teacher tried to force them to use the English language by informing them that if they did, she would raise their scores. But they still felt unable to use English only. Students said they couldn't express fully and easily their opinions as they did in Arabic.

To summarise, students had different attitudes toward using the computer simulation 'Fast Food'. Some liked it, others didn't. Some students liked it because it provided an informal type of learning which suited their cognitive style, created fun, an interesting atmosphere, provided a context for discussion, bridged the gap between classroom and real life and relieved their anxieties. Other students didn't like this program because it provided an informal type of learning which didn't engage the style of learning they preferred. It was not relevant to their course therefore they believed that it wasted their time.

The researcher recommends that because students in Kuwait are not used to learning by discovery, the teacher must explain to the students about the aims of this type of learning and explain how students gain knowledge through this method of learning. Students should be given the chance to try learning by discovery in order that when they come to use computer simulations, they do not feel lost or that they are wasting their time. When students recognise that a simulation is not just a game, but a game to learn from, they'll be more serious and more happy about using their time properly.

Students rarely discussed, argued or conversed with each other. Therefore, the researcher recommends that the teacher in a 'CALL' class, keeps students away from the computer before they type in their response in order that they spend time in intensive discussion instead of staring at the screen.

One of the most important recommendations is the issue of relevancy. Students felt much happier with the drill and skill programs because these programs were relevant to their curriculum. They were related to the grammar and the vocabulary items taught in English 110. Students taking drill and skill programs felt very much involved in the course. But when they took the simulation 'Fast Food' which was not part of the students' curriculum, they looked at the program as a game to play, not for educational gain. Students considered 'Fast Food' as a program that would waste their time because it didn't have any connection with their required curriculum. It neither reinforced what students had learnt in the English class, nor presented material related to the grammar and vocabulary taught in English 110. The researcher

recommends strongly that any computer program, provided to students should be relevant to the English course undertaken.

The researcher also recommends that one should not experiment with students at the end of a term. For a researcher to successfully experiment, he or she must choose a suitable time when students are relaxed. Students may not be relaxed at the beginning of the term in new classes and in a new atmosphere. Also students do not seem comfortable at the end of the term because they are preparing for their final exams. Therefore, the observer recommends that the researcher avoids, if possible, experimenting with students at the beginning or at the end of the term.

CALL Class (28 December 1992)

'Gap Master' / 14 students

The students were studying and preparing themselves for the final examination. They asked the teacher to provide them with drill and skill programs that contain grammatical rules they had taken during the course. As a result, on Monday the 28th of December, the students were given an exercise, that included the present perfect tense and all the grammatical rules they had learnt, through the computer. The program used was 'Gap Master' through which 'gapped' sentences were displayed with a verb between brackets at the end of the sentence that needed to be corrected. Students were asked to fill in the gap with the correct verb tense.

Students worked individually on this program. Each student had her own computer. They worked hard concentrating on the exercise. The students' main aim was to drill themselves to memorise the grammatical rules in order to be ready for the English final exam.

The exercise was very long. Students didn't have time to finish the exercise in one hour so they asked the teacher to lend them the disks to work on the program in an attempt to study for the final exam which will be held on the 4th of January 1993.

Analysis (28 December 1992)

In this last class, students informed the observer that they wished that all language classes used computer programs because computers have many advantages. The computer provides privacy, personalised and self-paced learning, and goes over the same points as long as the student requires.

Students appreciated the privacy offered to them by the computer. This privacy enables them to work on their own, in their own time and at their own pace. Students do not fear being laughed at for their mistakes by their classmates, and they do not feel embarrassed by their errors as they may be in student-teacher interaction.

After students had taken their final exam, the teacher invited her students to a reporting-back session during which students talked about their experience of 'CALL'. The researcher prepared a questionnaire to guide the discussion. The questionnaire contained 20 questions about which students expressed their response (strongly agree, agree, do not know, disagree, strongly disagree) and justified their answer. It was obvious from this reporting session that students were motivated during 'CALL' classes. Computer programs lowered their anxieties and made learning the language more enjoyable (more details of these results follow.)

Overall Results

The main issue of this research was whether 'CALL' has an effect on:

- (1) students' **motivation** to learn English,
- (2) students' feelings of **anxiety** in the English class and
- (3) students' **achievement** in the English language.

Each point will be discussed briefly in terms of the results.

1. Does 'CALL' have an effect on students' motivation to learn the English language? Does it reduce or increase their motivation and why?

Motivation (as mentioned in Chapter three) consists of four over-lapping components:

1. Students' goals in language learning
2. Effort
3. Desire
4. Attitude towards the language and language learning.

1. Goals of language learning:

The high achievers had many different kinds of goals in language learning that low achievers didn't have. Low achievers just wanted to pass the English class to be able to graduate from the University. After having 'CALL', which appeared to improve their performance once in English, (as they mentioned in the interview), these low achievers told their teacher that they had become to think of other goals than just passing the English course. The problem remains whether this was a sincere or a socially desirable response.

2. Effort:

During 'CALL' classes, students worked hard and invested much effort. They were active in class. They usually attended the classes and were not absent when they had 'CALL'. One student even asked the teacher to delay the computer class in order not to miss it. Students concentrated on the exercises. Whenever they had any difficulty, they went back to their teacher, their notes and books. Sometimes, when the class finished, they worked beyond the end of the lesson. The observer noticed that, before each computer class, students studied and reviewed the material or the subject to be presented on the computer. For example, if students were going to have a computer program about the past tense, students reviewed the past tense before attending the class. At other times, when students did not have enough time to finish the exercise, they borrowed the disks. In the class on 26 December, students asked

the teacher to give them exercises through the program 'Vocab' to contain all the vocabulary items they had taken in English 110. This was to revise for the final exam. They also asked the teacher to prepare drill and skill programs that contain all the grammatical rules they had taken during the course. Therefore, on the 28th of December, students were given a 'Gap Master' program that included all such grammatical rules. On the same day, the 28th of December, students revised all the previous computer exercises (except for 'Fast Food') to review for the final exam.

The researcher noticed that students spent much effort on CALL exercises, improving their level of knowledge. CALL was important to them for reinforcement and revision.

Evidence from the questionnaire (see Appendix 19)

In the reporting-back session, the students discussed their experience of 'CALL'. The teacher prepared a questionnaire to guide the discussion. There were three questions in the questionnaire that reflected students' motivational intensity (effort) to learn the foreign language.

Q 11. "When I see difficult words on the screen, I use the dictionary or ask the teacher immediately".

All the students in class suggested that they had used the dictionary or asked their teacher about difficult words.

Q 13. "When the same exercise in the course book is shown on the screen, I work harder to answer it".

All the students in this class agreed with this statement.

Q 18. "When the teacher asks us to work on a computer program for homework, I put effort into it".

Twelve students agreed.

3. Desire

From what students said and did, the researcher found that computer programs created the desire within the students to practise the English language. Students became more interested in learning it. After having 'CALL', the low achievers started to borrow the disks to practise the language. They even recommended having computer classes for more than one hour per week. Students mentioned their strong wish to have 'CALL' more often. Students wanted the curriculum to be taught by the computer and not just the vocabulary items and the grammatical rules. Students frequently expressed their feeling of interest during the computer class. They used to say that 'time passed quickly in the 'CALL' class.

In the second term 1993-1994, six students from this English class came to the researcher and asked her to teach them English using computer programs. The researcher informed them that she was unable to teach them any more, but she could supply them with computer programs that contained exercises relevant to their current English course.

Evidence from the questionnaire

Q 5. "I feel pleased when the teacher asks us to work on the computer programs".

All the students agreed with this statement.

Q 15. "When I work on computers, I wish the time would not end".

Ten students said that time passed quickly when they had 'CALL' lessons.

Q 17. "Because of using the computer programs, I wish I could drop the English course".

Non of the students agreed with this statement.

Q 19. "Compared to other language courses I have taken before, this one I am taking now is the best because it uses computer programs".

All the students agreed with this statement.

4. Attitude

Students who disliked learning the foreign language before changed in their attitude. They started to have positive attitudes towards the foreign language and towards learning it. Students also revealed positive attitudes of CALL and computers.

Evidence from the questionnaire

Q 3. "I don't like working with microcomputers".

Students all disagreed with this statement.

Q 8. "Computer programs make learning English fun".

Students all agreed.

Q 10. "After I'd used computer programs, I felt that I liked the English language course more".

All the students expressed such a feeling.

Q 20. "I wish that computer programs be used in the future in language classes".

All the students agreed.

The researcher concluded that computer programs not only increased students' motivation to learn the foreign language, but also created motivation within the low achievers who previously lacked motivation to learn the foreign language.

However, two students complained that a computer often gave only a 'right / wrong' judgement and did not give an indication of where the mistake lies (as in 'Vocab'). This proved tiresome for the student and led to lost confidence and motivation to continue working on the exercise. The computers' monotonous response became tiring and discouraging to the two students, creating negative motivation. The computer's extreme precision may not always be desirable because it may inhibit the students' progress as a result of concentrating on trivial details of spelling, punctuation or even word spacing. The computers persistence on receiving accurate answers contradicts with the communicative approach of language teaching which recommends leaving minor errors uncorrected in order for the student to achieve self-confidence in the foreign language.

The question raised next is, why do computer programs increase students' motivation to learn the foreign language? Through using computer programs, students found that the computer has many advantages which are (briefly):

- It provides a visually attractive presentation.
- Provides sound and music.
- Displays a scoring system which creates a competitive atmosphere.
- Provides an informal atmosphere, which breaks the everyday boring classroom routine.

- Allows students to practise and enjoy the language at the same time.
- Presents immediate feedback.
- Provides messages (introduction, help screen, hints)
- The computer can be used for self-assessment to measure one's progress.
- Has the ability to present questions and answer options in random order.
- Provides attention to each individual, and allows for more participation.
- Offers privacy, through which students work on their own and in their own time.
- Has easy access and is flexible with time.
- Word processing features are used in certain programs which makes it very easy to add, delete or correct answers.
- When students experienced the simulation 'Fast Food', they found that the simulation provided them with an informal type of learning, created fun, provided a context for discussion and bridged the gap between classroom and real life.

However, there were also disadvantages. Students wanted a syllabus - bound and not a syllabus - free CALL. As with Fast Food, the content of CALL had to reflect the prescribed syllabus. Also, pair work and group work often led to Arabic and not English conversation. Communicative practice in English needs to be engineered around CALL and does not result from use of CALL.

2. Does 'CALL' have an effect on students' feelings of anxiety in the English class?
Does it increase or decrease their level of anxiety and why?

Students informed the researcher that 'CALL' lowers their level of anxiety. Students felt very relaxed and comfortable in 'CALL' classes. They worked confidently on the computer programs.

Evidence from the questionnaire:

Q1 "I feel anxious when I work on the computer programs".

Twelve students said that they do not feel anxious, when they work on computer programs, especially after an initial socialisation period.

Q2. "I like the privacy provided by the computer".

All the students agreed.

Q 4. "I prefer the computer to correct me rather than the teacher".

All the students agreed.

Q 9. "I feel anxious when the computer corrects my mistakes".

All the students disagreed.

Q 12. "When I work on computer programs, I suffer from headaches".

Twelve students disagreed.

Students gave the following reasons for not being anxious in 'CALL' lessons:

Computer programs can provide students with privacy which makes those, who like solitary study, work hard on their own. It also allows those who are retiring, shy or do not raise their hands for fear of being wrong, to work on their own to build up their self confidence. The computer is patient, and doesn't worry about how many mistakes the students make. It never laughs at learners' mistakes. Therefore, the students don't feel worried or embarrassed by their mistakes as they may be in student-teacher interaction.

The computer provides personalised and self paced learning. This flexibility allows the slow learners to spend as much time as they need to acquire certain knowledge and allows the fast learners to move on to other exercises. The computer's flexibility makes the learners feel secure and non-anxious because their needs will be satisfied. 'CALL' offers students an uninhibited learning atmosphere where the students can obtain practise in the area in which they are weak.

However, with certain kinds of programs, students had a different type of reaction. With the simulation 'Fast Food', a number of students felt anxious, unlike drill and skill programs. With drill and skill programs, these students felt less threatened because they knew exactly what was expected of them and what they were supposed to do. But with 'Fast Food', which was an open-ended task, they didn't feel so comfortable. Other students felt more relaxed with the 'Fast Food' simulation because it is a 'judgement-free' application. It allows students' errors to go uncorrected. The students can type in a response, without receiving the feedback from the computer: 'You are wrong' or 'You are right'. Students' mistakes were not stressed. On the other hand, students expressed that having an exam on the computer screen, increased their level of anxiety. The reasons for this have already been stated.

3. Does 'CALL' have an effect on students' achievement in the English language? Does it improve their achievement?

It is difficult to answer this question objectively and precisely. This study doesn't experimentally compare between two groups, one given 'CALL' and one not, in order to find out whether 'CALL' affects achievement. This study is based on observation and student-teacher interaction. From what the researcher observed and heard from her students, 'CALL' appears to improve students' achievement. For example, at the end of the class on 28th of October, during which students used the program 'Vocab', the teacher invited the students to borrow the disks to practise the words in their free time. Very few borrowed them. Students told the teacher that they had practised the vocabulary items well in class through 'Vocab' to the extent that if the teacher wanted to test them, they were ready. In 'CALL' lessons where students worked on the computer program 'Vocab', students told their teacher frequently that the program allowed them to practise and memorise the words more easily. They often commented that if they keep on using the programs regularly, their level in the English language would improve.

Another source of evidence for the effect of 'CALL' on students' achievement is students' response after they have taken their mid-term exam. Students told their teacher that they obtained satisfactory results. They commented that they had improved their results in grammar. They attributed their success and high achievement in grammar to having computer programs which drilled them and allowed them to practise the grammatical rules in a new and enjoyable way.

Before the final exam, students asked their teacher to prepare computer programs that contained exercises about all the grammatical rules and all the vocabulary items they have taken. They believed strongly that such programs help them, drill them, and as a result, they enhance their achievement.

Conclusion

This chapter has examined the effect of introducing CALL into the language class. The computer programs were drill and skill programs, games and a simulation, which are considered totally new instructional material in Kuwait. This investigation focused mainly on CALL's effect on students' motivation to learn the foreign language, students' anxiety in the foreign language class and their achievement in English.

This study, based on observation, interviews and written reports, was conducted on a group of Kuwait University undergraduates enrolled in a required English course offered by the English Language Unit at the College of Education during the first term of 1992-1993. Students were taught the required curriculum supported by computer lessons which were offered for one hour, once a week. Computer lessons acted as a reinforcement for what students had taken through the English course (except for 'Fast Food').

The researcher discussed what happened in each CALL session. Each session was described in terms of the computer program used, the type of exercise written by the researcher, number of students attending the class, students' reaction towards the programs used, followed by some analysis. The overall results reached by the investigator were discussed which show that 'CALL' enhances students' motivation to learn the foreign language. It lowers students' anxieties and, as a result, it improves their achievement in the English language.

Recommendations concerning which computer programs to use, how to use them and when to use them, are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter Eight

Discussions, Recommendations and Implications

Introduction

Chapter eight attempts to knit together the different threads of this thesis: publications, perspectives, problems, findings and discussions as related to the study. The chapter attempts to provide an overall coherence to the thesis, as well as considering the implications of the findings of the study. This chapter comprises:

- (1) The stated aims of the research.
- (2) Discussion of the relevance of the findings of this research with previous research findings.
- (3) Recommendations for future research.
- (4) Implications of the findings.

Aims of the Research

The research investigated three main areas. The first area concerned Gardner's model (1985) applied to an Arabic context. The research investigated the extent to which this model is applicable to the Kuwaiti EFL setting. Can previous findings be generalised to a sample of University students studying EFL in Kuwait? This part of the research focused on the relationship between attitude, motivation, anxiety and achievement in the foreign English language.

The research examined the specific issues listed below:

1. In terms of motivation, the research investigated whether students are motivated or not (and included a comparison of Colleges); the kind of motivation they have:

instrumental or integrative; and the relationship between motivation and students' achievement in English.

2. In terms of **attitudes** (attitudes toward the English language, toward learning the English language and toward native speakers of English) this research examined the kind of attitudes students have (positive or negative), the attitudes of students in each College, and the relationship between attitudes and students' achievement in EFL.

3. The study examined whether students experience the feeling of **anxiety** in the English class (a comparison of Colleges); the relationship between anxiety and students' attitudes towards English, the relationship between anxiety and students' motivation, and the relationship between anxiety and students' achievement in EFL.

The second area was concerned with the **pedagogical process** that students most prefer in terms of:

(a) **language class activities**: how much do students like activities such as group work, pair work, role plays, debates, games, poetry and other activities?

(b) **language classroom context**: how do students like the classroom context to be (e.g. size of class, number of students, furniture, air conditioning)?

(c) **the role of the language teacher in class**: what do students prefer the role of the language teacher to be: dominating the class, giving frequent homework, explaining creatively or displaying other roles?

(d) **the instructional materials**: how much do students like instructional materials such as newspapers, video films, cassettes, language laboratories and other instructional materials?

(e) **methods of teaching**: how much do students like different methods of teaching, for example, using Arabic in the English language class, emphasising grammar or focusing on communication?

This second area raises the question "what educational arrangements do students like more?" Once we identify the methods, materials and activities that students prefer, we can use them to develop the desire to learn a foreign language such as English.

The third area is concerned with examining the effect of introducing **computer programs** into a Kuwait University language class which, in this context, was a totally new instructional approach. The present study investigated the effect of computer programs on students' motivation to learn English as a foreign language. Do students like computer programs? Do they enjoy using them? Do computer programs reduce or increase students' motivation to learn a foreign language (FL)? The present research examines the effect of computer programs on students' feelings of anxiety in the language class. Do students feel anxious in class when using computer programs? Do they feel comfortable and relaxed when they use computer programs? And consequently, will computer programs affect students' achievement in the FL?

The researcher examined three types of computer programs, drill and skill programs, games and a simulation. This study tried to answer the question 'which computer programs do students most like or dislike and why?'

The research started with wide theoretical aims and moved towards more practical aims as summarised in the following table:

Table 32: Summary of the aims of the study

(1) The relationship between motivation, attitude and anxiety and achievement in EFL.
(2) The educational context in terms of: class activities, classroom structure, instructional material, methods of teaching and teacher role that motivate students in the EFL class.
(3) Instructional material: computer programs' (CALL) effect on students' motivation, anxiety and achievement in EFL.

The Findings of the Current Study and their Relevance to Previous Research Findings

(1) Motivation and attitudes

The meaning of 'motivation' adopted in this study is the one suggested by Gardner (1985). According to Gardner (1985), motivation consists of four components: a goal one tries to attain, favourable attitudes one feels towards the activity, a desire to attain the goal and effortful behaviour.

Based on such a concept of motivation, it appears that most of the students under investigation at Kuwait University have a strong motivation to learn English. They have an interest in learning English, expend considerable effort in learning it, express a definite degree of favourability towards the English language, towards learning it and towards native speakers of English, and have motivation (both instrumental and integrative) for learning English. Moreover, from the students' point of view, the dominant attitudes Kuwaities adopt are in favour of the English language in Kuwait. Such finding contradicts previous research findings (Kharma, 1977b; Al-Mutawa et al., 1985; Albusairi, 1992) who reported that students in Kuwait lack motivation to learn the foreign language. The student sample expressed such attitudes partly because English speakers helped to liberate Kuwait from the Iraqi invasion; Kuwaiti T.V. shows interesting English programmes that highly rate English speakers, and because the English language is often required and needed in Kuwait and abroad for economic and political activity.

The research showed that the attitude of students was not separately instrumental or integrative, as has been the Western research finding (Gardner and Lambert, 1959; Gardner, Smythe, Clement and Gliksman, 1976; Gardner and Lambert, 1972, Chihara and Oller, 1978; Lukmani, 1972). Rather, with a Kuwaiti sample, it was found that integrative and instrumental orientations co-exist within individuals.

The sample investigated was drawn from three Colleges at Kuwait University: the College of Science, the College of Arts and the College of Sharia. Students from the College of Science had the greatest motivation to learn English. They have the greatest desire to learn English, the most favourable attitudes to English and to native speakers of English and more motivation for learning English. Learning English has immediate importance to them because English is the medium of instruction in the College of Science. Students from the College of Arts expend the most effort in learning English. They have positive attitudes to English and to native speakers of English and express clear aims in studying English. They have motivation to learn English but not as strong as Science students. Learning English does not have immediate importance to Arts students because Arabic is the medium of instruction in this College. However, many Arts students like learning languages and are aware of their importance. On the other hand, students from the College of Sharia lack the motivation to learn English. They have the least desire for English; expend the least effort in learning English, express the least motivation for studying English and the least favourable attitudes to English and to native speakers of English. This is because they do not have a need for English, neither in their present studies (as Arabic is the medium of instruction in the College of Sharia) nor in their future career. In addition, being religious, they dislike many Western habits native English speakers practise, which Islam forbids them to follow.

The current study found that the more one is exposed to the English language and has contacts with native speakers, (e.g. through being in an English medium College, visiting and staying in an English country or watching English programmes on T.V.), the more one appreciates English. This relates to favourable attitudes towards the language and native speakers of the language. Such finding agrees with previous research findings. Gardner et al. (1974) reported from their study that exposure to the other community can promote favourable attitude change. Hofman and Zak (1969) found that the greater amount (and the closer nature) of the interaction one has with the other community when visiting it, the more favourable attitudes one has towards native speakers. Clement, Gardner and Smythe (1977b) found that the more contact one has with native speakers while visiting another country, the more favourable attitudes one has towards learning the foreign language.

Concerning the relationship between motivation, attitude and students' achievement in English, it was found that a student's ability in English has a significant positive relationship with motivation and attitude. The higher a student's ability in English, the greater the desire to learn English, the more effort a student spends in learning English and the more favourable is a student's attitude toward the English language.

The finding is similar to the results reached by various international empirical studies. Many empirical studies propose a causal link between attitudes toward English and students' achievement in the foreign language. Jordan (1941) found a positive correlation between achievement and students' attitudes. Duckworth and Entwistle (1974) reported a significant relationship between attitudes and attainment. Neidt and Hudlund (1967) found that attitudes to language courses were related to achievement in that course. Burstall (1975a) concluded that students' attitudes towards learning French were related to achievement. Gardner (1979) and Jones (1949) reached the same conclusions.

On the other hand, in the present study, it was found that attitudes toward native speakers of English had no relationship with students' English mid-term and final exam results which contradicts previous research findings. Spolsky (1969) found a significant positive relationship between attitude towards English speakers and grades in English. Oller, Hudson and Liu (1977) pointed out from their study that attitudes toward the target language groups were positively correlated with attained proficiency in ESL. Scherer and Wertheimer (1964) found that American College students with favourable attitudes to Germans demonstrated higher proficiency in German. Jacobsen and Imhoof (1974) found a positive relationship between favourability towards Japanese and ease of adjustment to Japan and achievement of proficiency in Japanese. However in the current research, it appears that only self perceived level in English correlated positively and significantly with attitudes to native speakers. The higher the self perceived ability in English, the more favourable is a student's attitude to native speakers, which reveals similarity with previous research findings.

Although age appears not to be a strong predictor of language attitude, the present study found that the older the student, the greater the desire to learn English and the more positive the attitude to native speakers of English. This finding contradicts previous studies which indicate that attitudes toward learning a second language become less positive with age (Gardner and Smythe, 1975; Jones, 1949, 1950; Jordan, 1941).

Empirical studies have found a relationship between motivation and achievement in the foreign language. Gardner and Lambert (1959) detailed the importance of motivational variables in learning a second language. Gardner and Lambert (1972) found that grades in French were dependent on students' motivation to learn the language. Tucker, Hamayan and Genesee (1976) found that attitude and motivation contributed significantly to students' achievement in French. Clement et al. (1977a) found a positive relationship between attitudes and motivation with achievement in the second language. Spolsky (1969) pointed out that integrative motivation correlates significantly with proficiency in English. Gardner, Lalonde and Moorcroft (1985) found that attitude and motivation have a positive effect on second language proficiency. Bialystok and Frohlich (1978) found the same results. Glikzman, Gardner and Smythe (1982) found that integrative motivation has a positive effect on students' classroom behaviour which leads to higher achievement in the second language. Naiman et al. (1978), Clement, Gardner and Smythe (1977c) and Clement, Gardner and Smythe (1980) express the same results.

(2) Anxiety

The present study found that, in general, most of the students under investigation lack feelings of anxiety in the English class. There was no significant difference between the students from the three Colleges in terms of anxiety. Anxiety correlates negatively with students' achievement in English, attitudes to English and to native speakers of English, and motivation in studying English. The higher a student's level in English, the less anxiety the student feels in the English class. Being anxious in the English class tends to be related to less favourable attitudes to English and to native speakers of English, and less motivation towards learning English.

In terms of the relationship between anxiety and achievement in the foreign language, the conclusions reached in the current study are similar to previous research findings. Kleinmann (1977), Bailey (1983), Chastain (1975) and Albusairi (1992) distinguished between facilitative and debilitating anxiety. They found that facilitative anxiety correlated positively with achievement while debilitating anxiety correlated negatively with achievement in the foreign language. Gardner, Smythe, Clement and Glikzman (1976) found a negative correlation between French classroom anxiety and students' scores on speech skills and final grades in French. Oller, Baca and Vigil (1977) found that subjects who defined themselves as being 'calm' had higher scores on a cloze test of ESL. d'Anglejan and Renaud (1985) found that poor learners had higher levels of anxiety in the classroom and lower scores in French as a second language. Ely (1986) reported that affective variables (anxiety is one of them) influence students' voluntary participation in class which in turn influences second language proficiency. Clement et al. (1977c) concluded that self confidence, a dimension that involves a low level of anxiety, was strongly associated with indices of competence in the second language. Tucker, Hamayan and Genesee (1976) indicated that students who had low levels of French class anxiety had high scores on a French language test. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) found that a negative relationship exists between foreign language anxiety and foreign language proficiency. Swain and Burnaby (1976) reached the same results.

Concerning the relationship between anxiety and motivation, Lalonde and Gardner (1984) found that the more motivated an individual feels the less anxious he is about the French learning situation. Clement, Gardner and Smythe (1980) reported from their study that students who had little anxiety were more motivated to learn English which reflects the findings of the present research.

(3) The preferred educational context

In terms of the educational arrangements students most prefer, it appeared that students' main preference was for well air conditioned and well furnished language classrooms. Students preferred communicative, cooperative class activities such as working in groups, role playing, playing games, and having trips outside the class and

abroad. Students wanted the instructional material to be interesting and suitable for them. They liked using different types of instructional materials in class such as computer programs, video films, newspapers, pictures and drawings, and the language laboratory. Students prefer a loving, understanding, flexible and non-authoritative teacher who applies the communicative approach to language teaching. In terms of methods of teaching English, the dominant preference of students was towards the communicative approach and bilingual methods in language teaching. Students rejected the methods that depended on memorisation and rote-learning.

(4) CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning)

Based on class observation, interviews and written self-reports, it was found that CALL enhances students' motivation to learn the foreign language, lowers their anxieties, and as a result, it improves their achievement in the English language. Three types of computer programs were tried out in this study: drill and skill programs, computer games and a simulation (Fast Food). Students were interested and felt motivated while using these programs, except with the simulation (Fast Food).

These results agree with previous research findings except when students used the simulation. A review of research work indicates that students in previous studies find simulations very motivating unlike the students in the current study.

Previous research supports most of the results reached in the present study. Concerning drill and skill programs, Roberts (1981) mentions CALL's usefulness in motivating teenagers to learn languages. Pamela and Maddison (1987) argue that where rote learning cannot be avoided, computers can make it interesting. Windeatt (1986) found that students perceived exercises on the computer as more enjoyable than non-CALL exercises. Students liked using the computer, enjoyed the activity and insisted on continuing the task despite the limited time of the lesson. Beynon and Mackay (1987) also agree that CALL motivates alienated pupils.

Concerning computer games, they can provide motivation and create interest (Baker, 1983). Klier (1987) developed a microcomputer game around French culture and civilisation. When he implemented this game, he found that the students became motivated and wished to play again and again. Pearson (1986: 8-9) explains that computer games make learning more interesting by embedding a teaching point.

Previous research contradicts the findings of the current study in terms of simulations. Jones and Fortescue (1987) point out that simulations are very motivating. Whittington (1984) observed his students working on the simulation 'Mary Rose', and concluded that simulations had a strong motivational effect on his pupils. Students in the current study didn't like the simulation due to three main reasons. First, simulations are open-ended tasks where students do not know exactly what to do, and do not feel secure and guided, unlike drill and skill programs. Second, the simulation was not relevant to the course curriculum taught. Third, the researcher introduced it at the end of the term when students were busy studying for their final exams.

In terms of anxiety, previous indications agree with the present conclusions. Drill and skill programs can provide privacy. Those who suffer from high levels of anxiety, keep silent, do not raise their hands, fear participation in class and feel embarrassed by their mistakes, can work on their own using the computer in order to build up their self-confidence. Davies and Higgins (1985: 40) point out that the computer "has the patience of Job, does not mind how many errors the learner makes, is never sarcastic and does not laugh at stupid mistakes". Ornstein (1968) found that students were not embarrassed by their errors as they may be in 'student-teacher interaction'. MacDonald (1977: 185) argued that by offering privacy of risk, students can feel relaxed when making mistakes. CALL provides freedom to fail without embarrassment. Demaiziere (1983) found that CALL lowers students' level of anxiety. Computer programs provide personalised and self-paced learning, making slow learners feel more relaxed (Ahmad et al., 1985). Drill and skill programs make some students feel less threatened because they know exactly what is expected from them.

The suggestions of the present study in terms of the effectiveness of CALL on students' achievement in the foreign language are parallel with previous research findings. Davies and Higgins (1985) point out that drill and skill programs on French irregular verbs improved students' production of correct forms of French verbs. A study designed by Prince and Casey (1972) located the effectiveness of CALL in teaching Spanish grammar to fresher College students at Southern Illinois University. Saracho (1982) found that students who used CAL (Computer Assisted Learning) performed better than those who didn't use CAL.

The findings of the current study can be summarised in the following table:

Table 33: Summary of the findings of the study

<p>(1) Motivation/attitudes correlate positively with students' achievement in EFL Anxiety correlates negatively with students' achievement in EFL</p>
<p>(2) Students preferred Class activities: communicative, cooperative such as role plays, games, trips outside University Classroom context: well air conditioned, well furnished Methods of teaching: communicative, bilingual Instructional materials: interesting, suitable such as computer programs, video films, newspapers Teacher role: loving, understanding, flexible, non-authoritative There is a relationship between the pedagogical process and motivation/attitude, anxiety and achievement in the foreign language</p>
<p>(3) Instructional material: Computer programs increase students' motivation to learn EFL, reduce their anxieties and enhance their achievement</p>

This study consisted of two pieces of research which will now be discussed, with recommendations and implications of the research explored.

The First Piece of Research

Discussion

A discussion of any piece of research has to be contextualised within certain basic considerations. These considerations are the input, context, process and output

of the education event being analyzed. This piece of research can better be understood if these four different parts are defined, which in turn underline the limits of generalisation of the findings of the study.

Input refers to the people included in the study, context refers to the time, place, society, school, classroom and curriculum, process reflects the instructional material used, the techniques and methods of teaching followed, and output refers to the outcome produced by the integration of the three elements. The outcome can be achievement in the language or attitude to languages. Variation in any of the three elements can influence the output. Therefore, the findings should be looked upon as outputs of certain people in a specific context.

The findings of this study will be discussed in terms of input, context, process and output and then will be followed by recommendations and suggestions for future research.

Input

The input in the first piece of research comprised University undergraduates enrolled in English courses, from three Colleges: the College of Science, Arts and Sharia. Science students are mostly from the Hawalli area, where relatively newly rich, educated, open and progressive families live. It appeared that Science students visited English speaking countries more often, spent the longest time there (compared with Arts and Sharia students) and spent the longest time watching English T.V. In terms of future career, they plan to get a job that requires knowledge of English, take postgraduate studies abroad in an English country, or take postgraduate studies in Kuwait which also require some knowledge of English. Science students need to be proficient in English in order that they succeed. In the College of Science, English is the medium of instruction.

Arts students who study in an Arabic medium College come from different areas in Kuwait. They spend a moderate amount of time in English speaking countries, less than Science students but more than Sharia students. In terms of career intention,

they plan to get a job that does not require knowledge of English. On the other hand, Sharia students are from an Arabic medium, religiously oriented College and live mostly in Farwania and Ahmadi where conservative, more religious, Saudi Arabia origin families stay. Sharia students spend the least time in English speaking countries and the least time watching English programmes on T.V. They intend to get a job that doesn't require knowledge of English after graduation.

The teachers in the College of Science are mostly native English speakers, while in the Arts and Sharia Colleges, very few teachers are native speakers of English.

Context

Time

This research study was conducted in 1992-1993, directly a year after the liberation of Kuwait from the Iraqi invasion. Kuwaities were affected very much, and were appreciative of the role played by English speakers (mainly from U.K. and U.S.A) to help Kuwaities at that time.

Societal attitudes

English in Kuwait is a foreign language. However, the policy in Kuwait is in favour of learning English. Efforts are made by education decision makers in Kuwait to provide rich contexts for English learning. Kuwait T.V. specified a separate channel that presents English-only programmes. Learning English is compulsory at schools. More and more jobs require employees to have a knowledge of English. English is the medium of instruction in certain Colleges at Kuwait University. Many products and goods are labelled and advertized in English. Kuwaiti society regards English as important, prestigious and academically valuable.

University aims

English courses are compulsory at Kuwait University. Each College offers different English courses, and students are required to take them. However, each College has its own aims in offering such courses. In the College of Science, English courses are intensive and focus on reading and writing to prepare students for other scientific courses that are taught in English only, while in the Colleges of Arts and Sharia, English courses are not meant for preparing students for English medium courses because Arts and Sharia are Arabic medium Colleges.

Nature of the curriculum

The curriculum taught in the College of Science is very intensive and aims at developing students' reading and writing skills, while in the Colleges of Arts and Sharia it is neither intensive nor aims at preparing students for English medium courses.

Process

In the language classes at the College of Science, the classroom practice (including methods of teaching, techniques, instructional material and class activities), focuses on literacy and oracy and aims at developing students' academic proficiency in English. The situation is different in the Colleges of Arts and Sharia. The focus is mainly on developing basic interpersonal communicative skills.

Output

Output in EFL classes in Kuwait comprises achievement in the language or attitudes to language learning. Inputs influence outputs. The relationship between language inputs and outputs is mediated by the context and classroom practice (Baker, 1993). Based on input, context and process, one important output was that Science students are motivated to learn English, have the greatest desire for studying it and the most favourable attitudes towards learning the language and towards native

speakers of English. In addition, they lack anxiety in the English class. Arts students are motivated, have positive attitudes to English and to native speakers, but not as strongly as Science students. On the other hand, Sharia students are totally different from Science and Arts students. Sharia students are not motivated to learn English, are not in favour of English and native speakers of English and show relatively higher levels of anxiety.

In general, it appears that students under investigation are motivated to learn English and are in favour of the English language and native speakers of English. This is because the context is encouraging and appreciative of English and native speakers of English, and because of the time in history when the study was conducted (after the Iraqi war).

In the current study, it was found that motivation, attitudes and anxiety are related to achievement in the foreign language. It appeared that the higher the motivation towards learning English, the better the attitudes towards English and the lower the level of anxiety, the higher the achievement in the foreign language.

Recommendations for Future Research

Input

In terms of input, the present study investigated students' affective variables such as motivation, attitude and anxiety in their relation to achievement in the foreign language. The researcher recommends that other personal affective variables of Kuwaiti students be researched (e.g. cognitive style, extroversion, introversion, self confidence, risk taking).

Context

It was found that the students who have positive attitudes to English and native speakers are mostly from the Hawalli area. In Hawalli, relatively newly rich, urban, open and educated families live. It appeared that the students who have less positive

attitudes to English and native speakers are mainly from Ahmadi where conservative, Bedouin (whose origin is from Saudi Arabia) people live. The researcher expects that individual difference variables such as motivation and attitudes may differ according to area and to parental child-rearing practices. Previous research findings reported that individual variables such as attitude and motivation differ across cultural communities (Gardner, 1979; Clement and Kruidenier, 1983; Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, Lalonde and Pierson, 1983; Oller, Hudson and Liu, 1977; Naiman et al., 1978). In addition, earlier studies support the effect of parents on students' motivation and attitudes (Lambert and Klineberg, 1967; Gardner et al., 1970; Kirby and Gardner, 1973). The researcher recommends that the relationship between attitudes, motivation and achievement in the foreign language, and the area from which the student comes and parental effect be investigated more deeply in Kuwait. More attention should be directed towards the role of the cultural milieu in the language learning process.

This study was conducted in 1992, a year after the liberation of Kuwait from the Iraqi invasion. Kuwaiti people have not forgotten the role English speaking nations played to help them. Therefore, Kuwaities are currently favourable in attitude to English speaking people. The researcher recommends that this study is replicated at some other time when Kuwaities have further experience of the English speaking people.

Process

The present study assessed the relationship between motivation, attitudes, anxiety and achievement in the foreign language. The methods of teaching, instructional materials, teacher role and class activities that students most like were identified. The present study found that the pedagogical process is related to attitudes, motivation and achievement in the foreign language. The researcher believes that the pedagogical process interacts dynamically with students' affective variables, and that they interact with individual difference variables to promote language proficiency. Glikzman (1976) and Naiman et al. (1978) investigated the interactions of teachers and pupils in such language classes. This needs to be replicated in Kuwait. Further

research should be encouraged to consider the interaction between the language classroom environment, language teaching activities and students' motivation, attitudes and anxiety, and the effect of this interaction on achievement in language.

Output

This research found that attitudes, motivation and anxiety correlate with achievement in the foreign language. A question remains about 'cause and effect'. Do attitudes, motivation and anxiety affect achievement in the foreign language? Or is it achievement in the foreign language that affects attitude, motivation and anxiety? The researcher believes that both achievement and attitude/motivation, and achievement and anxiety are the cause and effect of the other. When one has reasons for studying the language, expresses positive attitudes towards learning the language, feels a desire and need to learn the language and expends effort in learning it, this will lead one to achieve more in the language and gain proficiency. When one is relatively proficient in the language and becomes more advanced in language abilities, this leads one to hold a degree of favourability toward the language and creates the motivation within the individual to extend that capability. When one is anxious in the English class, experiences problems with concentration, feels worried and uncomfortable, his or her language achievement may be impaired. Low ability in a language may create the feeling of anxiety, embarrassment and shyness in class. The complex chemical relationships are not simply one variable being the cause of another.

Generalisations from these findings may be limited. This research is limited to one particular Kuwaiti context. Baker (1993: 239) says "different ingredients produce different meals. Occasionally the change of just one ingredient can change the taste of the whole product. Recipes for success need testing in a variety of contexts to assess their generalisation potential". The researcher recommends that this study be replicated, not only in Kuwait University but also at other levels in the Kuwaiti education system.

Implications

This study consisted of two pieces of research. The first piece of research investigated the relationship between achievement and motivation and attitude, and achievement and anxiety. It appeared that motivation and attitudes correlate positively with achievement in the foreign language, and anxiety correlates negatively with achievement in the foreign language. It was found also that the pedagogical process (methods of teaching, instructional material, class activities, teacher role and classroom environment) is related to motivation, attitudes, anxiety and achievement in the foreign language. Based on such findings, the researcher now presents recommended implications.

In terms of **policy**, the language setting within which the learning of the language is taking place should be fully understood. It is one of the important factors that affect policy making. The function of English in that particular environment should be identified, with the societal and individual needs of learners being made clear.

Kuwait is a monolingual community in which the mother tongue language is used for all communal functions, and English acts as a foreign language. English is looked upon as an international language "as a world language used to enable communities whose primary languages are not widely used outside their own area to communicate with members of other speech communities either for the promotion of foreign trade or in order to gain access to scientific, technical, and literary materials that do not exist in their own language" (Olshtain, 1985: 156). In terms of societal needs, Kuwait society needs English in three major areas: (1) education, (2) labour market (for economic reasons) and (3) in furthering the process of modernisation by, for example, providing access to science and technology.

English as a foreign language teaching in Kuwait should be aware of the function of the foreign language in Kuwait, societal needs, individual needs and overall goals for learning English. The researcher suggests that any program of language teaching should start with familiarising students with the reasons why they should learn a foreign language. Students should be aware of the importance of

learning the language and their need for it. Having clear goals for studying a foreign language can help encourage students to work hard to attain these goals. Motivation, as mentioned earlier, comprises four components, and having a goal to attain is one of these components (Gardner 1985).

Goals in a specific course should fit the overall goals for learning English and be suited to the learners at hand. Choice of language content, methods and language activities should be related to the general goals of the course. The goals of a language class will vary according to students' needs and interests. The most important thing is that the goals of the course be specified. For example, English for specific purposes (ESP) courses are offered in the College of Science. The language course goals are to prepare students for English medium courses, to be able to read scientific information and to respond academically in the foreign language. Once the goals of the language course are identified, then methods and materials to be used need to be considered. Not only should course goals be specified, but also students should be informed about the relationship between the goals and the methodology that will be used to reach these goals. Students should be informed about what they can expect to be able to do in the foreign language after completing given segments of the course.

Teachers should be chosen and employed on the basis of their proficiency in the foreign language, their teaching skills and personality. The teacher should be loving, caring, understanding and encouraging. In teaching, the teacher should be creative, efficient and flexible. The teacher should teach the language out of interest. When the teacher enjoys teaching the language, such enjoyment can be transferred to the learners. The teacher's personality and the way he / she treats students can create the motivation to learn the foreign language within the students. The teacher should neither be dominating and authoritarian nor keep herself / himself distant from students. The teacher should interact with students, build a personal relationship with them and care for them. The teacher should create an atmosphere where students are not embarrassed by their errors. The teacher should neither focus on students' errors during communication, nor show impatience with students' errors. Rather teachers should respond to the content of their speech, and not the language form they use.

Classroom activities should be lively, vivid and stimulating to create interest. Classroom activities should involve humour, narrative and lively natural conversations to make language-learning fun. In order that students feel motivated and relaxed in the language class, the activities used in class should be personally interesting, starting with the use of familiar topics and situations. Such kind of activities encourage students to feel comfortable when they describe themselves, their family and friends. In a relaxed atmosphere, students will talk about their interests, studies, desires, future plans and daily life. Students may feel much motivated and excited when they engage in conversations about their experiences, trips, vacations, the happiest moments of their life and the saddest one. Students can be given the chance to discuss political issues, religious matters, marriage, relationships and so forth. In the current research study, 66% of students expressed a preference for having trips outside the University. Based on such a finding, a wide variety of communicative situations (e.g. trip to the doctor, restaurant, bank) should be arranged to allow students to use the foreign language. The content and the topics used in the activities should be intrinsically interesting and meaningful to the student. The class management should include "a sense of group-belonging and cohesion which will contribute to lower affective filters" (Krashen and Terrell, 1983: 97).

Class activities can take different forms: **dialogues** can be practised in the language class. Students are divided into pairs to participate in conversational exchange. Dialogues prepare students to face conversational demands outside the class. Students may practise dialogues in a role play situation.

Students can conduct **interviews**. They are divided into pairs and given questions to ask their partners. It is better that interviews focus on interesting events students have experienced. When interviews focus on the students themselves, their needs, wants, feelings and opinions, students will know each other in a more personal way expressing themselves in an interesting, joyful, low anxiety situation in the foreign language.

Personal charts and tables can be exploited in the language class. Students can fill out the chart with personal information which can act as a basis for a class follow-up discussion. Or charts can be used by students to express their opinions about issues.

Problem solving activities can be adopted in the language classroom. In this kind of activity, the student has to find a correct answer to a question, a problem or a situation. These activities can be very motivating because students find them interesting and enjoyable.

Newspapers or magazines **advertisements** include topics that can be used for discussion. **Games** stimulate interest. Students become more involved with an activity if it is presented in a game format. Other activities such as using **debates, telling stories, reading poetry, writing a diary and letters and conducting projects in English** (e.g. making a radio programme) will allow students to learn the foreign language and entertain themselves at the same time. These activities can be practised in dyads or in cooperative groups because they encourage interpersonal communication between the participants.

The activities practised in the language class may include the use of different **Instructional materials** such as slide shows, panels, music, films, film strips, television reports, news broadcasts, computer programs and brochures. The rich use of varied, attractive and stimulating instructional material may motivate students and create positive attitudes towards language learning. The content of the text book as an instructional material should be interesting, attractive, demonstrating appropriate language and suiting students' needs in terms of their age, experiential and cultural background and special interests.

Classroom climate may affect students' attitudes and motivation to learn a foreign language. The classroom should not be over-crowded. The recommended number of students in a class is a maximum of 15 in order that they receive sufficient attention from the teacher and time for practice. The classroom should be well furnished and well air-conditioned to create a positive, comfortable classroom

atmosphere that attracts students. Having gloomy, hot, small and badly furnished classrooms may lead students to dislike the class and the language learning process that occurs in such a class.

Methods of teaching should arouse students' interest and enthusiasm. A method of teaching should not be dull or uninteresting because it may create dissatisfaction and disappointment within students. The methods of teaching used should be communicative, emphasise all aspects of English and should not rely on memorisation and rote-learning. It should encourage students' participation, interaction and the use of the language. Guest lectures may be provided and native speaker visitors may be invited. As mentioned earlier, the methods of teaching should be in agreement with the goals of the course to allow students to attain those goals.

The Second Piece of Research

Implications of CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning)

The second piece of research investigated the relationship between CALL and students' motivation to learn the foreign language, anxiety in the language class and achievement in the foreign language. Based on class observation of CALL, the researcher presents the following implications.

The researcher's recommendations regarding CALL in Kuwait are based on three main questions:

1. Which CALL programs to use?
2. How to use CALL?
3. When to use CALL?

Before commencing the discussion of the three questions, the researcher recommends giving students the chance to become sufficiently aware of the computer first. Students should be given introductory sessions about the computer, its components, advantages and disadvantages and the way to use it. Students should

first feel comfortable and confident in using the computer. The educational programs and exercises should be delayed until students become used to the machine. In Kuwait, students rarely use computers. Therefore, when they were asked to work on computer programs, they initially expressed annoyance towards 'CALL'.

1. Which CALL programs to use?

Concerning the first question Which programs to use?, in Kuwait, when one enters language classes, one will find many drills are introduced by the teacher and the course book. In language training, the main objective is to develop skills until they become automatic and habitual. Training takes place through repetition, careful monitoring and feedback. Only the right habits should be focused on and developed. Higgins and Johns (1984: 37) say that "the requirement for patient and accurate monitoring makes the computer, and its big brother, the simulator, excellent means of training". As a result, computer drill and skill programs can be used to train students on specific items. These programs have the ability to take over the role of the human trainer. These programs can provide an endlessly patient and flexible supervision which is difficult for teachers to provide. They allow the teacher to concentrate on a more communicative approach.

Drill and skill programs can be adopted in language classes where training approaches are required. Higgins and Johns (1984: 38) explain that "certain grammatical and lexical skills lend themselves to a training approach, in particular those which operate on closed systems in a predictable way, where the application of a rule is automatic and bears little relation to choices dictated by meaning. They include regular morphological change, such as spelling rules for regular plurals, or syntactic features like word order and do insertion in questions. In the area of lexis there are certain closed sets which present little conceptual difficulty to a foreign learner but which need to be memorised, such as the number system or the names of the months. A training approach can be appropriate for them".

In general, the researcher recommends that when training methods are required in a language class, computer drill and skill programs be applied. They can be used as an alternative way of handling traditional reinforcement exercises. Davies and Higgins (1985: 15) comment that "how often one hears language teachers complaining about the deficiencies of a new course because it lacks testing and reinforcement material. It is here that the computer can relieve teachers of much of the drudgery and release them to concentrate on communicative skills". The students under investigation liked this type of computer program because it was reassuring for them, it trained them and enabled them to know exactly what was expected from them.

As mentioned earlier, computer games have the ability to entertain, teach and motivate. Computer games can teach because they are a type of drill and skill program that trains students on specific items, but have a game element which replaces the feedback 'You're wrong' with 'I win'. Over time, drill and skill programs can become boring. To solve this problem, computer drills are turned into a game. Therefore, when the teacher recognises that the students are bored or unmotivated, he or she can provide them with computer games through which they learn, entertain themselves and enhance their motivation. Computer games make rote learning enjoyable. They allow learning to occur through fun.

Simulation, on the other hand, is "a general term, covering a range of activities which involve decisions based on data from realistic situations" (Higgins and Johns, 1984 :63). It is an open-ended task that provides a context for discussion and stimulates language among students who work on a task. Kenning and Kenning (1983: 159) suggest that "computer simulations can thus be of great assistance in stimulating conversation, in confronting pupils with tasks to be carried out in the here and now, they prompt them to consult one another and argue the merits and demerits of a particular response. The conversation is not gratuitous, it has a genuine purpose - to try and arrive at a good solution - and this tends to make for a lively exchange". The present writer recommends that simulation is provided when the main objective is stimulating students' oral production.

Choosing a specific computer program depends on the aims and objectives of the lesson. If the objective is to train and drill students on specific items, drill and skill programs can be adopted. If the objective is to train, entertain and motivate, other computer programs (e.g. computer games) can be applied. If the objective is to stimulate and improve students' oral production, simulations can be chosen. Also, choosing appropriate computer programs depends on the students' learning styles. The teacher should attempt to match each student's preference or each student's type of personality to different types of computer programs. The students may be given the freedom to choose the program they like most that suits their learning style.

To conclude this section, the researcher believes that there is not one specific computer program that is 'the best'. Jones and Fortescue's (1987: 100-101) point is that "we should beware of dogmatism within 'CALL', which insists that one particular use of the computer is its only 'proper' role in language learning. It can take many forms. One is that any program without graphics and sound 'fails to utilise the full potential of the machine'. Another is the claim that the computer should be used only for word-processing, or only for drills, or only for simulations. Such narrow views can only do harm, as they deny the computer's potential as a flexible resource, and claim a false identity between machine and method".

2. How to use CALL programs?

The researcher does not recommend one specific way of using the computer. Computer use depends on the individual teacher, the pupils, the space and the number of machines available. However, the researcher suggests a number of general points applicable to a Kuwaiti context.

The research suggested that the computer is used as one component in an overall course and lesson plan. The teacher must have a clear idea about the objective of the lesson and the role of the computer to achieve this objective. When the teacher prepares the lesson, he or she should think carefully and thoroughly about how to use computer programs to gain maximal advantage. The computer when used in class should not be used out of context. It should be exploited to fulfil the aims of the

class. As Jones and Fortescue (1987: 101) argue, the teacher should not treat the computer lesson as a "Friday afternoon fun session, or as a free period in which he 'plugs the students in' in the good old language lab fashion and forgets all about them". To be effective, a computer lesson should have a purpose which fits the overall lesson and course plan.

Furthermore, the computer lesson should be integrated with the syllabus and the curriculum. Jones and Fortescue (1987: 101) express this point well by saying that "work with computer is not an end in itself, the more it is integrated with normal classroom work, the more relevant it will be - and the more relevant the learner will perceive it to be". Therefore, the teacher should exploit authoring programs because they allow the teacher to tailor the contents of 'CALL' activities to satisfy and fulfil students' current needs. For example, if students are learning grammatical rules about verb tenses, the content of 'CALL' activities should be around the grammatical rules students are practising at that stage of the course. Simulations should be relevant to the content and aims of the language class and should give students the chance to use a language they have recently acquired. Computers should not be isolated from the course curriculum and should not be isolated from other classroom resources. Computers should be used alongside dictionaries, notebooks and reference books (as the researcher did with her students), using the computer as another teaching aid. This will lead students to feel more relaxed when using the machine and will encourage them to use the other resources available to them.

The computer can take on different roles and can provide various activities. The computer has the potential for variety that should be used and exploited by teachers and students. The researcher recommends that instructors start with programs such as drill and skill programs and vocabulary games. These programs are very simple and safe to start with. As soon as the teacher gains enough confidence, he or she can try more difficult, longer and open-ended activities such as simulations and adventures. The observer advises teachers not to limit themselves to specific activities. Computers enable a wide range of experimentation and innovation.

There are three main ways to use the computer: whole class work (using the computer as an electronic blackboard), group work, and individual work. The researcher doesn't recommend using one specific approach over another, although the researcher noticed that certain types of computer programs lend themselves to one form of classroom organisation rather than another.

Whole class work

Using the computer as an electronic blackboard depends on the number of students in class, the availability of the computer in class and the size of the screen. The computer in whole class activity takes the role of a teacher's aid. The teacher can operate it and use it to present a new language structure using an animated presentation program and then return to conventional practice activities. The computer in this case does not dominate the whole lesson. The teacher can also call on students to operate the keyboard, (as when he or she calls them to write on the blackboard). The main advantage of the computer in this mode is its immediate response.

This mode involves the whole class in a 'face the front' activity. The teacher controls the discussion and pupils take it in turns to operate the keyboard. Simulations can also be used. The class can be divided into groups, each group playing a different role. Each group engages in discussion until it decides on a certain action to take. Each group defends its decision in a whole class discussion. Then the final decisions are typed into the machine. When the class includes a relatively large number of students, and only one computer with a wide screen, it is preferable to have whole class activity.

Group work

Using the computer for group work depends on the type of program used and the availability of computers in class. When students work in groups, each group will probably have a leader appointed by the teacher or by the group itself. Also, there should be a keyboard operator. This role must be switched around fairly frequently. If

there is only one computer in class, computer work can rotate while other groups focus on different activities. When using group work, it is suggested that the teacher is aware of certain points. It is better to have at least one student per group who has some knowledge about the computer keyboard. As time passes, the other students will gradually obtain keyboard skills. The teacher also should consider the number of students in each group. The preferable number is three, one student at the keyboard, and one student on either side. A group of five students is acceptable. if one makes sure that the seating is arranged in a way that the two outside students can see the screen clearly. A group of four students may be less desirable because the fourth student may be too far from the screen which leads him or her to feel a little marginalised (Jones and Fortescue, 1987).

Individual work

Individual work can take place in the computer laboratory where a number of computers are available. The teacher should first give initial training on how to operate the computer. Then students can work on their own.

It is recommended that computers in the computer laboratory be made available on a self-access basis. The computer laboratory can be provided with a library that contains software. The teacher must encourage students to self-access 'CALL'. Self-access 'CALL' allows students to choose what they want to do and when. Students may want to follow up recent class work, have drills and remedial exercises, use the machine as a word processor, or just have fun and play with the machine. It is up to the individual student. Also, computers in the computer laboratory are available whenever students need to work on them. Students may not want to work on them everyday, even once a week or at all. At times, classroom time is not long enough to enable students to finish their task. As a result, they can go to the computer laboratory to use self-access 'CALL' in their own time.

As mentioned earlier, certain types of computer programs lend themselves to one form of exploitation rather than another. Drill and skill programs are designed to train students and drill them in specific concepts. Therefore, the researcher suggests

using them individually if there are enough machines. Other drill and skill programs (e.g. competitive games that display scores), can be used for working in pairs. Other programs such as simulations are meant for group use. However, the majority of CALL programs can be used in any mode for individual work, pair work, group work, or whole class work.

The teacher must be aware enough to choose the right mode that suits his or her students. The mode of use is affected by students' previous learning experience, as the observer found. For individual work to succeed, one must be used to private study. Group activity around a computer may not work well if the class is not used to working in groups or pairs and has no experience of group dynamics.

When students work individually, no spoken language will be produced, unlike when students work in pairs and in groups. Higgins and Johns (1984: 36-37) comment that "In the group the machine becomes something to talk about as well as to 'talk' to. The instinct to form groups is a one that the language teacher can be glad of, since it provides contexts for spoken language...Though most computers do not talk and listen, they are very good at stimulating people to talk and listen".

When the screen displays instructions and choices, the members of the group discuss the actions to take. The researcher noticed that on the first run, the conversation was in the students' native language. But later on, students tend to use more of the foreign language as they acquired more confidence in using that foreign language. The teacher should encourage the use of the foreign language during the group activity. If the teacher encourages students to use the foreign language, they will start to use language functions (such as ordering, suggesting, reminding and persuading) to communicate with the group. As a result, students conversations flow naturally in class.

The computer is a mechanical aid that can be used properly or improperly. To get the most out of it, materials and activities should be carefully selected, structured and prepared. Lessons should be planned and classrooms be managed carefully.

3. When to use CALL?

The researcher believes strongly in the computer as a small part of the total learning context. The researcher recommends that computers in language classes should take an auxiliary role. Computers should be used as an aid to the presentation or reinforcement of the material to be taught. Computers should be treated as a tool, as a servant and as an aid. The observer suggests not using computers all the time nor as a replacement for the teacher. Rather, computers can be used to assist teachers, as a supplement to their work. Based on such a belief, the researcher recommends having 'CALL' for one or two classroom hours a week. One objective in having a few 'CALL' lessons is to allow the teacher to prepare a well planned lesson. Furthermore, having a few 'CALL' lessons does not give students the chance to become bored. Through this research, having 'CALL' one hour per week proved to be valuable and motivating. If computers are available for self-access work, it will be even better for Kuwaiti students.

Further Research Needed

The researcher suggests investigating the use of CALL with different kinds of learners. Many different types of programs also need to be investigated, such as exploratory programs (e.g. adventures) and conjectural programs. The researcher used drill and skill programs on grammar and vocabulary and the simulation 'Fast Food' with her students. Different drill and skill programs and other simulations like 'Yellow River Kingdom', 'Football Manager', 'Osprey' and many other simulations need to be tried with students to observe more fully their reaction towards such kinds of computer programs. In addition, the relationship between different computer programs and students' learning style needs to be researched more deeply.

The researcher found that computers enhanced students' motivation to learn the foreign language, reduced their anxieties in the English language class and appeared to improve their achievement in the language. This study doesn't reflect the whole picture. It is incomplete and requires more investigation, particularly concerning the long term effect of 'CALL'. Therefore, finally, the researcher recommends

investigating the long term effect of using computers. The novelty of having computers in class to learn English may be the main reason for students to feel motivated and interested. Students' motivation to learn the language, and their attitudes towards computers may change over time. As a result, the investigator suggests replicating and extending studies and observations on 'CALL' in Kuwait.

Conclusion

Chapter eight concludes the thesis but opens a door. The researcher has a responsibility to share and disseminate the knowledge she has gained. This research study is an end of one journey and a beginning of another. The new journey must make use of this knowledge and transfer it to others to apply it and benefit from it. **“The foot of the son of Adam shall not move on the Resurrection Day till he is asked about five things; about his life, wherein he spent it; about his youth, wherein he wasted it; about his wealth, wherefrom he acquired it and on what he spent it; and about what he did with what he learnt”.**

Saying of the last prophet, Muhammad (pbuh),
compiled by Altirmizi in A. M. Othman (ed.), (1983).

APPENDICES

AND

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Appendix 1**The Attitude Questionnaire (in English)**

Please answer these questions as accurately and as fully as possible. All answers are anonymous and totally confidential. Please tick the box which best fits your answer. There are no right or wrong answers.

Name

University Number

College

Major

English course level/Number

Section A

Please complete some details about yourself

- 1 Date of birthday.....month.....year
- 2 Your GPA _____
- 3 Your level in the English placement test _____
- 4 In which year are you _____
- 5 Nationality: Kuwaiti 1
Non Kuwaiti 2
- 6 Gender Female 1
Male 2
- 7 Type of school you graduated from public school 1
private English school 2
private non English school 3
Other school 4
- 8 The area you live in : Kuwait City 1 Hawalli 2 Alahmadi 3 Aljahra 4
Farwania 5
- 9 How fluent are you in English compared with other University students:
near the top 1 better than average 2 about average 3
below the average 4 near the bottom 5
- 10 How many times have you visited an English speaking country
none 1 1 - 2 2 3 - 5 3 5 - 10 4 over 10 5
- 11 If you have stayed in an English speaking country on one or more occasion, what is the TOTAL time spent there.
none 1 1 week 2 2 - 4 weeks 3 4 - 8 weeks 4
2 to 6 months 5 6 months to a year 6 over a year 7
- 12 How much on average do you watch channel 2 Per Week:
not at all 1 1 - 2 hours 2 2 - 5 hours 3 5 - 10 hours 4
Over 10 hours 5

13 What is your Intention after graduation?

- 1 postgraduate studies in Kuwait
- 2 postgraduate studies abroad at an English speaking University
- 3 postgraduate studies at Arabic University
- 4 Get a job that requires knowledge of English
- 5 Get a job that does not require knowledge of English

14 If you have taken an English course before, what was your grade-----

15 What is your grade in the midterm exam in the English course, you are taking now-----

16 What is your final grade-----

Section B

What do you think motivates you?
Concerning class activities

How much do you like the following activities:

	Prefer very much	Prefer	Do not know	Prefer a little	Do not Prefer
1 Group work	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2 Pair work	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3 Every student working on his own	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4 Using role play	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5 Students travelling abroad to learn the language	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6 Students using the language in class as much as possible	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
7 The activities used encourage communication	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
8 Using debates	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9 Play games	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10 Tell stories	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11 Read poetry	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12 Write a diary	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
13 Make advertisements	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
14 Write newspapers articles (reports)	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
15 Write letters	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
16 Make travel brochures	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
17 Listen to songs	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
18 Have trips outside the University, to museums, exhibitions, markets, through which the talk is in English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
19 Conduct a project in English, e.g., a radio programme in English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
20 Tests	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
21 The chairs organised in a circle	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
22 The chairs organised in rows	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
23 The class room containing a library of English books, magazines, travel brochures and stories.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
24 The class has less than fifteen students	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
25 The class is well air conditioned	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
26 The class is well furnished	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section C
Concerning the Instructional material

How much do you like the following:

	Prefer very much	Prefer	Do not know	Prefer a little	Do not Prefer
1 Using English newspapers in class	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2 Using video films	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3 Using the language laboratory	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4 Using cassettes	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5 Using pictures and drawings in class	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6 Using computer programs (in the future)	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
7 The instructional material should be interesting	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
8 The instructional material should suit students' needs	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9 The course book should be suitable to the students' level of ability	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10 The course book should be neither easy nor difficult	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section D
What do you think motivates you?

Concerning the role of the language teacher in class, what do you prefer the role of the language teacher to be:

	Prefer very much	Prefer	Do not know	Prefer a little	Do not Prefer
1 The teacher dominates the class	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2 The teacher encourages the student to speak English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3 The teacher gives frequent homework	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4 The teacher gives every student the chance to talk in English in class	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5 The teacher always corrects students' mistakes	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6 The teacher gives the student the chance to choose the curriculum that is appropriate to their needs	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

	Prefer very much	Prefer	Do not know	Prefer a little	Do not Prefer
7 The teacher explains the lesson creatively	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
8 The teacher has a relationship that is based on love and understanding between him/her and his/her student	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9 The teacher is efficient	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10 The teacher is a native speaker of English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11 The teacher enjoys teaching English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12 The teacher is flexible with students	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section E

What do you think motivates you concerning the methods of teaching

How much do you like the following:

	Prefer very much	Prefer	Do not know	Prefer a little	Do not Prefer
1 The language teacher uses Arabic in the English language class	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2 The emphasis is on grammar more than anything else	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3 The teacher explains in English only	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4 The emphasis is on communication more than anything else	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5 The emphasis is on reading and writing in English only	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6 The emphasis is on listening and speaking in English only	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
7 The emphasis is on all aspects of English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
8 The focus is on memorising not understanding the language taught in class	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9 Bring in an outside English speaker to talk to the class from time to time	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section F

Tick the appropriate box

1. During an English class, I would like:
 - a 1 to have a combination of Arabic and English spoken
 - b 2 to have Arabic more than English
 - c 3 to have only English spoken

2. If I had the opportunity to speak English outside the University (e.g., in a restaurant or in the company with English speakers), I would:
 - a 1 never speak English
 - b 2 speak English most of the time
 - c 3 communicate with them in Arabic in addition to using a few words of English

3. Compared to my other courses, I like English:
 - a 1 the most
 - b 2 the same as all the others
 - c 3 least of all

4. If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I:
 - a 1 would definitely take it
 - b 2 would drop it
 - c 3 don't know whether I would take it or not

5. I find studying English:
 - a 1 very interesting
 - b 2 a little interesting
 - c 3 not interesting at all

6. Concerning the English programmes shown on channel 2 on TV, I watch them:
 - a 1 sometimes
 - b 2 as often as possible
 - c 3 never

7. If I have had a servant who speaks English, I would:
 - a 1 never speak English with her
 - b 2 sometimes speak English with her
 - c 3 always speak English with her

8. Concerning the English newspapers and magazines, I read them:
 - a 1 as often as possible
 - b 2 sometimes
 - c 3 never

Section G

Tick the appropriate box

1. If English were not taught in University, I would
 - a 1 pick up English by watching channel 2 or reading English Newspapers
 - b 2 not bother learning English at all
 - c 3 try to obtain lessons in English private institutes.

2. When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I:
 - a 1 Immediately ask the teacher for help
 - b 2 only seek help just before the exam
 - c 3 never ask for help

3. When it comes to English homework, I:
 - a 1 put some effort into it, but not as much as I could
 - b 2 put a lot of effort into it
 - c 3 don't put any effort into it

4. In studying English, I can honestly say that I:
 - a 1 do just enough work to get along
 - b 2 will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work
 - c 3 try hard to learn English

5. When I am in an English class, I:
 - a 1 always participate by raising my hand to answer questions
 - b 2 sometimes participate by raising my hand to answer questions
 - c 3 rarely say anything

6. Compared to my classmates in the English course, I:
 - a 1 study harder than most students
 - b 2 study as much as the other students
 - c 3 study less than most students

7. During the English class, I:
 - a 1 concentrate on what is said in class
 - b 2 sometimes become absent minded
 - c 3 become absent minded most of the time

8. In terms of preparing for the English class
 - a 1 I always prepare by reading the material that will be taught in class
 - b 2 I sometimes prepare by reading the material that will be taught in class
 - c 3 I never prepare

Section H
Personal attitudes toward learning English.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel that learning English is useful for me	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. I enjoy learning English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. Learning English is boring for me	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. Learning English is an important part of my education	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. I dislike learning English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. I would like to learn as much English as possible	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. I love learning English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. Learning English is a waste of time	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. I plan to continue learning English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. It is of no benefit for me to learn English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. When I leave University, I shall give up the study of English entirely	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section I
Attitudes toward the English Language

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I find the English language interesting	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. I don't like speaking English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. I like listening to the English language	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. I find the English language difficult	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. I feel sorry for those who are unable to speak English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. I don't like watching Channel Two on TV because it shows English only programmes	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. I find the English language easy	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. I prefer the English language to the Arabic language	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. I find the English language boring	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. I find speaking English is prestigious	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. When I speak English, I feel that I'm more educated	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. I hope to put my children in a private English school so that they speak English fluently	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section J
Attitudes toward native speakers of English.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I would like to meet native speakers of English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. I have an unfavourable attitude towards English speakers	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. I like English speakers	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. English speakers are dishonest	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. English speakers are hardworkers	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. English speakers are utilitarian	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. English speakers are efficient	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. English speakers are well mannered	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. English speakers are unintelligent	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. English speakers are unfriendly	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. English speakers are polite	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. English speakers have no morality	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
13. English speakers are trustworthy	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
14. English speakers are unclean	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
15. English speakers are educated	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
16. English speakers are very open	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
17. English speakers respect human rights	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
18. English speakers are corrupt	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
19. English speakers are not cheerful	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
20. English speakers are democratic	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
21. English speakers are progressive in science	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
22. English speakers are not kind	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
23. English speakers like justice	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
24. English speakers are not humorous	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section K
The purpose of my studying English

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Allows me to be more at ease in the English speaking community	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. To get a good job	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. Allows me to meet with varied people	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. Makes me a more educated person	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. Allows me to integrate more with the English speakers when I travel abroad	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
6. Other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. Allows me to have more friends	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. To continue my postgraduate studies at a foreign University	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. Be able to participate more freely in the activities of English speaking cultural groups	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. Enable me to communicate with my servants	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. Enable me to read the English Instructions written on medicines, goods and industrial imports	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. Think and behave like English speaking people	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
13. To pass my exams and graduate from the University	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section L

When I am In the English class

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel embarrassed when I volunteer answers in the English class	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in the English class	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. I feel that the other students speak English better than I do	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. I think a lot about my answer before uttering it	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. I always feel that what I'm going to say will be wrong	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. I'm afraid of being pointed at by the teacher to answer	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. When I speak English in the class, I feel that my heart beat increasing	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. I often look at my watch hoping that time passes quickly	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. I feel worried when the language teacher criticises me	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. I become absent minded	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
13. I find it difficult to concentrate	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
14. I sometimes get a headache	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
15. I move a lot in class without reasons	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
16. When the language teacher asks me to answer, my mouth becomes dry	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
17. I often become nervous	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
18. I feel that other students look at me because I am not good at English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
19. Sometimes in class, when I read something I don't understand it; out of class, I understand it easily	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
20. I tend to stutter in English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section M

What is your opinion about the place of learning English in Kuwait society?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. There is no use in Kuwait for the English Language	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. The English language is the language of prestige in Kuwait	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. There is no need to learn English in Kuwait	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. Many Kuwaiti parents put their children in private English schools so that they will speak English fluently	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. It is difficult for someone to learn the English language in Kuwait	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. Talking in English is prestigious in Kuwait	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. Learning English enables Kuwaitis to communicate with others abroad	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
8. The English Language in Kuwait will harm the Arabic language	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. Graduates from private English schools in Kuwait deserve to gain better job opportunities than graduates from public schools	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. Speaking in English shows that the speaker is from a high class in Kuwait	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. Learning English will westernise Arabs	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. It is important to take postgraduate studies abroad in English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
13. More and more jobs in Kuwait (e.g. in banks, airport, companies) will require English language proficiency	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
14. Learning English will harm the Islamic religion	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
15. The English language is the language of science and technology in Kuwait	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
16. Learning English enables Kuwaiti people to communicate with their servants	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
17. To be an academic expert in Kuwait, you have to learn English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
18. Learning English means gaining Western habits that are not required by Arabs	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
19. The fluent English speaker in Kuwait seems more educated than the non English speaker	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
20. Even Kuwaiti parents of low income put their children in private schools so that their children speak English fluently	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
21. Kuwait society is so proud of the Arabic language that it feels no need to learn English	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 2

The Attitude Questionnaire (in Arabic)

" بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم "

عزيزي الطالب / عزيزتي الطالبة .. البيانات التي تدلي بها في هذا البحث نضمن لك سريتها حيث لن يطلع عليها أي فرد كان غيري لتفادي الحرج وتهدف إلي تطوير تدريس اللغة الانجليزية في جامعة الكويت .

فنرجو تعاونك بالأدلاء بالأراء الصريحه مع مراعاة الدقة والاجابة على جميع الاسئلة حيث أن هذا الاستفتاء يمثل جزءاً أساسياً من دراستي .

وشكراً جزيلاً لتعاونكم المشمر وأمانتكم العلمية .. وفقكم الله في دراستكم وأبقاكم ذخراً لهذا البلد .

- * أسمىك : -----
- * رقمك الجامعي : -----
- * الكلية التي تنتمي إليها : -----
- * تخصصك : -----
- * رقم ومستوي مادة اللغة الانجليزية المجل فيها خلال هذا الفصل الدراسي : -----

جزء أ :

الرجاء الادلاء ببعض المعلومات الشخصية :

- ١ - تاريخ ميلادك : اليوم -- الشهر -- السنة ----
٢ - نبتك في الثانوية العامة : ----
٣ - بعد أنهاءك لامتحان المستوي في أي مقرر تم وضعك : ----
٤ - في أي سنة دراسية أنت الآن : ----

٥ - جنسيتك : ١ كويتي ٢ غير كويتي

٦ - الجنس : ١ أنثي ٢ ذكر

٧ - نوع المدرسة التي تخرجت منها :

١ مدرسة عامة ٢ مدرسة أنجليزية خاصة

٢ مدرسة خاصة غير أنجليزية ٤ مدرسة أخرى

٨ - المنطقة التي تسكن بها تابعة لمحافظة :

١ العاصمة ٢ حولي

٢ الأحمدية ٤ الجهراء

٥ الفروانية

٩ - مقارنة بالطلبة الآخرين ، ما هو مستواك في اللغة الانجليزية ؟

١ مقارب للمستوي المرتفع ٢ أكثر من متوسط

٢ متوسط ٤ أقل من متوسط

٥ مقارب للمستوي الضعيف

١٠- كم مرة زرت دولة يتحدث شعبها باللغة الانجليزية ؟

١ ولا مره ٢ ١ - ٢ ٢ ٢ - ٥

٤ ٥ - ١٠ ٥ أكثر من ١٠ مرات

١١- أن كنت قد بقيت لفترة مافي أحد الدول التي يتحدث شعبها بالانجليزية ماهي المدة التي قضيتها فيها :

١ ولايوم ٢ أسبوع واحد ٢ ٢ - ٤ أسابيع

٤ ٤ - ٨ أسابيع ٥ ٢ إلى ٦ شهور

٦ ٦ شهور إلى سنة ٧ أكثر من سنة

١٢- ماهو معدل الفترة التي تقضيها في مشاهدة البرنامج الثاني على التلفزيون خلال الأسبوع .

١ لاأشاهد البرنامج الثاني بتاتاً

٢ أشاهده لمدة ١ - ٢ ساعة

٣ ٢ - ٥ ساعات ٤ ٥ - ١٠ ساعات ٥ أكثر من ١٠ ساعات

١٣- ماالذي تنتوى عمله بعد التخرج من جامعة الكويت .

١ اكمال دراساتي العليا في الكويت .

٢ اكمال دراساتي العليا في أحدى الجامعات الأجنبية خارج الكويت .

٣ اكمال دراساتي العليا في أحدى الجامعات العربية خارج الكويت .

٤ الالتحاق بوظيفة تتطلب الالمام باللغة الانجليزية .

٥ الالتحاق بوظيفة لا تتطلب الالمام باللغة الانجليزية .

١٤- ان كنت قد درست مقرر لغة انجليزية سابقاً

فما هو التقدير (الدرجة) الذي حصلت عليه : -----

١٥- ماهو التقدير أو الدرجة التي حصلت عليها في امتحان نصف الفصل

في مقرر اللغة الانجليزية الذي تأخذه الآن -----

جزء ب :

يهدف هذا الجزء التعرف على الأنشطة التي يفضل الطالب ممارستها

داخل فصل اللغة الانجليزية :

إلى أي مدى تفضل ممارسة الأنشطة التالية داخل الفصل ؟

الرجاء وضع إشارة (✓) أمام الاختيار الذي يعكس اهتمامك :

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا أفضل أبدا	أفضل الى حد ما	لا أدري	أفضل	أفضل كثيرا	
					١ - أن يقسم طلبة الفصل إلى مجموعات .
					٢ - أن يعمل كل طالبين في الفصل مع بعضهما البعض .
					٢ - أن يعمل كل طالب بمفرده .
					٤ - توزيع الادوار المختلفة على الطلبة .
					٥ - السفر إلى الخارج لتعلم اللغة الانجليزية .
					٦ - أن يقوم الطالب بممارسة اللغة الانجليزية بأكبر قدر ممكن داخل الفصل .
					٧ - أن تكون الأنشطة التي يمارسها الطالب في الفصل تشجع على المحادثة باللغة الانجليزية .
					٨ - الاشتراك في المناقشات باللغة الانجليزية (المناقشات) .
					٩ - القيام بالعباب تربوية عليه تهدف إلى تعلم اللغة الانجليزية .
					١٠ - سرد قصص باللغة الانجليزية .
					١١ - قراءة الشعر باللغة الانجليزية .
					١٢ - أن يقوم الطلبة بكتابة مذكراتهم باللغة الانجليزية .
					١٢ - عمل إعلانات باللغة الانجليزية .
					١٤ - كتابة مقالات للجرائد باللغة الانجليزية .
					١٥ - كتابة رسائل باللغة الانجليزية .
					١٦ - عمل كتيبات للسياحة باللغة الانجليزية .

لا أفضل أبدا	أفضل إلى حد ما	لا أدرى	أفضل	أفضل كثيرا	
					١٧- الاستماع إلى أغان إنجليزية .
					١٨- القيام برحلات خارج الجامعة إلى المتاحف ، المعارض ، الأسواق والتحدث خلالها باللغة الانجليزية
					١٩- القيام بمشاريع باللغة الانجليزية على سبيل المثال عمل برنامج إذاعي باللغة الانجليزية .
					٢٠- أداء اختبارات باللغة الانجليزية
					٢١- أن يكون تنظيم المقاعد في فصل اللغة على شكل دائرة .
					٢٢- أن يكون تنظيم المقاعد في فصل اللغة على شكل صفوف .
					٢٣- أن يحتوي فصل اللغة على مكتبة فيها كتب ومجلات وكتيبات سياحية وقصص إنجليزية .
					٢٤- ألا يزيد عدد الطلبة عن خمسة عشر طالبا في فصل اللغة الانجليزية .
					٢٥- أن يكون الفصل مكيفا تكييفيا جيدا .
					٢٦- أن يكون الفصل مؤث بصورة جيدة .

جزء ج :

يهدف هذا الجزء التعرف على الوسائل التعليمية التي يفضل الطالب

استخدامها داخل فصل اللغة الانجليزية :

إلى أي مدى تفضل استخدام الوسائل التعليمية التالية داخل فصل

اللغة الانجليزية ؟

الرجاء وضع إشارة (✓) أمام الاختيار الذي يعكس اهتمامك .

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا أفضل أبدا	أفضل الى حد ما	لا ادري	أفضل	أفضل كثيرا	
					١ - المحذ الانجليزية .
					٢ - أفلام الفيديو .
					٣ - مختبر اللغة .
					٤ - أشرطة تسجيل (كاسيت) .
					٥ - الصور والرسومات .
					٦ - برامج الكمبيوتر .

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	لا ادري	أوافق	أوافق بشدة	
					٧ - أن تكون الوسائل التعليمية ممتعه .
					٨ - أن تكون الوسائل التعليمية مناسبة لاحتياجات الطالب .
					٩ - أن يكون الكتاب المقرر مناسب لمستوي الطالب .
					١٠ - ألا يكون الكتاب المقرر صعب جدا أو سهل جدا .

جزء د :

يهدف هذا الجزء التعرف على دور المدرس داخل فصل اللغة الانجليزية

الذي يفضله الطالب :

إلى أى مدى تفضل الدور الذى يقوم به المدرس داخل فصل اللغة ؟

الرجاء وضع إشارة (✓) أمام الاختيار الذي يعكس اهتمامك .

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا افضل أبدا	افضل الى حد ما	لا ادرى	افضل	افضل كثيرا	
					١ - أن يقوم المدرس بالشرح بمفرده دون إعطاء الطالب الفرصة لأن يستعمل اللغة الانجليزية .
					٢ - أن يقوم المدرس بتشجيع الطالب ليتحدث باللغة الانجليزية .
					٣ - أن يعطي المدرس واجبات منزلية كثيرة باللغة الانجليزية .
					٤ - يعطي المدرس كل طالب الفرصة بأن يتحدث باللغة الانجليزية بالفعل .
					٥ - أن يقوم بتصحيح أخطاء الطالب باستمرار .
					٦ - يعطي الطالب الفرصة لأن يختار المنهج المناسب له .
					٧ - أن يشرح المدرس بطرق إبداعية (مبتكرة) .
					٨ - أن يقيم المدرس علاقة مبينه على الود والتفاهم بينه وبين الطالب .
					٩ - أن يكون المدرس ذو امكانيات لغوية ممتازة .
					١٠ - أن تكون اللغة الانجليزية هي لغة المدرس الاولى .
					١١ - أن يستمتع المدرس بمهنة تدريسي اللغة الانجليزية .
					١٢ - أن يكون المدرس مرنا مع طلبته .

جزء هـ :

يهدف هذا الجزء التعرف على طرق التدريس التي يفضلها الطالب في فصل

اللغة الانجليزية :

إلى أى مدى تفضل طرق التدريس التالية في فصل اللغة الانجليزية ؟

الرجاء وضع إشارة (✓) أمام الاختيار الذي يعكس اهتمامك .

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا افضل ابدا	افضل الى حد ما	لا ادري	افضل	افضل كثيرا	
					١ - أن يستعمل المدرس اللغة العربية في فصل اللغة الانجليزية .
					٢ - أن يتم التركيز على قواعد اللغة الانجليزية أكثر من أى شيء آخر .
					٣ - أن يكون الشرح باللغة الانجليزية فقط .
					٤ - أن يتم التركيز على المحادثة باللغة الانجليزية أكثر من أى شيء آخر .
					٥ - أن يتم التركيز على القراءة والكتابة بالانجليزية فقط في فصل اللغة .
					٦ - أن يتم التركيز على الاستماع والمحادثة الانجليزية فقط في فصل اللغة .
					٧ - أن يتم التركيز على كل جوانب اللغة الانجليزية من قراءة وكتابة الى الاستماع والمحادثة .
					٨ - التركيز على حفظ المادة عن ظهر قلب دون التركيز على فهم المادة التي تُدرس في فصل اللغة .
					٩ - إخبار متحدث باللغة الانجليزية لالقاء محاضرة من فترة لآخرى .

جزء و :

اقرأ العبارة ثم اختر الأجوبة التي تناسبك وذلك بوضع إشارة (✓)

في المربع المخصص لذلك .

١ - في فصل اللغة الانجليزية أحب أن يتم التحدث .

أ - باستخدام مزيج من اللغة العربية واللغة الانجليزية .

ب - باستخدام اللغة العربية أكثر من اللغة الانجليزية .

ج - باستخدام اللغة الانجليزية فقط .

٢ - إذا جاءتني الفرصة للتحدث بالانجليزية خارج أسوار الجامعة على سبيل المثال في مطعم أو في شركة مع أجنبى فانا :

أ - لن اتحدث أبداً بالانجليزية .

ب - أتحدث بالانجليزية معظم الوقت .

ج - أتفاهم مع المتحدثين باللغة العربية مع استعمال القليل من الكلمات الانجليزية .

٣ - حين مقارنة مادة اللغة الانجليزية بالمواد الاخرى ، فاني أحب مادة الانجليزي :

أ - أكثر مادة .

ب - مثل المواد الاخرى .

ج - أقل ماده .

٤ - لو تركت القرار لى. في التسجيل بمقرر اللغة الانجليزية فانا :

أ - بالتأكيد سأسجل في مادة اللغة الانجليزية .

ب - سأنحب من الماده .

ج - لا أعلم فيما اذا كنت سأسجل بالمادة أم لا .

٥ - أجد أن دراسة اللغة الانجليزية :

أ ١ - ممتعة جداً .

ب ٢ - ممتعة قليلاً .

ج ٢ - ليست ممتعة بالمره .

٦ - فيما يتعلق بالبرامج الأجنبية التي تُعرض على القناة الثانية بالتلفزيون ، فأنا أشاهدها :

أ ١ - أحياناً .

ب ٢ - غالباً على قدر المتطاع .

ج ٢ - لا أشاهدها أبداً .

٧ - أن كانت لدى خادمه تتحدث اللغة الانجليزية فأنا :

أ ١ - لا أكلمها أبداً بالانجليزية .

ب ٢ - أكلمها أحياناً بالانجليزية .

ج ٢ - أكلمها دائماً بالانجليزية .

٨ - فيما يتعلق بالصحف والمجلات الأجنبية فأنا أقرأها :

أ ١ - غالباً على قدر المتطاع .

ب ٢ - أحياناً .

ج ٢ - لا أقرأها أبداً .

جزء ز :

أختر الإجابة التي تناسبك :

١ - لو لم تكن مادة اللغة الانجليزية تُدرس في الجامعة لقمتم بمايلي :

أ - ١ - حاولت أكتساب اللغة بمشاهدة البرنامج الثاني أو بقراءة صحف أنجليزية .

ب - ٢ - لما فكرت ابدأ في تعلم اللغة الانجليزية .

ج - ٣ - لحاولت أخذ دروس في اللغة الانجليزية في المعاهد الخاصة أو في أماكن أخرى .

٢ - عندما أعاني من عدم فهم أمر ما في اللغة الانجليزية في الصف فأنتني :

أ - ١ - أطلب مساعدة المدرس أو مساعدة أحد الزملاء فوراً .

ب - ٢ - أطلب المساعدة فقط قبل الامتحان .

ج - ٣ - لا أسأل ولا أطلب بشرح ما لم أفهمه أبدأ .

٣ - حينما يعطينا المدرس واجبات مدرسية تتعلق باللغة الانجليزية فأنتني :

أ - ١ - أبذل قليلاً من الجهد .

ب - ٢ - أبذل كل جهدي .

ج - ٣ - لا أبذل أي مجهود .

٤ - فيما يتعلق بالمجهود الذي أبذله حين أدرس اللغة الانجليزية ، فأنا وبصراحة :

أ - ١ - أبذل فقط الجهد الذي يمكنني من النجاح .

ب - ٢ - أعتمد على ذكائي أو على حظي لاني أدرس قليلاً جداً

ج - ٣ - أدرس بجد وأحاول جاهداً تعلم اللغة .

- ٥ - عندما أكون في فصل اللغة الانجليزية ، فأنا :
- أ ١ - أشارك دائماً وبكثرة برفع يدي للإجابة على الأسئلة .
- ب ٢ - أشارك أحياناً برفع يدي للإجابة على الأسئلة .
- ج ٣ - نادراً ما أشارك .
- ٦ - حين مقارنة نفسي بطلبة فصل اللغة الانجليزية ، فأنا :
- أ ١ - أدرس أكثر من معظم طلبة الفصل .
- ب ٢ - أدرس مثل بقية طلبة الفصل .
- ج ٣ - أدرس أقل من معظم طلبة الفصل .
- ٧ - في فصل اللغة الانجليزية ، فأنا :
- أ ١ - أنتبه بكل حواسي لما يقال في الفصل .
- ب ٢ - أحياناً أسرح بفكري بعيداً .
- ج ٣ - دائماً أسرح بفكري بعيداً .
- ٨ - فيما يتعلق بالأعداد لمادة اللغة الانجليزية ، فأنا :
- أ ١ - دائماً أستعد بقراءة المادة التي ستدرس في الفصل .
- ب ٢ - أحياناً أستعد بقراءة المادة التي ستدرس في الفصل .
- ج ٣ - لا أستعد أبداً .

جزء ى :

بهدف هذا الجزء التعرف على رأيك الشخص تجاه تعلم اللغة

الانجليزية

الرجاء وضع إشارة (✓) أمام الاختيار الذي يعكس اهتمامك .

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لاوافق بشدة	لاوافق	لاادري	وافق	وافق شدة	
					١ - احس بان تعلم اللغة الانجليزية مفيد بالنسبة لي .
					٢ - احس بالمتعة حين اتعلم اللغة الانجليزية .
					٣ - تعلم اللغة الانجليزية ممتع بالنسبة لي .
					٤ - تعلم اللغة الانجليزية جزء مهم في تعليمي .
					٥ - لا احب تعلم اللغة الانجليزية .
					٦ - اتمني ان اتعلم اكبر قدر ممكن من اللغة الانجليزية .
					٧ - افضل ان اضي وقتي في تعلم مسواد اخرى غير اللغة الانجليزية .
					٨ - احب تعلم اللغة الانجليزية .
					٩ - ارى ان تعلم اللغة الانجليزية مضيعة للوقت .
					١٠ - اخطئ بان استمر في تعلم اللغة الانجليزية في المستقبل .
					١١ - تعلم اللغة الانجليزية لن يعود علي بالفائدة .
					١٢ - حين اتخرج من الجامعة سؤ اتوقف عن دراسة اللغة الانجليزية تماما

جزء ل :

يهدف هذا الجزء التعرف على رأيك تجاه اللغة الانجليزية

الرجاء وضع علامة (✓) أمام الاختيار الذي يعكس اهتمامك .

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لاوافق بشدة	لاوافق	لاادري	وافق	وافق بشدة	
					١ - أجد اللغة الانجليزية ممتعة .
					٢ - لا أحب التحدث باللغة الانجليزية .
					٣ - أحب الاستماع إلى اللغـة الانجليزية حينما يتحدث بهـسا الآخرون .
					٤ - أجد اللغة الانجليزية صعبة .
					٥ - أشعر بالأسف تجاه هؤلاء الفـيـسـر قادرين على التحدث بالانجليزية .
					٦ - لا أحب مشاهدة البرنامج الثاني على التلفزيون لأنه يعرض برامج أجنبية فقط .
					٧ - أجد اللغة الانجليزية سهلة .
					٨ - أفضل اللغة الانجليزية على اللغة العربية .
					٩ - أجد اللغة الانجليزية مملـة .
					١٠ - أري أن التحدث باللغة الانجليزية يعطي متحدثها هيبه ومقام .
					١١ - حين أتحدث باللغة الانجليزية أحس بأني شخص أكثر ثقافة وعلم .
					١٢ - أتمني أن أدخل أبنائي مدارس أجنبية خامة حتي يتحدثوا الانجليزية بطلاقة .

جزء م :

يهدف هذا الجزء التعرف على رأيك تجاه المتحدثين باللغة

الانجليزية (الأجنب) :

الرجاء وضع إشارة (✓) أمام الاختيار الذي يعكس اهتمامك :

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	لا ادري	اوافق	اوافق بشدة	
					١ - اتمني أن اتعرف على متحدثين باللغة الانجليزية .
					٢ - أحس بشعور غير طيب تجاه المتحدثين باللغة الانجليزية .
					٣ - أحب المتحدثين باللغة الانجليزية .
					٤ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية غير مريحين .
					٥ - أري أن المتحدثين باللفظة الانجليزية جادين في العمل .
					٦ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية لا يفكرون سوى بمماليحتهم .
					٧ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية أكفاء .
					٨ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية يتبعون النظام .
					٩ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية ليسوا أذكياء .
					١٠ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية غير ودودين .
					١١ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية مؤدبون .
					١٢ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية متحللون من القيم الاخلاقية .
					١٣ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية محل ثقة .
					١٤ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية غير نظيفين .
					١٥ - المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية مشتغون .

٥ ٤ ٣ ٢ ١

لاوافق بشدة	لاوافق	لاادري	وافق	وافق بشدة	
					١٦- المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية منفتحون جدا (متحررون) .
					١٧- المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية يحترمون حقوق الانسان .
					١٨- المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية فاسدون (اخلاقيا) .
					١٩- المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية غير بشوشين .
					٢٠- المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية ديمقراطيون .
					٢١- المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية متقدمون علميا .
					٢٢- المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية طيبين .
					٢٣- المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية يجبون العدالة .
					٢٤- المتحدثون باللغة الانجليزية ليسوا ظرفاء .

جزء ن :

يهدف هذا الجزء التعرف على أسباب تعلمك اللغة الانجليزية

تعلم اللغة الانجليزية مهم بالنسبة لي لأنه :

الرجاء وضع علامة (✓) أمام الاختيار الذي يعكس اهتمامك

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	لا ادري	اوافق	اوافق بشدة	
					١ - يمكنني الشعور بالراحة اكثر حينما اكون في مجتمع اجنبي ومع متحدثين اجانب .
					٢ - يمكنني الحصول على وظيفة جيدة .
					٣ - يمكنني التعرف على مختلف الناس .
					٤ - يجعلني انسان اكثر ثقافة .
					٥ - يمكنني الاندماج اكثر مع الاجانب حينما اسافر خارج البلد .
					٦ - سأحظى باحترام أكبر من الناس حينما أكون ملما باللغة الانجليزية .
					٧ - سوف أكون أصدقاء أكثر .
					٨ - يمكنني من أن أكمل دراستي العليا في إحدى الجامعات الاجنبية .
					٩ - يمكنني من المشاركة بحرية أكثر في أنشطة بعض المجموعات التي تنتمي الي المجتمع الانجليزي .
					١٠ - يمكنني من التفاهم مع خادمتي .
					١١ - يمكنني من قراءة التعليمات على الادوية والبضائع المستوردة .
					١٢ - يجعلني أفكر وأتصرف بشكل المتحدثين باللغة الانجليزية .
					١٢ - سوف اجتاز الامتحانات واتخرج من الجامعة .

جزء س :

حينما أكون في فصل اللغة الانجليزية

الرجاء وضع علامة (✓) أمام الاختيار الذي يناسبك

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	لا ادري	اوافق	اوافق بشدة	
					١ - أحس بالحرج عندما أرفع يدي للإجابة على الاسئلة .
					٢ - لا أحس ابدا بالثقة بنفسى عندما اتحدث بالانجليزية في الفصل .
					٣ - أشعر دائما بأن الطلبة الاخرين يتحدثون الانجليزية افضل مني .
					٤ - أحس بالقلق والتوتر عندما اتحدث الانجليزية في الفصل .
					٥ - أحس بالخوف من أن يضحك عليّ الطلبة حين اتحدث الانجليزية .
					٦ - أفكر بشدة بجوابي قبل التفوه به .
					٧ - أحس دائما بأن ما أقوله سيكون حتما خطأ .
					٨ - أخاف وأنا في الفصل من أن يشير اليّ مدرس اللغة للإجابة .
					٩ - أشعر بأن نبضات قلبي تزداد حين اتحدث الانجليزية في الفصل .
					١٠ - أنظر الي ساعتى مرارا متمنيا مرور الوقت بسرعة حين أدخل فصل اللغة الانجليزية
					١١ - يقلقتى النقد الذى يوجهه السيّ المدرس .
					١٢ - أصبح تارد الذهن عندما أتواجد في الصف .

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا أوائق بشدة	لا أوائق	لا أدري	أوائق	أوائق بشدة	
					١٢- أجد نفسي غير قادر على التركيز عندما أتواجد في الصف .
					١٤- أحيانا بميبيني صداع عندما أدخل الصف .
					١٥- اتحرك كثيرا في الصف دون سبب .
					١٦- أصر بجفان في فمي عندما يطلب مني المدرس الاجابة .
					١٧- غالبا ما أكون متوتر الاعصاب في الصف .
					١٨- أصر وأنا في الصف بأن الطلبة ينظرون الي لاش ضعيف نفسي اللفة الانجليزية .
					١٩- أحيانا عندما أقرأ شيء في الصف لاأنهم بينما خارج الفصل أفهمه بسهولة .
					٢٠- أتلعثم كثيرا حين التحسسن بالانجليزية (من الخوف) .

جزء ص :

هناك بعض الافكار التي يؤمن بها المجتمع الكويتي تجاه تعلم

اللغة الانجليزية .

كيف ترى من وجهة نظرك مكانة " تعلم اللغة الانجليزية " في

المجتمع الكويتي ؟

الرجاء وضع علامة (✓) امام الاختيار الذي يعكس اهتمامك

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	لا ادري	وافق	وافق بشدة	
					١ - لا حاجة لاستعمال اللغة الانجليزية في الكويت .
					٢ - اللغة الانجليزية هي لغة ذات نفوذ ومقام .
					٣ - لا حاجة لتعلم اللغة الانجليزية في الكويت .
					٤ - الكثير من اولياء الامور يدخلون ابناهم في مدارس اجنبية خاصة في الكويت حتى يتحدثوا اللغة الانجليزية بطلاقة .
					٥ - انه من الصعب تعلم اللغة الانجليزية .
					٦ - المتحدث بها ذو هبة ومقام .
					٧ - تعلم اللغة الانجليزية يمكن السياح الكويتيين من التفاهم مع الاخرين حين السفر خارج البلد .
					٨ - اللغة الانجليزية في الكويت سول تؤثر سلبا على اللغة العربية .
					٩ - خريجو المدارس الانجليزية الخاصة يستحقون الحصول على فرص عمل افضل من خريجي المدارس العامة .
					١٠ - المتحدث باللغة الانجليزية بوجي بان المتحدث من طبقة عالية في المجتمع .
					١١ - تعلم اللغة الانجليزية سول يجعل العرب يتبنون افكار الغرب .

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا أوائق بشدة	لا أوائق	لا ادري	أوائق	أوائق بشدة	
					١٢- من المهم أن يكمل الفرد دراساته العليا في الخارج باللغـة الانجليزية .
					١٣- المزيد من الوظائف (في البنوك المطسار ، الشركات) يجب ان تتطلب اجادة اللغة الانجليزية .
					١٤- تعلم اللغة الانجليزية سوف يؤثر سلبا على الدين الاسلامي .
					١٥- اللغة الانجليزية هي لغة العلم والتكنولوجيا .
					١٦- تعلم اللغة الانجليزية يمكن الناس من التفاهم مع خدمهم .
					١٧- حتى تصبح خبير أكاديمي لا بد ان تتعلم الانجليزية .
					١٨- تعلم اللغة الانجليزية يعنى اكتساب العادات الغربية غير الحميدة
					١٩- يبدو المتحدث باللغة الانجليزية بطلاقة وكأنه شخص اكثر ثقافة وعلم من عدم المتحدث باللغة .
					٢٠- حتى اولياء الامور ذوى الدخل المادى القليل يدخلون ابناهم فى المدارس الخاصة حتى يتحدثوا باللغة الانجليزية بطلاقة .
					٢١- المجتمع الكويتي يفتخر بشدة باللغة العربية الى درجة الاحاس بعدم الحاجة لتعلم الانجليزية .

Appendix 3

Scale Applied for Final Grades (4 Point Scale)

Range %	Points	Grade
95 - 100	4.00	A/Excellent
90 - 94	3.67	A-/Excellent
85 - 89	3.33	B+/Very good
80 - 84	3.00	B/Very good
75 - 79	2.67	B-/Very good
72 - 74	2.33	C+/Good
68 - 71	2.00	C+/Good
65 - 67	1.67	C-/Pass
63 - 64	1.33	D+/Pass
60 - 62	1.00	D/Pass
Below 60	0.00	F/Fail

Appendix 4

The Attitude Questionnaire with Frequencies

Please answer these questions as accurately and as fully as possible. All answers are anonymous and totally confidential. Please tick the box which best fits your answer. There are no right or wrong answers.

All figures are percentages. Bold figures are modal responses.

Name (Identity)

University Number

College

(1) Arts 35.0
(2) Science 35.0
(3) Sharia 30.1

Major

(1) Arabic 6.9
(2) History 4.9
(3) Geography 3.7
(4) Philosophy 1.2
(5) Psychology 8.3
(6) Sociology 9.8
(8) Mathematics 5.4
(9) Chemistry 2.9
(10) Physics 4.4
(11) Zoology 5.4
(12) Botany & Microbiology 4.7
(13) Geology 1.7
(14) Biochemistry 1.0
(15) Statistics 5.9
(16) Computer 3.7
(17) Islamic Studies 30.1

English course level/Number

097 9.8
098 8.6
099 4.6
131 4.9
132 17.1
133 5.1
134 1.7
135 1.5
151 18.6
152 11.5
161 8.6
162 8.1

Section A

Please complete some details about yourself

- 1 Date of birth Mean: 21.67 SD: 2.00
- 2 Your GPA Mean: 76.30 SD: 8.33
- 3 Your level in the English placement test course
- | | |
|-----|------|
| 097 | 38.1 |
| 098 | 6.8 |
| 099 | 12.1 |
| 131 | 23.1 |
| 132 | 8.9 |
| 133 | 3.2 |
| 134 | 1.8 |
| 135 | 0.4 |
| 161 | 5.7 |
- 4 In which year are you
- | | |
|-------|------|
| (1) | 47.6 |
| (2) | 26.1 |
| (3) | 9.7 |
| (4) | 16.6 |
| Mean: | 1.95 |
| SD: | 1.11 |
- 5 Nationality:
- | | |
|-------------|------|
| Kuwaiti | 94.1 |
| Non Kuwaiti | 5.9 |
- 6 Gender
- | | |
|--------|------|
| Female | 84.1 |
| Male | 15.9 |
- 7 Type of school you graduated from
- | | |
|----------------------------|------|
| public school | 96.8 |
| private English school | 0.5 |
| private non English school | 0.2 |
| Other school | 2.4 |
- 8 The area you live in : Kuwait City 20.8 Hawalli 27.6 Alahmadi 20.0 Aljahra7.8
Farwania 23.7
- 9 How fluent are you in English compared with other University students:
- | | | | | | |
|-------------------|------|---------------------|------|---------------|------|
| near the top | 18.8 | better than average | 21.5 | about average | 43.0 |
| below the average | 11.2 | near the bottom | 5.4 | | |
- 10 How many times have you visited an English speaking country
- | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|------|-------------|------|-------------|-----|--------------|-----|---------------|-----|
| none | 67.0 | 1 - 2 times | 14.7 | 3 - 5 times | 8.3 | 5 - 10 times | 4.2 | over 10 times | 5.9 |
|------|------|-------------|------|-------------|-----|--------------|-----|---------------|-----|
- 11 If you have stayed in an English speaking country on one or more occasion, what is the TOTAL time spent there.
- | | | | | | | | |
|---------------|------|--------------------|-----|-------------|------|-------------|-----|
| none | 67.5 | 1 week | 3.2 | 2 - 4 weeks | 11.5 | 4 - 8 weeks | 6.8 |
| 2 to 6 months | 6.1 | 6 months to a year | 1.0 | over a year | 3.9 | | |

12 How much on average do you watch channel 2 Per Week
 not at all 23.0 1 - 2 hours 41.3 2 - 5 hours 22.7
 5 - 10 hours 7.6 Over 10 hours 5.4

13 What is your intention after graduation?
 19.1 postgraduate studies in Kuwait
 9.5 postgraduate studies abroad at an English speaking University
 6.8 postgraduate studies at Arabic University
 14.3 Get a job that requires knowledge of English
 50.3 Get a job that does not require knowledge of English

14 If you have taken an English course before, what was your grade/ Mean: 7.18
 SD: 3.66

15 What is your grade in the midterm exam in the English course, you are taking now /
 Mean: 6.89 SD: 2.74

16 What is your final grade/ Mean: 6.86 SD: 2.71

	Q 14 English grade in previous course	Q 15 Mid-term English grade	Q 16 Final English grade
A	9.3	3.8	3.0
A-	9.3	5.9	10.2
B+	9.3	10.0	8.0
B	13.6	15.6	13.7
B-	4.2	15.6	11.7
C+	9.8	7.0	11.5
C	15.4	18.1	16.5
C-	3.3	5.9	7.5
D+	2.3	1.9	4.0
D	2.8	8.1	8.2
F	1.9	7.8	5.7
P	18.7	0.3	

Section B

What do you think motivates you?
Concerning class activities

How much do you like the following activities:

		Prefer very much	Prefer	Do not know	Prefer a little	Do not prefer
1	Group work	26.2	31.9	10.1	17.8	14.1
2	Pair work	29.5	30.3	6.1	19.9	14.4
3	Every student working on his own	11.3	10.8	7.3	23.6	47.1
4	Using role play	25.5	36.4	15.2	13.1	9.8
5	Students travelling abroad to learn the language	44.7	15.8	7.9	10.4	21.2
6	Students using the language in class as much as possible	60.9	22.2	3.2	10.3	3.4
7	The activities used encourage communication	69.4	20.4	2.0	6.4	1.7
8	Using debates	36.4	21.9	12.5	17.2	12.0
9	Play games	52.1	22.5	7.1	13.4	4.9
10	Tell stories	34.6	27.9	6.6	20.6	10.3
11	Read poetry	13.3	16.5	10.8	22.4	37.1
12	Write a diary	17.5	28.1	12.8	21.5	20.0
13	Make advertisements	17.0	31.2	13.0	24.6	14.3
14	Write newspapers articles (reports)	14.5	22.4	16.5	22.9	23.8
15	Write letters	25.5	30.6	8.6	22.3	13.0
16	Make travel brochures	18.6	27.9	13.2	21.3	19.1
17	Listen to songs	13.8	14.3	5.4	18.3	48.1
18	Have trips outside the University, to museums, exhibitions, markets, through which the talk is in English	42.6	23.4	7.1	11.8	15.0
19	Conduct a project in English, e.g., a radio programme in English	25.7	27.7	15.3	16.0	15.3
20	Tests	21.3	33.4	7.9	22.3	15.1
21	The chairs organised in a circle	25.2	20.0	19.2	13.0	22.7
22	The chairs organised in rows	16.0	26.0	13.3	20.4	24.1
23	The class room containing a library of English books, magazines, travel brochures and stories.	33.8	30.6	9.8	18.6	7.1
24	The class has less than fifteen students	46.1	25.7	11.3	9.3	7.6
25	The class is well air conditioned	74.1	20.0	3.4	2.4	0.0
26	The class is well furnished	67.0	22.0	3.2	7.1	0.7

Section C
Concerning the instructional material

How much do you like the following:

		Prefer very much	Prefer	Do not know	Prefer a little	Do not prefer
		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	Using English newspapers in class	18.4	32.7	9.1	24.6	15.2
2	Using video films	36.7	21.7	5.2	15.3	21.2
3	Using the language laboratory	26.5	28.5	20.8	14.4	9.9
4	Using cassettes	24.0	27.7	5.7	24.7	18.0
5	Using pictures and drawings in class	34.1	31.4	5.9	15.3	13.3
6	Using computer programs (in the future)	58.0	20.9	5.7	7.9	7.6
7	The instructional material should be interesting	74.7	23.6	1.2	0.5	0.0
8	The instructional material should suit students' needs	71.0	26.5	2.5	0.0	0.0
9	The course book should be suitable to the students' level of ability	81.7	17.6	0.5	0.2	0.0
10	The course book should be neither easy nor difficult	55.3	29.0	3.9	5.4	6.4

Section D

What do you think motivates you?

Concerning the role of the language teacher in class, what do you prefer the role of the language teacher to be:

		Prefer very much	Prefer	Do not know	Prefer a little	Do not prefer
1	The teacher dominates the class	2.5	4.2	2.2	8.8	82.4
2	The teacher encourages the student to speak English	77.3	17.1	0.2	4.9	0.5
3	The teacher gives frequent homework	12.5	20.0	3.2	37.4	26.9
4	The teacher gives every student the chance to talk in English in class	60.6	29.3	2.0	6.8	1.2
5	The teacher always corrects students' mistakes	57.9	25.4	3.4	11.5	1.7
6	The teacher gives the student the chance to choose the curriculum that is appropriate to their needs	45.2	24.7	13.0	10.8	6.4
7	The teacher explains the lesson creatively	61.3	24.3	6.1	5.1	3.2
8	The teacher has a relationship that is based on love and understanding between him/her and his/her student	87.8	8.1	1.0	2.9	0.2
9	The teacher is efficient	87.3	9.8	1.2	1.7	0.0

		Prefer very much	Prefer	Do not know	Prefer a little	Do not prefer
10	The teacher is a native speaker of English	37.3	21.9	5.9	20.1	14.7
11	The teacher enjoys teaching English	67.9	22.5	5.1	4.2	0.2
12	The teacher is flexible with students	87.3	11.0	.2	1.5	0.0

Section E

What do you think motivates you concerning the methods of teaching

How much do you like the following:

		Prefer very much	Prefer	Do not know	Prefer a little	Do not prefer
1	The language teacher uses Arabic in the English language class	12.5	15.4	3.4	37.5	31.1
2	The emphasis is on grammar more than anything else	29.7	29.9	5.6	23.3	11.5
3	The teacher explains in English only	18.7	22.9	2.9	27.3	28.3
4	The emphasis is on communication more than anything else	38.6	32.7	4.4	16.0	8.4
5	The emphasis is on reading and writing in English only	17.2	26.6	7.4	21.7	27.1
6	The emphasis is on listening and speaking in English only	16.9	20.8	9.5	23.7	29.1
7	The emphasis is on all aspects of English	61.1	21.3	3.7	11.5	2.4
8	The focus is on memorising not understanding the language taught in class	1.7	1.7	2.9	3.9	89.7
9	Bring in an outside English speaker to talk to the class from time to time	21.6	24.1	19.2	18.2	17.0

Section F

Tick the appropriate box

- During an English class, I would like:
 - 1 to have a combination of Arabic and English spoken 60.3
 - 2 to have Arabic more than English 2.0
 - 3 to have only English spoken 37.7
- If I had the opportunity to speak English outside the University (e.g., in a restaurant or in the company with English speakers), I would:
 - 1 never speak English 2.5
 - 2 speak English most of the time 60.8
 - 3 communicate with them in Arabic in addition to using a few words of English 36.8
- Compared to my other courses, I like English:
 - 1 the most 26.9
 - 2 the same as all the others 43.8
 - 3 least of all 29.3

4. If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I:
- a 1 would definitely take it 46.1
- b 2 would drop it 15.2
- c 3 don't know whether I would take it or not 38.7
5. I find studying English:
- a 1 very interesting 45.3
- b 2 a little interesting 42.4
- c 3 not interesting at all 12.3
6. Concerning the English programmes shown on channel 2 on TV, I watch them:
- a 1 sometimes 37.7
- b 2 as often as possible 43.4
- c 3 never 18.9
7. If I have had a servant who speaks English, I would:
- a 1 never speak English with her 6.1
- b 2 sometimes speak English with her 55.9
- c 3 always speak English with her 38.0
8. Concerning the English newspapers and magazines, I read them:
- a 1 as often as possible 10.5
- b 2 sometimes 32.5
- c 3 never 57.0

Section G

Tick the appropriate box

1. If English were not taught in University, I would:
- a 1 pick up English by watching channel 2 or reading English Newspapers 33.0
- b 2 not bother learning English at all 14.2
- c 3 try to obtain lessons in English private institutes 52.8
2. When I have a problem understanding something we are learning in English class, I:
- a 1 immediately ask the teacher for help 81.9
- b 2 only seek help just before the exam 12.7
- c 3 never ask for help 5.4
3. When it comes to English homework, I:
- a 1 put some effort into it, but not as much as I could 39.6
- b 2 put a lot of effort into it 56.7
- c 3 don't put any effort into it 3.7
4. In studying English, I can honestly say that I:
- a 1 do just enough work to get along 30.6
- b 2 will pass on the basis of sheer luck or intelligence because I do very little work 19.6
- c 3 try hard to learn English 49.9

5. When I am in an English class, I:
- a 1 always participate by raising my hand to answer questions 33.8
 - b 2 sometimes participate by raising my hand to answer questions 49.5
 - c 3 rarely say anything 16.7
6. Compared to my classmates in the English course, I:
- a 1 study harder than most students 11.2
 - b 2 study as much as the other students 69.7
 - c 3 study less than most students 19.1
7. During the English class, I:
- a 1 concentrate on what is said in class 51.3
 - b 2 sometimes become absent minded 46.9
 - c 3 become absent minded most of the time 1.7
8. In terms of preparing for the English class
- a 1 I always prepare by reading the material that will be taught in class 17.8
 - b 2 I sometimes prepare by reading the material that will be taught in class 57.7
 - c 3 I never prepare 24.4

Section H

Personal attitudes toward learning English.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel that learning English is useful for me	69.4	24.2	2.9	1.7	1.7
2. I enjoy learning English	43.1	36.7	9.6	6.7	3.9
3. Learning English is boring for me	3.9	8.6	10.1	35.2	42.1
4. Learning English is an important part of my education	50.9	32.9	6.4	6.6	3.2
5. I dislike learning English	4.9	5.2	7.9	27.0	55.0
6. I would like to learn as much English as possible	58.4	27.3	5.7	6.2	2.5
7. I would rather spend my time on subjects other than English	16.0	25.6	17.4	29.2	11.8
8. I love learning English	47.3	36.0	6.6	6.4	3.7
9. Learning English is a waste of time	2.0	2.9	5.9	29.8	59.4
10. I plan to continue learning English	22.2	22.7	30.5	15.5	9.1
11. It is of no benefit for me to learn English	1.2	2.2	5.1	30.8	60.6
12. When I leave University, I shall give up the study of English entirely	8.3	8.6	33.7	21.8	27.6

Section I
Attitudes toward the English Language

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I find the English language interesting	39.4	40.1	9.5	5.9	5.1
2. I don't like speaking English	4.7	10.6	7.6	44.2	32.9
3. I like listening to the English language	38.9	47.5	5.2	4.0	4.5
4. I find the English language difficult	11.1	19.9	14.0	41.0	14.0
5. I feel sorry for those who are unable to speak English	24.8	39.6	16.2	11.1	8.4
6. I don't like watching Channel Two on TV because It shows English only programmes	7.4	7.1	10.3	36.9	38.2
7. I find the English language easy	12.1	41.6	15.1	21.3	9.9
8. I prefer the English language to the Arabic language	9.9	9.6	12.8	35.5	32.3
9. I find the English language boring	3.9	9.4	11.8	45.6	29.3
10. I find speaking English is prestigious	22.6	32.5	13.4	16.9	14.6
11. When I speak English, I feel that I'm more educated	29.9	38.2	11.5	9.3	11.0
12. I hope to put my children in a private English school so that they speak English fluently	36.4	22.5	9.5	8.6	23.0

Section J
Attitudes toward native speakers of English.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I would like to meet native speakers of English	31.1	44.0	11.2	7.6	6.1
2. I have an unfavourable attitude towards English speakers	2.0	7.6	15.4	48.0	27.0
3. I like English speakers	18.3	44.9	22.8	9.0	5.0
4. English speakers are dishonest	3.2	8.4	48.0	29.1	11.3
5. English speakers are hardworkers	21.9	30.0	31.9	12.3	3.9
6. English speakers are utilitarian	12.3	15.2	44.7	20.1	7.6
7. English speakers are efficient	10.1	27.8	46.4	11.3	4.4
8. English speakers are well mannered	18.3	34.7	31.3	12.2	3.4
9. English speakers are unintelligent	2.7	5.6	43.9	37.3	10.5
10. English speakers are unfriendly	2.7	11.7	35.7	38.6	11.2
11. English speakers are polite	10.3	31.8	41.6	12.1	4.2
12. English speakers have no morality	4.4	13.2	41.1	28.9	12.5
13. English speakers are trustworthy	4.4	16.7	56.2	15.0	7.6
14. English speakers are unclean	6.4	7.1	40.0	32.9	13.5
15. English speakers are educated	13.2	37.0	34.1	11.0	4.7
16. English speakers are very open	24.0	42.1	20.0	11.7	2.2
17. English speakers respect human rights	11.8	30.1	32.8	17.6	7.6
18. English speakers are corrupt	7.6	12.8	42.3	29.5	7.9
19. English speakers are not cheerful	3.4	6.8	33.5	46.9	9.3
20. English speakers are democratic	13.9	37.4	35.7	9.3	3.7
21. English speakers are progressive in science	21.0	41.1	27.2	7.7	3.0
22. English speakers are not kind	2.2	5.6	49.1	36.9	6.1
23. English speakers like justice	6.9	28.3	45.2	13.3	6.4
24. English speakers are not humorous	2.2	5.6	44.7	38.6	8.8

Section K
The purpose of my studying English

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. Allows me to be more at ease in the English speaking community	18.9	28.9	11.5	24.0	16.7
2. To get a good job	25.6	45.2	17.0	8.1	4.2
3. Allows me to meet with varied people	32.2	53.0	8.9	4.0	2.0
4. Makes me a more educated person	35.0	44.6	8.4	7.9	4.2
5. Allows me to integrate more with the English speakers when I travel abroad	38.7	41.4	11.0	4.7	4.2
6. Other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English	22.1	28.7	23.0	17.6	8.6
7. Allows me to have more friends	24.4	43.8	18.5	8.4	4.9
8. To continue my postgraduate studies at a foreign University	35.6	32.9	12.8	8.6	10.1
9. Be able to participate more freely in the activities of English speaking cultural groups	24.4	38.3	21.2	9.6	6.4
10. Enable me to communicate with my servants	28.9	60.5	3.9	3.9	2.7
11. Enable me to read the English instructions written on medicines, goods and industrial imports	57.2	39.3	2.5	.5	.5
12. Think and behave like English speaking people	17.4	24.8	20.1	23.3	14.3
13. To pass my exams and graduate from the University	40.2	40.9	11.8	5.4	1.7

Section L
When I am in the English class

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel embarrassed when I volunteer answers in the English class	8.3	21.3	5.6	41.4	23.3
2. I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in the English class	6.9	20.7	10.3	37.7	24.4
3. I feel that the other students speak English better than I do	9.4	27.8	17.0	33.3	12.6
4. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking English	8.8	27.5	7.4	39.2	17.2
5. I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English	10.4	19.5	8.1	39.0	23.0
6. I think a lot about my answer before uttering it	25.2	49.3	5.4	15.9	4.2
7. I always feel that what I'm going to say will be wrong	5.9	14.3	14.5	43.3	21.9
8. I'm afraid of being pointed at by the teacher to answer	9.8	23.1	7.6	37.8	21.6
9. When I speak English in the class, I feel that my heart beat increasing	13.3	24.6	7.6	35.0	19.5
10. I often look at my watch hoping that time passes quickly	14.5	17.2	10.3	37.7	20.3
11. I feel worried when the language teacher criticises me	14.3	29.0	8.6	31.0	17.2
12. I become absent minded	3.7	10.8	9.6	47.7	28.3
13. I find it difficult to concentrate	3.7	13.5	8.8	52.2	21.8
14. I sometimes get a headache	2.7	16.7	8.6	44.0	28.0
15. I move a lot in class without reasons	2.0	8.6	6.4	47.2	35.9
16. When the language teacher asks me to answer, my mouth becomes dry	3.9	8.1	8.1	47.5	32.3
17. I often become nervous	4.2	10.8	5.4	49.8	29.8

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
18. I feel that other students look at me because I am not good at English	4.2	5.9	7.4	42.6	39.9
19. Sometimes in class, when I read something I don't understand it; out of class, I understand it easily	10.5	26.5	10.3	34.1	18.6
20. I tend to stutter in English	10.3	17.2	6.6	37.7	28.2

Section M

What is your opinion about the place of learning English in Kuwait society?

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. There is no use in Kuwait for the English Language	4.9	6.1	6.6	44.0	38.3
2. The English language is the language of prestige in Kuwait	24.5	42.8	12.4	14.4	5.9
3. There is no need to learn English in Kuwait	2.0	2.2	4.4	39.7	51.7
4. Many Kuwaiti parents put their children in private English schools so that they will speak English fluently	35.4	35.4	10.8	11.5	6.9
5. It is difficult for someone to learn the English language in Kuwait	4.9	13.5	9.1	52.6	19.9
6. Talking in English is prestigious in Kuwait	18.2	31.5	21.4	17.5	11.3
7. Learning English enables Kuwaities to communicate with others abroad	58.7	37.8	1.0	.7	1.7
8. The English Language in Kuwait will harm the Arabic language	10.8	15.2	16.0	43.2	14.7
9. Graduates from private English schools in Kuwait deserve to gain better job opportunities than graduates from public schools	15.3	14.0	14.3	27.6	28.8
10. Speaking in English shows that the speaker is from a high class in Kuwait	6.6	23.1	11.8	32.4	26.0
11. Learning English will westernise Arabs	11.5	15.7	17.4	35.9	19.4
12. It is important to take postgraduate studies abroad in English	11.1	31.7	18.2	28.0	11.1
13. More and more jobs in Kuwait (e.g. in banks, airport, companies) will require English language proficiency	38.1	49.6	5.4	4.9	2.0
14. Learning English will harm the Islamic religion	5.2	6.9	14.3	47.3	26.4
15. The English language is the language of science and technology in Kuwait	25.1	43.3	12.3	13.8	5.4
16. Learning English enables Kuwaiti people to communicate with their servants	21.6	63.9	5.4	7.6	1.5
17. To be an academic expert in Kuwait, you have to learn English	28.3	39.3	20.3	10.0	2.3
18. Learning English means gaining Western habits that are not required by Arabs	2.0	4.7	11.3	44.8	37.2
19. The fluent English speaker in Kuwait seems more educated than the non English speaker	17.4	34.4	16.0	22.4	9.8
20. Even Kuwaiti parents of low income put their children in private schools so that their children speak English fluently	11.0	30.4	28.4	21.6	8.6
21. Kuwait society is so proud of the Arabic language that it feels no need to learn English	7.4	9.1	17.4	46.6	19.6

Appendix 5

The Coding Book For The Data

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
ID	1	3	1	1to3	Identity no. of person
--	--	1	1	4	Space
College	2	1	1	5	1(Arts) 2(Science) 3(Sharia)
Majors	3	2	1	6to7	College of Arts: 01-Arabic language 02-History 03-Geography 04-Philosophy 05-Psychology 06-Sociology 07-Information College of Science: 08-Mathematics 09-Chemistry 10-Physics 11-Zoology 12-Botany&Micro- biology 13-Geology 14-Biochemistry 15-Statistics& Operation research 16-Computer College of Sharia: 17-Islamic studies

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
English course level (numbers in the value labels refer to course codes at different colleges)	4	3	1	8to10	College of Arts: 099 131 132 133 134 135 College of Science: 097 098 161 162 College of Sharia: 151 152
--	--	1	1	11	Space
Age	5	2	1	12to13	Age in years
GPA	6	4	1	14to17	e.g. 67.6
Level-placement test	7	3	1	18to20	Same as variable 4
Year of study	8	1	1	21	1 to 4
Nationality	9	1	1	22	1(Kuwaiti) 2(non Kuwaiti)
Gender	10	1	1	23	1(female) 2(male)
School type	11	1	1	24	1(Public school) 2(Private English) 3(Private non Eng.) 4(Other school)

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
Area	12	1	1	25	1(Kuwait city) 2(Hawali) 3(Ahmadi) 4(Jahra) 5(Farwania)
Level in English	13	1	1	26	1(Near top) 2(Better than average) 3(About average) 4(Below average) 5(Near bottom)
Visits to English speaking countries	14	1	1	27	1(None) 2(1to2) 3(3to5) 4(5to10) 5(Over 10)
Time spent in English speaking country	15	1	1	28	1(None) 2(One week) 3(2-4 weeks) 4(4-8 weeks) 5(2-6 months) 6(6-12 months) 7(Over a year)
Time spent watching channel two on T.V.	16	1	1	29	1(Not at all) 2(1-2 hours) 3(2-5 hours) 4(5-10 hours) 5(Over 10 hours)

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
Career intention	17	1	1	30	1(Postgraduate studies in Kuwait) 2(Postgraduate studies abroad at English University) 3(Postgraduate studies at Arabic University) 4(Get job requires English knowledge) 5(Get job doesn't require English)
English grade in previous course	18	2	1	31to32	01(A+) 02(A:excellent) 03(A-:excellent) 04(B+:very good) 05(B:very good) 06(B-:very good) 07(C+:good) 08(C:good) 09(C-:pass) 10(D+:pass) 11(D:pass) 12(F:fail) 13(P:pass for non-credit course)
Mid-term English grade	19	2	1	33to34	Same as variable 18
Final English grade	20	2	1	35to36	Same as variable 18
--	--	1	1	37	Space

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
B1	21	1	1	38	1(Prefer v. much) 2(Prefer) 3(Do not know) 4(Prefer a little) 5(Do not prefer)
B2	22	1	1	39	Same as B1
B3	23	1	1	40	Same as B1
B4	24	1	1	41	Same as B1
B5	25	1	1	42	Same as B1
B6	26	1	1	43	Same as B1
B7	27	1	1	44	Same as B1
B8	28	1	1	45	Same as B1
B9	29	1	1	46	Same as B1
B10	30	1	1	47	Same as B1
B11	31	1	1	48	Same as B1
B12	32	1	1	49	Same as B1
B13	33	1	1	50	Same as B1
B14	34	1	1	51	Same as B1
B15	35	1	1	52	Same as B1
B16	36	1	1	53	Same as B1
B17	37	1	1	54	Same as B1
B18	38	1	1	55	Same as B1

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
B19	39	1	1	56	Same as B1
B20	40	1	1	57	Same as B1
B21	41	1	1	58	Same as B1
B22	42	1	1	59	Same as B1
B23	43	1	1	60	Same as B1
B24	44	1	1	61	Same as B1
B25	45	1	1	62	Same as B1
B26	46	1	1	63	Same as B1
--	--	1	1	64	Space
C1	47	1	1	65	Same as B1
C2	48	1	1	66	Same as B1
C3	49	1	1	67	Same as B1
C4	50	1	1	68	Same as B1
C5	51	1	1	69	Same as B1
C6	52	1	1	70	Same as B1
C7	53	1	1	71	1(Strongly agree) 2(Agree) 3(Neither agree nor disagree) 4(Disagree) 5(strongly disagree)
C8	54	1	1	72	Same as C7
C9	55	1	1	73	Same as C7

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
C10	56	1	1	74	Same as C7
--	--	1	1	75	Space
D1	57	1	2	5	Same as B1
D2	58	1	2	6	Same as B1
D3	59	1	2	7	Same as B1
D4	60	1	2	8	Same as B1
D5	61	1	2	9	Same as B1
D6	62	1	2	10	Same as B1
D7	63	1	2	11	Same as B1
D8	64	1	2	12	Same as B1
D9	65	1	2	13	Same as B1
D10	66	1	2	14	Same as B1
D11	67	1	2	15	Same as B1
D12	68	1	2	16	Same as B1
--	--	1	2	17	Space
E1	69	1	2	18	Same as B1
E2	70	1	2	19	Same as B1
E3	71	1	2	20	Same as B1
E4	72	1	2	21	Same as B1
E5	73	1	2	22	Same as B1

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
E6	74	1	2	23	Same as B1
E7	75	1	2	24	Same as B1
E8	76	1	2	25	Same as B1
E9	77	1	2	26	Same as B1
--	--	1	2	27	Space
F1	78	1	2	28	1(Have combination of Arabic and English spoken) 2(Have Arabic more than English) 3(Have only English spoken)
F2	79	1	2	29	1(Never speak Eng.) 2(Speak Eng. most of the time) 3(communicate in Arabic and use few words of English)
F3	80	1	2	30	1(The most) 2(Same as others) 3(Least of all)
F4	81	1	2	31	1(Take it) 2(Drop it) 3(Do not know)
F5	82	1	2	32	1(Very interesting) 2(A little interesting) 3(Not interesting)
F6	83	1	2	33	1(Sometimes) 2(often) 3(Never)

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
F7	84	1	2	34	1(Never speak Eng. 2(Sometimes speak Eng with her) 3(Always speak Eng. with her)
F8	85	1	2	35	1(Often) 2(Sometimes) 3(Never)
--	--	1	2	36	Space
G1	86	1	2	37	1(Pick up Eng. by watch ch.2 or read Eng. newspaper) 2(Not bother learning Eng. at all) 3(Obtain lessons in Eng. in other places)
G2	87	1	2	38	1(Immediately ask teacher for help) 2(Ask help just before exam) 3(Never ask help)
G3	88	1	2	39	1(Put some effort) 2(Put a lot of effort) 3(Don't put any)
G4	89	1	2	40	1(Do just enough work to get along) 2(Do very little work) 3(Work hard)
G5	90	1	2	41	1(always participat in class) 2(Sometimes) 3(rarely participate)

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
G6	91	1	2	42	1(Study harder) 2(Study as much as the other students) 3(Study less)
G7	92	1	2	43	1(Concentrate) 2(Sometimes get absentminded) 3(Get absent-minded most of the time)
G8	93	1	2	44	1(Always prepare) 2(Sometimes) 3(Never prepare)
--	--	1	2	45	Space
H1	94	1	2	46	1(Strongly agree) 2(Agree) 3(Neither agree nor disagree) 4(Disagree) 5(Strongly disagree)
H2	95	1	2	47	Same as H1
H3	96	1	2	48	Same as H1
H4	97	1	2	49	Same as H1
H5	98	1	2	50	Same as H1
H6	99	1	2	51	Same as H1
H7	100	1	2	52	Same as H1
H8	101	1	2	53	Same as H1
H9	102	1	2	54	Same as H1

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
H10	103	1	2	55	Same as H1
H11	104	1	2	56	Same as H1
H12	105	1	2	57	Same as H1
--	--	1	2	58	Space
I1	106	1	2	59	Same as H1
I2	107	1	2	60	Same as H1
I3	108	1	2	61	Same as H1
I4	109	1	2	62	Same as H1
I5	110	1	2	63	Same as H1
I6	111	1	2	64	Same as H1
I7	112	1	2	65	Same as H1
I8	113	1	2	66	Same as H1
I9	114	1	2	67	Same as H1
I10	115	1	2	68	Same as H1
I11	116	1	2	69	Same as H1
I12	117	1	2	70	Same as H1
--	--	1	2	71	Space
J1	118	1	3	5	Same as H1
J2	119	1	3	6	Same as H1
J3	120	1	3	7	Same as H1

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
J4	121	1	3	8	Same as H1
J5	122	1	3	9	Same as H1
J6	123	1	3	10	Same as H1
J7	124	1	3	11	Same as H1
J8	125	1	3	12	Same as H1
J9	126	1	3	13	Same as H1
J10	127	1	3	14	Same as H1
J11	128	1	3	15	Same as H1
J12	129	1	3	16	Same as H1
J13	130	1	3	17	Same as H1
J14	131	1	3	18	Same as H1
J15	132	1	3	19	Same as H1
J16	133	1	3	20	Same as H1
J17	134	1	3	21	Same as H1
J18	135	1	3	22	Same as H1
J19	136	1	3	23	Same as H1
J20	137	1	3	24	Same as H1
J21	138	1	3	25	Same as H1
J22	139	1	3	26	Same as H1
J23	140	1	3	27	Same as H1

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
J24	141	1	3	28	Same as H1
--	--	1	3	29	Space
K1	142	1	3	30	Same as H1
K2	143	1	3	31	Same as H1
K3	144	1	3	32	Same as H1
K4	145	1	3	33	Same as H1
K5	146	1	3	34	Same as H1
K6	147	1	3	35	Same as H1
K7	148	1	3	36	Same as H1
K8	149	1	3	37	Same as H1
K9	150	1	3	38	Same as H1
K10	151	1	3	39	Same as H1
K11	152	1	3	40	Same as H1
K12	153	1	3	41	Same as H1
K13	154	1	3	42	Same as H1
--	--	1	3	43	Space
L1	155	1	3	44	Same as H1
L2	156	1	3	45	Same as H1
L3	157	1	3	46	Same as H1
L4	158	1	3	47	Same as H1

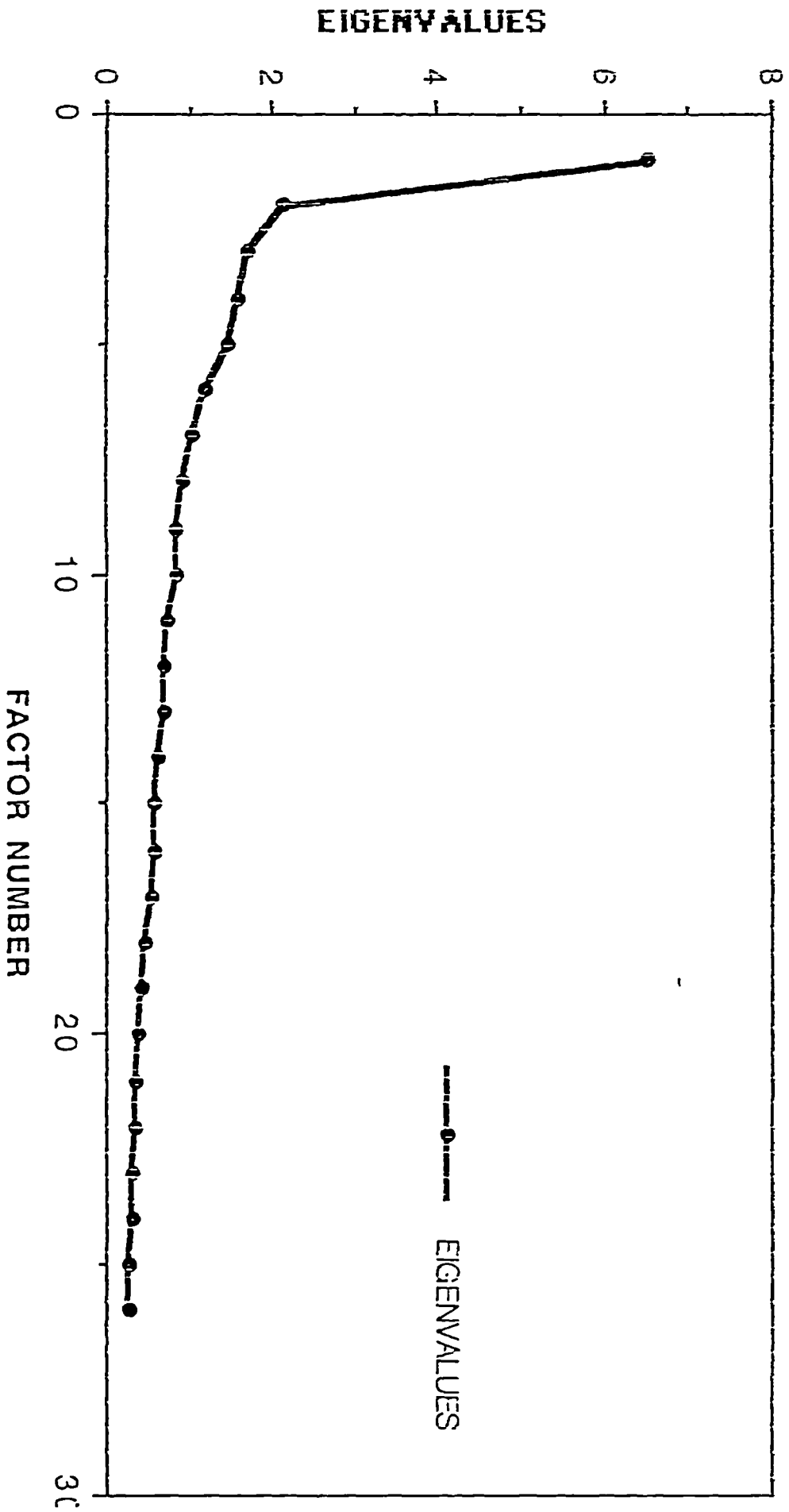
Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
L5	159	1	3	48	Same as H1
L6	160	1	3	49	Same as H1
L7	161	1	3	50	Same as H1
L8	162	1	3	51	Same as H1
L9	163	1	3	52	Same as H1
L10	164	1	3	53	Same as H1
L11	165	1	3	54	Same as H1
L12	166	1	3	55	Same as H1
L13	167	1	3	56	Same as H1
L14	168	1	3	57	Same as H1
L15	169	1	3	58	Same as H1
L16	170	1	3	59	Same as H1
L17	171	1	3	60	Same as H1
L18	172	1	3	61	Same as H1
L19	173	1	3	62	Same as H1
L20	174	1	3	63	Same as H1
--	--	1	3	64	Space
M1	175	1	4	5	Same as H1
M2	176	1	4	6	Same as H1
M3	177	1	4	7	Same as H1

Variable	Variable number	No. of columns	Line	Column	Value labels
M4	178	1	4	8	Same as H1
M5	179	1	4	9	Same as H1
M6	180	1	4	10	Same as H1
M7	181	1	4	11	Same as H1
M8	182	1	4	12	Same as H1
M9	183	1	4	13	Same as H1
M10	184	1	4	14	Same as H1
M11	185	1	4	15	Same as H1
M12	186	1	4	16	Same as H1
M13	187	1	4	17	Same as H1
M14	188	1	4	18	Same as H1
M15	189	1	4	19	Same as H1
M16	190	1	4	20	Same as H1
M17	191	1	4	21	Same as H1
M18	192	1	4	22	Same as H1
M19	193	1	4	23	Same as H1
M20	194	1	4	24	Same as H1
M21	195	1	4	25	Same as H1

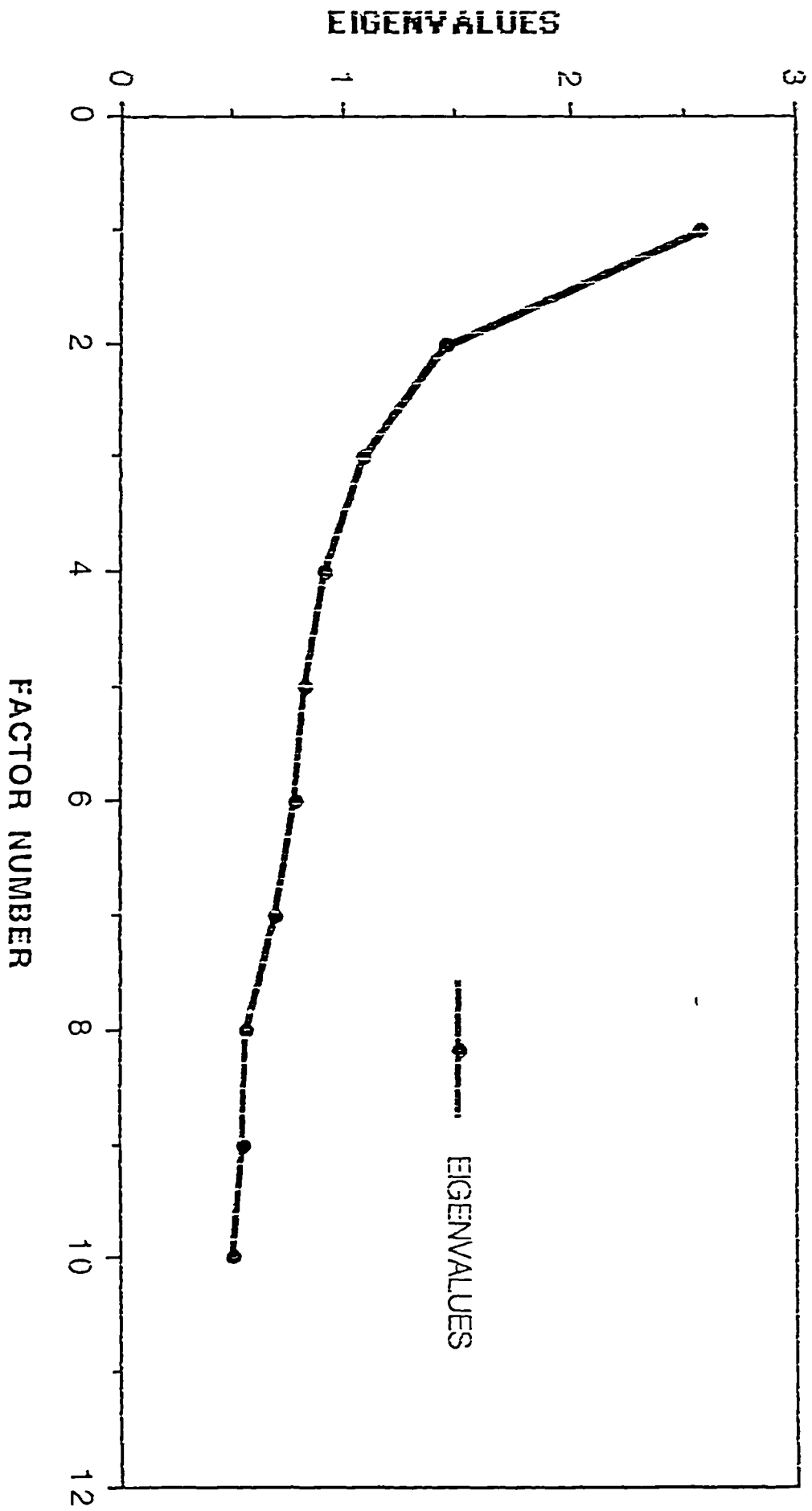
Note:

- The missing value for all variables is a zero (0)
- Eng. refers to 'English'

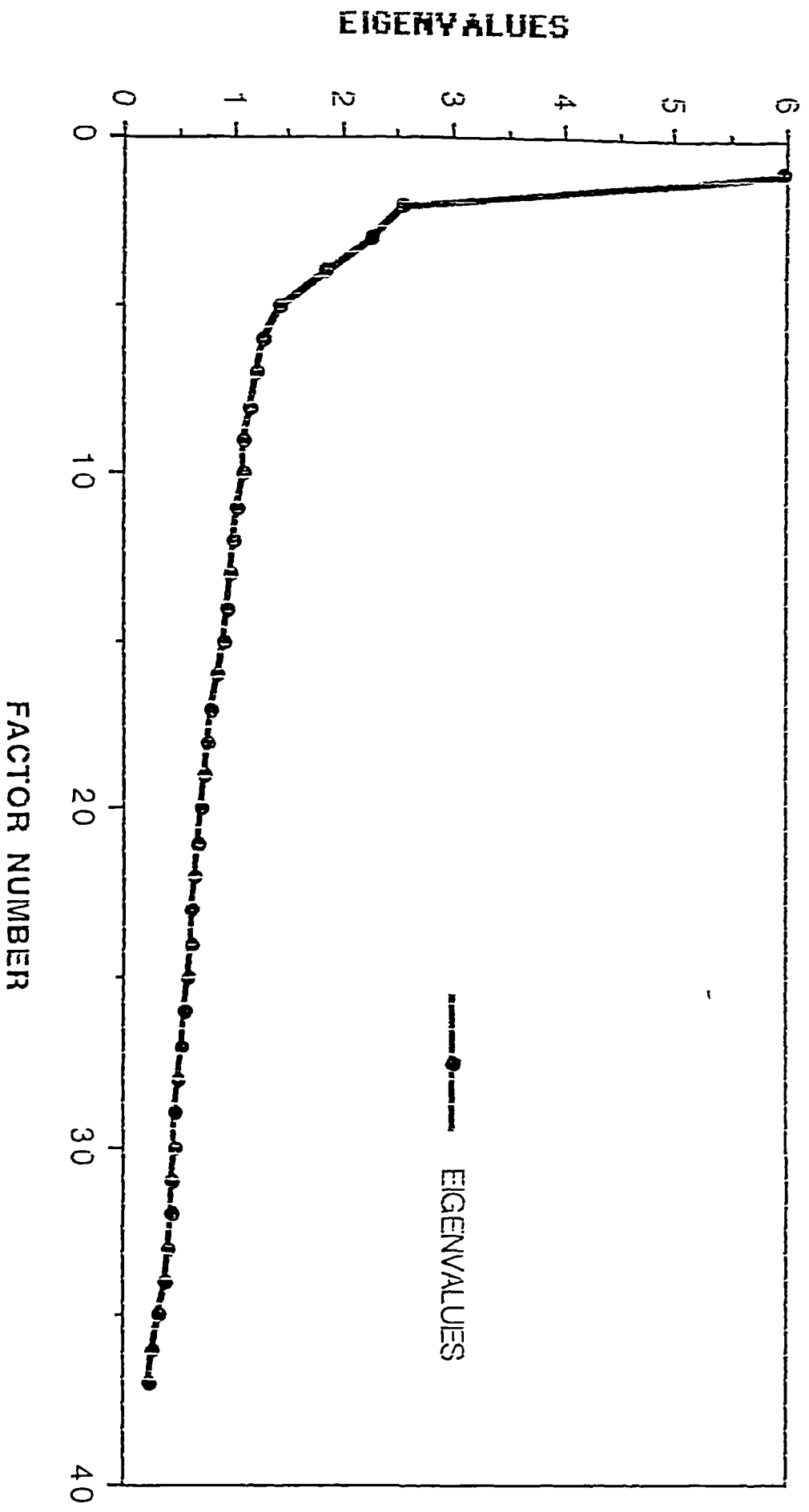
Data from "GRAPH Section B"



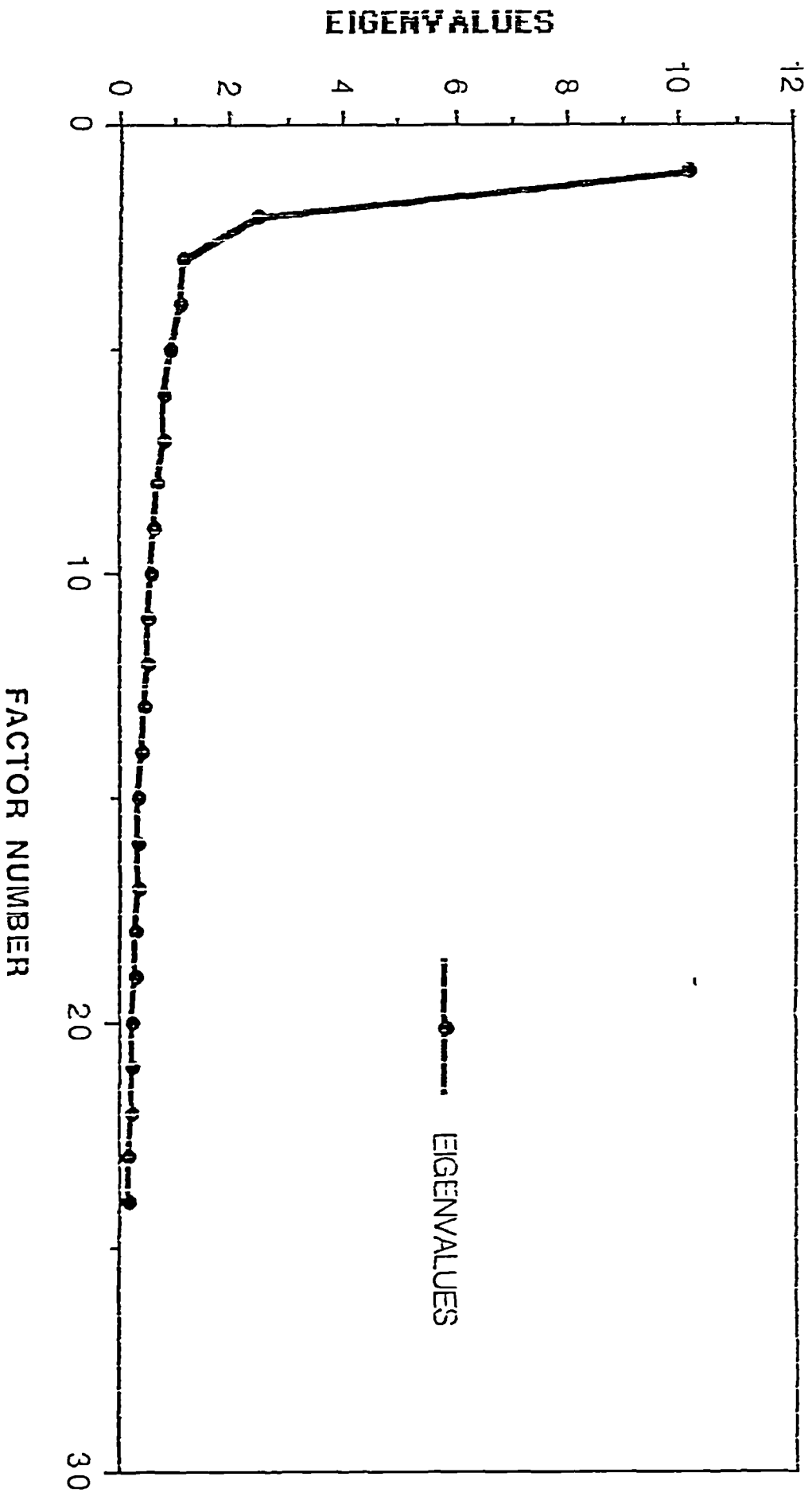
Data from "GRAPH Section C"



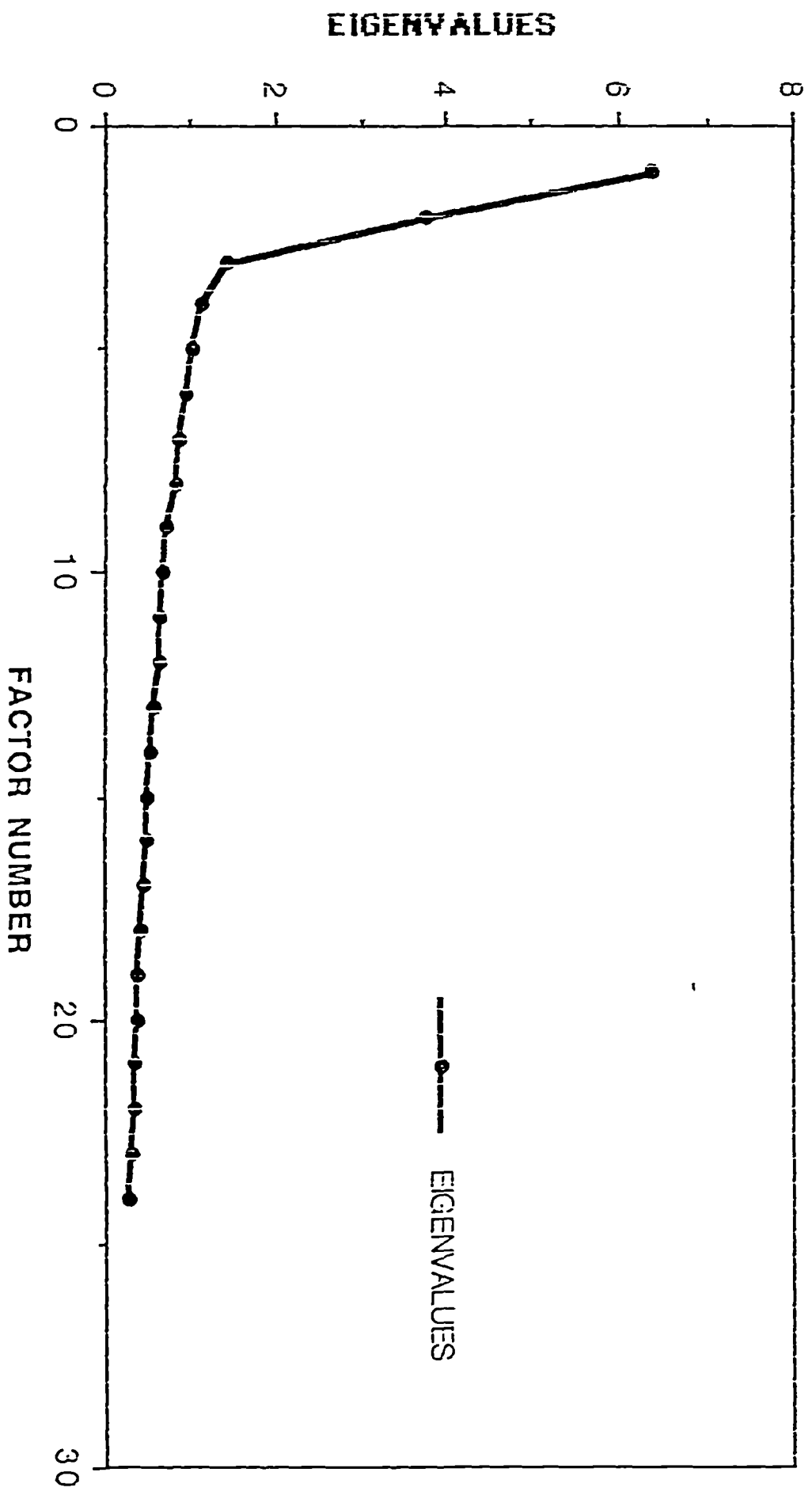
Data from "GRAPH Sections D,E,F&G"



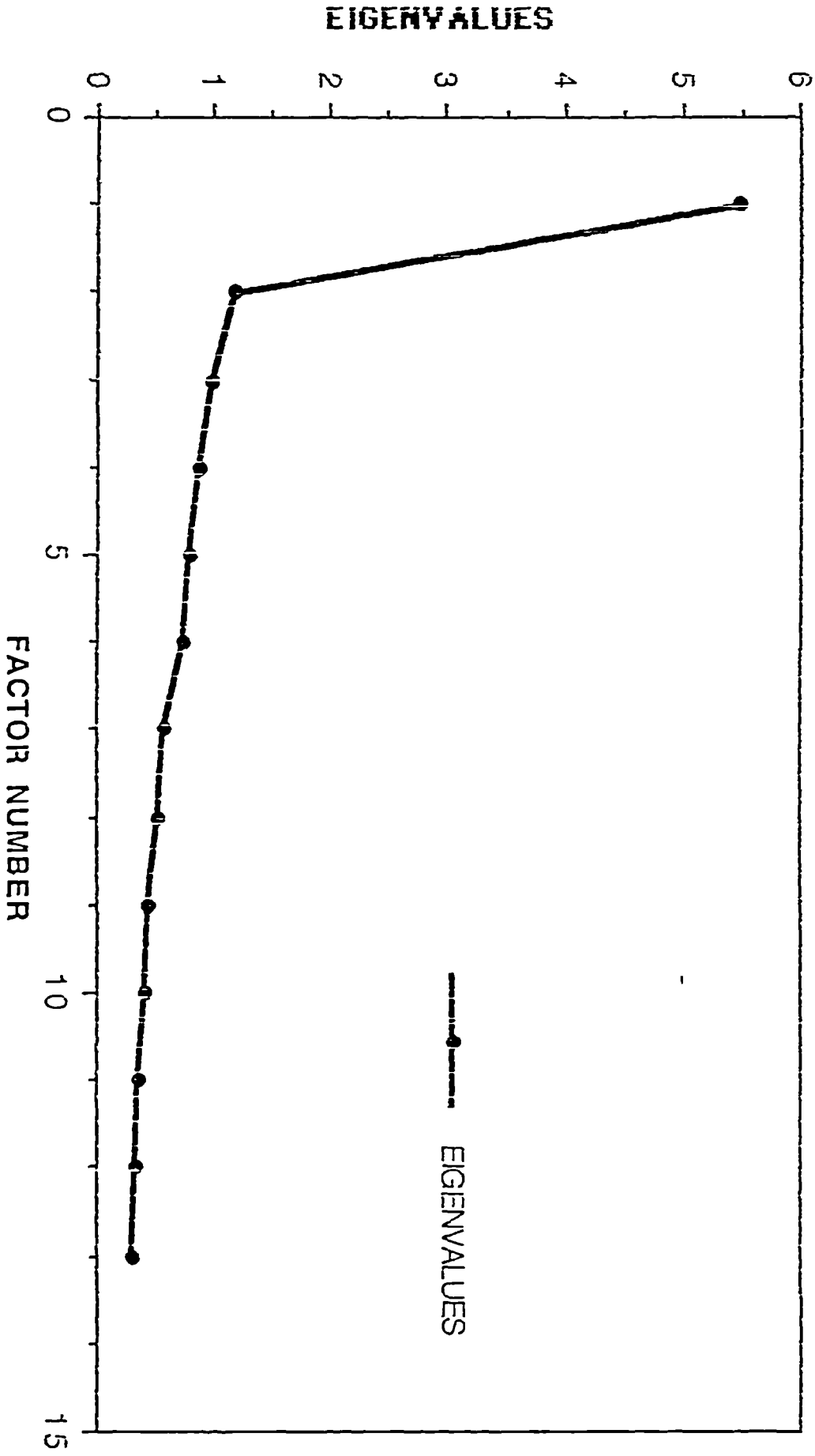
Data from "GRAPH Section H&I"



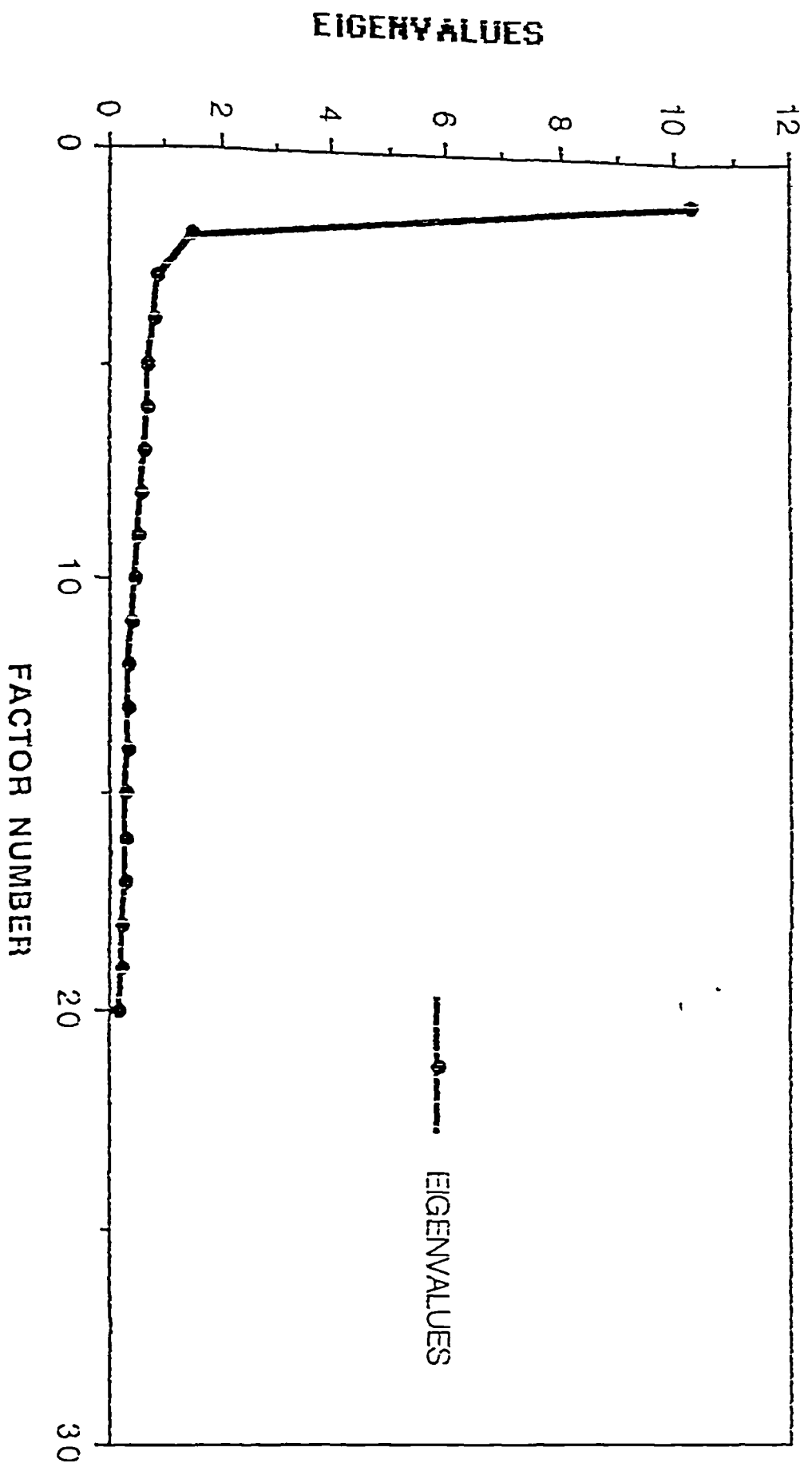
Data from "GRAPH Section J"



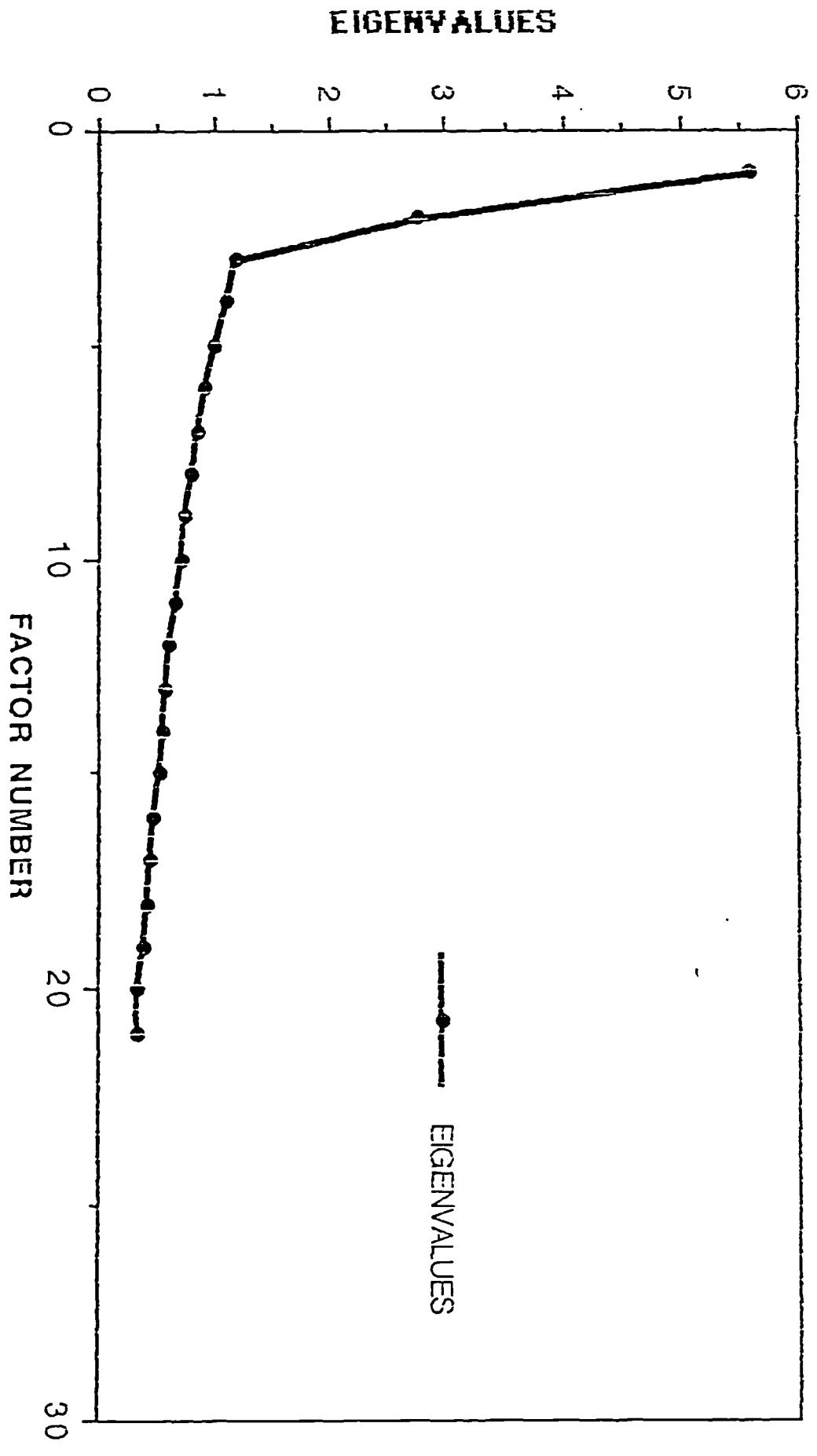
Data from "GRAPH Section K"



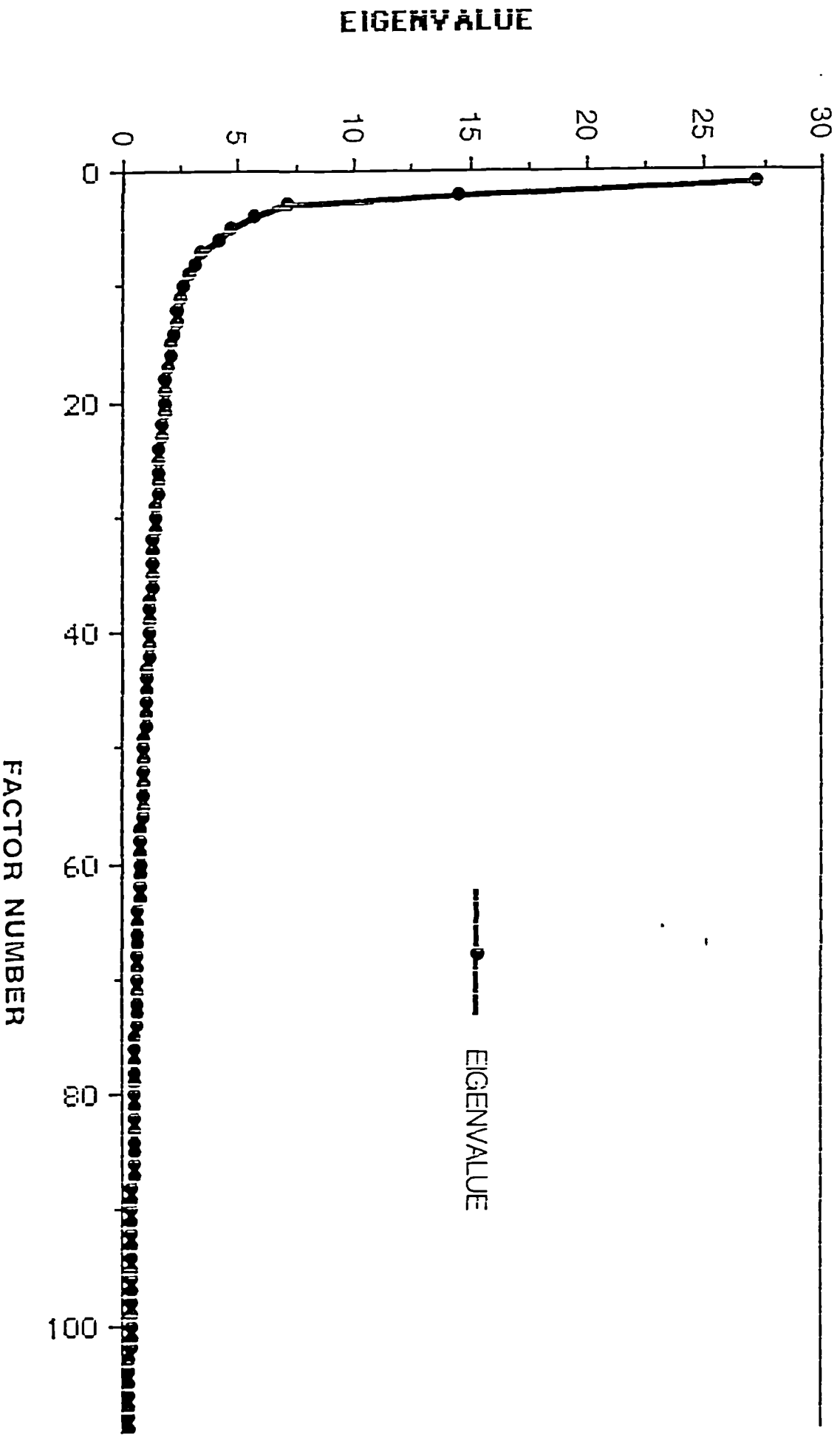
Data from "GRAPH Section L"



Data from "GRAPH Section M"



Data from "GRAPH ALL SECTIONS"



Appendix 15

The overall factor analysis

The 175 items in the questionnaire from section B to section M were submitted to a latent variable analysis. Analysis of the scree test (see appendix 14) and inspection of different rotated solutions suggested the presence of five dimensions. The rotated factor matrix is listed below.

	FACTOR 1	FACTOR 2	FACTOR 3	FACTOR 4	FACTOR 5
V21	-.10598	.03821	-.02725	.25154	.09724
V22	.06091	.14413	.02629	.18972	.08396
V23	.07212	-.19528	.06995	-.20346	.03116
V24	.06940	-.10171	.06647	.18889	-.06314
V25	.33427	.11269	.37904	.00545	-.08554
V26	.47435	-.17132	.01169	.35282	.07358
V27	.33673	-.05948	.08890	.49345	.00951
V28	.36117	-.11358	-.06236	.41077	.10610
V29	.27403	.10711	.16635	.43683	.00623
V30	.47736	.04203	.06396	.38060	-.00011
V31	.40319	-.00216	.05657	.21033	.01417
V32	.49673	.02315	.08188	.21742	.03329
V33	.41145	.08920	.15354	.33744	-.05828
V34	.53739	.08756	.10172	.25091	.05049
V35	.45616	.05700	.14065	.32570	.01770
V36	.45972	.09975	.14108	.30512	-.01637
V37	.30057	.01023	.26032	-.00555	-.14618
V38	.39281	.20686	.34801	.29946	-.13768
V39	.47073	.10276	.18314	.33141	-.13894
V40	.37443	-.17145	.02950	.16162	-.00367
V41	.14018	-.02244	.08498	.34508	-.00119
V42	-.09770	.08249	-.01335	-.16885	.05606
V43	.27327	.10380	.28986	.34794	-.10504
V44	-.06985	-.03905	-.03662	.25045	.02594
V45	.01087	.00637	.07616	.46513	.01364
V46	.05746	-.01438	.13105	.40659	-.00769
V47	.39154	-.04759	.05245	.18899	-.02856
V48	.28711	.06202	.22259	.16779	-.11499
V49	.36461	-.01722	-.08115	.34454	-.01310
V50	.24692	-.05836	-.00428	.31194	-.05878
V51	.17222	.01066	.24468	.25562	-.04194

V52	.29794	-.07485	-.04539	.27571	.07049
V53	.10085	.03244	.19072	.31297	-.08525
V54	.06115	-.02038	.02637	.39685	.03321
V55	-.08430	-.04689	.00729	.35406	.03311
V56	.04818	.06353	-.19528	.17364	-.03591
V57	-.26726	.15211	-.00599	-.05477	-.01656
V58	.30417	-.06042	.09139	.36985	-.00697
V59	.11244	-.05348	.00414	.03042	.12444
V60	.38461	-.18306	.05880	.45006	.04896
V61	-.08924	-.10406	.04396	.32130	-.03798
V62	-.08027	.10605	.25424	.21743	-.02107
V63	.02880	.08054	.08016	.45204	-.08422
V64	.01069	-.01782	.04655	.41928	-.06783
V65	.15685	-.04178	.06577	.51940	-.09858
V66	.32906	.03749	.13995	.13980	-.16421
V67	.17461	-.11872	.01781	.32129	-.11424
V68	-.00293	.01685	.05991	.33509	-.14994
V69	-.40734	.18246	.03933	.00900	.14619
V70	-.00781	-.01647	.04430	.08805	.23712
V71	.46437	-.14384	-.00524	.09196	-.02653
V72	.42494	.00860	.00163	.29751	-.00494
V73	.10352	.07283	.09489	.16050	.01139
V74	.12810	.01614	.14713	.09823	.01548
V75	.26286	-.02529	.09042	.28874	-.10179
V76	.06633	.06875	.00865	-.08939	.01844
V77	.27890	-.10305	.00863	.27328	-.16845
V78	.40902	-.11905	-.05239	.08703	-.01338
V79	.47712	-.20694	.15304	.00921	-.08993
V80	.58064	-.41748	.12698	-.02369	.03001
V81	.46268	-.43273	.03625	-.06650	-.01305
V82	.51844	-.44477	.10756	.00356	.10779
V83	.35628	.05994	.25136	.09549	-.17557
V84	.33968	-.21030	.20234	.15393	-.20960
V85	.45410	-.19292	.12322	.04231	-.03292
V86	.49642	-.15081	.15464	-.19093	-.05500
V87	.20853	-.29036	.11440	-.04139	-.02994
V88	.15075	-.19449	.06225	-.05478	.17718
V89	.08798	-.07911	.13850	-.05351	.15271
V90	.25043	-.51629	-.01478	.15278	.15806
V91	.12343	-.20256	.15509	-.01653	.18466
V92	.16261	-.37474	.06953	-.01093	.04689
V93	.08742	-.32360	.16333	.08596	.17726
V94	.60814	-.25756	.24773	-.01235	-.03717
V95	.63445	-.34071	.19261	.08425	.06164
V96	-.61236	.43305	-.08065	.05415	.04099
V97	.56751	-.17528	.26079	.06618	-.11479

V98	-.66286	.39532	-.06179	.01322	.01757
V99	.65223	-.27086	.15735	.05568	-.02030
V100	-.48926	.25147	-.12009	.04313	.07481
V101	.68397	-.36097	.20873	.02538	.05268
V102	-.50366	.39161	-.20025	.01565	.06555
V103	.67818	-.16439	.24118	-.08010	-.01289
V104	-.52955	.31254	-.22107	.04607	.08698
V105	-.60872	.17408	-.15234	.09980	.07368
V106	.65166	-.35289	.17663	.06653	.11833
V107	-.51459	.32239	-.25827	-.03230	.12494
V108	.38389	-.09967	.22435	.02514	-.03758
V109	-.40912	.58069	.06440	-.03977	.06844
V110	.18733	-.05510	.24808	.06771	-.03823
V111	-.27453	.03408	-.21985	-.05395	.31824
V112	.43490	-.47656	-.02182	.05404	.00845
V113	.40419	-.01912	.34170	-.04954	-.17235
V114	-.59445	.45914	-.14839	.10414	.07119
V115	.15530	.07184	.76714	-.01983	-.06254
V116	.19967	.07293	.75695	.07025	-.07842
V117	.10918	.13072	.67997	-.02929	-.10156
V118	.58466	-.04502	.36127	.10696	-.17661
V119	-.35972	.19711	-.23233	-.08963	.42903
V120	.37537	-.02700	.59138	.06402	-.34247
V121	-.17546	.16024	-.17162	-.01879	.44361
V122	.11351	-.14551	.52283	.00949	.15800
V123	-.10930	.17670	-.15401	.03935	.57713
V124	.07213	-.06902	.60913	-.02362	.03861
V125	-.01634	-.11328	.59218	-.04857	.16605
V126	-.08356	.13038	-.18309	-.09120	.31383
V127	-.08684	.09435	-.07965	-.15191	.54642
V128	-.05008	-.06270	.52894	-.01677	-.06257
V129	.03392	-.04255	-.06295	-.15555	.58776
V130	-.04756	-.02341	.51339	-.02380	-.17104
V131	.09890	-.03798	-.13863	-.08080	.56440
V132	-.02095	-.00950	.58707	.07255	-.05058
V133	-.03543	-.05097	.24735	.12205	.41396
V134	-.02630	-.13416	.45178	.14652	-.19159
V135	.07783	-.01232	-.06909	-.11015	.69105
V136	-.04231	.07949	-.08156	-.04908	.54746
V137	-.01142	-.13724	.47312	.02640	-.04486
V138	.04169	-.14375	.54808	.12414	.26209
V139	-.07513	.13339	-.04635	-.12019	.62388
V140	.03167	-.17720	.47313	.10225	-.17546
V141	-.09760	.08877	-.16146	-.07961	.55433
V142	.22513	-.16207	.34031	.15850	-.14898
V143	.20689	.11145	.53030	.07332	-.12910

V144	.25374	-.02377	.47146	.11890	-.16647
V145	.25870	-.01832	.64664	.13636	-.20048
V146	.21906	-.09666	.42747	.13538	-.29235
V147	.18948	.02713	.67745	.11794	-.03727
V148	.27158	.07412	.49670	.15738	-.18693
V149	.33951	-.04174	.36661	.06961	-.12759
V150	.26622	.07793	.35439	.10942	-.20470
V151	-.02072	.00563	.37208	.28239	.00552
V152	.14113	.00457	.28834	.39379	-.03005
V153	.01318	.14246	.58861	.00811	-.03062
V154	.06282	-.00243	.39069	.16670	-.00205
V155	-.09058	.66754	.07308	-.16164	.08587
V156	-.18257	.69972	.07208	-.14098	.14169
V157	-.11140	.65003	-.00176	-.18737	.08442
V158	-.04655	.81738	-.00125	-.12628	.08310
V159	.02037	.80128	.14743	-.10795	.08952
V160	-.10576	.45005	.14489	-.04904	.04542
V161	-.03744	.77396	.00950	-.12008	-.02118
V162	-.15135	.82627	-.02877	-.09807	.04734
V163	-.02069	.71955	.08643	-.04956	.09854
V164	-.26103	.67297	.02230	.08985	-.02875
V165	-.08790	.62116	.02515	.06755	-.01614
V166	-.21733	.61039	.01334	-.01603	.07764
V167	-.15710	.72002	.00679	.08638	.06591
V168	-.11857	.47074	-.00284	.12465	.08444
V169	-.07375	.42127	-.03606	.10019	.05947
V170	-.07964	.74018	.01146	.01905	.13453
V171	-.12902	.72515	.07588	.03480	.11529
V172	-.03417	.72672	.02698	-.00182	.19253
V173	.02841	.71967	.06848	.00986	.09238
V174	-.08708	.81910	.03155	-.05971	.17847
V175	-.28498	.06669	-.27183	.04421	.24951
V176	.16149	.14738	.57325	.09405	-.05126
V177	-.36192	.10825	-.27858	-.05570	.19303
V178	.11150	.08059	.57788	-.00355	-.23468
V179	-.22496	.54581	.06079	-.07202	.07182
V180	.18394	.10107	.75709	.07598	-.09124
V181	.10028	-.02277	.53979	.05591	-.06854
V182	-.08110	.13845	-.15416	.02411	.30051
V183	.08041	.15897	.43480	.00171	.13219
V184	.08644	.11055	.49184	-.08599	.10912
V185	-.09879	.09879	-.12967	.04831	.38447
V186	.36013	.01722	.31229	-.05364	-.01148
V187	.18443	-.01695	.32950	.08137	-.04910
V188	-.02035	.15716	-.09337	-.00771	.32572
V189	.12484	.00874	.59623	.10288	-.20686

V190	.05123	-.05317	.45749	.26301	-.02065
V191	.12173	-.02503	.46698	.14786	-.18364
V192	-.07290	.17683	-.18236	-.05171	.35340
V193	.13598	.07066	.61003	.12711	.02470
V194	.14332	.08785	.46688	-.02577	-.11068
V195	-.14556	.14579	-.22514	.07640	.24961

The suggested five dimensions are:

Dimension 1: Name: Language class activities and attitudes towards learning English

32 items had loadings above 0.40 on the first factor. Looking through the various statements under this factor, it appears that these statements deal with language class activities; students' desire for and interest in learning English; and students' positive attitudes towards learning English.

In terms of class activities, preferred class activities may be reflected in statements like:

V34	Write newspapers articles	0.53
V32	Write a diary	0.49
V30	Tell stories	0.47
V26	Students using the language in class as much as possible	0.47

Seven items suggest that subjects have desire for and interest in learning English. Such desire and interest is seen in statements like:

V80	Compared to my other courses, I like English:	0.58
a	the most	
b	the same as all the others	
c	least of all	

V82	I find studying English:	0.51
	a very interesting	
	b a little interesting	
	c not interesting at all	
V86	If English were not taught in University, I would:	0.49
	a try to obtain lessons in English private institutes	
	b pick up English by watching channel 2 or reading English newspapers	
	c not bother learning English at all	
V79	If I had the opportunity to speak English outside the University (e.g., in a restaurant or in the company with English speakers), I would:	0.47
	a speak English most of the time	
	b communicate with them in Arabic in addition to using a few words of English	
	c never speak English	

Statements that reflect students' positive attitudes toward learning English obtained the highest loadings over all the other statements on this factor. Such attitudes are represented through items like:

V101	I love learning English	0.68
V103	I plan to continue learning English	0.67
V98	I dislike learning English	-.66
V99	I would like to learn as much English as possible	0.65
V106	I find the English language interesting	0.65
V95	I enjoy learning English	0.63

Dimension 2: Name: Anxiety in the English class; negative attitudes toward English and low effort expended in learning English

33 items had loadings above 0.35 on the second factor. Looking through the various statements under this factor, it appears that these statements seem to represent students' feeling of anxiety in the English class; their negative attitudes to English and the low effort they expend in learning it.

Statements that reflect the feeling of anxiety, nervousness, confusion and embarrassment in the English class, obtained the highest loadings over all the other statements on this factor. Feelings of anxiety in the English class is represented in statements like:

V162	I'm afraid of being pointed at by the teacher	0.82
V174	I tend to stutter in English	0.81
V158	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking English	0.81
V159	I am afraid the other students will laugh at me when I speak English	0.80
V161	I always feel that what I'm going to say will be wrong	0.77

Negative affective attitudes to English may be seen in statements like:

V109	I find the English language difficult	0.58
V112	I find the English language easy	0.47
V114	I find the English language boring	0.45
V82	I find studying English:	-.44
	a. very interesting	
	b. a little interesting	
	c. not interesting at all	
V96	Learning English is boring for me	0.43

Three items reveal the low effort students expend in learning English, These items are:

V90	When I am in an English class, I	-0.51
	a. always participate by raising my hand to answer questions	
	b. sometimes participate	
	c. rarely say any thing	
V81	If it were up to me whether or not to take English, I:	-0.43
	a. would definitely take it	
	b. don't know	
	c. would drop it	
V92	During the English class, I:	-0.37
	a. concentrate on what is said in class	
	b. sometimes become absent minded	
	c. become absent minded most of the time	

Dimension 3: Name: Attitudes toward English and speakers of English and orientations toward English

42 statements shared loadings above 0.30 on the third factor. This factor appears to deal with attitudes toward English in terms of its educational prestige, positive attitudes to native speakers of English and also includes instrumental as well as integrative orientation toward English.

Students' favourable attitudes toward English are reflected in statements such as:

V115	I find speaking English is prestigious	0.76
V116	When I speak English, I feel that I'm more educated	0.75
V180	Talking in English is prestigious in Kuwait	0.75

V117	I hope to put my children in a private English school so that they speak English fluently	0.67
V189	The English language is the language of science and technology in Kuwait	0.59

Students reflect their positiveness towards the native speakers in statements such as:

V124	English speakers are efficient	0.60
V120	I like English speakers	0.59
V125	English speakers are well mannered	0.59
V132	English speakers are educated	0.58

Orientations toward English is reflected in statements like:

The purpose of my studying English:

V147	Other people will respect me more if I have knowledge of English	0.67
V145	Makes me a more educated person	0.64
V153	Think and behave like English speaking people	0.58
V143	To get a good job	0.53

Dimension 4: Name: Educational preferences in the English class: class activities, classroom environment, instructional material, teacher role and methods of teaching

The fourth factor consists of 37 statements above 0.25. Looking through the various statements under this factor, it appears that these group of statements seem to deal with the educational matters that take place in the English class. These educational matters involve class activities, classroom environment, instructional material, teacher role and methods of teaching.

Class activities may be reflected in statements like:

V27	The activities used encourage communication	0.49
V29	Play games	0.43
V28	Using debates	0.41
V30	Tell stories	0.38

The items that reveal classroom environment are:

V45	The class is well air conditioned	0.46
V46	The class is well furnished	0.40
V43	The classroom contains a library of English books, magazines and stories	0.34

The instructional materials are seen in these items:

V54	The instructional material should suit students' needs	0.39
V55	The course book should be suitable to the students' level of ability	0.35
V49	Using the language laboratory	0.34

The role of the teacher is represented in statements like:

V65	The teacher is efficient	0.51
V63	The teacher explains the lesson creatively	0.45
V60	The teacher gives every student the chance to talk in English in class	0.45

The method of teaching is seen in the following statements:

V72	The emphasis is on communication more than any thing else	0.29
V71	The emphasis is on all aspects of English	0.28

Dimension 5: Name: Negative attitudes to English and native speakers of English, and anxiety in the English class

Dimension 5 had 27 items with loadings above 0.20. Inspection of the 27 items appears to show that this dimension concerns subjects' attitudes to native speakers. Such attitudes can be seen in the following items which had the highest loadings amongst the other items.

V135 English speakers are corrupt	0.69
V139 English speakers are not kind	0.62
V129 English speakers have no morality	0.58
V123 English speakers are utilitarian	0.57
V131 English speakers are unclean	0.56

Also, there are three items in this dimension which concern students' attitudes to English. These items suggest that students have negative attitudes toward English in terms of westernisation and harm to Islam. Such attitudes are represented through items like:

V185 Learning English will westernise Arabs	0.38
V192 Learning English means gaining western habits that are not required by Arabs	0.35
V188 Learning English will harm the Islamic religion	0.32
V182 The English language in Kuwait will harm the Arabic language	0.30

Appendix 16

List of Factors

The questionnaire consists of 13 sections: A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L and M. Each section contains a scale of a number of items. The investigator carried out a latent variable analysis on the items in each section of the questionnaire (except section A). The use of latent variable analysis resulted in the following factors.

List of Factors

Factor 1 (B1): Name: **Active Literacy in the Language Class**

Example: V34 Write newspapers articles (section B)

Factor 2 (B2): Name: **Active Oracy**

Example: V27 The activities used encourage communication (section B)

Factor 3 (B3): Name: **Structure of Language Class**

Example: V22 Pair work (section B)

Factor 4 (C1): Name: **Attitude to Instructional Material**

Example: V49 Using the language laboratory (section C)

Factor 5 (DEFG1): Name: **Students' Want and Desire to Learn English**

Example: V80 Compared to my other courses, (section D,E,F,G)
I like English
1- the most
2- the same as all the others
3- least of all

Factor 6 (DEFG2): Name: **Effort Students Spend in Learning English**

Example: V93 In terms of preparing for the English class (sections D,E,F,G)
1- I always prepare
2- I some times prepare
3- I never prepare

Factor 7 (DEFG3): Name: **Preferred Teacher Role**

Example: V65 The teacher is efficient (sections D,E,F,G)

Factor 8 (DEFG4): Name: **Language Distribution and Preference**

Example: V74 The emphasis is on listening and speaking in English only (sections D,E,F,G)

Factor 9 (HI1): Name: **General Attitudes to English**

Example: V104 It is of no benefit for me to learn English (sections H & I)

Factor 10 (HI2): Name: **Attitudes Toward English in terms of its Educational Prestige**

Example: V115 I find speaking English is prestigious (sections H & I)

Factor 11 (HI3): Name: **Affective Attitudes to English**

Example: V112 I find the English language easy (sections H & I)

Factor 12 (J1): Name: **Negative Attitudes Toward Native Speakers of English**

Example: V135 English speakers are corrupt (section J)

Factor 13 (J2): Name: **Positive Attitudes Toward Native Speakers of English**

Example: V125 English speakers are well mannered (section J)

Factor 14 (K1): Name: **The Purpose of Studying English**

Example: V145 Makes me a more educated person (section K)

Factor 15 (L1): Name: **Anxiety in the English Class**

Example: V158 I get nervous and confused when I am speaking English (section L)

Factor 16 (M1): Name: **Attitudes Toward English for Status and Prestige**

Example: V180 Talking in English is prestigious in Kuwait (section M)

Factor 17 (M2): Name: **Attitudes to Westernisation and Harm to Islam**

Example: V188 Learning English will harm the Islamic religion (section M)

Factor 18 (M3): Name: **Negative Instrumental Attitudes to English in Kuwait**

Example: V177 There is no need to learn English in Kuwait (section M)

Note: V22, V27, V34 etc. refers to the coding of variables used in the statistical analysis - see coding book in Appendix 5.

Appendix 17

Table of differences between Kuwaities and non-Kuwaities on the latent variables

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Explanation
B1	0.56	(1)Kuwaities=0.00 (2)Non-Kuwaities=-.11	N.S
B2	0.10	(1)=0.01 (2)=-.30	N.S
B3	0.48	(1)=0.00 (2)=-.12	N.S
C1	0.05	(1)=0.02 (2)=-.32	(2) prefer more instructional material in class
DEFG 1	0.19	(1)=0.01 (2)=-.24	N.S
DEFG 2	0.18	(1)=-.01 (2)=0.23	N.S
DEFG 3	0.11	(1)=0.01 (2)=-.27	N.S
DEFG 4	0.32	(1)=0.01 (2)=-.16	N.S
HI1	0.06	(1)=0.02 (2)=-.34	Marginal confidence: (2) have more positive attitudes toward English
HI2	0.05	(1)=-.02 (2)=0.35	(1) have more positive attitudes toward English in terms of its educational prestige
HI3	0.82	(1)=-.00 (2)=0.03	N.S
J1	0.74	(1)=0.00 (2)=-.06	N.S
J2	0.52	(1)=-.00 (2)=0.12	N.S
K1	0.43	(1)=-.00 (2)=0.14	N.S

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Explanation
L1	0.40	(1)Kuwaities=-.01 (2)Non-Kuwaities=0.16	N.S
M1	0.29	(1)=-.01 (2)=0.19	N.S
M2	0.82	(1)=-.00 (2)=0.03	N.S
M3	0.16	(1)=-.01 (2)=0.23	N.S

The maximum number of Kuwaiti students is: 372
The maximum number of non-Kuwaiti students is: 24

Appendix 18

Table of differences between males and females on the latent variable

Factor	Confidence	Mean	Explanation
B1	0.41	(1)Female=0.01 (2)Male=-.09	N.S
B2	0.19	(1)=0.02 (2)=-.13	N.S
B3	0.26	(1)=-.01 (2)=0.11	N.S
C1	0.66	(1)=-.01 (2)=0.03	N.S
DEFG 1	0.30	(1)=0.01 (2)=-.11	N.S
DEFG 2	0.0008	(1)=-.06 (2)=0.32	(1) expend effort more than (2) to learn English
DEFG 3	0.22	(1)=0.01 (2)=-.12	N.S
DEFG 4	0.66	(1)=-.00 (2)=0.04	N.S
HI1	0.75	(1)=-.00 (2)=-.02	N.S
HI2	0.002	(1)=-.06 (2)=0.33	(1) have more positive attitudes toward English in terms of its educational prestige
HI3	0.82	(1)=-.00 (2)=0.02	N.S
J1	0.81	(1)=0.00 (2)=-.02	N.S
J2	0.007	(1)=-.05 (2)=0.30	(1) have more positive attitudes toward native speakers of English
K1	0.53	(1)=-.01 (2)=0.06	N.S
L1	0.06	(1)=-.03 (2)=0.21	Marginal confidence: (1) feel more of anxiety in English class

Factor Confidence Mean			Explanation
M1	0.12	(1)Female=-.03 (2)Male=0.16	N.S
M2	0.75	(1)=0.00 (2)=-.03	N.S
M3	0.005	(1)=0.05 (2)=-.26	(1) have more positive instrumental attitude to English in Kuwait

The maximum number of female students is: 333
The maximum number of male students is: 64

Appendix 19

CALL Questionnaire (in English)

Please tick the box that best fits your answer.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I feel anxious when I work on computer programs	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
2. I like the privacy provided by the computer	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
3. I don't like working with microcomputers	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
4. I prefer the computer to correct me rather than the teacher.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
5. I feel pleased when the teacher asks us to work on computer programs	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
6. I feel frustrated when I work on open-ended computer tasks.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
7. I believe that playing computer games is a waste of time	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
8. Computer programs make learning English fun.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. I feel anxious when the computer corrects my mistakes.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. After I'd used computer programs, I felt that I liked the English language course more.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. When I see difficult words on the screen, I use the dictionary or ask the teacher immediately.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. When I work on computer programs, I suffer from headaches.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
13. When the same exercise which is in the course book is shown on the screen, I work harder to answer it.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
14. I would rather spend my time with the teacher rather than with the computer.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
15. When I work on computers, I wish the time would not end.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
16. When I have a problem understanding something on the screen, I wish I could stop using the computer programs.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
17. Because of using the computer programs, I wish I can drop the English course.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
18. When the teacher asks us to work on a computer programme for homework, I put effort into it.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
19. Compared to other language courses I have taken before, this one I'm taking now is the best because it uses computer programs.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
20. I wish that computer programs be used in the future in language classes.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix 20

CALL Questionnaire (in Arabic)

يهدف هذا الاستبيان التعرف على رأيك تجاه استخدام الحاسوب في فصل

اللغة الانجليزية

الرجاء وضع علامة (✓) أمام الاختيار الذي يعكس اهتمامك

٥	٤	٣	٢	١	
لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	لا ادري	اوافق	اوافق بشدة	
					١ - أحب بالقلق عندما أعمل على برامج الكمبيوتر .
					٢ - أحب العزلة (السرية) التي أجدها حين أعمل على جهاز الكمبيوتر .
					٣ - لا أحب العمل مع أجهزة الكمبيوتر .
					٤ - بالنسبة لتمحيص أخطائي فأنا أفضل أن يقوم الكمبيوتر بذلك لا المدرس
					٥ - أحب بالعادة عندما يطلب المدرس منا أن نعمل على برامج الكمبيوتر .
					٦ - أحب بالريكة والقلق عندما أعمل على برامج غير محددة ومنتوحة (Open-ended) .
					٧ - أرى أن computer games مضيعة للوقت .
					٨ - برامج الكمبيوتر تجعل تعلم اللغة الانجليزية ممتع .
					٩ - أحب بالقلق عندما يصحح الكمبيوتر أخطائي .
					١٠ - بعد استعمالي لبرامج الكمبيوتر أحس بأنني أحببت مقرر اللغة الانجليزية أكثر .
					١١ - عندما أرى كلمات انجليزية معبة على الشاشة أستعمل القاموس أو أسأل المدرس حالاً .
					١٢ - عندما أعمل على برامج الكمبيوتر، أعاني من مداع .

لا اوافق بشدة	لا اوافق	لا ادري	اوافق	اوافق بشدة	
					١٢- عندما يُعرض التمرين الموجود في الكتاب على شاشة الكمبيوتر ، أعمل بأجتهاد أكثر لحله .
					١٤- أفضل أن أفضى وقتي مع المدرس لامع الكمبيوتر .
					١٥- عندما أعمل على الكمبيوتر أتمنى أن لا يمضي الوقت .
					١٦- عندما تواجهني مشكلة عدم فهم أمر (أو شيء ما) على شاشة الكمبيوتر أتمنى أن أتوقف عن استعمال برامج الكمبيوتر .
					١٧- بودى أن أنحب من مقرر اللغسة الانجليزية وذلك بسبب استعمال برامج الكمبيوتر .
					١٨- عندما يطلب المدرس منا العمل على برامج الكمبيوتر كواجب منزلي ، فأنتى أعمل بأجتهاد .
					١٩- حين مقارنته هذا المقرر بمقررات اللغة الانجليزية الاخرى فإن هذا المقرر هو الأفضل بسبب استعمال برامج الكمبيوتر .
					٢٠- أتمنى أن يتم استعمال برامج الكمبيوتر في مقررات اللغسة الانجليزية في المستقبل .

Appendix 21

My fast food stall

Last year an exhibition of perfumes occurred on the exhibition ground in Meshrif. Ahmad was a stall holder who ran a fast food stall at that exhibition. About his experience he said: "first, I had to make decisions about the quantities of ingredients to be bought, and the prices to be charged. Basically, my stall sold hot-dogs, burgers, cola and coffee. My objective was to make as large a profit as possible, starting from an initial capital of 50 Dinars. The exhibition lasted for a week, therefore, I ran this fast food stall only for six days.

I had to take into consideration a number of changing conditions. Last year, we had a wet, rainy winter. However, the weather might vary from day to day. as a result, the forecast for the day influenced decisions about which product to sell. If the day was likely to be hot and sunny, I stocked up on cola rather than coffee. If the day was likely to be rainy, I stocked up on umbrellas rather than sunglasses. There were other conditions such as the probable number of visitors to the exhibition which also varied from day to day. I had to decide on how much stock to hold because some of the ingredients, such as the frankfurters or the hot-dogs, were perishable and the investment would be lost if there was surplus stock at the end of the day's trading.

The number of visitors to the exhibition might be affected by news flashes. For example, on the first day, the managers of the exhibition announced that any one who bought perfumes would be given free gifts. This announcement had the effect of increasing the numbers of visitors to the exhibition. On the fifth day, the managers set an entrance fee which reduced attendance.

Because of the wise strategies I followed, I had a successful fast food stall which produced much profit".

Appendix 22

The Simulation format: Fast Food

In FAST FOOD students have to run fast food stall at an exhibition. This involves making decisions about the quantities of ingredients to be bought, the product mix to be offered and the prices to be charged. Basically, the stall sells hot-dogs, hamburgers, cola and coffee. The object of the exercise is to make as large a profit as possible, starting from an initial capital of £50. The simulation models six days of trading activity; in other words, it is assumed that the exhibition lasts a week.

A number of environmental factors have to be taken into consideration. The weather may vary from day to day. Students can request a daily weather report at the beginning of each day's trading. Clearly, the forecast for the day could influence decisions about which product to favour. If the day is likely to be hot and sunny, then it is probably wise to stock up on cola rather than coffee. To add an element of opportunism to the scenario, the stall-holders can attempt to cash in on the weather by selling both sunglasses and umbrellas as a sideline.

A second factor is the probable number of visitors to the exhibition. This again varies from day to day. However, as a guide to determining stock levels, the student can request information on the number of visitors who it is supposed attended the exhibition on the comparable day 'last year'. Fluctuations in these numbers might help the students to decide on how much stock to hold. Some of the ingredients, such as the frankfurter sausages or the hot-dogs, are perishable and the investment is lost if there is surplus stock at the end of the day's trading.

Each day's trading consists of a number of phases. The first phase is the buying phase. Students must purchase ingredients in the correct amounts to achieve the product mix that they have decided upon, within the limits of their available capital. In the second phase prices are set for the different products. The computer performs basic range checking to prevent students from setting unrealistically high prices for their products. The third phase simulates the day's trading. A simulation time digital clock is displayed which runs from 9 am, when it is supposed that the exhibition opens,

to the close at 6 pm. As the stall sells out of its different items, this fact is recorded against the relevant time of day. This information thus represents feedback to guide the students in subsequent days of trading. Some products might not sell out at all, from which it is possible to infer that either the stall was overstocked or the price set was too high. Other products might sell out unreasonably early in the day, from which the opposite can be deduced. Following this, further feedback is given, this time on the net profit both for each item and in total. Any unused stock which is lost through perishing is also listed at this stage. The profit or loss for the day is added to or subtracted from the students' working capital for the next days' trading. This pattern is repeated for the six days of trading. At the end of the week, the total profit or loss is reported.

As a further reflection of variable environmental conditions, news flashes can appear at random on any of the days of trading. These present items of 'stop press' information which may affect the students' decisions. Typical examples are items such as 'Football cup final causes chaos' and 'Organisers cut entrance fee'. The former would presumably have the effect of reducing the number of visitors to the exhibition whilst the latter might increase attendance. Thus the students have to react to a situation which is not necessarily static.

Appendix 23

The program simulates the running of a *fast food stall* at an exhibition.*
The object of the activity is to make as much *profit* as possible!!

You proceed through six days of trading. For each day there are four stages.

Stage 1

You have to purchase your stock
i.e. the ingredients needed for the
different food products to be sold.

PRESS
TO MOVE TO NEXT STAGE.

Vocabulary: _____

Stage 2

You set the prices for the products
you will be selling.

Note: These two stages take place
within a time limit. If you fail to
meet the time limit the computer
will set the prices for you.

PRESS
TO MOVE TO NEXT STAGE.

Vocabulary: _____

Stage 3

You receive feedback on the sales
for the current day. The stall is
open from 9a.m. to 6p.m.

PRESS
TO MOVE TO NEXT STAGE.

Vocabulary: _____

Stage 4

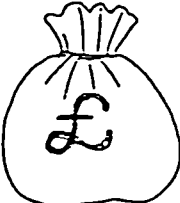
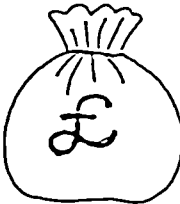
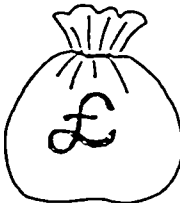
You receive a summary of the day's
trading. You are given the quantities
sold, the gross earnings (cash taken),
the net profit (or loss) and a list of
the unsold ingredients that will
perish.

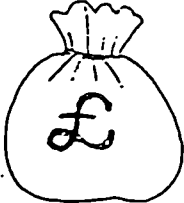
PRESS TO MOVE TO
THE NEXT DAY'S TRADING.

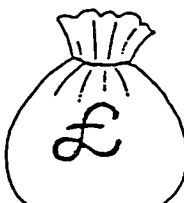
Vocabulary: _____

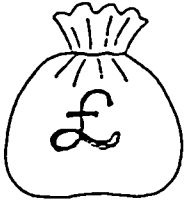
* Note the use of 'run' in 'to run a business'.

FAST FOOD RECORD SHEET

DAY ONE	CREDIT AT BEGINNING OF DAY £.....	Article	Stock in hand	Quantity buying	Selling price	Quantity sold	 £..... DAYS' PROFIT
		Round Rolls					
		Long Rolls					
		Hamburgers					
		Frankfurters (×10)					
		Coffee (×100 cups)					
		Cola					
		Sunglasses					
Umbrellas							
DAY TWO	CREDIT AT BEGINNING OF DAY £.....	Article	Stock in hand	Quantity buying	Selling price	Quantity sold	 £..... DAYS' PROFIT
		Round Rolls					
		Long Rolls					
		Hamburgers					
		Frankfurters (×10)					
		Coffee (×100 cups)					
		Cola					
		Sunglasses					
Umbrellas							
DAY THREE	CREDIT AT BEGINNING OF DAY £.....	Article	Stock in hand	Quantity buying	Selling price	Quantity sold	 £..... DAYS' PROFIT
		Round Rolls					
		Long Rolls					
		Hamburgers					
		Frankfurters (×10)					
		Coffee (×100 cups)					
		Cola					
		Sunglasses					
Umbrellas							

DAY FOUR	CREDIT AT : BEGINNING OF DAY £.....	Article	Stock in hand	Quantity buying	Selling price	Quantity sold	 £..... DAY'S PROFIT
		Round Rolls					
		Long Rolls					
		Hamburgers					
		Frankfurters (×10)					
		Coffee (×100 cups)					
		Cola					
		Sunglasses					
Umbrellas							

DAY FIVE	CREDIT AT BEGINNING OF DAY £.....	Article	Stock in hand	Quantity buying	Selling price	Quantity sold	 £..... DAY'S PROFIT
		Round Rolls					
		Long Rolls					
		Hamburgers					
		Frankfurters (×10)					
		Coffee (×100 cups)					
		Cola					
		Sunglasses					
Umbrellas							

DAY SIX	CREDIT AT BEGINNING OF DAY £.....	Article	Stock in hand	Quantity buying	Selling price	Quantity sold	 £..... DAY'S PROFIT
		Round Rolls					
		Long Rolls					
		Hamburgers					
		Frankfurters (×10)					
		Coffee (×100 cups)					
		Cola					
		Sunglasses					
Umbrellas							

FINAL CREDIT

VALUE OF STOCK

£

£

Bibliography

A Forum staff article (1974), Current trends in language teaching, English Teaching Forum, 12 (1), pp 1 - 7.

Ahmad, K., Corbett, G. Rogers, M. and Sussex, R. (1985), Computers, language learning and language teaching, New York: Cambridge University Press.

Ajzen, I. (1988), Attitudes, Personality and Behaviour, Milton Keynes: Open University.

Al-Bader, F. (1983), English language teaching in Kuwait, , Manama - Bahrain: a paper presented to TEFL seminar (12-15 November 1983).

Al-Busairi, M. (1992), Needs attitudes and motivation in foreign language learning: A case study of Kuwait University students studying ESP, Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, Department of Linguistics and Modern English language, Lancaster University.

Allan, H. and Cambell, R. (1972), Teaching English as a second language: a book of readings, New York: McGraw - Hill, Inc.

Allan, M. S. (1991), Preparing for interactive video, ELT journal, 45 (1), pp 54 - 60.

Allen, W. S. (1972), Progressive living English, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Allen, W. S. and Cooke (1964), Living English for the Arab World, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Allport, G. W. (1935), Attitudes. In Murchison (ed.), Handbook of social psychology, Worcester, Mass: Clark University Press.

Al-Mutawa, N., Hajjaj, A. and Borno, T. (1985), TEFL teachers, materials and pupils' attitudes at post-primary level schools in Kuwait, Kuwait: paper presented at first national symposium on language teaching (4-5 May 1985), Kuwait University Language Centre.

Alpert, R. and Haber, R. N. (1960), Anxiety in academic achievement situations, Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 61 (2), pp 207 - 215.

Altman, H. and James, V. (eds.), (1980), Foreign language teaching: meeting individual needs, Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd.

Anderson, R. W. (1981), New dimensions in second language acquisition research, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publications.

Anthony, E. M. (1963), Approach, method, and technique, English Language Teaching, 28 (1), pp 63 - 67.

Asher, J. (1977), Learning another language through actions: the complete teacher's guide book, Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.

Au, S. (1984), Social psychological variables in second language learning, London: Unpublished Master thesis, Department of Social Science, City University.

Ausubel, D. (1968), Educational psychology: a cognitive view, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Ayyub, S. E. (1985), Development of English language syllabi 1962 - 1985: A documentary study, State of Kuwait: Curricula and Text Books Department, Ministry of Education.

Backman, N. (1976) Two measures of affective factors as they relate to progress in adult second-language learning, Working Papers in Bilingualism, 10, pp 100 - 122.

Bailey, K. (1983), Competitiveness and anxiety in adult second language learning: Looking at and through the diary studies. In H. Sliger and M. Long (eds.), Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers.

Baker, C. (1983), The microcomputer and the curriculum, Journal of Curriculum Studies, 15, pp 207 - 210.

Baker, C. (1985), The microcomputer and the curriculum: a critique, Journal of Curriculum Studies, 17, pp 449 - 451.

Baker, C. (1992), Attitudes and Language, Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Baker, C. (1993), Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism, Clevedon, Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Bannai, H. and Wulf, K. M. (1985), Emphasizing the 'T' in TESOL, U.S.A, University of Southern California: Unpublished Paper.

Bartley, D. E. (1970), The importance of the attitude factor in language drop out: A preliminary investigation of group and sex differences, Foreign Language Annals, 3, pp 383 - 393.

Bell, J. (1987), Doing your research project, Milton Keynes: Open University Press.

Beyon, J. and Mackay, H. (1987), Information technology into education: towards a critical perspective (1), Manchester: Paper presented at the BERA conference

Bialystok, E. and Frohlich, M. (1978), Variables of classroom achievement in second language learning, The Modern Language Journal, 60 (7), pp 327 -336.

Bigge, M. L. (1971), Learning theories for teachers, New York, London: Harper and Row, 2d ed.

Bongaerts, T., Haan, P. Lobbe, S. and Wekker, H. (eds.), (1988), Computer applications in language learning, Dordrecht, Holland, Providence, RI: Foris Publicatios-Dordrecht.

Breen, M. P. and Candlin, C. N. (1980), The essentials of a communicative curriculum in language teaching, Applied Linguistics, 1 (2), pp 89 - 112.

Briggs, L. J. and Hamilton, N. R. (1964), Meaningful learning and retention: practice and feedback variables, Review of Educational Research, 34 (5), pp 545 - 558.

British Council (1986), FastFood: Cambridge ELT Software, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brooks, N. (1964), Language and language learning, theory and practice, New-York: Harcourt, Brace and World, INC. 2d ed.

Brown, H. D. (1987), Principles of language learning and teaching, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice - Hall, Inc.

Brumfit, C., Phillips, M. and Skehan, P. (eds.), (1985), Computers in English language teaching: a view from the classroom, Oxford, New York: Pergamon Press Ltd. and the British Council.

Bruner, J. S. (1962), *On knowing: essays for the left hand*, Cambridge: Belknap Press of Harvard University Press.

Bullock, A. D. (1988), *The purpose of microcomputers in primary education*, Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, School of Education, University of Wales, Bangor.

Burstall, C. (1975a), *French in the primary school: The British experiment*, Canadian Modern Language Review, 31, pp 388 - 402.

Burstall, C. (1975b), *Factors affecting foreign-language learning: a consideration of some recent research findings*, Language Teaching and Linguistics: Abstracts, 8 (1), pp 5 - 25.

Cameron, K. (ed.), (1989), *Computer assisted language learning*, Oxford, England: Intellect Ltd.

Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980), *Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing*, Applied Linguistics, 1, pp 1 - 47.

Cattell, R. B. , (1966), *The scree test for the number of factors*, Multivariate Behavioral Research, 1, pp 245 - 276.

Celce-Murcia, M. (ed.), (1985), *Beyond basics, issues and research in TESOL*, Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.

Celce-Murcia, M. and MacIntosh, L. (eds.), (1979), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers.

Chakravarthy, G. (1993), *The preparation of English language teachers in Malaysia: A video-based approach*, Unpublished Ph.D Thesis, University of Wales, Bangor.

Chandler, D. (1982), *Great expectations*, Educational Computing, 3 (9), pp 24 - 25.

Chandler, D. (1983), *Exploring English with microcomputers*, London: Council for Educational Technology.

Chandler, D. (1986), *Are word processors all they are cracked up to be? Writing in the third person*, The Times Educational Supplement, 24 - 10 - 86, pp 44 - 45.

Chapelle, C. and Jamieson, J. (1986), *Computer assisted language learning as a predictor of success in acquiring English as a second language*, TESOL Quarterly, 20 (1), pp 27 - 46.

Chastain, K. (1969), The audio-lingual habit theory versus the cognitive code-learning theory: some theoretical considerations, IRAL (International Review of Applied Linguistics), 7, pp 97 - 106.

Chastain, K. (1970), Behaviouristic and cognitive approaches to programmed instruction, Language Learning, 20 (2), 223 - 235.

Chastain, K. (1975), Affective and ability factors in second language acquisition, Language Learning, 25 (1), pp 153 - 161.

Chihara, J. and Oller, J. (1978), Attitudes and attained proficiency in EFL: a sociolinguistic study of adult Japanese speakers, Language Learning, 28, pp 55 -69.

Child, D. (1970), The essentials of factor analysis, London: Holt, Rinehart and Winston Ltd.

Chomsky, N. (1965), Aspects of the theory of syntax, The Massachusetts institute of technology, Cambridge: M.I.T. Press.

Chomsky, N. (1966), Linguistic theory. Reprinted in J. P. B. Allen and P. Van Buren (eds.), Chomsky: Selected Readings, London: Oxford University Press, pp 152-9.

Clement et al. (1977a), Attitudes and motivation in second language acquisition: An investigation of Ontario Francophones, Working Papers in Bilingualism, 12, pp 1 - 20.

Clement, R., Gardner, R. C. and Smythe, P. C. (1977b), Inter-ethnic contact: attitudinal consequences, Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 9, pp 205 - 15.

Clement, R., Gardner, R. C. and Smythe, P. C. (1977c), Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A study of Francophones learning English, Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 9 (2), pp 123 - 133.

Clement, R., Gardner, R. C. and Smythe, P. C. (1980), Social and individual factors in second language acquisition, Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 12 (4), pp 293 - 302.

Clement, R. and Kruidenier, B. G. (1983), Orientation in second language acquisition: 1- the effects of ethnicity, milieu, and target language on their emergence, Language Learning, 33, pp 273 - 91.

Cohen, L. and Manion, L. (1980), *Research methods in Education*, London: Croom Helm.

Cook, V. J. (1985), Bridging the gap between computers and language teaching. In C. Brumfit, M. Phillips and P. Skehan (eds.), *Computers in English language teaching*, Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd and The British Council.

Coward, J. (1986), Report on visits made to intermediate and secondary schools in Kuwait , New York: UNESCO expert in the teaching of English as a foreign language.

Curran, C. (1972), *Counseling-learning: A whole person model for Education*, New York: Grune and Stratton.

Dalton, D. W. and Hannafin, M. J. (1987), The effect of word processing on written composition, *Journal of Educational Research*, 80, pp 338 - 42.

d'Anglejan, A. and Renaud, C. (1985), Learner characteristics and second language acquisition: a multivariate study of adult immigrants and some thoughts on methodology, *Language Learning*, 35 (1), pp 1 - 19.

Davies, G. and Higgins, J. (1985), *Using computers in language learning: a teacher's guide*, London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.

Deimer, T. and Panya, O. (1980), What we learned by using the Silent Way, *Forum*, 18 (3), pp 9 - 12.

Demaiziere, F. (1983), Les questions que reconstre l'utilisateur de l'enseignement assiste par ordinateur (EAO), *Les Langues Modernes*, 77, pp 11 -26.

Devillar, R. and Faltis, C. (1991), *Computers and Cultural Diversity*, New York: State University of New York.

Doggett, G. (1986), *Eight approaches to language teaching*, Washington, U.S.A: Eric Clearing House on Language and Linguistics.

Droba, D. D. (1933) The nature of attitude, *Journal of Social Psychology*, 4, pp 444 - 63.

Duckworth, D. and Entwistle, N. (1974), Attitudes to school subjects: a repertory grid technique, *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 44, pp 76 - 82.

Dulay, H., Burt, M. and Krashen, S. (1982), *Language Two*, New York: Oxford University Press.

Dunkel, H. B. (1948), *Second-language Learning*, London: Ginn and Company.
Eastwood, J. (1990), *A basic English grammar exercises with key*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1985), *Understanding second language acquisition*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ely, C. M. (1986), An analysis of discomfort, risk taking, sociability, and motivation in the second language classroom, Language Learning, 36 (1), pp 1 - 45.

Finocchiaro, M. (1976), Motivation in language learning, English Teaching Forum, 14 (3), pp 4 - 8.

Finocchiaro, M. and Brumfit, C. (1983), *The functional-notional approach, from theory to practice*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Folse, K. S. (1985), *Intermediate reading practices: building reading and vocabulary skills*, U. S. A.: The University of Michigan.

Foss, K. A. and Reitzel, A. C. (1988), A relational model for managing second language anxiety, TESOL Quarterly, 22 (3), pp 437 - 454.

Fox, J. (1982), Computer assisted learning and language teachers, British Journal of language teaching, 20 (2), pp 89 - 92.

Fox, J. (1985), Humanistic CALL: Teacher's needs and learners' needs in the design and use of computer-assisted language learning systems. In C. Brumfit, M. Phillips and P. Skehan (eds.), *Computers in English language teaching: a view from the classroom*, Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd and The British Council.

Futcher, D. and Drage, C. (1983), Simulations open new doors to learning, Educational Computing, 4 (5), pp 26 - 29.

Gardner, R. C. (1979), Social psychological aspects of second language acquisition. In H. Giles and St. Clair, R. (eds.), *Language and Social Psychology*, Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Gardner, R. C. (1980), On the validity of affective variables in second language acquisition: conceptual, contextual and statistical considerations, Language Learning, 30 (2), pp 255 - 270.

Gardner, R. C. (1985), *Social psychology and second language learning: the role of attitudes and motivation*, London: Edward Arnold Ltd.

Gardner, R. C. (1988), The socio-educational model of second language learning: assumptions, findings and issues, Language Learning, 38 (1), pp 101 -126.

Gardner, R. C. (1991), Attitudes and motivation in second language learning. In Allan G. Reynolds (ed.), *Bilingualism multiculturalism, and second language learning*, The McGill conference in honour of Wallace E. Lambert, Hillsdale New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associate.

Gardner, R. C., Ginsberg, R. E. and Smythe, P. C. (1976), Attitude and motivation in second language learning: course related changes, Canadian Modern Language Review, 32, pp 243 - 266.

Gardner, R. C., Glikson, L. and Smythe, P. C. (1978), Attitudes and behaviour in second language acquisition: a social psychological interpretation, Canadian Psychological Review, 19 (3), pp 173 - 186.

Gardner, R. C. and Kalin, R. (eds.), (1981), *A Canadian Social Psychology of Ethnic Relations*, London: Methuen Publications.

Gardner, R. C., Kirby, D. M., Smythe, P. C., Dumas, G., Zelman, M. and Bramwell, J. R. (1974), Bicultural excursion programs: Their effects on students' stereotypes, attitudes and motivation, Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 20, 270 - 7.

Gardner, R. C., Lalonde, R. and Moorcroft, R. (1985), The role of attitudes and motivation in second language learning: correlational and experimental considerations, Language Learning, 35, pp 207 - 27.

Gardner, R. C., Lalonde, R. and Moorcroft, R. (1987), Second language attrition: the role of motivation and use, Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 6 (1), pp 29 - 47.

Gardner, R. C. , Lalonde, R. and Pierson, R. (1983), The socio-educational model of second language acquisition: an investigation using LISREL Causal Modeling. Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 2 (1), pp 51 - 65.

Gardner, R. C. and Lambert, W. E. (1959), Motivational variables in second language acquisition, Canadian Journal of Psychology, 13, pp 266 - 272.

Gardner, R. C. and Lambert, W. E. (1972), *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers.

Gardner, R. C. and Smythe, P. C. (1975), Second language acquisition: a social psychological approach, Research Bulletin No. 332, London, Canada: Department of psychology, University of Western Ontario.

Gardner, R. C. and Smythe, P. C. (1981), On the development of the attitude/motivation test battery, Canadian Modern Language Review, 37, pp 510 -525.

Gardner, R. C., Smythe, P. C., Clement, R. and Glikzman, L. (1976), Second language learning: a social psychological perspective, Canadian Modern Language Review, 32, pp 198 - 213.

Gardner, R. C., Taylor, D. M. and Feenstra, H. j. (1970), Ethnic stereotypes: attitudes or beliefs, Canadian Journal of Psychology, 24, 321 - 34.

Garza, T. J. (1984), Beyond Lozanov: practical applications of the intensive method in foreign language teaching. In P. Larson, E. Judd, and D. Messerschmitt (eds.), ON TESOL 84, selected papers from the Eighteenth Annual Convention of Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Houston, Texas, Washington, D. C.: TESOL, pp 203 -213.

Glazer, R. (ed.), (1962), Training research and education, Pittsburgh, Penn: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Glikzman, L. (1976), Second language acquisition: the effects of student attitudes on classroom behaviour, London, Canada: Unpublished M.A. Thesis, University of Western Ontario.

Glikzman, L., Gardner, R. C. and Smythe, P. C. (1982), The role of the integrative motive on students' participation in the French classroom, Canadian Modern Language Review, 38, pp 625 - 647.

Gregg, K. R. (1984), Krashen's monitor and Occam's Razor, Applied Linguistics, 5 (2), pp 79 - 100.

Hainline, D. (ed.), (1987), New developments in computer assisted language learning, New York: Nichols Publishing Company.

Hajjaj, A. H. S. (1983), Approaches to English language teaching and their implications for TEFL in the Arab Gulf States, a paper presented at TEFL seminar, Manama, Bahrein: The Gulf Arab States Educational Research Centre.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1975), Learning how to mean, explorations in the development of language, London: Edward Arnold.

Hardisty, D. and Windeatt, S. (1989), CALL, a resource book for teachers. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Higgins, J. (1983), Can computers teach ? Calico Journal, 1 (2), pp 4 - 6.

Higgins, J. (1986), The computer and grammar teaching. In G. Leech and C. Candlin (eds.), Computers in English language teaching and research, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Higgins, J. and Johns, T. (1984), Computers in language learning. London and Glasgow: Collins ELT.

Hilgard, E. R. and Atkinson, R. C. (1967), Introduction to Psychology, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.

Hilgard, E., Atkinson and Atkinson (1971), Introduction to psychology, New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World.

Hofman, J. E. and Zak, I. (1969), Interpersonal contact and attitude change in a cross-cultural situation, Journal of Social Psychology, 78, pp 165 - 71.

Horwitz, E. (1986), Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale, TESOL Quarterly, 20, pp 559 - 62.

Howatt, A. P. R. (1984), A History of English Language Teaching, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Hwang, J. R. (1970), Current theories of language learning and teaching, English Teaching Forum, 8 (2), pp 26 - 29.

Hyde, A. (1979), The relationship between self-esteem and the oral production of a second language, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, University of Michigan.

Hymes, D. H. (1972), On communicative competence. In J. Pride and J. Holmes (eds.), Sociolinguistics: Selected Readings, Harmondsworth: Penguin.

Ipsiladis, G. S. (1991), Evaluation of CALL programs, Unpublished M.A. Dissertation, University of Wales, Bangor.

Islam, N. English 110 Work book, Kuwait: Kuwait University Press.

Jacobsen, M. and Imhoof, M. (1974), Predicting success in learning a second language, The Modern Language Journal, 58 (7), pp 329 - 336.

Jahoda, M. and Warren, N. (eds.), (1966), *Attitudes: selected readings*, Baltimore: Penguin.

Johnson, M. C. (1971), *Educational uses of the computer: An Introduction*, Chicago: Rand McNally and Company.

Johns, T. F. (1982), *Exploratory CALL: An alternative use of the computer in teaching foreign languages*, Mimeo: Department of English, University of Birmingham.

Jones, C. (1987), *Choice Master: An authoring program for computer assisted language learning*, London: Wida Software Ltd.

Jones, C. (1988a), *Gap Master: An authoring program for computer assisted language learning*, London: Wida Software Ltd.

Jones, C. (1988b), *Match Master: An authoring program for computer assisted language learning*, London: Wida Software Ltd.

Jones, C. (1988c), *Wordstore: An authoring program for computer assisted language learning*, London: Wida Software Ltd.

Jones, C. (1989), *Vocab: An authoring program for computer assisted language learning*, London: Wida Software Ltd.

Jones, R. (ed.), (1984), *Micros in the Primary Classroom*, London: Edward Arnold Ltd.

Jones, W. R. (1949), Attitude towards Welsh as a second language, a preliminary investigation, *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 19 (1), pp 44 - 52.

Jones, W. R. (1950), Attitude towards Welsh as a second language a further investigation, *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 20 (2), pp 117 - 132.

Jones, C. and Fortescue, S. (1987), *Using computers in the language classroom*, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Jones, A. and Scrimshaw, P. (eds.), (1988), *Computers in Education 5-13*, Milton Keynes: The Open University.

Jordan, D. (1941), The attitude of central school pupils to certain school subjects, and the correlation between attitude and attainment, British Journal of Educational Psychology, 11, pp 28 - 44.

Kachru, B. (1976), Models of English for the third world: white man's linguistic burden or language pragmatics?, TESOL Quarterly, 10 (2), pp 221 - 239.

Kemmis, S., Atkin, R. and Wright, E. (1977), How do students, learn? in Working Papers on Computer Assisted Learning, U.E.A. Norwich: U.N.C.A.L. Evaluation studies C.A.R.E. Occasional Publications No 5.

Kenning, M. J. and Kenning, M. M. (1983), An introduction to computer assisted language teaching, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Kenning, M. and Kenning, M. (1981), Computer Assisted language teaching made easy, British Journal of Language Teaching, 19, pp 119 - 123.

Kharma, N. (1967), The teaching of English in Kuwait, English Language Teaching Journal, 21, pp 253 - 260.

Kharma, N. (1977a), Motivation and the Young Foreign-Language Learner, English Language Teaching Journal, 31 (2), pp 103 - 111.

Kharma, N. (1977b), The F.L. learner in the secondary schools of Kuwait, English Language Teaching Journal, 32 (1), pp 78 - 81.

Kirby, D. M. and Gardner, R. C. (1973), Ethnic stereotypes: determinations in children and their parents, Canadian Journal of Psychology, 27, pp 127 - 43.

Klausmeier, H. J. (1985), Educational Psychology, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Kleinmann, H. (1977), Avoidance behavior in adult second language acquisition, Language Learning, 27 (1), pp 93 - 107.

Klier, B. B. (1987), A microcomputer game in French culture and civilization. In D. Hainline (ed.), New developments in computer assisted language learning, London: Croom Helm.

Krashen, S. D. (1976), Formal and informal linguistic environment in language acquisition and language learning, TESOL Quarterly, 10 (2), pp 157 - 167.

Krashen, S. (1985), The Input Hypothesis, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Krashen, S. and Terrel, T. (1983), *The Natural Approach*, Oxford, New York, San- Francisco: Pergamon Press; Alemany Press 1st ed.

Kuwait University General Undergraduate Catalogue. (1991-1993), Kuwait: Kuwait University.

Kuwait University Language Centre. (1989-1990), *Teacher's Guide*, Kuwait: Kuwait University.

Lado, R. (1964), *Language teaching a scientific approach*, New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Lalonde, R. and Gardner, R. C. (1984), Investigating a causal model of second language acquisition: where does personality fit?, Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 15, pp 224 - 37.

Lambert, W. E. (1977), Culture and Language as factors in learning and education. In Eckman (ed.), *Current themes in linguistics bilingualism, Experimental linguistics, and language typologies*, Washington, London: Hemisphere P.C.

Lambert, W. E. and Klineberg, O. (1967), *Children's view of foreign people*, New York: Appleton - Century - Crofts.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1987), From unity to diversity: twenty - five years of language - teaching methodology, English Teaching Forum, 25 (4), pp 2 - 9.

Larsen-Freeman, D. and Long, M. H. (1991), *An introduction to second language acquisition research*, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Last, R. (1979), On - line computer assisted modern language learning, Modern Languages, 60 (4), pp 220 - 227.

Last, R. (1979), The design and implementation of a computer assisted learning package for modern language teaching: a research progress report, British Journal of Educational Technology, 10 (3), pp 194 - 197.

Last, R.(1984), A new lease of life for the language laboratory, Language Monthly, 7, pp 10 - 11.

Last, R. (1984), *Language teaching and the microcomputer*, Oxford: Blackwell.

Leech, G. and Candlin, C. N. (eds.), (1986), *Computers in English language teaching and research*, London and New York: Longman Group Ltd.

Lewis, R. (1986), Computers and language teaching. In G. Leech and C. Candlin (eds), Computers in English language teaching and research, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Littlewood, W. T. (1974), Programmed instruction and language teaching, Modern Languages, 55, pp 12 - 16.

Littlewood, W. T. (1981), Communicative language teaching: an introduction, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Littlewood, W. T. (1984), Foreign and second language learning: language-acquisition research and its implications for the classroom, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lozanov, G. (1978), Suggestology and outlines of Suggestopedy. New York: Gordon and Breach.

Luehrmann, A. (1980), Should the computer teach the student, or vice - versa? In R. Taylor (ed.), The computer in the school: tutor, tool, tutee, Columbia, New York: Teachers College Press.

Lukmani, Y. (1972), Motivation to learn and language proficiency, Language Learning, 22, pp 261 - 273.

MacDonald, D. (1977), The educational evaluation of NDPCAL, British Journal of Educational Technology, 8 (3), pp 176 - 189.

MacIntyre, P. D. and Gardner, R. C. (1989), Anxiety and second language learning: toward a theoretical clarification, Language Learning, 39 (2), pp 251 - 275.

Mackey, W. F. (1965), Language teaching analysis, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Macnamara, J. (1973), Nurseries, streets and classrooms: some comparisons and deductions, The Modern Language Journal, 57 (5 - 6), pp 250 - 254.

Madsen, H. S. (1979), Innovative methodologies applicable to TESL. In M. Celce-Murcia and L. MacIntosh (eds.), Teaching English as a second or foreign language, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers.

Maley, A. (1984), On chalk and cheese, babies and bath water and squared circles: can traditional and communicative approaches be reconciled? In P. Larson, E. Judd and D. Messerschmitt (eds.), On TESOL 84, selected papers from the Eighteenth Annual Convention of Teachers of English To Speakers of Other languages, Houston, Texas, Washington, D.C.: TESOL, pp 159 - 169.

Mallinson, V. (1953), Teaching a modern language, London: William Heinemann Ltd.

Malone, T. W. (1980), What makes things fun to learn? A study of intrinsically motivating computer games, XEROX Palo Alto Research Centre, Palo Alto: Dissertation submitted to the Department of Psychology, Stanford University.

Malone, T. W. (1981), Toward a theory of intrinsically motivating instruction, Cognitive Science, 4, pp 333 - 369.

Maslow, A. (1970), Motivation and Personality, New York: Harper and Row 2nd ed.

Maxted, D. (1987), Word processing and special needs, Educational Computing, 8 (4), 25 - 26.

McEwen, N. (1977), Computer assisted instruction in second language learning: An Alberta Project, Canadian Modern Language Review, 3, pp 333 - 343.

McGeoch, J. and Irion, A. (1952), The psychology of human learning, New York: Longmans, Green and Co.

McInnis, C. E. (1976), Three studies of experimental French programs, Canadian Modern Language Review, 33, 151 - 56

McLaughlin, B. (1978), The monitor model: some methodological considerations, Language Learning, 28 (2), pp 309 - 32.

McLaughlin, B. (1987), Theories of second language learning, London: Edward Arnold.

Ministry of Education (1984), English language teaching objectives in the State of Kuwait, Kuwait: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education (1985), Scheme of study and syllabuses for general education, Kuwait: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education (1989), English language teaching objectives, syllabus, and guidelines for the secondary stage, Kuwait: Ministry of Education.

Ministry of Education (1990), English language teaching objectives, syllabus, and guidelines for the intermediate stage, Kuwait: Ministry of Education.

Mowrer, O. H. (1950), Learning theory and personality dynamics: selected papers, New York: The Ronald Press Company.

Mueller, T. H. (1971), Student attitudes in the basic French Courses at the University of Kentucky, The Modern Language Journal, 55 (5), pp 290 - 298.

Mueller, T. H. (1968), Programmed language instruction help for the linguistically under privileged, Modern Language Journal, 52, pp 79 - 84.

Mullan, A. (1981), Infant words and a sense of adventure, Educational Computing, 2 (11), pp 49 - 51.

Naiman, N., Frohlich, M., Stern, H. H. and Todesco, A. (1978), The good language learner: a report, Toronto: The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Neidt, C. and Hedlund, D. E. (1967), The relationship between changes in attitudes toward a course and final achievement, The Journal of Educational Research, 61 (2), pp 56 - 58.

New Encyclopaedia Britannica (1988), Chicago: Encyclopaedia Britannica, Inc.

Newton, A. C. (1979), Current trends in language teaching. In M. Celce-Murcia and L. MacIntosh (eds.), Teaching English as a second or foreign language, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers.

Oller, J. W., Baca, L. and Vigil, F. (1977), Attitudes and attained proficiency in ESL: a sociolinguistic study of Mexican Americans in the south west, TESOL Quarterly, 11 (2), pp 173 - 183.

Oller, J. W., Hudson, A., and Liu, P. (1977), Attitudes and attained proficiency in ESL: a sociolinguistic study of native speakers of Chinese in the United States, Language Learning, 27 (1), pp 1 - 22.

Oller, J. W. and Perkins, K. (1978), Intelligence and language proficiency as sources of variance in self-reported affective variables, Language Learning, 28, pp 85 - 97.

Oller, J. W. and Richard-Amato, P. A. (eds.), (1983), *Methods that work*, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Olshtain, E. (1985), *Language policy and the classroom teacher*. In M. Celce-Murcia (ed.), *Beyond basics: issues and research in TESOL*, Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.

O'Neil, T. and Snow, P. (1980), *Crescent English course (CEC)*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ornstien, J. (1968), *Programmed instruction and educational technology in the language field: boon or failure?*, Modern Language Journal, 52, pp 401 - 10.

Othman, A. M. (ed.), (1983), *Senen Altirmizi*, Beirout: Dar Alfikr

Ovando, C. J. and Collier, V. P. (1985), *Bilingual and ESL classrooms, teaching in multicultural contexts*, New York: McGraw-Hill Inc.

Pamela and Maddison, A. (1987), *The advantages of using microcomputers in language teaching*. In D. Hainline (ed.), *New developments in computer assisted language learning*. London: Croom Helm.

Papert, S. (1980), *Mindstorms, children, computers, and powerful ideas*, Brighton: Harvester Press.

Pearson, S. (1986), *Primary education: the role of the microcomputer*, Cardiff: MEU CYMRU.

Phillips, M. (1985), *Logical possibilities and classroom scenarios for the development of CALL*. In C. Brumfit, M. Phillips and P. Skehan (eds.), *Computers in English language teaching*, Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Phillips, M. (1986), *CALL in its educational context*. In G. Leech and C. Candlin (eds.), *Computers in English language teaching and research*, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Piepho, H. E. (1981), *Establishing objectives in the teaching of English*. In C. Candlin (ed.), *The communicative teaching of English principles and an exercise typology*, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Piper, A. (1986), *Conversation and the computer: A study of the conversational spin-off generated among learners of English as a foreign language working in groups*, System, 14 (2), pp 187 - 198.

- Pride, J. B. and Holmes, J. (eds.), (1972), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings*, Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Prince, M. M. and Casey, J. P. (1972), Programmed instruction helps teach Spanish grammar, Modern Language Journal, 56, pp 491 - 2.
- Prodromou, L. (1984), Communicative methodology: a basic approach, Modern English Teacher, 12 (1), pp 32 - 35.
- Richards, J. C. (1985), *The context of Language Teaching*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J., Platt, J. and Weber, H. (1985), *Longman dictionary of applied linguistics*, London: Longman Group Ltd.
- Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), *Approaches and methods in language teaching: A description and analysis*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ridgway, J. (1986), Research needs for educational uses of information technology, ESRC occasional paper, ITE / 9 / 86, London: ESRC 1st ed.
- Rivers, W. (1964), *The psychologist and the foreign-language teacher*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
- Rivers, W. M. (1980), Foreign language acquisition: where the real problems lie, Applied Linguistics, 1 (1), pp 48 - 59.
- Roberts, G. W. (1981), The use of microcomputer for the teaching of modern languages, British Journal of Language Teaching, 19, pp 125 - 129.
- Robinson, B. (1988), Data from words, Educational Computing, 9 (3), 25 - 6.
- Rogers, C. (1951), *Client-centered therapy*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Roulet, E. (1975), *Linguistic theory, linguistic description and language teaching*, London: Longman Group Ltd.
- Rushby, N. (1979), *An introduction to educational computing*, London: Croom Helm.
- Rushby, N. (1984), Styles of computer based learning. In C. Terry (ed.), *Using microcomputers in schools*, London: Croom Helm.

Saracho, O. (1982), The effects of a computer assisted instruction program in basic skills achievement and attitudes towards instruction, American Educational Research Journal, 19 (2), pp 201 - 219.

Saracho, O. (1987), Teaching second-language literacy with computers. In D. Hainline (ed.), *New developments in computer assisted language learning*, London: Croom Helm.

Saunders, P. (1987), The dark castle - An adventure in French. In D. Hainline (ed.), *New developments in computer assisted language learning*, London: Croom Helm.

Sawford, J. (1989), *Promoting language development through IT*, Coventry: Mesu.

Scherer, G. A. C. and Wertheimer, M. (1964), *A psycholinguistic experiment in foreign language teaching*, New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc.

Scovel, T. (1978), The effect of affect on foreign language learning: a review of the anxiety research, Language Learning, 28, pp 129 - 142.

Sedgley, G. (1982), Computers and modern languages, British Journal of Language Teaching, 20, pp 107 - 108.

Self, J. (1985), *Microcomputers in education: a critical evaluation of educational software*, Brighton, Sussex: Harvester Press.

Smith, A. (1975), The importance of attitude in foreign-language learning, English Teaching Forum, 13 (1, 2), pp 20 - 25.

Snow, A. and Shapira, G. (1985), The role of social-psychological factors in second language learning. In Celce-Murcia (ed.), *Beyond Basics: Issues and research in TESOL*, Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers.

Spolsky, B. (1966), A psycholinguistic critique of programmed foreign language instruction, IRAL (International Review of Applied Linguistics), 4 (2) pp 119 - 29.

Spolsky, B. (1969), Attitudinal aspects of second language learning, Language Learning, 19, pp 271 - 285.

Spolsky, B. (1989), *Conditions for second language learning*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Steinberg, F. S. and Horwitz, E. K. (1986), The effect of induced anxiety on the denotative and interpretive content of second language speech, TESOL Quarterly, 20 (1), pp 131 - 136.

Stern, H. H. (1983), Fundamental concepts of language teaching, London: Oxford University Press.

Stevick, E. W. (1974), The riddle of the right method, English Teaching Forum, 12 (2), pp 1 - 5.

Swain, M. and Burnaby, B. (1976), Personality characteristics and second language learning in young children: a pilot study, Working Papers in Bilingualism, 11, pp 115 - 128.

Swan, M. (1985a), A critical look at the communicative approach, English Language Teaching Journal, 1, 39 (1), pp 2 - 12.

Swan, M. (1985b), A critical look at the communicative approach, English Language Teaching Journal, 2, 39 (2), pp 76 - 87.

Taylor, G. (1984), Review essay, Language Learning, 34, pp 97 - 105.

Taylor, H. F. (1979), Students' reaction to computer assisted instruction in German, Foreign Language Annals, 12 (4), pp 289 - 291.

Taylor, R. P. (ed.), (1980), The computer in the school: tutor, tool, tutee, Columbia, New York: Teachers College Press.

Terry, C. (ed.), (1984), Using microcomputers in schools, London: Croom Helm.

Titone, R. (1968), Teaching foreign languages an historical sketch, Washington, D. C.: Georgetown University.

Tucker, G. R., Hamayan, E. and Genesee, F. H. (1976), Affective, cognitive and social factors in second-language acquisition, Canadian Modern Language Review, 32, pp 214 - 226.

Underwood, J. and Underwood, G. (1990), Computers and learning, helping children acquire thinking skills, Oxford, Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell.

University of East Anglia and the Bell Educational Trust (1990), Educational technology in modern language learning: A report for the training agency, Norwich: University of East Anglia.

Ventriglia, L. (1982), *Conversations of Miguel and Maria, How children learn English as a second language: Implications for classroom teaching*, Mass.:Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc.

Warren, H. C. (ed.), (1934), *Dictionary of Psychology*, Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Wellington, J. J. (1985), *Children, computers and the curriculum: An introduction to information technology and education*, London: Harper and Row Ltd.

West, M. (1956), *New method English for the Arab World*, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Whiteson, V. (1981), Foreign language testing: a current view, English Language Teaching Journal, 35 (3), pp 345 - 352.

Whitham, C. (1986), Using natural approach teaching techniques, The British Journal of Language Teaching, 24 (2), pp 87 - 91.

Whittington, I. (1984), Problem structuring and solving skills 2: simulations. In R. Jones (ed.), *Micros in the primary classroom*, London: Edward Arnold.

Wilkins, D. A. (1972), *Linguistics in language teaching*, London: Edward Arnold.

Willer, A. (1984), Creative writing with computers: what do elementary students have to say?, Computer, Reading and Language Arts, 2 (1), 39 - 42.

Windeatt, S. (1986), Observing CALL in action. In G. Leech and C. Candlin (eds.), *Computers in English language teaching and research*, London: Longman Group Ltd.

Windeatt, S. (1988), The use of word processors in language teaching. In T. Bongaerts, P. Haan, S. Lobbe and H. Wekker (eds.), *Computer applications in language learning*, Dordrecht - Holland: Foris Publications.

Yalden, J. (1983), *The communicative syllabus evolution, design and implementation*, Oxford: Pergamon Press Ltd.

Yatim, A. M. (1988), *Some factors affecting bilingualism amongst trainee teachers in Malaysia*, Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, University of Wales, Bangor.