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Figure 1. Frequency of communication strategy use across age groups

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Contents

BLENDING ONLINE LANGUAGE LABORATORY INTO INDONESIAN EFL LISTENING CLASSROOM

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Abstract

Integrating Information Communication and Technology (ICT) into English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms is believed to enhance teaching and learning. This study promotes the use of online language laboratory into Indonesian EFL listening classroom. Using a mixed approach of qualitative and quantitative principles, this study examined 23 Indonesian learners of English at the State University of Gorontalo, Indonesia to see whether the use of online language laboratory can significantly increase the students' listening skills. In this experimental study, the participants' condition and achievement in the pre- and post test were compared. The result showed that there is a significant difference between listening score on the modified TOEIC-like test. The findings suggest that , it is beneficial for teachers of English to be aware of the effectiveness, flexibility, richness, and the other advantages of using online language laboratory in EFL especially listening classroom.

Keywords: teaching listening, blending technologies, online language laboratories.

Introduction

Over the past few decades, like any other ASEAN nations, Indonesia has been experiencing multiple educational reforms, including school curriculum and pedagogies in language teaching and learning. These reforms were due to the efforts to improve the output of teaching and learning in order to compete in the global context. Indonesia, through its ministry of Education, has seriously responded the growing needs to foster and strengthen English communication skills of the students (Kemendikbud, 2013).

English has become increasingly important as a foreign language taught in Indonesia. It is a compulsory subject to be taught for three years at Junior High Schools and for three years in Senior High Schools. English also has been taught in Elementary Schools as an elective subject since the implementation of the 1994 Curriculum.

Other efforts have also been made to improve EFL teachers' language proficiency. Every year a number of teachers needs to sit for various English proficiency tests for academic purposes or for general purposes. Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), for example, is required for teachers who intend to pursue further study either in the non-English speaking countries or in English speaking countries.

To some extent these educational efforts have shown a slightly fruitful result. According to Education First Index (2013), the rank of Indonesia for English proficiency Index has significantly improved from 34 out of 54 in 2011 (Very Low Proficiency category) to 25 out of 54 countries in 2013 ("Moderate proficiency" category) (Education First, 2013). However, some studies have indicated that despite pedagogical changes, student results have not significantly improved and there is evidence of the unsatisfactory results and the lack of development of students' English communicative skills (Education First, 2013; Prihatin, 2012).

The setting of this study is one of the new Indonesian provinces of Gorontalo, situated in the Northern part of Sulawesi Island,the central part of Indonesia. Since its establishment in December 2000, with the population of more than 1 million people in 2011 (Badan Pusat Statistik, 2012), this 31st Indonesian province has been progressively developing its region by focusing on developing human resources through education as one of its three main development programs. Gorontalo province has increased its educational budget managed by the Provincial Office for Education to 88 billion IDR in 2013. The demand for English in this province has significantly increased due to the rapid change of economic development, socio-culture, education and information and technologies. The recruitment for the employees of government institutions, private organisation and companies, and universities, for example, require applicants with a minimum standard in English proficiency test such as TOEFL test and local English test. At higher education level, scholarships and fellowships are offered for overseas and domestic higher degrees or short programs with similar requirements. An example is youth exchange programs, such as Australian-Indonesian Youth Exchange program, Canadian-Indonesian Youth Exchange Program and ASEAN-Japanese Youth Exchange Program, have been seen as one of the great motivations for the young people to learn English.

Regardless its progressive development and its potential, challenges still exist. Evidence shows that the majority of students often leave schools and universities with little proficiency in English communication skills. As one of the state universities in Indonesia, the State University of Gorontalo through its Department of English Education has been progressively improving the quality of its teaching and learning, including infusing technology literacy as its graduate basic competence (Vision Statement of Department of English, 2012).

Since technology has revolutionised the society in the 20th and 21st century, Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) has played an important role and become powerful tools for education and development. It has created exceptional learning opportunities for learners in all aspects of their personal and academic life. Recently, a growing number of researchers have published studies that provide substantial evidence that integrating technology into educational

programs provides students with supplementary tools that can enhance learning (Garrett,1991; Hackbarth,1996; Kolb, 2008; Pusack & Otto, 1997). ICT also supports students in exploring and articulating thoughts, knowledge construction and theory building (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1991), and collaboration, negotiation of meanings, reflection on meaningful learning through accessing authentic information and immersing themselves in complex and contextualised learning situations (Meunier,1994; Urtel, 2008; Wilcox & Wojnar, 2000).

With the advancement of ICT, especially with the Internet/WWW technology, one of the utilisation of technology in teaching and learning process is online language laboratory. Online language laboratory is one of the options that teachers can use to promote students' autonomy in learning as well increase students' language proficiency (Sharma & Barrett, 2007). Online language laboratory can allow students to work at their own pace through self-paced learning modules. On-line laboratory also can provide students the option to select learning materials based on their level of knowledge and particularly their interest. Flexibility to join discussions at any hour and visitising classmates and teachers in chat rooms is one of the adventges. Learning through online language laboratory can accommodate different learning styles and facilitate learning through a variety of activities. It develops knowledge of the internet and computers skills that will help learners throughout their lives and careers. Successfully completing online or computer-based courses builds self-knowledge and self-confidence and encourages students to take responsibility for their learning. Learners can test out or skim over materials already mastered and concentrate efforts in mastering areas containing new information and/or skills.

Over the past few years, a blended learning, learning which combine a face-to-face and online mode, has been considered to benefit teaching and learning. According to Cambridge University ESOL (2010), within the boundaries established by their course, learners can study at their own pace at a time and place which suits them. Learners have a measure of assurance and motivation in the knowledge that they will be given the opportunity to try out what they have learned in a teacher-led face-to-face session. A strong benefit of blended learning, particularly with large groups, is that it offers a time-effective and personalised way of learning and practicing material. A large number of students can be challenging in the Indonesian context of teaching and learning. However, with the blended learning concept, materials and teaching delivery mode can be personalised and managed individually.

In addition, blended learning is intended to set the individual student at the centre of the teaching and learning experience. In this concept, learners are empowered and need to be guided in how to take responsibility for their own learning. Teachers can use the face-to-face lessons to address and provide guidance on specific issues and questions that the individual learner may have.

Blended learning denies the misconception of the use of blended learning can replace teachers. Blended learning is designed to offer students flexibility. It makes sense that blended learning should offer the opportunity for learners to access more of their course content independently and to work more autonomously. In higher education context, there are more opportunities for exploration and growth in the use of technology in language and teaching. The increase of student

demands for more learning options may drive the growth of the use of technologies in this field.

Purpose of the Study

This study examined the impact of using on-line laboratory on students' listening skills, by investigating whether or not students' language proficiency can be improved when online language laboratory is blended into the classroom.

Research Method

Participants

The participants were 23 Indonesian EFL students, from the Department of English Language Education, Faculty of Arts and Humanities, State University of Gorontalo, Indonesia. They were in the second year and considered as the intermediate-level users of English as a foreign language. The participants were selected on the basis of purposiveness and availability.

Data Collection

This study used a mixed approach of quantitative and qualitative method. A quantitative method was used to examine whether there is a significant difference before and after the treatment based on the result of pre- and post-test in one-group study design. Pre- and post-tests were used to measure knowledge gained in the 5-meeting online laboratory session in the treatment. Meanwhile, a qualitative method of interview was used to explore the students' experiences during the blended learning which includes their perception, experiences, feelings, best-practices, and the lesson-learned about the use of online language laboratory.

For the pre-test, the participants were given an English proficiency test which contains listening testin order to determine their knowledge level before the treatment. The English proficiency test was a modified TOEIC-like test which is a semi-full version of TOEIC test. This is done due to the limited time and the nature of data needed for the study. TOEIC test scores provide accurate, reliable measurement of English proficiency — they can be compared regardless of where or when the test is administered. For example, last year's scores of a test taker in Japan can be compared with this year's scores of a test taker in Korea. Because test takers of any background can be compared fairly, companies can use the TOEIC tests to make the most informed decisions and build a more diverse workforce (ETS, 2012). The post-test questions were the same as the the pre-test.

The treatment given to the participants comprised 5 meetings using two online laboratories which blended online language laboratory into the listening class . These two websites require no login and password and it is free, so they can be accessed by all students. The first online language laboratory is www.esl-lab.com or

we call it "Randall's ESL Cyber Listening Lab". This online lab is an online, multimedia listening website designed to help ESOL students improve their listening comprehension skills in English. According to the official website of this online language laboratory, it has also been used widely in the US by the hearing impaired with cochlear implants. It is reported that students and teachers from over 150 countries have visited the site since 1998. The Website is supported through contextual advertising related to topics on the site. The second online language laboratory used was www.elllo.org.

In each 50-minute semi-structured session of the treatment, the participants were assigned to do some online listening tasks with different topics every session. Some pre-listening activities had been done as part of the instruction on the website to introduce the topic. The participants listened to the recording and answered questions regarding the recording. The questions on these websites have a variety of forms such as a multiple choice and matching test. Participants could check their answer and check the score they got at the same time. They could repeat this listening exercise as many as they like to get a higher score.

The treatment consisted of two modes: blended learning in teaching and learning, followed by self-study. In the blended learning mode, online language learning was used as the main part of teaching and learning activities in the classroom. Students accessed the online language laboratory as stated on the lesson plan. For example, the students went to the particular link on the http://www.esl-lab.com and did some exercises based on the selected topic. Students then did some listening practices, and answered questions in the website. This is was followed by the self-study mode, whereby the students were given follow-up activities in the form of self-study assignments, completed in their own time.

After the completion of the 5-session treatment, a post-test which contained the same set of questions in the pre-test was given to the participants. A paired t-test was used to measure whether there was a significant difference between the means of the pre-test and post-test to determine whether online laboratory sessions could significantly increase students' listening proficiency.

All the participants were interviewed to study their perception on the following: 1) the extent to which their listening skills had improved; 2) their lessons learned from the use of online language laboratory; 3)the areas of improvement, experiences of new learning circumstances, language aspects, and cultural exposure to the real context of English.

Result and Discussion

The students' proficiency test scores from the pre- and post test are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1.
Descriptive statistics on listening scores for pre- and post-tests

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test	23	65	75	68.22	3.133
Post-test	23	76	90	83.35	4.509
Valid N (listwise)	23				

Table 2.
Paired samples statistics on listening pre and post test scores

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	listPre	68.22	23	3.133	.653
	ListPost	83.35	23	4.509	.940

The results show that there is a significant difference in the scores for pre-test listening (M=68.22, SD=3.13) and post-test listening (M=83.35, SD=4.50) conditions; t(22)= - 22.13, p < 0.005

Students' perceptions of online language laboratory

This study suggests that blending online language laboratory into the listening class improves students' listening skills, not only according to the result from the t-test but also from the interview. The interview shows that students had positive responses on how this online language laboratory had increased their listening proficiency. For example, one student pointed out how the difficulty in defining the main topic of the discussion was overcome:

> It was a bit hard for me to get a main idea of the conversation. I always try and try to practice when I have my own time. I go online and repeat the recording on the website. Now I am good at knowing the idea of the simple talk. I am really happy for that. (Extract 1.2).

Students also found that it helps them to develop their skills in finding the details on the conversation.

> At the first, I have to go back and forward to listening very carefully on what is being said by the people on the recordings, especially when you find questions about the particular information on the recording. Such as what time the speakers would meet each other. The good thing about learning

from the website is that you can always repeat and click if you want it. (Extract 8.2)

The result of the interview shows that most students had positive learning experiences with the online language laboratory. The students reported that the on-line laboratory is absolutely beneficial for their English learning, especially for their listening skills improvement.

It was good to have listening materials or recordings on the websites where we can practice our listening comprehension. (Extract 6.5)

I like the listening exercises of esl-lab website where I can improve my language proficiency, especially listening. (Extract 10.5)

The online language laboratory also enabled students to develop their independent learning style.

The good thing with the online language laboratory is that I can visit and revisit as many as I like, and listen to the recording without waiting for other friends or waiting for your teacher's instruction. (Extract 1.2)

I always have my own time to study and repeat the lessons at home or when I have a cup of coffee at cafe with friends with the free wireless. It is very convenient. (Extract 6.2)

Independent learning style is considered to be the main key of blending online language laboratory into teaching and learning instruction. It gives more flexibility and opportunity for students to explore the rich source of learning on their own pace and time. The use of online language laboratories increased student engagement. One of the principles of blending online language laboratories into classroom instruction is to promote active participation in learning, keep students motivated and engaged.

The students stated that online language Laboratory improves their technological skills which they believe is one of the necessary skills for their academic success at university.

I, myself, like computer technology. Everyday, I try to do something interesting to learn with the technology. Learning with website, I feel I can improve my technological skill. (Extract 7.7).

I was excited with this teaching method, because I learn new things with the technology. I think, I will still need to study the new things related to the technology such as learning how to make a blog, or design my own website. (Extract 8.7)

This study also found that students felt that they obtained a great deal of exposure to the target language in the online language laboratory. Communicating with "real" native speakers of English directly from the online language laboratory,

which may not be available in most conventional face-to-face classroom environments, is considered to be an important benefit and a bonus.

Conclusion

Integrating technologies into language and teaching is found to be an effective effort to enhance teaching and learning. Blending online language laboratory is one of the models to combine a face-to-face and online teaching and learning. This study found that the use of online language laboratory in the English listening classroom can significantly improve students' listening skills after five sessions. The students also had positive experiences on how language laboratory can enhance their listening skills development.

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EXAMINING THE REDUNDANCY EFFECT IN A MULTIMEDIA PRESENTATION ON RETENTION OF FRENCH VOCABULARY

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Abstract

The present study examined the effect of redundancy in the multimedia presentation on retention of French vocabulary. In the experiment, 40 undergraduate students who had been identified as having a low level of knowledge of the French language (determined through a prior-conducted pre-test) were asked to learn a series of French words using either one of two types of multimedia presentation: AN (animation and narration) or ANT (animation, narration and on-screen text). Results of an independent t-test performed on the post-test scores showed that both the AN and ANT groups performed significantly better in the post-test than in the pre-test. Nevertheless, the ANT group showed a higher increase in retention performance, indicating that the additional multimedia elements used in the ANT presentation had significantly improved the retention of French vocabulary. This result was consistent with the information delivery hypothesis but was not in accordance with the redundancy principle. The present finding could provide insights to learners and educators of alternative methods of learning and teaching foreign languages (such as French) which can enhance memory retention.

Keywords: Redundancy effect, multimedia presentation, visual channel, auditory channel, memory retention

Introduction

The use of multimedia presentations in language learning has become the interest of many researchers lately. A number of studies have been conducted to analyse the efficacy of a multimedia presentation as a learning tool that could help enhance the learning of a particular language (Borras & Lafayette, 1994; Kim & Gilman, 2008; Mayer, 2005; Plass & Jones, 2005). Generally, in the traditional way of learning a language, students are presented only words and their associated meanings in a

text-only format (Kim & Gilman, 2008). However, with the development of technology, in particular the visualisation technologies and the powerful computer graphics, instructors have the ability to supplement the verbal modes of instruction with pictorial modes of instruction via an approach referred to as the multimedia presentation approach (Mayer, 2005).

For instance, in a study by Kim and Gilman (2008) which investigated the use of multimedia components such as visual text, spoken text and graphics to increase English vocabulary learning for middle school students in South Korea, it was found that adding graphics to the spoken and visual texts enhanced the learners' English vocabulary learning. It is argued that the graphics allowed the students to visualise the definition in a more meaningful way (Kim & Gillman, 2008), thus making learning more effective.

The use of multimedia presentations has also been implemented more recently in the learning of foreign languages (i.e., Samur 2012). Samur (2012) used two types of multimedia presentation to investigate the learning of Turkish vocabulary among a group of students who had nil to low levels of knowledge about the Turkish language. The first type of multimedia presentation consisted of two elements – animation and narration (AN), whereas the second type consisted of three elements – animation, narration and on-screen text. Samur (2012) found that the students' retention of Turkish vocabulary was better when they were exposed to the ANT presentation rather than to the AN presentation. Consistent with the information delivery hypothesis, it is argued that those in the ANT group may have learned more of the French vocabulary because the words were exposed to them in multiple ways (involving three components of multimedia elements rather than only two multimedia elements, as in the AN presentation). The information delivery hypothesis states that when the same information is presented by more means than fewer means, it will facilitate better learning and retention (Mayer, Heiser & Lonn, 2001). Nevertheless, Samur's (2012) findings were inconsistent with the redundancy principle which predicts that learning would be impaired if the elements in the presentation were redundant (Kalyuga, Chandler & Sweller, 1999; Mayer et al., 2001). Redundancy occurs when the same information is presented in multiple forms or is unnecessarily elaborated (Sweller, 2005). In particular, adding on-screen text that duplicates words that are already spoken in the narration (as in the ANT) should have resulted in poorer learning.

The Ministry of Higher Education encourages Malaysian universities to provide foreign language courses for their students (Zubairi & Sarudin, 2009). The benefit of studying a foreign language allows the students to become more confident in the international culture and should provide additional opportunities such as being able to access foreign technology, constructive engagement with foreign societies, politics, global trading and education. The work of Samur (2012) has inspired researchers to explore further the use of multimedia presentations in enhancing the learning of other foreign languages such as French, Arabic and Mandarin, which students usually take as one of their generic university courses. In learning a foreign language, learning the vocabulary words is crucial and it has been argued that "vocabulary learning is considered to be the basic step toward mastering a foreign language" (Huang & Chen, 2011, p. 62). Thus, the present study

aimed to examine the effect of redundancy in the multimedia presentation on the retention of French vocabulary. Using similar methodology to that used by Samur (2012), the study showed that students achieved a better retention of French vocabulary when they were exposed to the ANT condition, rather than the AN condition, thus allowing for further examination of the efficacy of redundancy in a multimedia presentation for foreign language learning.

Methodology

Participants and design

The participants were 40 undergraduate students (26 female, 14 male) from a local public university. In order to examine whether or not the findings obtained by Samur (2012) in his study examining the effect of redundancy in multimedia presentation on the retention of Turkish vocabulary can be generalised to French vocabulary, it is crucial for the present study to follow the same methodology used by Samur (2012), and that includes the design of the experiment, the development of experimental materials (except the present study used French vocabulary) and the procedures of experiment. In particular, a quasi-experimental research design (see Table 1) involving the following three stages was implemented: (i) pre-test, (ii) treatment (i.e., multimedia presentations), and (iii) post-test.

Table 1.
Research design

Groups	Before Treatment	During Treatment	After Treatment
Control	Pre-test	Animation + narration	Post-test
Treatment	Pre-test	Animation + narration + text	Post-test

Materials and Instruments

Following Samur (2012), for data collection purposes, a paper and pencil type of multiple-choice test was utilised for both AN & ANT groups. The same 10 items based on some basic action verbs in the French language were included in the pre-test and post-test (see Appendix). A paper and pencil test is a preferred type of data collection procedure for this kind of study because it is easy to administer, and the use of multiple-choice is suitable to assess ability to recall a list of simple facts such as basic action verbs used in the present study. Additionally, an open-ended question was added to the post-test, which asked the participants' opinions about the multimedia presentation they received and their thoughts about their learning experiences with the multimedia presentation (see Appendix). The test was developed by taking into account the advice of a French language expert and was pilot-tested by a sample of undergraduate students in order to improve the item format and clarity before they were presented to the participants in the actual experiment. Figure 1 shows selected frames from ANT which includes animation

along with concurrent narration and on-screen text, whereas Figure 2 shows selected frames from AN which include animation and concurrent narration.

Figure 1. Selected frames from the multimedia presentation of the ANT group.
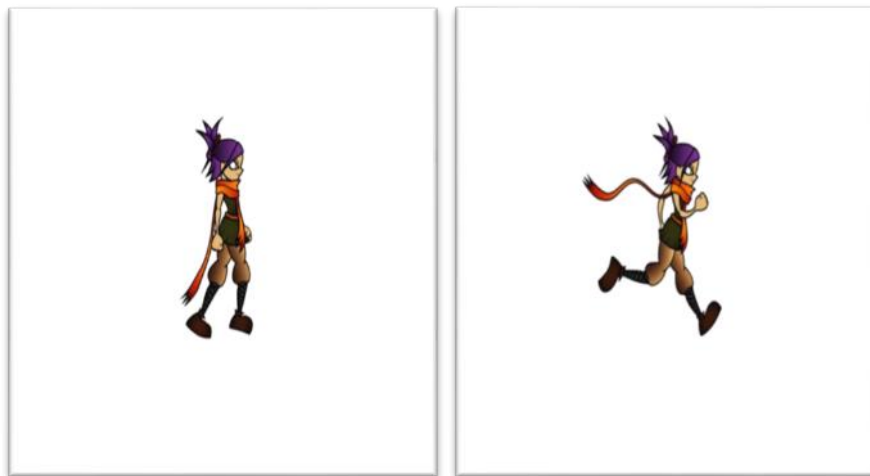
Figure 2. Selected frames from the multimedia presentation of the AN group.

Procedure

A standard procedure of obtaining participants' consent and instructing them in the nature of the experiment was conducted before the pre-test began. During the individually administered pre-tests, each participant was given a set of multiple-choice tests with the intention of selecting only the most qualified students. This was part of the screening process where the participants who scored three or below were selected for the next stage to ensure that participants had a low level of knowledge in French vocabulary. Participants were informed in advance that they

would be notified later by the researcher as to whether or not they were selected to participate in the next stage (multimedia presentation). As it happened, all 40 participants scored three or below, (which was the requirement that has been set) and thus proceeded to the next stage.

Participants were then randomly assigned to either the control group or the treatment group. During treatment, participants were given two and a half minutes of a multimedia presentation in which the control group was assigned to the AN multimedia presentation while the treatment group received the ANT multimedia presentation. Participants were told to learn 10 French action verbs during the multimedia presentation.

At post-test, participants were given the same set of multiple-choice tests as had been administered during the pre-test, probing their knowledge of the 10 action verbs that they had learned during the multimedia presentation. Finally, participants were debriefed about the experiment before they left the room.

Results and Discussion

First, to examine whether or not there is any significant difference in terms of memory retention of French vocabulary between the AN group and the ANT group in pre-test scores, as well as in their post-test scores, independent sample t-tests were performed. The result shows that there is no significant difference in the pre-test score between the AN group and the ANT group, $t(38) = 1.65$, $p = .67$, indicating that the participants' levels of prior knowledge of French vocabulary was almost equal. In particular, all 40 participants obtained scores of 3 and below showing that they have very little to no knowledge of French vocabulary. When interviewed further, those who managed to obtain the correct answers (scoring 1, 2 or 3) reported that their score was mainly due to correct guessing and not actual knowledge of those French action verbs. Interestingly, the post-test scores of the two groups showed that participants in the ANT group performed significantly better than those in the AN group, $t(38)=4.73$, $p = .035$. Table 2 shows the means and standard deviations for the pre-test and post-test in the two multimedia presentation conditions (AN vs. ANT).

Table 2
Means and standard deviations of pre-test and post-test for each condition

	AN		ANT	
	M	SD	M	SD
Pre-test score	2.20	0.76	1.80	0.76
Post-test score	3.80	1.61	6.95	2.50

From Table 2, it can be seen that at post-test, participants who received the ANT presentation had a better retention of the French vocabulary (M=6.95, SD 2.50) than those who received the AN presentation, which is without the on-screen text (M=3.80, SD 1.61). This pattern of statistics is consistent with the results observed by Samur (2012). Thus, further analysis using a paired-samples t-test was conducted in order to examine whether the difference is significant when it is compared with

the pre-test retention test results for each group. In the ANT group, the post-test score of the retention test were significantly higher than the pre-test score, t(19)= -9.07, *p* = .000, and this finding parallels Samur's (2012) results. The present study also found a significant difference between the post-test and the pre-test score on the retention test in the AN group, t(19)=-3.71, *p* = .001, and interestingly, this finding was not observed by Samur (2012). Nevertheless, the pattern of means for both the pre-test and post-test in Samur (2012) is consistent with the present study; that is, performance in the post-test is slightly better than the pre-test.

Although different, both types of multimedia presentation (AN & ANT) seem to show an increased retention of French vocabulary. Nevertheless, the higher post-test score of the retention test in the ANT condition (M=6.95 compared to the AN (M=3.80) indicates that ANT is likely to be a more powerful approach in facilitating the retention of French vocabulary. Participants who received the ANT presentation (Animation plus Narration and Text) outperformed those who received AN (Animation plus Narration). Referring to the group means (see Table 2), the ANT group has shown a remarkable difference in mean from 1.80 (pre-test) to 8 (post-test), indicating an improvement in the participants' retention of French vocabulary. This magnitude of the increase observed in the ANT group is relatively high when compared to the smaller increase (1.6 up to 3.8) in the AN group, considering that this is their first time they had studied the French language.

The present finding is consistent with the information delivery hypothesis which states that when the same information is presented by more ways, it facilitates better learning and retention (Mayer et al., 2001). In the present study, the French vocabulary words are presented to the participants in more ways through ANT and this has likely contributed to the better retention of French vocabulary by this group. In particular, the addition of on-screen text to a multimedia presentation with animation and narration (as in the ANT) may have helped the learning of the new vocabulary of a previously unfamiliar foreign language (i.e., French).The present finding concurs with Samur's (2012) findings involving Turkish vocabulary as well as Kim and Gilman's (2008) study using English vocabulary. Both Samur (2012) and Kim and Gilman (2008) found that instruction based on visual text and graphics along with added spoken text helped enhance students' learning and retention of the newly learned vocabulary. Incorporating text and pictures in vocabulary learning has resulted in a better retention of vocabulary (Paivio, Clark, & Lambert, 1988; Plass & Jones, 2005).

Further analysis conducted on the participants' answers to the open-ended question showed that the majority of the participants who received the ANT thought that the ANT presentation was interesting and that the animation together with the text and narration had made the learning of the new vocabulary words enjoyable. On the other hand, most of the participants in the AN group found it difficult to appreciate the new vocabulary words they were learning – some reported that the words sounded similar, while some reported that the writing and pronunciation of French words is different. Participants' responses seem to be in accordance with points highlighted by Grace (1998), that is, the retention of the participants who cannot see the meaning of the words in their native language (like those in the AN group in the present study) is nearly four times lower than those who can see the

meaning of the words in their native language (like those in the ANT group in the present study). Thus the latter are likely to make correct inferences of the meaning of the words in the future. Further, it is argued that participants who can see the translations can verify the correctness of the meaning of the words and thus ensure the correct meaning of the words is committed to memory.

The present finding however does not comply with the redundancy principle (Kalyuga et al., 1999; Mayer et al., 2001), the limited capacity theory (Baddeley, 1992) and dual channel theory (Clark & Paivio, 1991). The redundancy principle suggests that learning should be impaired if the elements in the presentation are redundant (Kalyuga et al., 1999; Mayer et al., 2001). Having auditory textual explanations duplicated in a visual form significantly inhibits learning due to an increase in cognitive load (Kalyuga et al., 1999). Adding the on-screen text that contained the same words as in the narration impaired the narrated animation of the scientific explanation (Mayer et al., 2001). It is argued that "the on-screen text may have created a cognitive load either by competing with the animation for cognitive resources in the visual channel or by demanding resources in the auditory channel to reconcile the auditory and text-presented versions" (Mayer et al., 2001, p. 192). According to the limited capacity theory, humans have a limited information processing capacity; thus an appropriate distribution of cognitive resources is needed in order for one to conduct efficient learning, particularly for novices in any learning domain (Baddeley, 1992; Kalyuga, Chandler, & Sweller, 2004). Further, according to the dual channel theory, cognition involves the activity of two distinct subsystems – the verbal system specialised for dealing directly with language – and a nonverbal (imagery) system, specialised for dealing with non-linguistic objects and events (Clark & Paivio, 1991). In the present experiment, redundancy may exist in the ANT presentation when the on-screen text is added to the presentation which duplicates the narrated word — this could have caused a competition at the verbal channel of information processing resources which are also processing the narrated text. In the AN presentation, the picture animation is processed at the visual channel of the working memory whereas the narrated text is processed separately at the verbal channel; thus, technically there is no competition between elements and therefore redundancy does not exist. Nevertheless, such explanations fail to support the findings of the present study which showed that ANT (as compared relatively to AN) greatly enhanced the retention of the French vocabulary. According to Moreno and Mayer (2002), the negative effect of verbal redundancy may disappear and the verbal redundancy may even foster leaning if it is made sequential. Such explanation further supports the present findings — in the present experiment, the on-screen text appears first (together with the animation of the verb), and the narrated text follows immediately after. It seems that the redundant verbal materials do not have a negative effect on learning via the ANT multimedia presentation (where on-screen and narrated text existed), and in fact, the superior learning and retention of the French vocabulary is achieved even with the addition of the on-screen text (as compared to the performance in the AN).

Conclusion

In the present study, the effect of redundancy in a multimedia presentation on the retention of French vocabulary was examined using two types of multimedia presentation, AN & ANT. The present findings show that both the AN and ANT multimedia presentations helped in the retention of French vocabulary; however, a remarkable increase in performance was seen in those who received ANT. The finding from the present study shows that the ANT presentation greatly helped students to learn new vocabulary of an unfamiliar language. In particular, the redundancy between the narrated text and on-screen text existing in the ANT condition did not impair learning of the new vocabulary. The findings are supported by the information delivery hypothesis which affirms that presenting the same information using various paths and means facilitates more learning. The present finding gives a new insight to learners and educators of an alternative means of learning and teaching a foreign language (such as French) that can improve and enhance memory retention of the learned vocabulary. The use of the ANT presentation seems to be highly practical not only for students, but educators (i.e., language teacher) as well since by using it, teachers may improve their teaching practices, particularly in foreign language learning. In future research, it would be interesting to examine the effect of redundancy in a multimedia presentation on the retention of foreign vocabulary (such as French) among male and female learners as well as those with different learning styles and preferences. A recent study shows that females learn better with animations whereas males learn better with non-animated pictures (Cowards, Crooks, Flores & Dao, 2012), thus implying the possibility that gender differences may also exist in foreign language learning using different elements of multimedia presentation. The multimedia presentation incorporates multiple representation of content such as text, audio and interacting images. Hence, a question for future research is whether the use of multimedia presentation would be able to cater more effectively to the different learning styles and modal preferences of diverse learners.

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Appendix: List of Items included in the Pre-test and Post Test.

1. What does "to walk" mean in French?
   A. Parler
   B. Marcher
   C. Manger
   D. Peindre
2. What does "to run" mean in French?
   A. Courir
   B. Jouer
   C. Dormir
   D. Ecrire
3. What does "to eat" mean in French?
   A. Marcher
   B. Lire
   C. Jouer
   D. Manger
4. What does "to read" mean in French?
   A. Rire
   B. Ecrire
   C. Lire
   D. Peindre
5. What does "to write" mean in French?
   A. Marcher
   B. Lire
   C. Rire
   D. Ecrire
6. What does "to laugh" mean in French?
   A. Courir
   B. Dormir
   C. Rire
   D. Jouer
7. What does "to play" mean in French?
   A. Manger
   B. Jouer
   C. Parler
   D. Dormir
8. What does "to paint" mean in French?
   A. Peindre
   B. Ecrire
   C. Parler
   D. Lire

9. What does "to talk" mean in French?
   A. Courir
   B. Peindre
   C. Parler
   D. Marcher

10. What does "to sleep" mean in French?
    A. Manger
    B. Rire
    C. Dormir
    D. Courir

The following is an additional item included in the post-test.
How do you feel about the presentation and what do you think about your learning?

TEACHING ARABIC ORAL AND WRITTEN COMMUNICATION AMONG THE YORUBA SPEAKERS IN NIGERIA: A CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

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Abstract

The teaching and learning of Arabic language especially in the non-native environment require a simplified method to make the job a more fruitful enterprise. This paper explores the application of a contrastive analysis of both the target language and the native language in encouraging, motivating and simplifying the teaching and learning of oral Arabic communication skill among the native Yoruba speakers. The work identifies the major areas of difficulties facing the students from this region. This includes phonetics, phonology and agreement relation (otherwise known as concord in grammar). The agreement consists of gender, person, terms and numbers which form a major component of grammatical Arabic sentence. It is observed that understanding these major areas will enhance the performance of the students in achieving the required standard in Arabic oral communication. The paper concludes that Arabic phonetics, phonology and grammar are more elaborate than those of Yoruba. Hence, the instructors need to focus more attention on these difficult areas; especially those areas that do not exist in the native language (Yoruba).

Keywords: Arabic, Yoruba, contrastive, phonology, grammar.

Introduction

Africa had contact with Arabic language prior to the advent of Islam in the continent in the early part of the 7th century. As a consequence, the language had wider circulation among the people of Africa and later became the official language in parts of the Africa such as Egypt, Algeria, Morocco, Libya, and Tunisia. As early as the 9th century, Northern Nigeria for instance, has attracted the attention of the Arab geographers, travelers, and traders. In their curiosity for intellectualism and

particularly for economic purposes, Arab travelers found themselves in these regions writing reports of their experiences. These Arab geographers, travelers and traders in their desire to tap the economic resources of the flourishing Trans-Saharan trade for their countries produced a corpus of literary works in Arabic. These Arabic writings offered information concerning nations, economic data, social life, international trade as well as merchant routes, religious beliefs and customs, and cosmographies. The Arabic sources are of tremendous significance to the early history of Africa particularly as it covered a period roughly between the 8th and 15th century. The Arabic literary heritage on Kanem-Borno travelogues of the itinerant Arab Geographers was later regarded as first hand materials for African historical reconstruction.

The level of Arabic usage reached its apogee in Hausa land in the 19th century during the celebrated Islamic reform of Shaykh Uthman b. Fodio. During the period, the language was widely used and its standard was very high. Consequently, it was adopted by the Sokoto caliphate as its official language and served several purposes in the society before the colonialists gained control of the North in 1903. Among other things, it was the medium of official communication and administration, a tool of dissemination of Islamic belief, a means of historical documentation and articulation of legal rules. Over the ages, Arabic words made systematic inroad into the Hausa language, therefore, many commercial, socio-cultural and religious vocabularies became part and parcel of the Hausa language and have remained so till today.

Similarly, the Arabic language has a relatively long history in Yoruba land, though its history in the area may not be as long as in Kanem-Bornu and Hausa land. It began not only with the history of Islam but also with the trade between the Arabs from North Africa and the Yoruba land long before the arrival of the English colonialists. Needless to say, Islam served as an impetus to the study of Arabic language, not only in Yoruba land but also in the entire West Africa sub-region. It is also important to note that Arabic has witnessed tremendous development in Nigeria. The standard is not only high but Nigerian Arabic writers have also begun writing short stories, dramas and pithy sayings which were hitherto unexplored in their writings.

Yoruba language is one of the major languages in Nigeria which is widely spoken in Lagos, Ogun, Ondo, Oyo, Osun, Ekiti and Kwara states. It is also spoken in Delta, Edo and the western part of Kogi state, though the speakers of Yoruba in these three states are less in number than those in the seven states mentioned. According to the center for word languages/language materials project, University of California, Los Angeles (www.imp.ucla.edu) (accessed on December 6th, 2011), Yoruba is spoken by around 30 million people in Nigeria as a first language. The number rises to 32 million if second language speakers are included. Different researchers like Fafunwa (2008) have shown that Yoruba language is equally spoken in some west African countries like Benin Republic, Togo, Ghana, and Cote d'voire. Other places include Cuba, Brazil, Haiti, and Trinidad and Tobago in southern part of America. The widespread use of the Yoruba language has brought about variations in its spoken form in all these aforementioned areas and this has led to increment in the numbers of dialects of the Language. Despite its numerous dialects the Yoruba

language has a dialect that is accorded more social status than the others. It is referred to as the standard Yoruba (SY). This standard form is the language of education, judiciary, administration and media, which also connects all other dialects of the language.

The Arabic and the Yoruba languages have interacted for centuries since the advent of the Arabic-Islamic civilisation in the south-western region of Nigeria during the 14th century. The Arabic language is the lingua franca of Islam which serves the religious purposes of Muslims all over the world, since the bulk of the fundamental rituals or creed of worship of Islam is rooted in Arabic language. Therefore, many Arabic lexical items covering virtually all strata of life have found their way into the Yoruba language, to the extent that numerous Yoruba native speakers would believe that such linguistic usages are basically of Yoruba origin. Previous researchers in this area of study such as Gbadamosi (1978), Malik (1990, 1999), Abubakre (1983, pp. 13-14), Mogaji (2009a) and Onibon (2011) have discussed this issue extensively.

The nature of Arabic oral communication as a second language

In order to communicate effectively in Arabic, an aspiring learner needs to be well-grounded in the articulation of the Arabic sounds/phonemes and also possess an adequate Arabic vocabulary bank. Importantly, the learner must have a mastery of Arabic syntax. All these are referred to as linguistic competence. However, while this is necessary, it is not sufficient for someone who wants to communicate competently in another language. Communicative competence includes linguistic competency and also a range of other socio-linguistic and communication skills that enable the speaker to know how to say what, to whom and when (Hymes, 1974). Communicative competence is not restricted to the spoken language alone, but involves the writing as well. It is also context specific, which means that a competent communicator in Arabic language knows how to make choices specific to the situation. This is different from performance, which is what an individual does. It is also worthy of note that the nature of Arabic selected to be taught is a written kind of Arabic and not the spoken type. Thus, students of Arabic are often taught the grammatical rules and vocabulary that are more characteristic of written Arabic and are given very little or no training in the spoken form. The contextual forms which feature the characteristics of the written Arabic are emphasised in teaching while the oral form are being neglected as shown in the examples below:

		Arabic		English
1.	(a) *A?taytukakita:bahu*-------context (I gave you his books)			
	(b) *A?taytukkita:bah*-----------oral (")			
2.	(a) *Aynaanta*--------------context (where are you)			
	(b) *Aynant*----------------oral (")			

It is quite clear, from the above illustrations that the contextual and the oral form of the language are very different entities. In essence, concentrating only on one aspect of the language, while neglecting the other, amounts to teaching a very artificially-stilled form of speech. To teach Arabic oral communication sufficiently

well in order to enable the learners speak and read it effectively would require making a fully practical study of the oral communication skills involved in language speaking (Malik, 1980).

The concept of contrastive analysis

In multi-lingual societies such as Nigeria, there often exists a national language which every citizen aspires to master for effective social interaction. The situation produces various types of bilinguals and multi-linguals with varied levels of competence. One major linguistic instrument that language researchers often use to assess and improve the performance of learners is Contrastive Analysis (Lamidi, 2004). Contrastive Analysis is the study and comparison of two or more languages, for example, comparing English and Arabic, or Arabic, Yoruba and English, as would be demonstrated later in this study. This is done by examining the structural similarities and differences of the studied languages. There are two central aims of Contrastive Analysis; the first is to establish the inter-relationship of languages in order to create a linguistic family tree. The second aim is to aid the second language acquisition. The idea of Contrastive Analysis grew out of observing students learning a second language. Each student or groups of students tend to repeat the linguistic mistakes of the previous group. This leads to an assumption that mistakes are caused by students' first language interfering with the second. This interference happens because the students applied the first language rules to the second language much the same way children apply the rules of regular verbs to irregular ones.

Serious studies of Contrastive Analysis began with Robert Lado's 1957 book, *Linguistics across Culture*. Its central tenets and other observations on second language acquisition became increasingly influential in the 1960s and 1970s. It is built upon ideas set out in linguistic relativity, also known as the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis which believes that language structures affect cognitive thinking. This invariably leads to the automatic transferring of one language rules to another. In this study, we shall bring out aspects of linguistic relations in each, as well as areas of differences between agreement features of Arabic and Yoruba languages. While the emphasis is on grammatical and phonological interference, we shall also discuss how knowledge of some linguistic rules in a language can affect the learning of some forms in the same language.

There have been very few contrastive studies on Arabic and some Nigerian languages. These include, among others, Yusuf (2005) which is a study of morphological and syntactic structures of Yoruba and Arabic, and Onibon (2011) which is a study that attempts to identify, describe, categorise, and diagnose some errors in Arabic essay writing of the non-Arabic speaking LASU students. However, its scope does not extend to the study of the phonological and agreement relations in Yoruba and Arabic. Therefore it becomes necessary to focus on the area in which learners often makes mistakes that are possibly due to their mother tongue interference.

In the following paragraphs, we shall delve on the contrastive analysis of illustrative samples of Arabic, English and Yoruba sentences at the grammatical level,

focusing on Person Agreement, Gender Agreement, Number Agreement, Subject-Verb Agreement, Subject-Complement and Object-Complement Agreement respectively, with a view to highlighting the peculiarities and or differences between these languages at this level and possibly stimulate the awareness of the Yoruba learners of Arabic, who are learning Arabic as their second or third language to the distinctiveness of the grammar of their L1 which is Yoruba and their L2 and L3 which are English and Arabic as the case may be. In this connection, it is expected that, the incidence of linguistic interference of the L1 of the Yoruba learners of Arabicon their L2 or L3 would be minimised to the barest minimum.

Grammatical Relations

Person Agreement

Person Agreement refers to the syntactic features of a Noun Phrase, henceforth NP, with which verbs in the sentence must agree. Thus, a NP can be in the first, second or third person forms (Cowan, 1976, p. 11). The first person refers to the speaker; the second, the person being addressed; while the third, the person or thing being discussed. When NPs occur in any of these forms in Arabic, the verb whether auxiliary or main, agrees with it as in the following:

	Arabic	English
1a.	*Ana: qawiyyun.*	"I am strong".
1b.	*Anta qawiyyun.*	"You are strong".
1c.	*Huwaqawiyyun.*	"He is strong".
2a.	*Ana:uḥibbuar-ruza.*	"I love rice".
2b.	*Antatuḥibbuar-ruza.*	"You love rice". (Second person singular masculine)
2c.	*Huwayuḥibbuar-ruza.*	"He loves rice'.
2d.	*Antituhibbi:nar-ruza*	"You loves rice" (Second person singular feminine)

The verbs in (1) are linking verbs, which are implied, while "*uhibbu*" in (2) is a transitive verb. The pronoun in (1a) is in the first person singular and the verb agrees accordingly. In (1b) "*anta*" is second person masculine singular and therefore agrees with the singular verb as well, which is also implied. "*Huwa*" in (1c) is a third person masculine singular pronoun and takes the singular verb "is" which agrees with it. The situation is different in example (2), "*ana*", viz the first person singular pronoun, has the form of verb "*uhibbu*" and "*anta*", the second person masculine singular pronoun, has the form of the verb "*tuhibbu*", clearly present different realisations of the verb with the introduction of "*u*" and "*tu*" prefixes respectively. In the case of the second person feminine singular, the simultaneous addition of the "*tu*" prefix and an inflection viz: "*bi:n*" marks a clear distinction of the verb thus, "*tuhibbi:n*", from the first and second person masculine singular classes. A quick look at some structures in Yoruba language may show the task ahead of a learner.

      Yoruba   English

3a.	*Eminioluko re*.	I am his teacher
3b.	*Iwo nioluko re.*	You are his teacher
3c.	*Ounnioluko re*.	S/he is his teacher.
4a.	*Mogbaowonaa*.	I collected the money.
4b.	*O gbaowonaa*.	You collected the money.
4c.	*O gbaowonaa*.	S/he collected the money.

Examples (3) and (4) show that Yoruba verbs are invariant whenever they occur with different NPs. It follows that the Yoruba learners of Arabic must learn each Arabic verb with its peculiarities and apply this knowledge to the rules of agreement as it concerns the pronouns.

Gender Agreement

Gender agreement on words is perceived as the concord relation holding between entities that share the same gender. In Arabic, gender is in two forms, namely, masculine and feminine (Cowan, 1976, p. 11), and both are morphologically realised on nouns and verbs in general. The feminine noun is formed from the masculine counterpart by suffixing with /----tun/ (otherwise known as ta:u al- marbu:tah). These distinctions are also reflected in personal, reflexive, possessive and demonstrative pronouns as reflected in the following examples:

Arabic	English
Huwaka:tibun	*He* is a writer.
Hiyaka:tibatun	She is a writer.
Rau:fta:jirun	Rauf is a trader.
Fa:timahta:jiratun	Fatima is trader.

These distinctions are also reflected in personal, reflexive, possessive and demonstrative pronouns as demonstrated in Examples (4) to (7):

	Arabic	English
4a.	*Huwadarabanafsau*	He beat himself
4b.	*Hiyadarabatnafsaha*	She hurt herself
5a.	*Qaṭaʔafatta:hyadau*	Fatai cut his hand
5b.	*Qaṭaʔatshukra: yadaha*	Shukrat cut her hand
6a.	*Ha: dha: walad*	This is a boy
6b.	*Ha:dhihibint*	This is a girl
7a.	*Dha:likkita:b*	That is a book
7b.	*Tilkamistarah*	That is a ruler

In the foregoing examples, the reflexives in (4) agree in gender with the subject of each sentence. In (5) to (7), the pronoun also agrees in number with the features of the NP subjects. In contrast to these Arabic structures, Yoruba has no gender specification of pronoun though the distinctions are inherent in such nouns (see examples (8) to (10)):

	Yoruba	English
8a.	*O tan ara re.*	S/he deceived himself/herself.
8b.	*O koara re niijanu*.	S/he cautioned himself/herself.
9a.	*Ade ba ore re ja*.	Ade fought his friend.
9b.	*Bimbobaegbon re ja*.	Bimbo fought her brother.
10a.	*Omokurinkanniyi*	This is a boy
10b*.	*Omobirinkanniyi*	This is a girl

In these examples, there is no gender distinction in the personal (8), reflexive (9) and possessive (10) pronouns. This explains why learners of Arabic make mistakes on gender distinctions saying *huwa* (he) when they mean *hiya* (she). We may argue that the personal pronoun "*O*" and the possessive "*re*" interfere in learners' performance. The same applies to others.

Number Agreement

Number refers to the quantity of an NP in an expression. Words can be singular, dual and plural. In colloquial Arabic the dual is almost confined to periods of time and the dual parts of the body. In Arabic dual refers to two things of a kind. The nominative dual ending is ان*a:n* i.e. and the accusative and genitive ending ين i.e.*ayn* added to the singular of the word after removal of the case ending as shown in Example (11):

	Arabic	English
11a.	كتابان*kita:ba:ni*	"Two books" (nominative case)
11b.	كتابين*kita:bayni*	"Two books" (accusative and genitive cases)

The dual feminine forms in Arabic also attract the suffix (*a:n*) or (*ayn*) as the case may be after the feminine suffix(t) as shown in Example (12):

	Arabic	English
12a.	سيدة *sayyidatun,*	"a lady"
12b.	سيدتان*sayyidata:ni*	"two ladies" (nominative case)
12c.	سيدتين*sayyidatayni*	"two ladies" (accusative and genitive cases)

There are two basic types of plural in Arabic, namely, the sound plural, which is practically confined to participles and nouns indicating professions or habitual actions, and secondly the broken plural, which is prone to many patterns, by altering of vowels within or outside the framework of the radical consonants. The masculine endings of the sound plural are realised by ون (nominative)and ين (accusative and genitive). In Arabic the verb of a sentence usually comes first and such a sentence is regarded as a verbal sentence. In the feminine sound plural, the ending/closed *ta:u* (ة) becomes "*a:tun*" (ات) in the nominative and "*a:tin*" (ات) in the accusative and the genitive cases. Other feminine endings are ى (a) and a,'i u (when singular) suffixed to last radical of the word. Both of these are without "nunation" e.g.ذكرى remembrance,صحراء a desert. In Yoruba language there are no affixes

marker indicating singular, dual or plural, although there are word numbers indicating the quantity as exemplified below:

Yoruba	English
Fun mi niiwe yen	Give me that book
Fun mi niawoniwe yen	Give me those books
Fun mi niiwemeji yen	Give me those two books

Therefore, there is tendency for Yoruba students to encounter problems in understanding the grammar of quantity in Arabic.

Subject-Verb Agreement

The most approved word order in grammatical Arabic is verb–subject–object, (VSO) as shown in Examples (14) to (17):

Arabic English
14*. Katabaal-mu?allimad-darsaala:as-sabbu:rati*, The teacher wrote the lesson on the blackboard

But often the subject occurs in the initial position of a sentence, e.g.

15. *Al-khabba:zukhabazafi'lfurni*. The baker baked the bread in the oven.

If the verb comes first in the sentence it must always be in the singular even though the subject may be plural or dual, and it must agree with the subject gender. See Examples (16) to (19):

Arabic English
16a. *Saraqaal-lusu:sma:laat-ta:jiri*. The robbers stole the merchants' property.
16b. *Dhahaba:ar-rajula:niila:as-su:qi*. The two men went to the market.
16c. *Ghasalnaat-talabatuthiya:bahunna*. The students washed their clothes.

But if the subject precedes the verb then the verb must agree with it in number as well as in gender, e.g.

17a. *Al- lusu:ssaraqu: ma:laat-ta:jir*. The robbers stole the merchants' property
17b. *Ar-rajula:nDhahaba:ila:as-su:q*. The two men went to the market
17c. *At-talabatughasalnathiya:bahunna*. The students washed their clothes.

In (17), the number or gender marking on verbs should be emphasised for subject-verb concord in Arabic. This is because the verb forms in Yoruba do not display such distinctions as shown in Examples (18) and (19):

       Yoruba   English

18a. *Kasali n jo.*   "Kasali dances/is dancing"

18b. *KasaliatiAdio n jo.*   "Kasali and Adio dance/are dancing".

19a. *Mon n ko.*   "I write/am writing".

19b. *O nko.*   "You write/are writing".

19c. *A n ko.*   "We write/are writing".

19d. *Won n ko.*   "They write/are writing".

In essence, whether the NP is singular or plural as in (18), the verb and its auxiliary remain uninflected. The same is also true of pronouns irrespective of whether they are singular (19a&b) or plural (19c&d). It follows that the errors of subject-verb concord committed by the Yoruba learners of Arabic especially in the area of third person singular emanate from the Yoruba Mother Tongue (MT) interference.

Subject-Complement and Object-Complement Agreements.

In Arabic, number agreement is also required between the subject and its complement in some structures. Consider for instance (20):

      Arabic   English   Yoruba

20a. *Innarajulata:jirun*   "the man is a trader".   *Okunrinnaa je onisowo.*

20b. *Innarija:lata:jiru:na*   "the men are traders".   *Awonokunrinnaa je onisowo*

This rule does not apply in the Yoruba version (translation of 20a and b). Although the NP subjects in (20a &b) are singular and plural respectively, the complement <u>onisowo</u> "trader" remains the same. Only the contexts show that one is singular and the other is plural. This same phenomenon occurs in agreement relations between an object and its complement.

      Arabic   English

21a. *Samaytual-waladaat-tayyib.*   "I named the boy Toyyib"

21b. *Wasafaal-mu'alimuat-tula:bashu'ara:a.* "The teacher called the students poets."

Yoruba

22a. *Mo so omonaaniToyyibu.*

22b. *Olukonaapeawonakekonaaniakorin*.

As shown in (22), *awonakeko* "the students" is pluralised by introducing another word "*awon*" but *akorin* "poets" which is contextually plural is not marked morphologically. It follows that the number agreement in Yoruba is less recognised in surface form unlike in Arabic where singular, dual and plural are represented both in oral and writing forms.

Phonetic and phonological relation

The absence of original equivalents of some Arabic sounds/phonemes in the sound system of several languages such as the Yoruba, Hausa and English to mention a few, basically, account not insignificantly for the various linguistic fallacies prevalent among non-native users of Arabic in Nigeria in general and south western Nigeria in particular (Mogaji, 2009b). While teaching the Arabic sounds to foreign learners, it is of primary importance to teach the contrastive phonological elements in the language. As it has been indicated earlier in this paper, the traditional approach of following the alphabetical sequence (which does not take into consideration the grouping of the sounds according to their basic relations) in teaching the Arabic phonemes is no longer viable. Teaching the Arabic sounds according to their manner of production would be in line with the essential principles of language teaching. Since this kind of approach takes into account the basic relations between members of each pair of sounds, it will help the foreign learners, like the Yoruba speakers, to distinguish between them. In this way better results may be achieved in the teaching of oral-communication in Arabic as a foreign language.

Consequent upon the above, misrepresentation of Arabic sounds/phonemes is prevalent in the south western part of Nigeria. This is due to the poor background of most non-native users in Arabic phonetics and phonology. The reason for this may be traced to the incompetence of the teachers and learners of Arabic in accounting for the sounds and phonemes of a nascent discipline yet in its inchoate state in a foreign environment (Mogaji, 2009a). In the following section, a brief contrastive phonological analysis of Arabic and Yoruba consonants is presented to aid identification of areas of difficulty confronting the Yoruba students in learning Oral Arabic communication.

Sample of phonetic differences
Mogaji (2009a) had extensively evaluated some phonetic peculiarities subsisting between the Arabic and Yoruba languages and which inadvertently account for aspects of linguistic solecism prevalent amongst the Yoruba speakers of Arabic.

(a) **The /dhal/ (ذ), /th/ (ث), /tz/ (ظ), /ts/ (ص) and /z/ (ز) sounds/phonemes**: Several Yoruba users of Arabic articulate these sounds as /s/ or (س). Thus, the /dh/ sound in words such as *al-ladhi:,al-ladhi:na,dha:lik,dhikr*,e.t.c is erroneously articulated as /s/ or (س). The /th/ sound in words such as *thawba:n, tha:ni:, tha:lith*etc is erroneously articulated as /s/. The /tz/sound in words such as *tzila:l,tza:limu:n, tza:lim* is wrongly articulated as /s/. The /ts/ sound in words such as *haftsah, tsala:h, tsawm* is wrongly articulated as /s/. The /z/ sound in *rizq, fawz,zakariya:* is erroneously articulated as /s/.

(b) **The /q/ (ق) sound/phoneme**: Several Yoruba users of Arabic articulate this sound as /k/. Hence the /q/ sounds in words such as *qamar,qudrah*etc is incorrectly articulated as /k/ or (ك).

(c) **The /h/(ح), /kh/ (خ), />/ (ع) sound/phonemes**: Many Yoruba users of Arabic articulate these sounds as /a/, hence the /h/ sound in words such as *hali:mah, hamdalah, ha:mid*etc is erroneously articulated as /a/. The /kh/ sound in words

such as *al-khami:s,khadi:jah*, *kha:lid*e.t.c is erroneously articulated as /a/.The />/ sound in words such as *shu'aib, 'abd, 'a:lim*etc is erroneously articulated as/a/ or (ﺀ).

(d) **Shortening of long vowels**:

There are three long vowels in Arabic language meaning, *alif*(ﺃ), *wa:u* (ﻭ) and *ya:u*(ﻯ). Shortening of these otherwise long vowels is another area where Yoruba users of Arabic commit phonological errors. Examples of this phenomenon include:

Arabic		Yoruba
Ha:mid	pronounced as	*Amidu*
Jali:l	"	*Jalili*
'Azi:z	"	*Lasisi/Laisi*
Fa:timah	"	*Fatimo*
Hawa:u	"	*Awau*
Thauba:n	"	*Saobana*
Kari:m	"	*Karimu*
Wa:hid	"	*Waidi*
Sala:m	"	*Salami*
Sira:j	"	*Suraju*

From the foregoing analysis, we would see that most of the examples listed above have undergone phonological or structural changes. By and large, these changes are due to the interference of Yoruba language. On the phonological level, what motivates the phonological changes is the non-existence of some consonants in Yoruba but found in Arabic. These can be found among plosive and fricative sounds. The pharyngalised dental-alveolar plosives/ṭ/(ﻁ) and /ḍ/ (ﺽ) as well as the uvular plosive/q/(ﻕ) are not found in Yoruba. Thus, the Yoruba speakers of Arabic often substitute these sounds with /t/, /d/ or /l/ and /k/ respectively as shown below:

Arabic		Yoruba	English
*Ṭifl*is	pronounced as	*Tufulu*	A baby
ḍaru:ri	" "	*Laruuri*	necessity
Qadar	" "	*Kadara*	destiny/fate

The glottal stop /ʔ/ is not available in Yoruba, it is therefore dropped in the Arabic word as shown below:

Arabic		Yoruba	English
Ad-duʔa:	is pronounced as	*Adua/Adura*	"prayer"
Sama:	is pronounced as	*Sanma*	"sky" by Yoruba learners

The dental fricative /th/ (ﺙ) and pharyngealised dental fricatives /ẓ/(ﺫ), and (tz)(ﻅ) do not exist in Yoruba. Hence, the phonemes /t/ and /s/ usually replace these sounds respectively as reflected in the following examples:

Arabic		Yoruba	English
Ath-thulatha: pronounced as		*atala:ta*	"Tuesday"
Waʔʐ pronounced as		*wa:si*	"sermon/preaching"

Due to the predominant CV syllable structure of Yoruba language, the syllable consonant cluster, whether initial, medial or final, are not present in Yoruba. Structural changes in Arabic words are motivated by a tendency either to drop one of the consonants or to insert vowel sounds between the Arabic clusters to make it conform to the Yoruba syllable patterns. Thus, the following examples:

Arabic		Yoruba	English
Waqt	realised as	*wakati*	"time/hour"
Fitnah	" "	*fitina*	"trouble/ worry"by the Yoruba speakers.

From the above analysis, it is clear that for a more effective teaching of oral communication in Arabic as a foreign language, the linguistic features of both Arabic and the Yoruba language of the learner must be analysed, compared and considered by the Arabic language instructors/teachers. The analysis and comparison could serve two major purposes:

1. They could serve as a guide to the Arabic teacher, and
2. They could serve as a basis for preparing text book materials that is suitable for teaching Oral-Arabic as a foreign language.

The instructor should focus more on the areas of differences identified above whereas the students should be allowed to have more hours of practice on those areas identified as difficult areas or areas of differences.

Conclusion

Having compared Arabic and Yoruba agreement features, we observed that Yoruba agreement system is not as elaborate as that of Arabic. Arabic combines both structural and semantic features in its agreement feature. The onus, however, lies on the teacher to emphasise the teaching aspect of grammar and phonology as the incidence of misuse is one of the most obvious violations of the rules of grammar. It should be noted that the errors committed by the learners, generally, are not limited to the realm of phonology alone but also extends to the orthographical aspects as shown by the transliterations above. As Mogaji (2009a) observes, application of relevant educational technology resources in the teaching and learning of Arabic phonetics/phonology would have made the whole exercise more productive and beneficial to all the parties concerned.

The recurrent linguistic difficulties of any individual student reflect the similarities and differences between his or her mother tongue and the foreign language s/he is learning. Therefore, it seems that the most appropriate materials for teaching a foreign language to non-native speakers are those which embody a

bilingual comparison of their mother tongue and the target language. Hence, comparisons between Yoruba and Arabic, for the purpose of demonstrating their similarities and differences in the use of linguistic features, may be helpful to the teaching and learning of oral-communication in Arabic. One fact that should not be ignored is that every native speakers of any language has acquired a set of linguistic habits in learning it. Therefore, in the course of learning a foreign language, such old habits not only remain with him or her, but, also, colour the features of the new language. It is for this reason that a Yoruba person, a Hausa person and an English person speak Arabic with their respective accent and so on. A native speaker of Yoruba has formed habits in the phonological, lexical, and grammatical features of the language and in attempting to learn Arabic; therefore, s/he may make mistakes in all the three areas.

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THE LEXICAL BORROWING IN PALESTINIAN COLLOQUIAL ARABIC

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Abstract

The paper aimed to determine the social factors responsible for the variable use of [g], [k] and the prestigious [ʔ] in the Colloquial Arabic of the Gaza Strip women. These variables are of interest because they each have one variant that coincides with al-Fussha Arabic; which is the standard /q/. Towards this end, a quantitative study was carried out to examine the frequency of each sound in the naturally occurring speech of a sample of eight female participants belonging to families, six of whom have migrated from the occupied Palestine in year of 1948 and the other two are citizens of the Gaza Strip, where [g] is socially dominant, to the Gaza city. The findings suggest that younger generation shift from [g] or [kshift to the prestigious form [ʔ] to show prestige in the society. Thus the variable use of the original sound [g] in Gaza city could be a language shift.

Keywords: colloquial Arabic, variation, lexical borrowing, language shift

Introduction

The relation between sound change and social factors has been investigated by many researchers, particularly Labov (1972), who inspired many analysts to carry out studies implementing his techniques. These kinds of studies are usually conducted to discover whether language variation could potentially cause a major change in a language. The three sounds, glottal stop [ʔ], the voiced velar plosive [g] or to the voiceless velar plosive [k], are variations to al-Fussha الفصحى (the Standard Arabic) sound /q/, the voiceless uvular stop. However, the less frequent words in colloquial Arabic are usually technical and specialised terms used for specific purposes (Habib, 2005; Holes, 2004, 1995). Their production of the new prestigious form [ʔ] may be delayed or impaired. It is also expected that highly frequent words with the [ʔ] sound are acquired faster by speakers whose speech is variable (Medoza-Denton, Hay, & Jannedy, 2003; Pierrehumbert, 2001). The effect of word frequency on the acquisition process of urban prestigious forms within the framework of sociolinguistic variation is not widely studied, particularly in relation to Arabic language (Habib, 2010).

According to Abuamsha (2010), in the Gaza Strip, the uvular voiceless plosive /q/ becomes a glottal stop /ʔ/ when pronounced by urban speakers in the city of Gaza. These speakers who live in the city are usually of an urban origin; however, other speakers may be of a rural origin and have moved to live in the city and adopted its dialect. Other Palestinian speakers may be of an urban origin and yet they live in countryside or one of the refugee camps in different parts of the Gaza Strip and they still retain their urban dialect (Abuamsha, 2010).

The study aimed to determine the effectual social factors on the Gaza Strip women's choice of using [ʔ] rather than [g] or [k] as a frequent variant that coincides with al-Fussha Arabic /q/.

Literature Review

Many sociolinguistic studies have discussed sound change in correlation with social factors such as sex, age, occupation and social class (e.g., Daher 1998a, 1998b, 1999; Haeri, 1991, 1992, 1996; Labov, 1966, 1972). The significance of social stratification in the ranking of the individual's use of a certain sound has been emphasised by Labov (1963, 1966) and adapted by many other scholars, such as Haeri (1991, 1992, 1996) and Daher (1998a, 1998b, 1999). Similarly, Hurreiz (1978) figured out the influence of social stratification on linguistic variation. For Habib (2005), age, sex, education, and work setting are the major social factors lead to the sound change.

Many studies on sound variations focus on the [r] and [r-less] use The "English postvocalic /r/ has been the most researched sound in dialect formation" (Burling, 1973, p. 16). The variability of the phonetic features of /r/ phoneme across the USA and the UK was shown by a number of researchers including Labov (1966), Burling (1973), Rickford (1996) and Rogers (2000). The target of these studies was to form a clear picture of the variations of the sound /r/ across regions supported by dialect maps for both the US and UK. Labov (1966) provided a detailed illustration of the post-vocalic /r/ in the New York City. He investigated a number of socially stratified areas that represent the socio-linguistic variables. Labov's approach confirms that even though the speech of the informants appeared to be arbitrary; it is regionally stratified. Even English used in the USA and the English used in the UK have differences though they are mutually comprehensible. This is in contrast with Arabic wherey there is occasional misunderstanding between speakers of the Arabic dialects spoken in the urban and the rural regions as explained later in this paper.

Arabic dialect studies covered various dialectical topics, mainly phonological variation. Ferguson (1959) wrote the first classic article on diglossia in the Arab world which distinguished between High Arabic and Low Arabic. Two different forms of Arabic exist side by side: Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and Colloquial Arabic, "The Vernacular". MSA corresponds to the High Variety, which is used as a vehicle for "Highly Codified" literature and is learnt at school. Nevertheless, colloquial Arabic corresponds to the Low Variety which is used in everyday casual speech. Ferguson (1959) attributed diglossia to the early development of Arabic whereas the Standard has remained established or unchanged because the high variety relies upon the Holy Qur'aan.

Ferguson (1959) showed that the High Variety is considered as more superior than the Low Variety. The superiority of the High Variety is attributed to the Holy Qur'aan and "as such is widely believed to constitute the actual words of God and even to be outside the limits of space and time" (p. 237). Therefore, the High Variety is learnt consciously through formal education, yet the low variety is acquired spontaneously which contains the daily life conversation of the public (Al-Faqeih, 2010). Ferguson (1959) argued that many regional dialects exist in various Arab countries, withvariations in grammar, lexicon, phonology, function, prestige, literary heritage, acquisition, standardisation, and stability.

Various sociolinguistic studies have shown a strong correlation between language and social structure, which means that "social variation is mirrored in language" and that the main function of dialectical variations in a society is to "provide information to the listener about the speaker" (Williams, 1992, pp. 66-67). Moreover, the identification of the social construction and the common knowledge between the speaker and the recipient leads to understanding or misunderstanding of the message (Nimer, 2006).

Furthermore, Blanc (1953) studied the Arabic spoken by the Druze of Western Galilee and Mount Carmel in the North of Palestine. He investigated the consonants, vowels, prosodic features and other aspects of this variety. His study considered religion as a decisive factor for the dialectical variations of the Druze, Muslims, and Christians. The researcher attempted to collect realistic and reliable data from his informants through recording words, stories or whatever is said and transcribed them. Accordingly, he had many convincing results concerning the sociolinguistic varieties among the Druze. He found out that the [q] sounds are distinguishing features of the "north Palestinian rural dialects from their central Palestinian counterpart" (pp. 67-68).

However, there are always constraints that govern the surface variations of the language. Broselow (1992) and Abu-Mansour (1992) argued that all Arabic dialects share underlying phonological representations. Broselow (1992) compared the surface and deep structure of the investigated dialects (Cairene, Makkan, Iraqi, Sudanese, and Syrian) and concluded that even though these dialects exhibit variations they share underlying structural similarities. Similarly, Atawneh (2003) found out that epenthesis in the Hebron dialect differs from other dialects showing that phonological constraints allow it to happen. Hebron dialect is like any other Palestinian dialect where epenthesis is needed in certain contexts.

Investigating the dialects spoken in Jordan, Suleiman (2004) discussed that the interdialect variation of the /q/ sound is a product of politics and conflict due to the Palestinian existence in Jordan after the 1967 Arab-Israeli war. Consequently, Abdel Jawad (1981) examined the sociopolitical structure of the existing dialects in Jordan based on gender, attitudes and style. He insisted that the dialect variants of /q/: ([ʔ] Madani), ([k] Fallaħi) and ([g] Bedouin) reflect different social communities in Jordan, and code-switching may occur among these variants depending on the attitude towards the dialect feature and gender.

In Palestine, which is very similar to the Jordanian situation, the variants which discussed by Abdel Jawad (1981) have the same distribution. The Palestinian dialects were affected by many foreign factors through language contact throughout

the history of living under the rule of Roman Empire, Byzantines, Crusaders, Muslim Empire, Ottomans and the British Mandate. Many foreign phonetic features were brought in throughout these. Ahmad (2000) stated that linguistic borrowing is a natural phenomenon in many languages. Therefore, the Palestinian dialects borrowed some features (especially some lexis) of the languages of the nations that controlled Palestine over the ages.

Yet, some other linguists studied the factors that lead to dialect formation across regions. Aniis (1973) and Hilaal (1990) stated that dialect formation is mainly due to four factors:

1- The contact between nations for political reasons such as invasion, and migration.
2- Social reasons such as common way of life and traditions.
3- Geographical typography such as rivers, plains, low land and high land.
4- Linguistic conflict as a result of immigration or invasion.

Another study by Faakhir (1983) showed geographical factor as a decisive factor of dialect formation. He investigated this factor by introducing the relation between the dialects that existed in Saudi Arabia and the surrounding dialects as related to the Qatari Dialect. He argued that this relation is traced back to the 17th century because of some environmental factors (e.g., draught), the spread of the tribes across a wide geographical area, resulting in the appearance of many dialects. He explained that the dialects of Qatar kept the features of Modern Standard Arabic since this dialect did not come into contact with other regions which happened, for instance, in Iraq, Morocco, Egypt, Palestine and Syria. However, the Levantine Dialects were in contact with and affected by the Turkish language especially the Northern part in addition to the Syrianic and Hebrew languages that existed in Syria and Palestine.

Sound variation in dialect formation

This section provides illustrations and explanations of the existence of the variants of the /q/ sound which has been extensively investigated by Arab linguists. Some aspects of the Palestinian dialects have been shortly studied. Recent research has begun to focus on sound variations motivated by social and geographical factors. Aspects of language as morphology, semantics and syntax have been covered more than phonology of the sociolinguistic structure of the community. Blanc (1953), Anis (1973), and Ahmad (2000) have discussed the Arabic dialects in general including the Palestinian dialects. For instance, Anis (1973) investigated the history of the Arabic dialects, and he found some signs of the tribal dialects in the various areas. He emphasized that most of the available studies about dialects of early tribes were brought to us either through the Holy Qur'aan or poetry. Further, exploring the variants that govern the /q/ distribution is meant to find explanations for such variations which will enhance the understanding of the phonological processes related to these key sounds in dialect formation.

The phonological phenomenon of 'Sound Substitution is an ever present phenomenon in human language. At this time, the variants of the sounds /q/ have

features that distinguish between the rural and urban regions as it appears in Palestine.

Abdel-Jawad (1981) investigated the use of [q] in a stratified sample of Amman in Jordan. He explained how the [q] has merged with either [k], [g], or [ʔ] through the years: [g] in the Nomad dialect, [k] in the rural dialect, and [ʔ] in the urban dialects. He presents (q) as a sociolinguistic variable related to sex, social class, and urban/rural origins.

One of the main phonological features that distinguish the Palestinian main spoken dialects in different regions of the country is the pronunciation of the standard voiceless uvular plosive [q] or "qaaf". Rural Palestinian speakers in the countryside are generally distinguished by pronouncing *qaaf "q"* as a voiceless velar kaf /k/ which distinguishes them from other Arabic varieties. Palestinian speakers of urban dialects in most cities, on the other hand, render the "qaaf" as a glottal stop /ʔ/ which is much more similar to the northern Levantine dialects of Syria and Lebanon. Also the [qaaf] becomes the voiced velar /g/ when rendered by rural or Bedouin speakers in the far South of Palestinian territories including the Gaza Strip (Abuamsha, 2010).

Methodology

Research site

The Gaza Strip is the southern part of Palestinian territories (see Appendix A for map). It is a narrow piece of land along the Mediterranean coast between Lebanon and Egypt – about 40km long and 10km wide with an area of only 360 square kilometres. The Gaza Strip is home to more than 1.7 million Palestinians and the majority of its population are refugees who represent over three-quarters of the current estimated population. According to UNRWA (2010), the total number of Palestinian refugees in Gaza is 1,073,303, of which 495,006 of them are living in eight refugee camps in different parts of the Gaza Strip from its north to south.

The participants came from five residential areas in the Gaza Strip: Gaza city, Khanyounis, Rafah, Deir-Al-Balah and Nusierat. Gaza city is a central residential area in the Gaza Strip which carries its own traditional values. It is believed by other inhabitants that people who live in Gaza city are upper-class; thus as a residential area, it is imbued with prestige. On the other hand, Khanyounis is also a historical city and adjacent refugee camp in the southern part of the Gaza Strip. Rafah, Deir-Al-Balah and Nusierat are newly developing residential areas which grew more than fifty years ago and is mainly occupied by migrants from rural areas after the 1948. Therefore, the five areas differ with respect to their history.

The tradition and prestige associated with Gaza Strip is expected to have a great influence on the newcomers, especially since the majority of the residents are citizens. This influence might be minor in other regions, since the majority of the residents are not originally Gaza people and have moved in recently. Education and occupation may also affect the person's social class with time. For example, if one is a medical doctor or an engineer who comes from a poor family, his/her social status

may change with time as s/he starts to be more known and to make more money; this might be referred to as social mobility (Haeri, 1991, 1996).

Participant

Most of the participants were from the Gaza city where [ʔ] is used in the Colloquial speech. Almost all of the participants were the daughters of the migrants from the occupied Palestine original place of residence after the year of 1948. They were considered as refugees. We were personally acquainted with most of the participants, who were not picked at random. Thus the sample here is a non-probability purposive that serves the aims of the current study. All participants were university students from five different places of residence in the Gaza Strip chosen according to the population concentration starting from Gaza city moving to Khanyounis, Rafah, Deir-Al-Balah and Nusierat. See Table 1 for place of residence of the eight participants.

Table 1.
Background information of the research participants.

Participant	Place of Residence	Citizenship
1	Khanyounis	Citizen
2	Nusierat	Refugee
3	Gaza City	Citizen
4	Deir-Al-Balah	Refugee
5	Gaza City	Refugee
6	Gaza City	Refugee
7	Khanyounis	Citizen
8	Rafah	Refugee

Instrument

The dependent or linguistic variable of the present study is the Standard Arabic sound (q), which appears in the speech of the Gaza Strip community as three variants: [g], [k] and [ʔ]. There is no specific phonological context in which [ʔ] occurs as a replacement for [q]. It can occur in many phonological contexts except in certain lexical borrowings from Standard Arabic (SA), such as [qurʔaan] Qur'an, [liqaaʔ] meeting, and [Өaqaafe] cultural. For example, [*q*alem] pen, [ra*q*bi] neck, and [ware*q*] paper become [ʔalam], [raʔbi], and [waraʔ] respectively. These examples show that the change could occur word-initially, word-internally, and word-finally.

The independent or extralinguistic variables included in the quantitative analysis are the following:
1- Citizenship (Citizen/Refugee)
2- Place of Residence.

The instrument of gathering the data is a questionnaire that consists of two sections. Section A of the questionnaire gathered some participants' specific background which comprised two items (citizenship and place of residence). Section B comprised eight items which measured the variants used of the Standard /q/ in different situations. There were seven items designed in a selected-response format where respondents had to circle one response. Selected-response or forced-choice item was used because it enhances consistency of response across respondents while making data tabulation straightforward and less time consuming. One item was an open-ended question to supplement and verify the questionnaire data.

The Arabic translation of each item was written after the English version. A pilot study of items was undertaken on a group of three students who were not selected for the actual study. The students involved in the pre-test resembled the sample participants of the study since they were from the same surrounding region; one participant was a refugee residing in Gaza city but the other two participants reside in Khanyounis where one is a refugee and the other is a citizen. The students wereuniversity students at Al-Azhar University-Gaza. The purpose of this pilot test was to identify any ambiguous items and to find any inconsistency in students' responses. The items were modified according to students' responses.

Data collection and analysis procedures

To investigate the use of the three different variants, questionnaires were distributed to eight female university students residing in the Gaza Strip. The collection of data took place throughout the internet. The Head of the Department of English-French Literature at Al-Azhar University in Gaza city, Dr Ihab Abu-Mallouh, made arrangements to facilitate collection of data, whichever was more convenient at the time. After collecting all the data from the participants, the researchers calculated the number of occurrences of [g], [k] and [ʔ] in the speech of each participant to examine the possible significance of each of the social factors (see Table 2).

Results and Discussion

Distribution of variants of Standard Arabic /q/

The data analysis showed that the variant [ʔ] dominated in the place of residence of participants 1, 2, 3, 5 and 6 while the variant [g] was used by participants 4 and 7, and participant 8 used the variant [k] (Table 2). In the family, Participants 1, 2 and 3 used the variant [ʔ] with their family in everyday interactions whereas participants 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 used the variant [g]. Participants 1, 2, 3 and 6 used the variant [ʔ] when they engaged in conversations with visitors in their place of residence, meanwhile participants 4, 5, 7 and 8 utilised the variant [g]. When interacting with university colleagues, participants 1, 2, 3, 6 and 7 used the variant [ʔ] but not in the case of participant 4, 5 and 8 who used the variant [g]. None of thepParticipants utilise more than one variant except for the case of participants 6 and 7 who used the variants [g] and [ʔ]. The family of participant 4 used the variant

[g] only, the family of participant 8 used the variant [k] only but all other participants' family used the variants [g] and [ʔ]. In the open ended question, participants 1, 2, 3 and 4, used only one variant in their speech but the participant 5, 6, 7 and 8 utilised more than one variant.

Table 2.
The distribution of the variants of Standard Arabic /q/ in different situations.

Social situation	P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7	P8
Q1: In place of residence	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[g]	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[g]	[k]
Q2: with family	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[g]	[g]	[g]	[g]	[g]
Q3: with visitors in place of residence	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[g]	[g]	[ʔ]	[g]	[g]
Q4: with colleagues in university	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[g]	[g]	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[g]
Q5: with friends	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[g]	[g]	[ʔ]	[ʔ]	[g]
Q6: variants used by participant	-	-	-	-	-	[g] and [ʔ]	[g] and [ʔ]	-
Q7: variants used by participant's family	[g] and [ʔ]	[g] and [ʔ]	[g] and [ʔ]	[g]	[g] and [ʔ]	[g] and [ʔ]	[g] and [ʔ]	[k]

Influence of citizenship background and place of residence on use of variants of Standard Arabic /q/

Citizenship background and place of residence play a significant role in the change of the Standard Arabic [q] to [g], [k] or [ʔ] (Table 2). Participants 1, 2 and 3 used the variant [ʔ] in almost all of the social situations, though some of their family members use the variant [g], which means they have shifted completely with no regards to any other variant to the [ʔ] variant. What is worth mentioning is that P1 and P3 were both citizens whereas P2 was a refugee, Participants 1, 2 and 3 resided in different places; Khanyounis, Nusierat and Gaza city respectively. However, P4 used the variant [g] only, as the place of residence was dominated by this variant. P4 and her family were refugees who used this particular variant in everyday life. P5's place of residence was dominated by the [ʔ] variant; yet, she still used the variant [g]. Unlike P8 who was a refugee and resided in Rafah, she used the variant [g], though the place of residence and family members' speech were dominated by the variant [k]. It is obvious from Table 2 that participants 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 8 used only one particular variant unlike participants 6 and 7 who use two different variants according to the social situation. Participant 6 was a refugee residing in the Gaza city. Although herplace of residence was dominated by the variant [ʔ], she used the [g] sound with her family members who also used the same variant but she shifted to the variant [ʔ] in the other situations. Participant 7 was a citizen residing in

Khanyounis where the variant [g] dominated, but the variant [ʔ] was used only within the university atmosphere and with friends but she shifted to [g] with her family members and visitors. An exceptional case is that Participants 4 and 8 did not use the variant [ʔ] in all social situations, whereas the other participants tended to use the [ʔ] variant whether to accommodate their speech with the surrounding community or as a prestigious marker. Participants 1, 2, 3, 5 and 6 resided in a dominated [ʔ] variant; Khanyounis, Nusierat, Gaza city, Gaza city and Gaza city in respect to the place of residence. It is also noticed that participants 1 and 7 both are citizens who reside in the same city but each of their living places were dominated by different variants - for P77, it wasthe variant [g] and for P1it was the [ʔ] variant. P6 and P7 explained that they used the [g] variant to cope with the surrounding area, and the use of [ʔ] variant gives the impression of prestige among the community. All participants presented a pragmatic justification for the use of a particular variant, which is to adapt to the surrounding area, to ensure a better communication with the majority of the people, and to avoid discrimination or negative attitudes. This justification was mentioned by participants complained of having been the target of jokes because of using the variants [g] and [k] as the university is located in the Gaza city that is dominated by the [ʔ] variant.

However, if one does not have the necessary motivation or desire to accommodate a different form in speech, social integration may be greatly hindered. Such tendencies are evident among migrant speakers in the Gaza Strip: some have lived for years in the city and have never adopted the new form since they do not have the desire to adopt a new identity. On the other hand, some people choose to be identified as urban, and strive to adapt their speech.

Conclusion

The usage of the [g], [k] and [ʔ] variants of Standard Arabic in the Gaza Strip differ from one speaker to another, bringing to mind Giles, Coupland and Coupland's (1991) idea that not all speakers can simply imitate in the same way any variety they encounter. Labov (1972) argued that "women are usually initiators of linguistic change (p. 243). According to Giles et al.'s (1991) theory of speech accommodation, people tend either to converge when they wish to decrease the social distance among each other, i.e. use the same style of speaking, or to diverge when they wish to increase that social distance and distinguish themselves from other speakers, i.e. use a different style of speaking. This also corresponds with the view of Habib (2005) that [ʔ] has more social prestige than [g] among women. It has been demonstrated that place of residence plays the major role in the change from [g] to [ʔ] in the Gaza Strip. These are indications that a change in Palestinian Arabic is in the progress.

The emphasis on the Arabic roots and the Quran as a basis for the Arabic language may prevent the occurrence of complete merger of [g] and [ʔ] or the extension of this merger to SA. The great stylistic and social variation that prevails in the Gaza Strip reflects a consistent pattern.

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Appendix A: Map of the investigated Palestinian areas in the Gaza Strip.
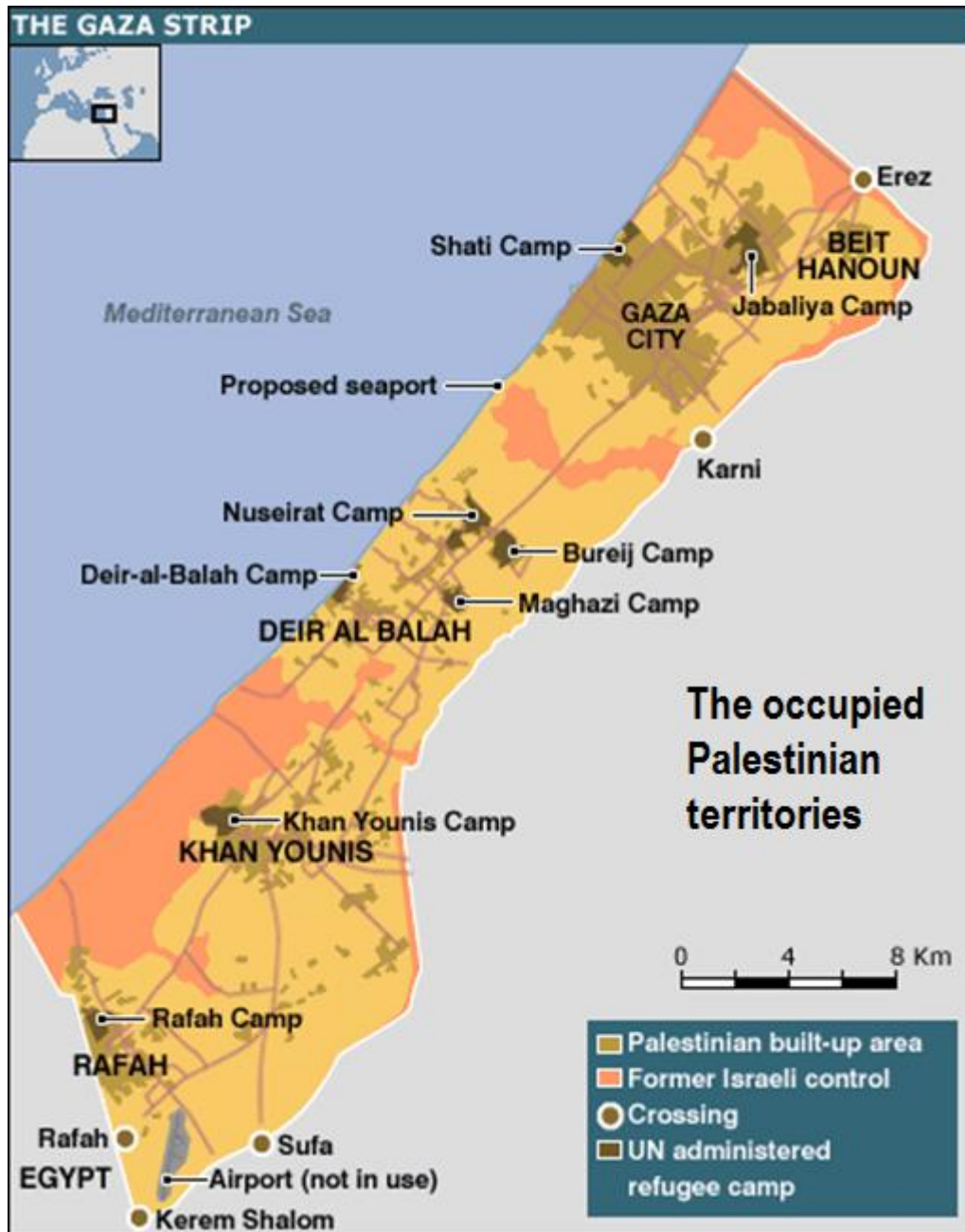
Appendix B: Questionnaire form used to elicit variants used by the participants
This is where I describe the study and let people know that their participation is voluntary and that their data are anonymous and confidential.

<div align="center">

Questionnaire
إستبانة

</div>

Section A	الجزء الأول
First I'd like to ask few questions about yourself.	**أولاً أود أن أسألكم بعض الأسئلة الخاصة بكم**
1- What is your place of residence? _____	1- ما هو مكان إقامتك؟_____
2- You are: ☐ a citizen or ☐ a refugee	3- هل: ☐ مواطن أم ☐ لاجئ
Section B There are many variants of speech in Colloquial Arabic in the Gaza Strip, some of these are [g], [k] or [ʔ] for the Standard Arabic sound qaaf [q]. For example in Standard Arabic the word /Qultu lak/ is used in the colloquial Arabic in everday life, where the different usages would be /ʔoltellak/, /goltellak/, or /koltellak/. Measure these examples on the use of variants of the standard /q/ in different situations according to the questions below.	الجزء الثاني يلفظ حرف القاف\ق\ باللغة العربية بأكثر من طريقة في اللغة العربية العامية في قطاع غزة, مثل \ج\ باللهجة المصرية, \ك\ أو \أ\. مثال \ق\ باللغة العربيةالفصحى (قطعته) مثال \ج\ باللهجة المصرية (جطعته) مثال \ك\ باللهجة الضفاوية (كطعته) مثال \أ\ باللهجة المدنية (أطعته) قس على المثال السابق استخدام هذه المتغيرات لحرف القاف \ق\ في عدة مواضع مختلفة تبعاً للأسئلة المطروحة أدناه.
1. Is your place of residence dominated by the variant [g], [k] or [ʔ]? A- [g] B- [k] C- [ʔ]	1- ما هو النمط السائد للفظ القاف في منطقة سكناك؟ أ- \ج\ ب- \ك\ ت- \ا\
2. Which variant do you use when you talk with your family member? A- [g] B- [k] C- [ʔ]	2- ما هو اللفظ الذي تستخدمينه أثناء الحديث مع أفراد عائلتك؟ أ- \ج\ ب- \ك\ ت- \ا\
3. Which variant do you use in your place of residence when you talk with visitors? D- [g] E- [k]	3- ما هو نمط القاف الذي تستخدمينه مع من يزوركم في بيتكم من الضيوف؟ أ- \ج\ ب- \ك\ ت- \ا\

English	Arabic
F- [?]	
4. Which variant do you use at the university when you talk with your colleagues? G- [g] H- [k] I- [?]	4- ما هو نمط القاف الذي تستخدمينه في الجامعة عندما تتحدثين مع زملائك؟ أ- \ج\ ب- \ك\ ت- \ا\
5. Which variant do you use when you talk with your friends? J- [g] K- [k] L- [?]	5- ما هو نمط القاف الذي تستخدمينه عندما تتحدثين مع أصدقائك؟ أ- \ج\ ب- \ك\ ت- \ا\
6- If you use different variants, what are they? A- [g], [k] and [?] B- [k] and [g] C- [?] and [g] D- [k] and [?]	6- إذا كنتي تستخدمين أكثر من نمط للقاف ٍ فما هي؟ أ- \ج\, \ك\ و \ا\ ب- \ك\ و \ج\ ت- \ا\ و \ج\ ث- \ك\ و \ا\
7- How about your family members, are all of them used to use variant [g], [k] or [?]? E- [g], [k] and [?] F- [k] and [g] G- [?] and [g] H- [k] and [?]	7- ما هو نمط القاف الذي يستخدمونه أفراد عائلتك \ج\, \ك\, أو \أ\؟ أ- \ج\, \ك\ و \ا\ ب- \ك\ و \ج\ ت- \ا\ و \ج\ ث- \ك\ و \ا\

8- If you use different variants, what are the reasons beyond that?

8- إذا كنتي تستخدمين أكثر من نمط مختلف للقاف ٍ فما هي الأسباب وراء ذلك؟

_____

_____

_____

Thank you for your cooperation.   نشكر لكم

حسن تعاونكم

PARAPHRASING CHALLENGES FACED BY MALAYSIAN ESL STUDENTS

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Abstract

This study examined the challenges faced by Malaysian second language (L2) learners when paraphrasing an academic text. Drawing on interviews with two diploma students from two business majors, I explored the types of challenges they faced when attempting paraphrasing tasks. The findings revealed that the students faced multiple challenges that ranged from text comprehension, poor L2 proficiency to referencing problems. In addition, there were significant differences between paraphrasing strategies adopted by a competent student and one with a lower proficiency level. Overall, the findings suggest that there is a need to utilise Content-Based Instruction to make the links between writing skills and learners' disciplines tangible and that pre-degree preparation needs to include extensive writing practice which would help students become familiar with academic writing demands. Preliminary results also show that there is a need for teachers to be aware that the design of the materials for English language teaching should be tailored to the purpose of university study and academic vocabulary.

Keywords: academic writing; paraphrasing, academic literacy, English as a second language

Introduction

The ability to write in a second language is contingent on multiple, complex and often dynamic factors. Yet, L2 learners in tertiary institutions are often evaluated based on their academic literacy; particularly academic writing skills. These evaluations may take the form of writing a literature review, integrating other's written ideas into one's own academic writing such as direct quotatiion, summarising, paraphrasing and synthesis essays. In various studies, students are depicted as using limited writing strategies (e.g., Abdullah et al., 2011, p. 102), with a tendency to plagiarise (Smith, Ghazali, & Noor Minhad, 2007) and as being plagued with proficiency deficits in their writing outputs (Badiozaman, 2012).

L2 writers, who are still in the process of acquiring linguistic competence, will probably face difficulties when attempting to become competent in a rhetoric-specific area, such as academic writing. Anstrom et al. (2010) stated that academic English is the reason for the discrepancy between English language learners and English-proficient students. Similarly, Zhang and Mi (2010) identified language

difficulties as one of the major obstacles for international students' academic endeavours. In the Malaysian tertiary setting, research has also revealed that L2 writers learning academic writing in English not only have to master academic English, but also gain advanced writing skills (Puteh, Rahamat, & Karim, 2010).

Attempts to understand why Malaysian students still "struggle to comprehend advanced level reading texts in English ... lack reading skills and are not critical readers" (Shafie & Nayan, 2011, p. 2) despite having learned English for 11 years, have revealed there are not only linguistic, but also pedagogical challenges affiliated with learning academic writing in L2. To illustrate, despite the claims of academic writing being explicit, an ongoing debate within the research of academic writing is that academic writing is rather tacit (Elton, 2010; Green, 2010) for native speakers. In particular, Lillis (2001) argued that the focus should be transferred from students' 'problematic' language to the institutional practices of teaching academic writing, whereby "the language of disciplines and the pedagogic practices in which these are embedded usually remains invisible" (p. 22).

Although considerable research has been devoted to investigating the challenges in L2 reading or writing (Leki, Cumming, & Silva, 2008), little is known about the challenges faced by Malaysian L2 tertiary learners when they are required to integrate reading-writing skills. Aside from plagiarism-related studies (e.g., Abasi, Akbari, & Graves, 2006; Smith et al., 2007; Wette, 2010; Yigitoglu, 2010) there has been relatively few research investigating the act of paraphrasing itself. In fact, there has been little research looking into the challenges that Malaysian learners face when engaging in a paraphrasing task. Thus, the study examined the processes and challenges faced by L2 learners in paraphrasing an academic text.

Review of Literature

In universities, students are required to take academic literacy classes where they are taught skills that would allow them to function effectively in an academic setting. The required preparatory papers may have different names but they have the similar objective of preparing learners with the necessary skills and knowledge required at diploma or degree level that enable them to function effectively within an academic environment. As such, academic literacy programs in tertiary level would require students to have such as summary writing, paraphrasing and synthesising skills, to name a few. As students at tertiary level are often required to integrate sources into their own work, Barks and Watts (2001) offer the "triadic model" of "paraphrase, summary, and quotation" (p. 252) as techniques of integrating sources into their written work. This is contingent on the fact that it requires high levels of language processing ability (Berman & Cheng, 2010) and "involves the orchestration of multiple language skills" (Wolfersberger, 2013, p. 50).

Paraphrasing in particular, is a testament to this complexity. Unlike summaries which focus on restating only main ideas, paraphrasing is typically defined as the act of restating information and ideas expressed by someone and presenting it in a new form. Paraphrasing is achieved by the use of synonyms, changing word forms or rearranging the sentence structure. Hirvela and Du (2013) adds that "in paraphrasing, the writer recasts individual sentences, creating

combination of original language and grammatical structures for the source text with some new words and grammatical structures" (p.88). A sentence has to be restated in such a way that it is lexically and syntactically different, while remaining semantically equal (Pecorari, 2003). Paraphrasing requires ESL learners to be proficient in reading and writing strategies (Leki et al., 2008), and the English language (Yu, 2008). To elaborate, learners have to comprehend the text at both macro and micro levels (Sedhu, Lee, & Choy, 2013). Only when comprehension is achieved, can learners proceed with the writing task. In addition to that, the source text also has to be acknowledged and integrated into the writing in the form of citations, quotations and referencing.

During a paraphrasing task, reading and writing become highly interdependent. A study by Johns and Mayes (1990) which investigated ESL university students' processes of summarising revealed that those with lower proficiency were at a significant disadvantage as they were unable to understand the passage and consequently resorted to copying or produced an inadequate paraphrase (i.e., changed the meaning of the original text). In fact, Gebril and Plakans (2013) have argued that for reading-to-write tasks, "a proficiency threshold must be crossed for students to be able to synthesise information appropriate from the source text in their writing" (p. 22). In fact, earlier studies have provided evidence that low proficiency learners are prone to replicate sentences from the original texts rather than paraphrasing (see Johns & Mayes, 1990; Sun, 2012). Insufficient lexical knowledge may also account for such problems (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Bloch,2009; Pecorari, 2003). All these variables often result in what is called patchwriting.

Howard (1995) defines patchwriting, as "the borrowing of source texts and making surface-level changes by modifying parts of the texts, such as plugging in synonyms and changing the verb" (p. 797). As such, traditionally, this was strongly linked to plagiarism (Howard, 1995). Nonetheless, with greater understanding of the L2 writer, the discussion regarding patchwriting is fast becoming pedagogical. In literature, patchwriting, which consists of lifting phrases and words from the source texts and interspersing them in one's own writing without quotation marks and citations, is seen as a necessary learning strategy (Pecorari, 2003). This study adopts a similar perspective as the students in question are novice student writers of L2 who have minimal experience with academic writing conventions. Accordingly, patchwriting is recognized as a (paraphrasing) strategy. Further, as the focus is on exploring the challenges and processes of paraphrasing for these learners, this necessitates a "pedagogical rather than punitive response" (Pecorari, 2003, p. 320). Howard (1995) explains:

> Patchwriting is not always a form of academic dishonesty; it is not always committed by immoral writers. Often it is a form of writing that learners employ when they are unfamiliar with the words and ideas about which they are writing. (p.799)

More recent literature on paraphrasing has revealed that patchwriting needs to be seen as a learning opportunity and there is a developmental dimension, particularly for ESL learners. Within this dimension, students undergo several series

of learning curves. , It is expected that students would struggle at the beginning stages and they would gradually acclimatise to the demands of paraphrasing. Hirvela and Du (2013) maintains that "it is essential that teachers look at paraphrasing through that lens [learner trajectory], especially in helping them transition from knowledge telling to knowledge transforming" (p. 97). Shi's (2004) study revealed the prevalence of this phenomenon: "much L2 writing by university students is patchwriting, interwoven with sentences or phrases copied from original sources" (p. 173). That there often is acknowledgment of sources alongside the patchwriting paraphrase further highlights the unlikely possibility of deception, but rather these novice student writers have limited language ability or do not have full comprehension of the original source.

Generally, literature in this area has consistently shown that paraphrasing is a challenging task for L2 writers. As yet, there has been no research looking into the specific processes that Malaysian L2 learners incorporate both in the reading and writing stages of paraphrasing. To shed light on this, the key research questions for this study were formulated as follows:

(1) What are the processes involved when the two L2 writers engage in a paraphrasing task?
(2) What are the reported challenges faced by the two L2 learners when paraphrasing an academic text?

Methodology

Research context and site

The study took place in 2013 at a private university in Sarawak, Malaysia, where English is the medium of instruction. The diploma program in this university offers various English courses which are offered in tandem with their content papers. In these courses, learners are taught different types of academic conventions; the incorporation of multiple sources in their writing; the correct acknowledgment of these sources and engagement in academic criticism. Students would typically have to undertake one English paper per semester, in addition to their content paper.

Participants

The participants of this study were Malaysian learners, aged between 19 and 21, who come from national schools. These learners generally had English as a second language and might speak more than three languages. The participants had completed their primary and secondary level education and met the requirements to undertake the diploma programme at higher learning institutions. Both students in this study were in their final semester of their diploma program and thus, were taking the final English paper as part of the academic literacy course. This final English paper required them to write a research report which involved several paraphrasing and summarising tasks. These tasks ultimately led to an extended literature review of their chosen topic which formed one aspect of the overall research report. The two students the researcher focused on in this article, Farid and

Helen (pseudonyms), were selected because they highlighted different issues faced when engaging with paraphrasing tasks.

Table 1.
Participants' background information

Name	Major	Year of study
Helen	Business Management	Second Year Diploma
Farid	Business Marketing	Second Year Diploma

Data Collection Method

Interviews were chosen as the main instrument as they provide opportunities for learners to formulate and verbalise their views. Cohen and colleagues (2007) argue that "interviews enable participants to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live and to express how they regard the situation from their own point of view" (p. 203) . Bogdan and Biklen (2007) maintain that "good interviews produce rich data filled with words that reveal the respondents' perspectives" (p. 104). This is particularly relevant to the study as each learner's engagement with the paraphrasing task (in L2) is unique.

In this study, semi-structured interviews which "have a set of key questions that are followed in a more open-ended manner" (Mutch, 2005, p. 126) were incorporated. Semi-structured interviews therefore allowed for flexibility while also providing "comparable data across subjects" (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007, p. 104). These interviews allowed the researcher to gain a more in-depth understanding of how learners paraphrase, the challenges faced and also strategies adopted as part of the experience. The interview process was flexible (Janesick, 2000) in that more questions were added, refined and readjusted in the subsequent interviews due to emergent findings.

The interviews were conducted from 18th to 29th November 2013, which was towards the end of the semester in a neutral and non-threatening location such as discussion rooms in the library and tutorial rooms in the university. The students were asked to paraphrase an extract from their course material and were interviewed subsequently regarding the processes and challenges faced when paraphrasing the academic text. The interviews were conducted in English and *Bahasa Melayu,* the native language of the research subjects and the researcher.

Data Analysis

The analysis of data from the semi-structured interviews involved several (not necessarily distinct) steps, namely, transcription, coding, analysis and interpretation (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Data interpretation of the qualitative phase was carried out inductively. Literature indicates that this approach emphasises how meaning is to emerge from the data (Barbour, 2008). In fact, the strategy of inductive analysis "is to allow the important analysis dimensions to emerge from patterns found in the case under study without presupposing in advance what the dimensions will be" (Patton, 2002, p. 56).

Findings emerged from the frequent and significant themes from the raw data, without the restraints of preconceived categories. The rich qualitative data were from the participant's own words/ language of how they understood their experiences of learning in the class. At the same time, the researcher acknowledged her position was subjective, due to her experience as an educator of ESL learners and her background knowledge on the Malaysian educational context. Thus, the analysis was influenced by the researcher's experience.

Students' paraphrases were analysed manually at the sentence level and were also submitted to SafeAssign, a software which identifies matches between students' submitted work and text that is available online (Blackboard Inc, 2010). This program allows for a more detailed analysis of the paraphrasing attempts done by the students as it can generate a similarity report in which comparison can be made between the work of the student and the original source.

As mentioned in the literature review, the definition of an acceptable paraphrase varies significantly. This study thus, adopted Keck's (2006) taxonomy as it offers a reliable method for classifying attempted paraphrases (see Table 2 below).

Table 2.
Taxonomy of paraphrase types

Paraphrase Types	Description of paraphrasing strategies
Near Copy	• composed primarily of long copied strings taken from the original excerpt.
	• borrowed entire clauses from the original
Moderate Revision	• made a number of lexical and grammatical changes to the original
	• contained the writers' own elaborative phrase or clause
	• made a number of clause-level changes as well as changes to lexis

Results

In this section, the findings are presented through two individual cases to highlight the challenges in paraphrasing. Cross-case analyses occur after the case presentations.

Farid

Farid was a final-year diploma student in the Faculty of Business and Design. Farid was Malay and used mainly Malay language and a local dialect (*Bahasa Sarawak*) in everyday communication. Because of his low proficiency, Farid was required to take supplementary English papers along with other business classes in which he was enrolled. During the course of the interview, Farid requested to use English but code-switched at times, to express himself better. For the paraphrasing task, the report generated by SafeAssign was 30% and classified as a "Near Copy" based on Keck's (2006) taxonomy. It is important to note that Farid's attempt at paraphrasing (see Table 3) reflected one of a summary as not only did it focus on

only main ideas, but it was also significantly shorter in length than the original text. His paraphrasing attempt and his interview excerpts suggest misconceptions about paraphrasing.

a)   *The novice L2 writer and misconceptions about paraphrasing*

Farid recalled that his first encounter with the concept of paraphrasing was during orientation week of his first year as a university student. He reported that, "Back then, I didn't even know about paraphrasing. I just copy all the articles and put it in my assignment". It was only after the lecturer approached him about the matter that he realised what he did can be perceived as plagiarising. When further probed, Farid clarified that paraphrasing was very foreign to him as he was never taught the skill in secondary school.

Interestingly, although Farid has had at least four semesters worth of experience with paraphrasing, there were still some instances in which he had misconceived notions. To illustrate, when asked in the interview why he did not consider including quotes, Farid stated that, "I try my best to avoid quotations in my paraphrase ... I don't want … if possible to have any original words in my work. I am worried about plagiarism". The emphasis on not copying someone's original words were repeated later in the interview as he maintained that "It's very important that your ideas and what you are writing is different from the original source … yes … it must be different".

The evidence of further misconceptions of paraphrasing is apparent in his paraphrasing attempt (see Table 3). Note that the sentence patterns were rearranged with language of original text still intact; it actually reflected one of a [poor] summary.

Table 3.
Farid's Paraphrasing Attempt

Original text	Farid' s attempt at Paraphrasing
Over the past two decades, <u>the global market of electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) continues to grow</u> exponentially, while the <u>lifespan of those products becomes shorter</u> and shorter. Therefore, businesses as well as waste management officials are facing a new challenge, and e-Waste or waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE) is receiving considerable amount of <u>attention from policy makers.</u> Predictably, the number of electrical devices will continue to increase on the global scale. Consequently, the volume of WEEE grows rapidly every year and is	<u>The global market of electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) continues to grow</u> but the <u>lifespan of the products become shorter</u>. Thus, this contributes to e-waste that received <u>attentions from policy makers</u>. Some <u>components of electronic products contain harmful substances</u> which can be <u>a threat to the environment</u> and also <u>human</u> being.

also believed to be one of the most critical waste disposal issues of the twenty-first century. Compared to conventional municipal wastes, <u>certain components of electronic products contain</u> toxic <u>substances</u>, which can generate <u>a threat to the environment</u> as well as to <u>human</u> health.	

Note: Underlined words indicate similarity with original text

b) *Low L2 proficiency*

Farid reported that one of the biggest challenges for him in paraphrasing was to understand the given passage or extract. Paraphrasing then became a challenge as he was unable to comprehend and identify the main ideas of the reading passage. This was evidenced in the somewhat short paraphrase which he produced during the interview (see Farid's Paraphrase in Appendix B). Farid admitted *"I had difficulty in deciding whether this needs to be in the paraphrase or not".* Farid also disclosed that, "if the articles use jargons or words that I don't really know, I use a lot more from the articles, instead of my own words".

Due to his low L2 proficiency, Farid faced further challenges in terms of his limited vocabulary (e.g. "some words I don't know the meaning" or "I don't understand that word") and grammar. He further expanded his concern, "my vocab might be off … it may not be suitable for this context … or worse, I changed the meaning".   In terms of grammar, Farid disclosed that there were two main issues that impeded his paraphrasing: (i) difficulty in changing word class (i.e. adjective to noun); and (ii) creating grammatically correct sentences. He explains, "I am worried that the new words don't fit … and whether the sentence now is grammatically correct". Farid also emphasized that if he could do the paraphrase again at home, he would heavily consult a dictionary to guide him in his word selection. Evidently, Farid's low L2 proficiency contributed to the challenges he faced in paraphrasing. Farid summed it up succinctly when he explained, "English is very important. You cannot understand a passage if you don't have the language, and when you don't understand, how can you paraphrase?"

c) *Unfamiliarity with the topic and subject matter*

Another factor that influenced his paraphrasing was his unfamiliarity with the topic and subject matter. According to Farid, paraphrasing could be easy contingent on the articles or reading passage. He explains, "It actually depends on the articles. If the article is about an unfamiliar topic, use jargons or words that I don't really know, paraphrasing becomes harder". As revealed by his attempted paraphrase (see Table 3), Farid struggled with the topic of electronic waste (e-waste) and thus failed to paraphrase several main ideas of the passage. The analysis also revealed that the meaning of the paraphrase was altered. It is likely Farid's attempt at paraphrasing was a result of his lack of background knowledge of the topic. He

explains, "A difficult passage like health related topic, science … some are unknown to me. That makes it difficult. Changing the sentences will be harder".

Farid later added that utilising sources from his business papers in the English classes would actually be beneficial in helping him improve his paraphrasing skills because "then I need to focus only on the changing of words and sentences … not worry so much about understanding new topics". Farid also relayed that "in my English classes in diploma, sometimes the materials cover topics that my classmates and I know nothing about. So that makes it very hard for us". Although Farid did not elaborate on what he meant as "hard", it is likely that his unfamiliarity with the subject matter of e-waste, and an amalgamation of the two aforementioned factors have contributed to his inadequate paraphrase.

d)   *Processes of paraphrasing*

It is interesting to note that Farid spent the longest time (25 minutes) in Step 1 (see Table 4). He stated that he read the extract multiple times in order to understand it fully. The second step, which was drafting the paraphrase, took second longest as Farid had difficulty in deciding which parts were to be included in the paraphrase. Nonetheless, as indicated in the text analysis, there were several main ideas that were omitted which might have altered the meaning of the original text. Once he had decided on the parts to retained, he then proceeded to draft the passage. When paraphrasing, Farid utilised a very interesting strategy to construct new sentences. When asked how this strategy ensures that the sentence is dissimilar from the original, he explains:

> … for example…by not inserting 'over the past few decades' and just starting the sentence with the main idea, 'the global market' … some words I omit and I'll combine two points together. So that makes the word arrangement look different from the original.

Based on the above example, the process above can be described as deletions (Howard, 1995) whereby one to four words from the original source are eliminated. Additionally, Farid also included what Howard (ibid) describes as reversals which entail reversing the sentence structure or word structure. Because of his weak grammar Farid explains, "so what I do, I combine sentences, like the one at the back, goes to the front." He further justifies this paraphrasing process to compensate his weakness in grammar, "I lack [I am weak] in changing nouns to adjective and verb to adverbs. That's hard. I don't want the meaning to change".

In the text analysis, it also became evident that synonyms were substituted and interestingly for his case, the synonyms appeared to consist of mainly transitional words (i.e. but, also, thus). Farid explained that in addition to flow, he felt confident in using them. He stated, "Transitions are easier to change as synonyms … and are easier to use". Farid also did not attempt to change the order of sentences in the final paraphrase. It is important to note that there were no citations in the paraphrase and no final checks were done to compare the finished product and the original text.

Table 4.
Processes of paraphrasing

Step	Action	Purpose
1	Reading the passage	To understand the passage
	Underlining main ideas	(this is done many times)
	Circling words that can be replaced with a synonym	
2	Drafting the paraphrase	To make allowance
	Combining phrases from different sentence	wherever a change can be
	Omitting words that are deemed to be not important	made
	Adding synonyms	
3	Comparing draft with the original	To make necessary changes
4	Adding transitions	To ensure there is flow
5	Final paraphrase	

It became apparent that the steps taken in order to paraphrase were very much shaped by his low L2 proficiency. Lifting exact phrases or word strings (Howard, 1995) from the original source and the omission of very important main ideas (i.e. "grow exponentially", "the number of electrical devices will continue to increase on the global scale" and "the volume of WEEE grows rapidly every year") indicate that the issues lie in not only the writing stage, but also in his reading skills and low English proficiency level. This was evidenced in his paraphrasing attempt which consisted of mainly deletion, reversal and substitution strategi*es* within his limited lexical and syntactic knowledge*.*

It is also likely that instructional practices had a contributory role in his approach to paraphrasing. The process of making only minor changes in lexis or syntax, resulting in a paraphrase that reflects the surface forms of the original, is typical of pedagogical practices (i.e. change grammatical forms; avoid copying directly from the original text and use synonyms). Note also despite Farid's repeated concerns about plagiarism, there was no author acknowledgement and extensive words were borrowed from the original text. Thus, it is highly likely that the missing citations in Farid's paraphrasing attempt not only highlight his inadequate understanding of paraphrasing, but also his unfamiliarity with academic writing conventions.

Helen

Helen was a final-year diploma student in the Faculty of Business and Design. She was Chinese and used mainly a local Chinese dialect and English as a means of communication. Helen reported she had consistently done well in English throughout her secondary schooling years (i.e., A1 in English for Malaysian Certificate of Education examination [SPM][1]). Unlike Farid, Helen was not required

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[1] The Malaysian Certificate of Education examination (SPM) is undertaken at the end of upper secondary education.

to take English support classes. Her proficiency was evident in the interview data in which she used English articulately. For the paraphrasing task, her SafeAssign report was 0%. Based on Keck's (2006) taxonomy of paraphrase types, Helen's paraphrase falls into the "Moderate Revision" category.

a) *Acclimatising to paraphrasing*

Like Farid, Helen's first encounter with paraphrasing and plagiarism was in her very first semester in the university. In fact, Helen admitted that unlike summary writing she has never "heard about paraphrasing and plagiarism in school". Unlike secondary school, the importance of academic conventions was very evident in tertiary level. Helen explained, "I heard about it in every subject I took in my first year, in university. It was emphasised in all the subjects I took especially when we have assignments". According to Helen, as it was a new concept, she disclosed that "it was difficult at first". Despite her proficiency level, "understanding a sentence or paragraph and then writing it into our own sentence" still presents a daunting task for Helen. She explains that it was not enough "to just replace words" in the sentence. Her response reflects a higher understanding of what a paraphrasing task entails.

In the interview data, Helen reported that she still refers to the Harvard guide "to identify the source and to follow the example for in-text citation". She also discloses that she was gradually becoming more familiar with different types of academic sources. Helen explained, "The journals are still confusing me but the one's I'm familiar with are research article, web page and e-books". This act of acknowledging and integrating sources in writing was also reported as a new skill, one not covered in her previous educational institution.

Despite Helen's reported lack of experience with paraphrasing, she was very optimistic that she would be able to improve in the future. She stated, "I've only learnt this [paraphrasing] for more than a year. With practice, I think it will definitely improve". Like Farid, her motivation of improving her paraphrasing skills appears to originate from wanting to do well in her academic studies. As Helen put it, "although it's a new thing I learnt, it [paraphrasing] is a very important skill. At this level it's important to show that I am not copying and that I read a lot…use different sources other than BB [blackboard] notes".

b) *Retaining the original meaning*

Despite her proficiency level, Helen still expressed her concerns regarding paraphrasing. She reported that "understanding the paragraph was very hard for her". Unlike Farid, Helen spent the longest time (25 minutes) on Step 2, which was drafting and writing her paraphrase. Helen was able to identify all the main details and this was included in her paraphrase. Helen explained that this was the most crucial step in paraphrasing as she did not want to "understand the wrong thing and change the whole meaning intended by the author".

When asked whether the topic was familiar to her, Helen admitted that it was daunting at first since it was not covered in her business papers. Nonetheless,

Helen explained that "the title of the article gave me some idea of what the passage would be about". She also explained that the second time reading the extract, she had a clearer idea of the extract and that the vocabulary was quite common. Helen explains, "Actually, I have seen them a lot in my other papers [points at 'global market', 'exponentially', 'components' and 'conventional']". As part of her paraphrasing process, Helen underlined the main ideas she identified in the extract. The underlining practice's purpose is twofold. Helen explains, "This [underlining] helps me in reading. I needed to do it many times for me to make sure I understand the meaning of the sentence". To her, the underlined words also take precedence in the paraphrasing task. "They [main ideas] must look different, but still mean the same". It is apparent that retaining the original meaning is imperative as part of the paraphrasing process for Helen. She sums it up succinctly, "It's not easy to put someone's ideas into my own words. Keeping the meaning the same is the biggest challenge".

c) *Processes of paraphrasing*

In comparison with Farid, it appears that the number of steps taken by Helen in order to produce the paraphrase was much lesser. This may be attributed to her proficiency level which greatly helped in her comprehension of the extract. Having a higher English proficiency level than Farid allowed her to achieve an in-depth understanding of the ideas of the source author, identify key points of the text and produce her paraphrase. In other words, the reading to writing process became more efficient due to her strong command of the language. Helen displayed greater competency in paraphrasing as evidenced by both her SafeAssign report and the multiple paraphrasing techniques she reported in the interview. To illustrate, Helen restated the whole paragraph (i.e. replaces phrases and rearranges sentence structure) with few or no errors, and the original meaning is retained (see Table 5). Her paraphrase indicates knowledge of appropriate synonyms, as well as the forms and functions of dependent clause structures.

Table 5
Helen's Paraphrasing Attempt

Original text	Helen's s attempt at Paraphrasing
Over the past two decades, the global market of electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) continues to grow exponentially, while the lifespan of those products becomes shorter and shorter. Therefore, businesses as well as waste management officials are facing a new challenge, and e-Waste or waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE) is receiving considerable amount of attention from policy makers.	The growth of market of electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) has increased dramatically over the past ten years due to the product's lifespan which decrease. This problem has attracted much attention from the country leaders which turn out to be a challenge for businesses and waste management officials (Bhutta, Omar & Yang 2010). It is predicted that the electrical devices will continue to raise in

Predictably, the number of electrical devices will continue to increase on the global scale. Consequently, the volume of WEEE grows rapidly every year and is also believed to be one of the most critical waste disposal issues of the twenty-first century. Compared to conventional municipal wastes, certain components of electronic products contain toxic substances, which can generate a threat to the environment as well as to human health.	number on a worldwide scale. As a result, the amount of WEEE which increases dramatically yearly is known to be one of the most serious rubbish dumping matters in the twenty first century. Certain elements of electronic products release unhealthy substance, which can cause harm to the surrounding as well as to people's heath as compared to traditional; waste management (Bhutta, Omar & Yang 2010).

Note: Underlined words indicate similarity with original text

Some techniques included changing whole sentences instead of just one word with synonyms (i.e. continues to grow exponentially to has increased dramatically; and critical waste disposal issues to serious rubbish dumping matters), change in word class (i.e. grow to growth; and lifespan of product to product lifespan), change in sentence structure (i.e. This problem has attracted much attention from the country leaders, which turned out to be a challenge for businesses and waste management officials) and change of synonyms (i.e. element to components; environment to surroundings; and unhealthy to toxic). It is highly likely that all the above techniques appear automated and were readily available to Helen due to her English proficiency level.

Unlike Farid, Helen relied on the Harvard guide and seemed quite adept at identifying the relevant information for in-text citations. Interestingly, in her final step of paraphrasing Helen appeared to be very thorough as she revisited the draft and compared it to the original. Helen finished the paraphrase by adding one more citation at the end of her paraphrase. When asked why she added another citation, Helen stated that, "to be safe and also to clearly indicate the whole extract was written by the three authors". Note that both steps were lacking with Farid.

Table 6
Processes of paraphrasing

Step	Action	Purpose
1	Read and underline	To understand the passage To ensure main idea is included in the paraphrase
2	Read and commence paraphrasing (This is done sentence by sentence) Adding citation (used Harvard guide) Changing of synonyms Change of word class Change or sentence structure	To ensure the appropriate in-text citation is used

	Adding transitional words	
3	Read paraphrase	To make comparison with original
	Review	To ensure that it is dissimilar in structure but retains the original meaning

Discussion

The findings of this study have revealed the complexity of paraphrasing for the novice L2 writers. Interestingly, both Farid and Helen viewed paraphrasing as an invaluable skill which allows them to participate and do well in their respective disciplines. The importance of paraphrasing for the two students appears to originate from the goal of wanting to do well in their academic studies and also to avoid plagiarism. Both students viewing paraphrasing as a skill that benefits them in their studies highlight how these novice academic writers are not only acclimatising to the demands of academia, but also how they are able to develop a meaningful understanding of the value of paraphrasing. Nonetheless, paraphrasing was reported to be a demanding task for both students, for different reasons.

In this study, one of the many variables which contributed to the challenges faced when paraphrasing (for L2 writers) is L2 language proficiency. The data have indicated that the L2 proficiency level played a significant role in learner's' competency in various paraphrasing stages. For a learner who has lower L2 proficiency level, this meant that the challenge presented itself at the reading and comprehension level. To illustrate, insufficient lexical knowledge appears to be a major impediment for Farid. Note that he disclosed there were two main issues which impeded his paraphrasing; (i) difficulty in changing word class (i.e. adjective to noun); and (ii) creating grammatically correct sentences. Helen's higher proficiency level on the other hand, allowed her to use more relatively complex strategies in changing word forms and sentence structure. To illustrate, Helen was able to provide appropriate synonyms (i.e *element (components), environment (surrounding)* and *unhealthy (toxic)*) in her paraphrase. Farid, on the other hand, was unable to substitute the synonyms of keywords in the text (i.e. *environment, substances, lifespan)*. In short, the L2 proficiency variable determines the paraphrasing strategies available to the students.

The L2 proficiency variable not only appears to affect Farid's overall confidence in paraphrasing, but also his understanding of the extract – causing him to lift heavily from the original source. Thus, it is imperative that students should be made aware that such strategies, coupled with no attribution of source could elicit accusations of plagiarism. The unfamiliar topic further complicated the paraphrasing task for Farid. This finding resonates that of Erhel and Jamet (2006), which affirmed that learners' ability to paraphrase correlates significantly with text comprehension. Farid's inferior paraphrasing skills reflects that of the low-proficiency learners from Johns and Mayes' (1990) study who tended to replicate sentences from the original text instead of paraphrasing. These data highlight the fact that students would benefit greatly from passage choice which is familiar to them. Sedhu, Lee and Choy (2013) advocates the selection of appropriate passages for paraphrasing instruction.

This was founded based on their study where students performed better when the "passages are easy to comprehend, have obvious main points, have appropriate language level and have topics that are interesting…and relevant to students" (p. 136).

Paraphrasing relies also heavily on interconnected sub-skills, that is, reading and writing skills. Wolfersberger (2013) clarifies that "the processes of reading and writing are individually very complex" (p. 51), and reading involves multiple processes such as "word recognition, orthographic processing, phonological processing, semantic and syntactic processing" (p. 50). Writing, on the other hand, involves multiple processes (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996) which encompasses spelling, grammar and vocabulary, to name a few. Thus, it is highly likely that a competent paraphrase is only achievable when the student has the appropriate L2 language proficiency, reading and writing skills.

In this study, both students put great effort in order to understand the extract given to them. Both students incorporated strategies such as reading the extract multiple times, identifying the main ideas and also underlining the main ideas in the passage. This was followed by finding and considering appropriate lexical items. This was to ensure the original meaning of the author is retained. Helen, was successful in her paraphrasing as she displayed a higher order comprehension of the extract and reported a much more interdependent reading (inferring meaning through bottom-up and top down strategies i.e. *"the title of the article gave me some idea of what the passage would be about"*) and writing processes (identifying familiar vocabulary i.e. *"Actually, I have seen them a lot in my other papers"*). However, for Farid; the student with lower L2 proficiency level, several main ideas were omitted and thus, the overall accuracy of the paraphrase was impacted. Evidently, crafting an accurate new paraphrase is cognitively demanding.

Another key point which emerged from the interviews was the fear of committing plagiarism. The perceived ideas about the paraphrasing function to avoid "copying" impacted the paraphrasing process. This raises another important issue – whether students, themselves have a clear understanding as to what constitutes an acceptable paraphrase. It is imperative that paraphrasing should be understood in a different light by the students. Hirvela and Du (2013) contend that paraphrasing should be seen more as a means of "meaningful opportunities for students to practice close reading of target texts and language and thus enhance their reading and writing skills" (p. 88). In fact, Yamada (2003) reports the many benefits of paraphrasing include the enhancement of inferential thinking and decision – making skills as they have to generate meaningful and accurate reconstructions of information.

The developmental perspective of viewing paraphrasing (i.e. Hirvela & Du, 2013; Pecorari, 2003) provides room to grow for the novice L2 writer. In fact, Pecorari argues that "efforts to address it should start with the understanding that most students will use sources inappropriately before they learn how to use them appropriately" (p. 342). In this study, both students clearly require more instruction, guidance and practice to further improve their paraphrasing competency. Thus, their positive attitudes towards the importance of paraphrasing should be perceived

as an opportunity for instructors (and course designers) to provide instructions that take into consideration their proficiency level, their area of disciplines and focus on academic vocabulary (Coxhead, 2012) . Both students viewing paraphrasing as an invaluable skill and wanting to do well in their academic studies highlight opportunities to not only enhance their academic identity, but also academic legitimacy as students writers of L2.

Conclusion

Previous research on the challenges that Malaysia L2 writers face when paraphrasing has provided somewhat a rather bleak picture. This study confirms that the issue is a complex one. The findings of this study suggest that students' linguistic competence impacts on their paraphrase strategy use. Accordingly, there is a need to view paraphrasing in a developmental perspective as such novice learners are bound to initially struggle as they acclimatize to the demands of academic writing. Furthermore, the links between writing skills in academic writing classes and learners' disciplines need to be more explicit not only in what paraphrasing can offer to them (i.e. reading-writing skills), but also metacognitive skills. The notion that skills are transferable may highlight the value of the skill, instead of its complexity. This can be done by focusing on academic vocabularies, sourcing materials which are familiar to students (i.e. those which are closely related to their respective disciplines) and making academic conventions such as citations, referencing, a familiar practice early on (i.e. pre-degree or matriculation programs). The findings also suggest that there is a need to utilise Content-Based Instruction to make the links between writing skills and learners' disciplines tangible. Research on reading-writing as an integrated skill is a relatively new field and much remains to be explored. This study, has illustrated that paraphrasing a text in L2 is certainly a complex cognitive endeavour and is influenced by multiple variables. Further research, perhaps involving more students with lower proficiency levels is needed to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon.

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Appendix A. Interview Guide
1. In your own words, what is paraphrasing?
2. Do you think paraphrasing is an important skill?
3. Do you incorporate paraphrasing skills in your studies? How?
4. What is easy about paraphrasing
5. What are some challenges in paraphrasing?
6. How would you describe your paraphrasing skills (5 Excellent 1 Poor)
7. Describe how you attempt a paraphrasing task.
8. What strategies do you incorporate when paraphrasing?
9. What are some of your concerns when paraphrasing?
10. Complete this sentence, "paraphrasing is easy / difficult because…"

Appendix B Sample Paraphrase from Farid

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SECTION B

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Paraphrase the paragraph taken from a research article below. Don't forget to include an in-text citation.

Research Article

Electronic Waste: A Growing Concern in Today's Environment

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Over the past two decades, the global market of electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) continues to grow exponentially, while the lifespan of those products becomes shorter. Therefore, businesses as well as waste management officials are facing a new challenge, and e-Waste or waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE) is receiving considerable amount of attention from policy makers. Predictably, the number of electrical devices will continue to increase on the global scale. Consequently, the volume of WEEE grows rapidly every year and is also believed to be one of the most critical waste disposal issues of the twenty-first century. Compared to conventional municipal wastes, certain components of electronic products contain toxic substances, which can generate a threat to the environment as well as to human health.

The global market of electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) continues to grow but the lifespan of the products becomes shorter. Thus, this contribute to e-Waste that received attentions from policy makers. Some components of electronic products contain harmful substances which can can be a threat to the environment and also human being.

Appendix C Sample Paraphrase from Helen

Paraphrase the paragraph taken from a research article below. Don't forget to include an in-text citation.

Research Article

Electronic Waste: A Growing Concern in Today's Environment

M. Khurrum S. Bhutta,[1] Adnan Omar,[2] and Xiaozhe Yang[3]

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Ohio University, OH 45701, Athens, USA*

Over the past two decades, the global market of electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) continues to grow exponentially, while the lifespan of those products becomes shorter. Therefore, businesses as well as waste management officials are facing a new challenge, and e-Waste or waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE) is receiving considerable amount of attention from policy makers. Predictably, the number of electrical devices will continue to increase on the global scale. Consequently, the volume of WEEE grows rapidly every year and is also believed to be one of the most critical waste disposal issues of the twenty-first century. Compared to conventional municipal wastes, certain components of electronic products contain toxic substances, which can generate a threat to the environment as well as to human health.

The growth of market of electrical and electronic equipment (EEE) has increased dramatically over the past ten years due to the products' lifespan which decrease. This problem has attracted much attention from the country leaders which turn out to be a challenge for businesses and waste management officials (Bhutta, Omar & Yang 2010). ~~As a result, the~~ It is predicted that the electrical devices will continue to raise in number on a worldwide scale. As a result, the amount of WEEE which increase dramatically yearly ~~and~~ is known to be one of the most serious rubbish dumping matters in the twenty-first century. Certain elements of electronic products ~~have~~ release unhealthy substance, which can cause harm to the surrounding as well as to people's health as compared to the traditional waste management (Bhutta, Omar & Yang 2010).