The Language Scholar

2021: Issue 9

Edited by Bee Bond and Martin Ward

Editorial Board

The Leeds Language Scholar Journal

The Language Scholar is an open access and peer-reviewed journal. Its main objective is to provide a platform to promote the scholarship of learning and teaching languages.

Contributions are welcome from practitioners, researchers and students who are involved in language education. Areas of particular interest to this Journal are theories and practices for language teaching and education, including language teaching approaches and methodologies, intercultural communication, the psychology of language learning, research-led teaching, student-led practices, communicative strategies and experimental teaching.

The Language Scholar is hosted by the Centre for Excellence in Language Teaching within the School of Languages, Cultures and Societies at the University of Leeds. It considers international contributions in multimedia formats, in and about any language (including ancient languages). It aims to provide a space for the development of scholarship in language education, and to provide a platform for pieces which highlight the potential of multimodality to enhance communication, including a supportive and developmental approach to peer review.

Alongside the annual printed issue, the Language Scholar's digital space hosts and showcases contributions, facilitating the sharing and exchange of ideas. Submissions can be sent to the journal at any time, although there will be deadlines announced for specific printed issues.

If you would like to get in touch or submit a piece, you can contact us on the journal's email: **languagescholar@leeds.ac.uk** or Tweet us at **@LangScholar**

Contents

Editorial

Bee Bond and Martin Ward

Welcome to Issue 9 of the Language Scholar, the culmination of the work and collaboration of our editorial team and the first issue co-edited by our new joint chief editor, Martin Ward. In this issue we continue to publish works demonstrating the pursuit of pedagogical excellence from across the world. As well as offering honest reflections, acknowledging the reality that things often do not go as planned, these pieces demonstrate that every experience reflected on provides an opportunity for development and growth. The issues discussed by our featured authors in this issue offer many valuable lessons from which we can all benefit, irrespective of our focus within language pedagogy.

We start off this issue with two research papers examining pertinent issues impacting English-language acquisition for Arab English Foreign Language learners (EFLLs). Hira Hanif's paper examines ways to raise scores in the IELTS writing component for EFLLs learners in Saudi Arabia, proposing an IELTS writing course based on a genre analysis approach. Meanwhile, Reem Roghailan M. Alshammari argues for a corpus-based approach to teaching collocations to better support Arab EFLLs in producing conventional collocations.

We then move on to our 'Scholarbits', featuring two excellent critical reflections on practice. Catherine Mildred reflects on the dynamic and interactive approach of using drama to teach English to a mixed proficiency class in the UK, and her piece serves to highlight also the value of collaboration and pooling resources in the pursuit of excellent outcomes for students. Marc Jones examines ways to improve the online teaching of listening in a world of rapidly evolving understandings of, and approaches to, digital learning, as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic. He offers insights from Japan that are valuable for all practitioners irrespective of location or language being taught.

Our final section in this issue is devoted to narratives of scholarship, which aim to provide wisdom for us all to glean from accounts of the processes and even failures of scholarship. Deak Kirkham presents us with a fly-on-the-wall view into the dynamics of the author's developing and ongoing

scholarly journey through a discussion of some of the dichotomies encountered by the language scholar. Then Milada Walkova paints an insightful picture of the 'bumpy road' of scholarship in her reflection on scholarship in English for Academic Purposes (EAP), offering encouragement for any who have faced the disappointment of rejected papers, as well as underlining the gains to be made from the oft experienced but despised 'accept with revisions'.

We trust that all will find encouragement and valuable takeaways from this issue. Our [website](#) continues to undergo a transformation to increase the visibility and impact of the peer-reviewed scholarship we publish. Finally, we would like to thank all of our valuable reviewers for their support as we continue our exploration of excellence in the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (SoTL).

Papers

An IELTS Writing Course Based on the Need Analysis of Saudi Learners

Hira Hanif

King's Foundation

King's College London

ABSTRACT

The significance of the IELTS test has recently increased in Saudi Arabia. An increasing number of students seek higher education in foreign universities abroad. These universities necessitate a high level of English language proficiency as an entry requirement. IELTS is widely used by these institutes as their criterion for admission. However, it has been noted that Saudi learners often score the lowest in the world in the writing component (IELTS, 2012). This paper reports on a small-scale study that was conducted to meet the need of this learner community; after conducting a detailed need analysis, this paper proposes an IELTS writing course based on a genre analysis approach.

KEYWORDS: IELTS, writing skills, genre approach

INTRODUCTION

The growth of English language education worldwide has led to an increase in English for specific purposes (ESP). It has been argued that every course should be relevant to the specific group of learners (Long, 2005). However, in Saudi Arabian higher education context there remains a paucity of courses that suit the needs of this learner community. This paper aims to fill this major gap and provides a template approach for course design. The purpose of this paper is to design an English for specific purposes writing course for Saudi Arabian adult learners who want to travel abroad for higher education. The course will prepare these learners for academic studies abroad and will also act as a preparation course for the IELTS exam by equipping them with the necessary skills required

to pass the exam. This paper will first discuss the context and rationale for the course. Briefly discussing the relevant literature, it will also highlight the scarcity of such studies in this context. The paper will then discuss the process of need analysis (NA) of these learners. Based on this analysis the syllabus for this course will be proposed and suitability of the course material and textbooks will be discussed.

Context

The significance of the IELTS test has recently increased in Saudi Arabia. In 2005, the King Abdullah Scholarship program (KASP) was launched to establish sustainable human resources in Saudi Arabia by supporting Saudi Arabian learners to study abroad. As a result of this scholarship an increasing number of students now seek higher education in foreign universities abroad. These universities necessitate a high level of English language proficiency as an entry requirement. IELTS is widely used by these institutes as their criterion for admission. In addition, the Saudi students also need adequate level of academic English to succeed in their academic programs in their universities abroad. Consequently, the demand for IELTS preparation courses and English for general academic purposes (EGAP) courses in the kingdom has increased drastically. To meet these demands, all the universities in the kingdom offer a course called the preparatory year program (PYP), which introduces the learners to general academic skills that would help them in their higher education abroad. However, the PYP does not equip the learners with the necessary skills required for their IELTS exam. To meet this need, several private academies have started offering IELTS preparation courses. However, both of these above-mentioned types of courses are based on a model, which Deakin (1997) calls a separated model, and none of these are sufficient on their own in their capacity to meet the needs of these learners.

Rationale

During my appointment as an ESL instructor in PYP programs and in an academy offering IELTS preparation programs, I noted the dissatisfaction of the learners with lessons, methodology, and materials. This was due to the courses' inability to meet the needs of this particular learner community. Similar dissatisfaction has also been noted by Long (2005). Therefore, I decided to offer an ESP course for Saudi Arabian learners based on Deakin's (1997) 'integrated' model where IELTS preparation will be incorporated into the English for Academic (EAP) course. This course, therefore, aims to meet both academic and IELTS needs of the learners. The course will be called *Academic writing for IELTS exam and university studies*. The course, as the name implies, will be restricted to

writing skills only. The reason for this is that writing is the most immediate need of these learners. Through my experience as an EFL instructor in Saudi Arabia, I was able to deduce generalisable information about the learner needs in my context. It was obvious from my observation and reflection notes that these learners suffer from serious problems with their English writing. This finding was further confirmed by the IELTS score of the learners from this context. According to the test performance report published by IELTS (2012), in 2012 the average band score in the writing component achieved by Saudi Arabian learners was 4.7, which was the lowest among the test takers from forty countries. Similarly, in 2013 these learners achieved the second lowest score in the world in the writing component (i.e. 4.9) (IELTS, 2013). Considering most western universities have a score of at least 6.5 as a minimum entry requirement, a big gap between the present situation and the target situation of Saudi Arabian learners is evident. Several empirical studies also confirm that writing is the most immediate need of these learners and the academic progress of Arab university students is affected due to their language proficiency (Al-Khairy, 2013). Therefore, I would like to approach the test preparation within the broader context of pre-tertiary EAP. The differences between the IELTS writing tasks and the writing required of university students has been analysed by several researchers (Moore & Morton, 2007). This course will not only attempt to meet the immediate needs of the learners but also attempt to familiarise them with pre-tertiary education they will embark on after passing the test.

Literature Review

The concept of ESP developed in different parts of the world in 1960s; soon after other branches emerged including English for science and technology (EST), English for occupational purposes (EOP), English for academic purposes (EAP) etc. (Chazel, 2014). Courses designed for language for specific purposes base their methodology, content, objectives, materials, teaching, and assessment practices on the specific, target language uses based on a set of identified specific needs (Trace et. al., 2015). Designing and proposing language for specific purposes courses based on need analysis of learners has become a common practice around the globe. Some examples include Hillman, (2015), Lee, (2015), Ho (2015) and Oh (2015) who have proposed syllabuses based on need analyses of particular groups of people. Trace et. al. (2015) has presented several other studies that have proposed language for specific purposes courses to meet the specific needs of the learner in different contexts. Some of these include Mandarin for nursing students, Polish for health personnel, developing business Korean curriculum for advanced learners in an American university and Hawaiian for indigenous purposes to sustain Hawaii's rich culture and language. As the names illustrate, all of these courses were need driven to meet the unique requirements of particular

groups of learners. However, in Saudi Arabia, although conducting need analysis is not uncommon for research purposes, such as Khan (2019) and Zughoul & Hussein (1986), specifically designing courses based on these needs is not common. In particular, there has not been any course offered or proposed in Saudi Arabia to meet the needs of this specific group of students who goes abroad for further studies. After taking their IELTS exams in Saudi Arabia, the students usually complete a pre-sessional course in the host country before they start their undergraduate or graduate studies in the host country. The aim of these courses is to prepare international students for higher studies in the UK. The researcher recently had a chance to teach at some of the pre-sessional courses offered in one of the universities in the UK. It was noted that although these courses aim to meet the needs of international students, they are not particularly designed for Saudi Arabian students. It is, therefore, believed that the course proposed in this paper will not only specifically meet the needs of Saudi students, but it will do so in their home country. Economizing the resources, they will also prepare for the IELTS exams at the same time.

Practical considerations

I will be teaching the course face-to-face and it will be held in a rented conference hall in Riyadh. The course will run twice a week on the weekends and will last for 10 weeks. The students will be intermediate to upper intermediate EFL learners who, depending on the number of students enrolled, will be divided into two groups and taught in separate sessions. The course will be restricted to female learners only due to the laws pertaining to gender segregation in the country.

Need analysis

Need Analysis (NA) is an essential step in designing any ESP course. It can be divided in two parts including present situation analysis (PSA) and target situation analysis (TSA). The PSA focuses on the learners' lacks and TSA focuses on what competencies learners need to have to function in the target situations. It can be inferred from the learners' enrolment in the course that these learners will have a shared goal of improving their writing and consequently improving their scores in the writing component of the IELTS exam. However, PSA will be required to analyse their cognitive styles, preferred learning strategies and existing knowledge of the language. In Hutchinson and Waters (1987) model, when designing syllabus, attention is also paid to conditions such as speed, time, resources, efficiency etc. The following discussion will show the need analysis stage of this course.

Sources and methods

There is a common consensus among the researchers about the efficacy of using multiple methods in any research (Cowling, 2007). The following sources were, therefore, identified for the PSA and the TSA.

1. Learners enrolled in the course.

2. IELTS examiners who have experience of marking written IELTS exams of Saudi Arabian learners.

3. ESL instructors who have experience of teaching writing skill to these learners in EAP courses.

4. Former learners who have taken IELTS exam and have studied abroad in university settings.

5. Literature related to the writing deficiencies of Saudi Arabian learners.

Also, it is important to mention that gaining access to the IELTS written exams completed by Saudi Arabian learners would have helped the researcher to gain beneficial insights into the PSA of these learners. However, the researcher was not able to gain access to the Cambridge Learner Corpus that holds the exam scripts of the learners. Only specialists at the Cambridge University Press have access to this corpus.

DATA GATHERING

Participants

The process of data gathering was challenging. The researcher was not working at the time of the research; therefore, gaining access to institutes to interview the instructors or examiners was not possible. Subsequently, an online questionnaire was designed and sent to Saudi Arabian professionals, who had taken the IELTS test and also had an opportunity to study in the universities abroad. Unfortunately, the rate of response of these surveys was significantly low, making it impossible to draw any generalisable conclusion from these findings. The questionnaires were also sent to IELTS examiners and ESL instructors through a professional networking site. Concerning ethical considerations, the respondents of the questionnaires were made aware of the objectives of the research and they voluntarily chose to participate in the study. Anonymity of individuals participating in the need analysis was also ensured. Although an analysis of the data gathered is

beyond the scope of this paper, it would be reasonable to say that through the information gathered, the researcher was able to assess the most important writing needs of these learners. Notable limitations in grammar, vocabulary, use of coherence devices, and use of appropriate register were identified as their most immediate needs.

In addition, the learners taking a course also called the 'target group' (Brown, 1995) have important implications for the course design and it is very important to get as much information as possible from them (Richards, 2001). However, in this case this group cannot be accessed until these learners register for the course. Nevertheless, the following discussion will show how I aim to use this source when these participants are accessible.

To gather students' needs and lacks in NA, often 'I-Can-Do' frameworks are used. However, such instruments can sometimes lead to the yielding of misleading data because it can only represent students' perceived weaknesses. It has been argued that students are not always aware of their needs. For example, Basturkmen (2010) maintains that students are not always the best judges of their own needs. Ferris (in Basturkmen 2010, p.27), who carried out a study of 700 ESL learners, demonstrated that learners were unable to recognise their actual needs. Therefore, to evaluate learner's present situation at the point of entry to the course, the learners would be given a placement test. This test will facilitate the selection process of the students, as they will require a certain level of English to benefit from the course. In this test the students will be required to write about their needs in a paragraph. This test will serve multiple purposes as it will not only show the students' perceived needs but also provide a sample of their writing showing their actual needs. Additionally, the gap between the two will help the syllabus designer to design activities, which will make the learners see this gap. Discussing these needs with the learners during the course will also satisfy them. The course will be funded by the learners and it is important to satisfy them. Also, if the course is designed according to the need analysis but the learners do not consider those as needs then the course can have negative effects on their motivation. As Basturkmen (2010) maintains learners can become demotivated if the course does not seem directly related to their aims. For example, the main reason for enrolling for this course for these learners will be for preparing for IELTS exam and therefore they might not consider preparing for university writing skills as their need and might find it irrelevant. Belcher (2006) suggests discussing language needs with the learners can place their language learning needs in a larger context. Therefore, the knowledge about student perceived needs will help the teacher to negotiate their needs with them during the

course. Also, the test will help the teacher to group the learners according to their language proficiency. This placement test will accompany a brief questionnaire asking the participants about their preferences, learner perceived needs, learning styles so that the activities can be designed according to their preferences and cognitive styles. (The placement test and all the questionnaires designed and administered in the study can be provided upon request).

Related literature to inform the NA:

The final source of information that plays an integral role in any NA is a review of the related literature. Basturkmen (2010) recommends locating published reports of ESP-oriented needs analyses in similar situations. The literature that informed this course design included Dickinson (2013), Al-Khairy (2013,) and Javid and Umer (2014). The literature also confirmed the survey findings and the most problematic areas of Saudi learners writing identified by these researchers were in consistence with that which were identified by the ESL instructors and IELTS examiners surveyed for the present study.

On-going and post-course NA

Although, this paper has only discussed the pre-course NA, which will influence the initial course design, there is now sufficient evidence to support the on-going need re-analysis for the revision of course design (Basturkmen, 2010). Any discussion of on-going NA and its implementation on this course is beyond the scope of this paper, however, it should be noted that once the course starts, students will be provided with weekly opportunities to assess their emerging needs and priorities. Questionnaires and open discussions in class, which have also been called *buzz groups*, will be used for formative assessment of the course. An end of course exam will be used for summative assessment of the course. A comparison of the students' initial writings and these exam responses will be carried out to see if the course has met the desired outcomes. In addition, a questionnaire will also be part of the post-evaluation of the course. It will gather data concerning the appropriacy of the course material, teaching methods and other issues pertaining to the course delivery and will assess if any aspects of the course need to be modified. The consent of the participants will be obtained at all stages of NA and the participants will have an option to withdraw at any stage if they wish to do so.

Investigating Specialist discourse

It has been argued that the content of a course needs to be based on a thorough and precise description of the language of the target situation. Hyland (2009) argues that a main source of data for writing research is writing itself. In the same vein, Basturkmen (2010) asserts the importance of investigating specialist discourse in order to teach the language the learners need to effectively communicate in their target situation. She (2010, p.45) enlists three approaches that can be used to investigate specialist discourse; these include ethnography, genre analysis and corpus analysis. This enquiry has combined the latter two approaches. Also, instead of embarking on empirical research into the specialist discourse, Basturkmen recommends investigating the discourse by using already existing resources to save time effort and resources. In line with her view, the researcher investigated British Academic Written English Corpus (BAWE) and the model answers of the IELTS writing component. The literature that has already identified the key features of academic writing through register analysis was also consulted. For example, Jordan (1997 in Dudley–Evans and Johns 2002, p.227) enlists a number of characteristics of academic writing. This investigation into the specialist discourse enabled the researcher to see the gap between the present situation and the target situation of the learners.

Conclusions drawn from the NA

Following Hutchinson and Waters (1987) model of TSA and PSA, I was able to deduce the following information from the data gathered from the participants and the literature.

- The learners need to acquire particular academic writing skills to achieve high score in the IELTS test. Such as describing graphs, pie charts, procedures, argumentative writing, brainstorming etc.

- The learners need specific skills for the IELTS test. Such as writing to a word limit etc.

- The learners need to acquire academic writing skills to succeed in their studies abroad.

- They need to be familiar with the genres used in university writing and in the IELTS writing component.

- Their most immediate writing needs included vocabulary, ordering and organising ideas, formality and coherence.

It is important to note that during the course of the NA a large number of needs were identified, however, as Richards (2001) argues that needs have to be prioritised, decisions had to be made regarding which needs were critical and which were merely desirable.

DESIGNING THE COURSE AND SYLLABUS

Nunan (1998 in Gray 1990) suggests that an effective syllabus considers the learner needs, selects the linguistic items and decides what activities will promote language acquisition. The paper will now turn to the syllabus design stage of the project and present a rationale for choosing the approach.

Genre analysis as a base of syllabus designs

Based on the above discussion of the NA, a course was designed using a genre-based approach to the teaching of writing skills. (For the course overview and syllabus see Appendix). There were several reasons for choosing genre analysis as the basis of this course. The literature on genre has highlighted that texts used in a particular environment demonstrate particular characteristics that make them distinct from the texts used in other contexts. The fact that a specific *genre* of text will have a prevalence of certain forms and lexis over several s*amples* of such texts makes a case for using genre analysis as a base of syllabus design. This approach has been recommended by several researchers including Dickinson (2013) and Hyland (2006). Dickinson asserts that genre-based approaches have proven successful in improving writing in many other contexts and therefore should be employed to teach the IELTS writing component. This approach made the syllabus more relevant to the learners by giving high priority to the language forms these students would require in their future. Dickinson (2013) maintains that such teaching methodology does not only meet the learners' most immediate need but also helps them to achieve various goals in the future. In the same vein, Dudley-Evans (2000) suggests that focusing on the specific features of the actual genres that learners actually have to write is the most efficient approach to teach a homogenous group. Considering this group is a homogenous one in a number of ways, choosing the genre approach for syllabus design will serve the learners' needs effectively.

Another motive for using the genre-based approach is to foster learner autonomy in the students. Hyland (2006) argues that students in higher education have to engage with knowledge in new ways

and are required to write in unfamiliar genres. As a result, despite acquiring a good score in IELTS exam, students often struggle in university studies. For example, feedback from overseas students in Australian universities illustrated that due to their unfamiliarity with the genre, essay writing was considered the most challenging task by them (Blundell, 2007, in Dickinson, 2013). Also, substantial differences, between the writing needed for the IELTS test and the real needs of university studies, have been noted by Moore and Morton (2007). This course, therefore, aims to introduce the learners to a wider notion of genre. They will be trained to notice patterns of language, which will enable them to look for common patterns when they encounter a new genre in their future studies. An ability to analyse the salient patters of their discourse will help them to produce similar texts. To sum up, a genre-based approach will prepare these learners to cope with unfamiliar genres in the future.

The course will introduce the learners to the common genres of academic writing. They will be trained to use appropriate schematic structures, vocabulary and grammar particular for academic writing. The students will also learn internalising and carrying out the stages of writing including brainstorming, organising, conferencing and redrafting. During the first five weeks of the course, the focus will be on academic writing in general, whereas during the last 5 weeks, the course will focus more explicitly on the English proficiency exam. During this second half of the course, in addition to learning skills particular to the exam, the student will also use and practice the knowledge acquired in the first part of the course. This structure will help to consolidate their learning and assist their long-term goals.

Course Material and evaluation

It is well known that selecting a suitable course book is not a simple task and requires careful consideration. Chambers (1995) discourages the use of intuitive decisions regarding this choice and provides a structured method of choosing course books. Similarly, Sheldon (1988) also provides a model for evaluating textbooks. Based on Sheldon's model, I have chosen *Unlock 3* for this course. Although course books have been criticised for their inability to meet a particular group's needs (Allwright, 1981, O'Neil, 1982), there are several reasons for choosing a textbook for the course. Firstly, course books provide a framework to follow and they are cost and time efficient (O'Neil, 1982). Secondly, this textbook has been specifically designed for this learner community; it is culturally appropriate and meets most of their needs. Its educational validity is evident from the fact that in addition to improving their writing skills for English language proficiency tests, this book takes

account of their broader education concern, and prepares them for tertiary education. For example, an inclusion of brainstorming activities and graphic organisers trains them for higher education. Wallace (1997) has noted the inability of the Middle Eastern students to think for themselves. He argues that as a result of traditional teaching methods focusing on memorisation, theses learners struggle with the writing tasks in the IELTS exam. Therefore, such activities will help them to write effectively in the future. Another feature of this book is that each of the chapters intensively teaches vocabulary, which was a major area of concern for these learners according to the survey findings. Also, each chapter aims to foster independent learning providing a progress log at the end of each chapter to give the learners a clear idea of his/her progression.

Using this course book as a framework, I aim to supplement this material with activities that take advantage of genre analysis more explicitly. Another reason due to which adaptation of some of the activities will be required is to suit learners' styles and to prevent the lessons from being mechanical. Also, this material will have to be supplemented by IELTS preparation materials because although each chapter provides an examination focus, the strategies and skills provided are not specifically focused on the IELTS exam and therefore will have to be substituted by additional material. I will complement the course book with *Cambridge English IELTS with answers 8 & 9*. Using model answers from this book, I aim to incorporate activities, which will enhance their understanding of particular genres. This use of external texts from the learners' particular discourse they are preparing for and adapting these texts for teaching the learners features of their discourse will meet the needs of these learners effectively. In summary, in accordance with O'Neil's (1982, p.110) view, I would use the textbooks as a 'jumping off point' to provide only a base or a core of materials.

CONCLUSION

The course discussed in this paper was designed to respond to the needs of the Saudi students who were planning on going abroad for further studies. Their needs were investigated by conducting an NA using different sources and methods to triangulate the findings. The findings of the survey were confirmed by the relevant literature about the needs of these learners. Based on the results of the NA, the course syllabus was designed. The paper also discussed some other key issues such as material evaluation for the course. Finally, it is hoped that this study presents a good model that can be used for the learners in this context.

Address for correspondence: hira.hanif@kcl.ac.uk

REFERENCES

Al-Khairy, M. 2013. Saudi English-Major Undergraduates' Academic Writing Problems: A Taif University Perspective. *English Language Teachin*g. **6**(6), pp.1-12.

Allwright, R. 1981. What do we want teaching materials for? *ELT Journal*. **36**(1), pp.5-17.

Khan, A. 2019. Designing ESP Texts for Engineering in the Saudi Context. *English for Specific Purposes World*. **58**(21).

Basturkmen, H. 2010. *Developing courses in English for specific purposes*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Belcher, D. 2006. English for Specific Purposes: Teaching to Perceived Needs and Imagined Futures in Worlds of Work, Study, and Everyday Life. *TESOL Quarterly.* **40**(1), pp.133-156.

Brown, J. 1995. *The Elements of Language Curriculum.* Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Newbury House.

British Academic Written English Corpus (BAWE), Coventry University. [Online]. [Accessed 06 March 2015]. Available from: http://www.coventry.ac.uk/research-bank/research-archive/art-design/british-academic-written-english-corpus-bawe/

Chambers, F. 1997. Seeking consensus in course book evaluation. *ELT Journal Volume.* **51**(1), pp.29-35.

Cambridge ESOL. 2013. *Cambridge English IELTS with Answers 9*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Cambridge ESOL. 2011. *Cambridge English IELTS with answers 8*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chazel, E. 2014. *English for Academic Purposes.* Oxford: Oxford University Press,

Cowling, J. 2007. Needs analysis: Planning a syllabus for a series of intensive workplace courses at a leading Japanese company. *English for Specific Purposes.* **26**(4), pp.426–442.

Deakin, G. 1997. IELTS in context: issues in EAP for overseas students. *EA Journal.* **15**(2), pp.7-28.

Dickinson, P. 2013. A Genre-based Approach to Preparing for IELTS and TOEFL Essay Writing Tasks. *Journal of Niigata University of International and Information Studies.* **16**, pp.1-9.

Dudley-Evans, T. 2000. Genre analysis: a key to a theory of ESP? *BÉRICA.* **2**, pp.1-11.

Gray, K. 1990. Syllabus design for the general class: what happens to theory when you apply it. *ELT Journal.* **44**(4), pp.261-271.

Hillman, S. (2015). Basic Arabic for health care professionals. In: Trace, J., Hudson, T., & Brown, J. D. ed. *Developing Courses in Languages for Specific Purposes.* [online]. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, pp.35-47. [Accessed 6 January 2021]. Available from: http://hdl.handle.net/10125/14573

Ho, K. (2015). Home care worker training for ESL students. In: Trace, J., Hudson, T., & Brown, J. D. ed. *Developing Courses in Languages for Specific Purposes.* [online]. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, pp.65-86. [Accessed 6 January 2021]. Available from: http://hdl.handle.net/10125/14573

Hutchinson, T. and Waters, A. 1987. *English for specific purposes: A learning-centered Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hyland K. 2006. *English for Academic Purposes: An Advanced Resource Book.* London Routledge.

Hyland, K. 2009. *Teaching and researching writing English*. 2nd ed. Harlow: Longman.

IELTS. 2012. *IELTS | Researchers - Test taker performance 2012.* [Online]. [Accessed 24 February 2015]. Available from: http://www.ielts.org/researchers/analysis-of-test-data/test-taker-performance-2012.aspx

IELTS. 2013. *IELTS | Researchers - Test taker performance 2013.* [Online]. [Accessed on 17 June 2020]. Available from:

http://www.ielts.org/researchers/analysis_of_test_data/test_taker_performance_2013.aspx

Javid, C. & Umer, M. 2014. Saudi EFL learners' writing problems: A move towards solution. *Proceeding of the Global Summit on Education GSE 2014, 4-5 March 2014, Kuala Lumpur, MALAYSIA.* [online]. Taif, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Taif University. [Accessed on 17 June 2020]. Available from: http://worldconferences.net/proceedings/gse2014/toc/papers_gse2014/G%20078%20-%20CHOUNDHARY%20ZAHID%20JAVID_Saudi%20EFL%20Learners_%20Writing%20Problems%20A%20Move%20towards%20Solution_read.pdf

Lee, K. C. 2015. Mandarin Chinese for professional purposes for an internship program in a study abroad context. In: Trace, J., Hudson, T., & Brown, J. D. ed. *Developing Courses in Languages for Specific Purposes.* [online]. Honolulu: University of Hawaii, pp.100-114. [Accessed 6 January 2021]. Available from: http://hdl.handle.net/10125/14573

Long, M. eds. 2005. *Second language needs analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Moore, T. & Morton, J. 2007. Authenticity in the IELTS academic module writing test: A comparative study of Task 2 items and university assignments. In: Taylor, L. & Falvey, B. ed. *IELTS Collected Papers: Studies in Language Testing 19*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. pp.197 -249.

Oh, Y. 2015. English for Specific Purposes for overseas sales and marketing workers in information technology. In: Trace, J., Hudson, T., & Brown, J. D. ed. *Developing Courses in Languages for Specific Purposes.* [online]. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, pp.115–127. [Accessed 6 January 2021]. Available from: http://hdl.handle.net/10125/14573

O'Neil, R. 1982. Why use textbooks. *ELT Journal.* **36**(2), pp.104-111.

Richards, J. 2001. *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Sheldon, L. 1988. Evaluating ELT textbooks and materials. *ELT Journal.* **42**(4), pp.237-246.

Trace, J., Hudson, T., & Brown, J. 2015. An overview of language for specific purposes. In: Trace, J., Hudson, T., & Brown, J. D. ed. *Developing Courses in Languages for Specific Purposes.* [online]. Honolulu: University of Hawai'I, pp.1-22. [Accessed 6 January 2021]. Available from: http://hdl.handle.net/10125/14573

Wallace, G. 1997. IELTS: global implications of curriculum and materials design. *ELT Journal*, **51**(4), pp.370-373.

Westbrook, C., Baker, L., Sowton, C., Farmer, J. & Gokay, J. 2019. *Unlock 3 Reading, Writing & Critical Thinking*. Cambridge: University of Cambridge.

Zughoul, M. & Hussein, R. 1986. English for Higher Education in the Arab World: A Case Study of Needs Analysis at Yarmouk University. *The ESP Journal.* 4(2), pp. 133-152.

APPENDIX

Syllabus

Week	Focus	Material
Week 1 - Session 1 & 2	➢ Introduction ➢ Genre focus-**Essay Writing (comparison and contrast)** ➢ Writing topic and concluding sentences ➢ Varying sentence structure in a paragraph ➢ Comparison charts to organize ideas ➢ Language focus- using comparative and superlatives ➢ Using language to show contrast: *while*, *in contrast* and *on the other hand etc.* ➢ Vocabulary Building	Chapter 1 Course book- *Unlock 3 Reading, Writing & Critical Thinking*
Week 2- Session 1	➢ Genre focus- **Essay Writing (cause and effect)** ➢ Writing supporting sentences and details ➢ Giving examples	Chapter 2 Course book- *Unlock 3 Reading, Writing & Critical Thinking*
Week 2- Session 2	➢ Genre focus- **Essay Writing (opinion essay)** ➢ Structuring an essay (introductory, body and concluding paragraphs) ➢ Free writing to generate ideas ➢ Conciseness and redundancy ➢ Vocabulary building	Chapter 5 Course book- *Unlock 3 Reading, Writing & Critical Thinking* + supplemented by material prepared by the author
Week 3- Session 1	➢ Genre focus- **explanatory essay** ➢ Brainstorming ➢ Hook, background information, thesis statement ➢ Editing for content and language	Chapter 6 Course book- *Unlock 3 Reading, Writing & Critical Thinking*
Week 3- Session 2	➢ Genre focus- **reflective essays** ➢ Structure: description, interpretation/analysis, evaluation ➢ Coherence and cohesion ➢ Expanding your Vocabulary after the Course	Material prepared by the author
Week 4- Session 1 & 2	➢ Genre focus- **descriptive essay vs argumentative essay** (to identify genre specific features and differences) ➢ Showing Criticality ➢ Developing your Own Voice in Supporting Arguments	Material prepared by the author using authentic texts from the internet.

Week 5- Session 1	➢ Genre focus-**Features of academic writing in university settings** ➢ Register ➢ Referencing and plagiarism ➢ Revising & editing ➢ Cohesive devices ➢ Use of indirect language ➢ Use of hedging	Material prepared by the author using authentic texts
Week 5- Session 2	➢ Genre focus- **argument essay** ➢ Using a graphic organiser to organise ideas ➢ Vocabulary building ➢ Familiarizing with IELTS Task 2-Argument-led tasks	Chapter 7 Course book- *Unlock 3 Reading, Writing & Critical Thinking* IELTS Preparation Session *Cambridge English IELTS with answers 8*
Week 6- Session 1	➢ Overview of IELTS writing component ➢ Familiarizing with the marking rubrics of Task 2 ➢ Analysis of schematic structure of **opinion-led tasks** ➢ Focus on language- coherence and cohesion	IELTS Preparation Session *Cambridge English IELTS with answers 9*
Week 6- Session 2	➢ IELTS Task 2 schematic structure of **mixed opinion/question tasks, advantage /disadvantage tasks and issues/problem task** ➢ Outlining, brainstorming, editing	*Cambridge English IELTS with answers 9* IELTS Preparation Session
Week 7- Session 1	➢ Overview of Task 1**- Report writing** ➢ Familiarising with the marking rubrics ➢ Genre analysis- **graphs tasks** ➢ Understanding and describing trends ➢ Lexical and grammatical patterns for describing and discussing trends ➢ Sequencing and linking ➢ Structuring a report	IELTS Preparation Session *Cambridge English IELTS with answers 9*
Week 7- Session 2	➢ **Bar charts** ➢ Single/multiple variable bar charts ➢ Comparison bar charts ➢ Selecting main features ➢ **Pie charts** ➢ Understanding the type of chart (comparison/trend) ➢ Understanding and converting proportions ➢ Lexical and grammatical patterns for describing and discussing trends	IELTS Preparation Session *Cambridge English IELTS with answers 9*
Week 8- Session 1 & 2	➢ **Table tasks** ➢ Understanding the type of table (comparison/trend) ➢ Reporting in rows or columns ➢ **Map tasks** ➢ Selecting the main features ➢ Outline and paragraphing	IELTS Preparation Session *Cambridge English IELTS with answers 9*

	➢ Writing an introduction and overview statement ➢ Structuring the body of the report ➢ Drawing comparisons ➢ Approaches to a sum-up paragraph ➢ Sequencing	
Week 9- Session 1 & 2	➢ **Process and flowchart tasks** ➢ Understanding sequence and stages ➢ Cycles and linear processes ➢ Understanding tenses for describing a process ➢ Using the passive or active tense ➢ Linking ➢ Outline and paragraphing ➢ Writing an introduction statement ➢ Writing an overview statement ➢ Structuring the body of the report ➢ Approaches to a sum-up paragraph	
Week 10	➢ Assessment	*Cambridge English IELTS with Answers 9*

Adverb-Adjective Collocation Use by Arab EFLLs and British English Native Speakers: a comparative corpus-based study

Reem Roghailan M. Alshammari

Linguistics Department, School of Languages, Cultures and Societies, University of Leeds

ABSTRACT

This research paper is a comparative corpus-based study of the use of written lexical collocations amongst British native speakers and Arabic speaking learners of English. It presents the findings of an investigation into L1 interference based on error analysis theory underpinned by a corpus-based study. Collocation is an aspect of language learning that poses considerable difficulty for English Foreign Language learners (EFLLs). Arab EFLLs, as do EFLLs from any other first language (L1), encounter various problems when producing collocations. To investigate the written production and the source of errors or strangeness that could be an influence of the learners' L1, I have implemented a frequency corpus-based analysis and error analysis of the use of the Adverb-Adjective collocation. The results reveal that Adverb-Adjective collocation is less used among Arabic speaking EFLLs than among British native English-speaking students and feed directly into the teaching of English to Arab (and other) learners of English and argues for a corpus-based approach to teaching collocations.

KEYWORDS: Adverb-Adjective, Arab EFLLs, Corpus-based, Error analysis, Frequency, Lexical collocations, L1 interference

INTRODUCTION

Collocation has long been a subject of great interest across a wide range of branches of linguistics, such as corpus linguistics, sociolinguistics, and cognitive linguistics (Granger, 2003; MacArthur and Littlemore, 2008; Regan, 1998). Since the early 1980s, a growing body of literature has investigated

the use of English by foreign language learners (EFFLs), with particular attention to the use of lexical collocations (Al-Zahrani, 1998; Bahns and Eldaw, 1993; Bartsch, 2004; Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Chang, 2018; Nesselhauf, 2003; Siyanova and Schmitt, 2008). This is evident in the increased interest in investigating the use of lexical collocations by EFLLs with different first languages (L1), for example, Turkish EFLLs (Basal, 2017; Demir, 2017), Korean EFLLs (Chang, 2018), Hebrew EFLLs (Laufer and Waldman, 2011) and Arabic speaking EFLLs (Alharbi, 2017; Bahumaid, 2006; Farooqui, 2016; Khoja, 2019; Mahmoud, Abdulmoneim., 2005). Producing accurate or appropriate collocations in spoken or written language is viewed as a complicated aspect of language learning (Farrokh, 2012). Many EFLLs encounter difficulties with putting words together, especially with, producing collocations in the way that native speakers do (Bahns, 1993; Nugroho, 2015). Problems associated with combining words in the L2 emphasise the need to investigate the use of collocations by EFLLs. Native speakers of English find that 'strong tea' sounds right, rather than 'powerful tea', while Arabic speaking EFLLs may say 'heavy tea' to mean 'strong tea' as a result of L1 interference. The acceptability of a co-occurrence is difficult to justify in terms of producing possible versus impossible collocations, because any combination of words is theoretically possible (Auer, 1997). Native speakers' intuition and language exposure play a crucial part in creating an acceptable collocation (Durrant and Schmitt, 2010; Martinez and Schmitt, 2012). The production of collocations may be further influenced by L1 interference because some combinations of words sound appropriate in the L1 but not in the L2.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Several definitions of *collocation* are proposed in the literature (Manning et al., 1999; Mel'čuk, 1998). Firth (1957), recognised as the father of *collocation*, defined it as words that co-occur habitually, thus creating a particular meaning in language production. Firth states that knowledge of a word is accompanied by a familiarity with the words it accompanies which could be described as collocability between words; for example, the way 'dark' collocates with 'night'. The common definition for collocation from a statistical perspective indicates that there has to be something related to numbers/frequency, or that there has to be a certain degree of probability of two words co-occurring within a short distance (e.g. 'appreciate' and 'sincerely'). One way of identifying collocation is by considering its probability score (e.g. log-likelihood (LL)) as being a standard collocation, for example, 'sincerely hope' has a 185.13 LL score based on the BNC; thus 'sincerely' is a probable collocate of 'hope'. Using corpora can have a significant benefit for linguists as they can,

within seconds, generate more collocations than a native speaker would ever be able to do. More importantly, these collocations can be ranked according to the various statistical associations (e.g. frequency or probability). Sinclair (1991) and Hunston (2002) concur in noting that collocation refers to the position of words close to each other in the text. The definitions provided here illustrate a frequency-based approach to studying collocation. For the purpose of this study, I define collocation as:

> A combination of two words in which the occurrence of one word is conditional on the presence of the other (for example an Adverb-Adjective collocation is a combination of an adverb and an adjective with the adjective conditioned by the adverb).

Adverb-Adjective collocations are used to explain a purpose, ascribe degree, or other qualities to an adjective (e.g. 'utterly ridiculous' or 'deeply concerned'). As preposition or function words do not typically occur between Adverb-Adjective collocations, this study focuses on lexical collocations: word combinations that exclude any prepositions or intervening function words (e.g. 'absolutely delighted' and 'really amazing' (Mel'čuk, 1998; Phoocharoensil, 2013)).

It is assumed that native speakers' knowledge of collocation is not reliable in terms of producing an extensive list of collocations when compared to those automatically listed in large corpora. A computer will generate long lists of collocations ranked by probability, but language instructors usually need to refine these lists, remove any unusual forms, and pick out the most pedagogically relevant collocations. The main advantage of a computer-generated list of collocations is that it allows to get the most probable collocation which could be pedagogically the most relevant. Foreign language learners aim to achieve an acceptable use of collocation to make their writing more natural and accurate to native speakers, and for general and educational communication purposes, yet this requires language exposure (Henriksen, 2013). For example, the choice of the right lexical collocate is important to sound natural to a native speaker as in 'high' versus 'tall' (e.g. one can say 'tall man' but not 'high man')*. The right choice of adjective is needed to sound natural, as in 'international food' versus 'worldwide food'. By using corpus data tutors can identify more contrastive pairs and develop exercise around them which is an example of a hand-off corpus-based language learning. Teaching contrastive pairs would assist in learning collocations and language development in order to produce natural language or at least to be acceptable to native speakers (Demir, 2017). The term *naturalness* explains a well-formed use of English that may sound acceptable to native speakers of that language.

It has been established through various Arabic authors that the Arabic language is rich in collocations, yet some scholars stated that the adverb-adjective collocations does not exist in Arabic (Abd Ai-Qadir, 2015; Ghazala, 1993; Husamaddin, 1985; Mustafa, 2010). Brashi (2005), an Arab linguist, included the Adjective-Adverbial phrase in his classification. The adverbial phrase, in Arabic, consists of a preposition and a noun e.g. مستنكرٌ بشدة ‘*mustnkrun bishdatan’* (meaning *strongly condemns*). Brashi’s classification, however, may be problematic, as seen by the fact that when translated into English his example creates an Adverb-Verb collocation in English and Arabic grammar, which supports the argument for the absence of the Adverb-Adjective collocation in Arabic. Although some previous studies claim that Adverb-Adjective collocations may not exist in Arabic, there are some instances of Adverb-Adverb collocations as in ‘wholly and heartedly’ (بالتمام والكمال) and Adjective-Adjective collocations as in ‘healthy and well’ (بصحه وعافيه); yet these collocations are usually connected with a connector such as ‘and’ (Rabeh, 2010).Therefore, based on the literature, there is no direct equivalent for the English Adverb-Adjective collocation in the Arabic language; this absence is thus likely to hinder learners’ collocational development.

Previous Studies in the Use of Collocations in EFL

Previous literature on AEFLLs’ use of lexical collocations has highlighted several difficulties in producing accurate collocations. Mahmoud (2005) found that AEFLLs tend to produce lexical collocation errors accounting for 83% of the total collocation errors in his study, of which most display an incorrect selection of lexical items. The following examples are highlighted by Mahmoud in his 2005 study as errors attributed to negative transfer from the learners’ L1. The first is where the learners misuse one word; for example, the learners would say ‘artificial information’ instead of ‘faulty information’*,* or with both words incorrect, for example, ‘basic machine’ instead of ‘important device’. These four examples may be mis-translations from learners’ L1, but they are not incorrect collocations in English. Also, Mahmoud highlights contextual errors*,* linguistically correctly formed, but incorrect in context*;* for example, ‘bring a boy’ instead of *‘*give birth to a boy’*.* Though the previous examples are linguistically well-formulated and correct, the exact meaning in context differs because the student was talking about the process of giving birth which could be expressed in Arabic as ‘bring’ or ‘put’ تَضعُ /*tad'u/* not ‘give birth to’. Thus, the choice of the right lexical collocation is as essential as forming linguistically acceptable collocations (e.g. giving a positive or negative connotation which will be discussed below). Another error highlighted by Mahmoud is word-formation errors where one part of the collocation is used in the incorrect form*;* for example, *‘*wants to get marriage’ instead of ‘wants to get married’. These errors could be attributed to

negative interlingual transfer which may be L1 influence on the L2. Rajab et al. (2016) investigated Libyan Arab EFLLs' semantic written interlingual errors in which, he argues, direct transfer from Arabic was one of the causes of errors. Alanazi's (2017) investigation into Saudi EFLLs' knowledge of producing synonyms in English as translations of Arabic were similar to Rajab et al.'s (2016) results, in that he found that L1 is one source of errors that had influenced the production of synonyms and collocations. The most interesting relevant finding was the frequent use of the adverb 'very' in cases where 'extremely' and 'completely' should be used such as ('very cheap' instead of 'extremely cheap') and ('very useless' instead of 'completely useless'). The use of different degree adverbs would imply a negative connotation in contrast to how native speakers deliver it which, therefore, would hinder EFLLs' language development in terms of using collocations.

An example is the collocation 'very cheap' as in 'the flight was very cheap', which implies a positive connotation that it is a good price or affordable; however, the adverb 'extremely' is used in 'her clothes were extremely cheap', because 'very cheap' can carry the negative connotation that the product or item did not cost much because it looks cheap. The participants opted for using 'very' instead of 'extremely' and 'completely' as these two adverbs in Arabic جداً and كثير can be used interchangeably, both words meaning 'very' without affecting the intended meaning of the collocation. However, he further explains that the adverb 'very' is not appropriate in some contexts, such as in 'very aware' instead of 'fully aware', which justifies some errors that could be caused by L1 interference. Alanazi argues that there is a particular difficulty with sense relations (e.g. synonyms) among AEFLLs from Saudi Arabia that needs to be investigated in future research. There is also a large amount of research that identified L1 influence as one of the major sources of written English errors for AEFLLs (Abushihab et al., 2011; Hago and Ali, 2015).

Corpus Linguistics

The term *Corpus Linguistics* first appeared in the early 1980s (Leech, 1992); however, as a linguistic method, it was first adopted for such purposes in the late 1950s (McEnery and Hardie, 2013). A corpus, in linguistics, is a collection (a body) of texts. Many modern definitions emphasise the fact that corpora are accessed on a computer — a collection of naturally occurring texts or recordings of language that are machine-readable and can be accessed and analysed through specialist software packages designed for linguistic purposes (Kennedy, 2014; McEnery and Hardie, 2011). Types of corpora vary in form and purpose (Hunston, Susan., 2002), such as specialised corpora, general/reference corpora, comparable corpora, parallel corpora and also learner corpora, which

form the basis of this study. The terms 'learner corpus' and 'reference corpus' need to be defined here, as these corpora are used in this study and referred to several times in this paper. A learner corpus contains samples of learners' language production: that is, either spoken or written data to illustrate learners' use of particular linguistic phenomena and identify typical errors. A reference corpus is a large standard corpus, consisting of a wide range of text types (e.g. literary, technical, journalistic). Reference corpora are often used in comparative studies as the reference guide for the use of a specific language.

A considerable amount of literature has been published on the written production of English by Arabic EFLLs (AEFLLs) which has employed traditional quantitative or qualitative methods in their analysis (Aldera, 2016; Alsied et al., 2018; Izwaini, 2016; Mahmoud, Abdulmoneim., 2005; Rajab et al., 2016; Sabah, 2015; Tahseldar et al., 2018). These traditional methods mainly involved manual identification and classification of collocations. The corpus approach offers a new perspective on language use that cannot be performed through the traditional quantitative approach (TQA) as it analyses a large amount of linguistic data quickly and easily (Hunston, Susan., 2002). Also, the corpus approach enables linguists to empirically investigate syntactic relations between words through syntactically annotated corpora (Gries, 2013). The corpus approach enables the researcher not only to identify topics through thorough analysis but also to generate lists of collocations or expressions automatically (further discussion is given in the second paragraph of page 5); it permits automatic investigation by providing actual measures/frequencies of all instances within the whole corpus (Gilquin, 2005). Unlike the traditional approach where learners' errors need to be identified manually, corpora can be tagged to identify common errors. Corpus interfaces typically provide some basic statistical measures (e.g. absolute and normalised frequencies, mutual Information, log-likelihood score and the t-score). Once the collocations have been identified, complex statistical tests can be run with automatic programming to provide various association measures for collocations.

There is an increasing demand among Arabs to learn English as a foreign language, not only for educational purposes but also for business and international travel. It is thus essential to investigate the influence of Arabic on learners' use of lexical collocations. The main focus of this paper is on the use of lexical collocations by AEFLLs through a corpus-based approach. So far, a few researchers have investigated AEFLLs' usage of Adverb-Adjective collocation from a corpus-based frequency approach (Alharbi, 2017; Farooqui, 2016). In this paper, I investigate the L1 interference of Adverb-

Adjective collocation use among Arabic speaking learners of English based on error analysis theory through a corpus-based study of Adverb-Adjective collocations.

Research questions

This paper acts as a preliminary study for the methodology to be implemented in my PhD thesis and considers only the Adverb-Adjective collocation set. I seek to answer the following questions:

1. Are there any statistically significant differences in the use of Adverb-Adjective collocations between AEFLLs and NBES?

2. Are there any statistically significant differences in the use of Adverb-Adjective collocation by AEFLLs that could be attributed to L1 interference?

Based on the above research questions, the following hypotheses were formulated to test first whether being a native speaker of English affects the use of Adverb-Adjective collocations and, second, whether L1 interference has an effect on Arabic speaking learners' use of Adverb-Adjective lexical collocations:

- First null hypothesis (H1$_0$): There is no difference in Adverb-Adjective collocation use between AEFLLs and NBES.

- Alternative to first null hypothesis (H1$_A$): There is a difference in Adverb-Adjective collocation use between AEFLLs and NBES.

- Second null hypothesis (H2$_0$): Arabic as an L1 does not affect learners' performance in using Adverb-Adjective collocations in English.

- Alternative to second hypothesis (H2$_A$): Arabic as an L1 has an effect on learners' performance in using Adverb-Adjective collocations in English.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This is an investigation into L1 interference based on error analysis theory underpinned by a corpus-based study. L1 interference theory is an approach to explaining the L1 influence on production in L2. L1 interference, usually referred to as L1 transfer, L1 influence, or cross-linguistic influence, commonly refers to the L1 influence on grammar or intended meaning in the target language which

could lead to interlingual errors (Hashim, 2017). Previous studies of L1 influence have shown two outcomes of this process, known as positive and negative transfer - the latter leading to interlingual or intralingual errors (Al-Khresheh, 2010; Hashim, 2017; Khansir, 2012). Positive transfer usually occurs when, due to linguistic similarities between the two languages, learners depending on their L1 background create a well-formed, successful utterance in the target language. As for negative transfer, it results from learners' attempts to rely on their L1 linguistic background when using the second language which leads to transfer errors, both interlingual (attributable to the learners' first language) or intralingual errors (attributable to the language being taught).

The second theory is based on a framework of what I shall call 'Contrastive Error Analysis' (CEA) combining Lado's (1957) contrastive analysis (CA) framework and Gass and Selinker's (2008) Error Analysis (EA), to which some modifications have been made to generate data for this study (See Table 1). Error analysis was first introduced by Stephen Corder who viewed L2 errors as an interesting element that can reveal many linguistic issues (1967). EA theory emerged as a reaction to the criticism made of CA. This method of analysis is particularly useful when investigating the sources and causes of learners' errors, e.g. L1 interference (Khansir, 2012; Richards, 1971). The combination of both frameworks allows a comprehensive analysis of Arabic speaking Learners' use of Adverb-Adjective collocations. In this study, I deliberately merged the two frameworks, CA and EA, to avoid much of the criticism made of adopting one of the two frameworks independently. The advantage of this particular method is mainly that the comparison between two languages is not a 'straightforward comparison of structure'; it is rather a complex comparison comprising many hierarchically ordered difficulties (Gass and Selinker, 2008; Lado, 1957). Those hierarchically ordered difficulties, as highlighted by Gass and Selinker, are differentiation, a new category, absent category, coalescing and correspondence (2008). The first occurs when there is more differentiation in L2 than in L1 (e.g. a form in L1 can be said in multiple forms in the L2). The second, new category, occurs when the second language has a form that is unknown in the learner's first language. The third difficulty, absent category, occurs when there is an absence of one of the L1's rules in the L2. The fourth, coalescing, is observed in instances when the opposite of differentiation occurs. The last category, correspondence, usually occurs when both languages have forms that are used similarly.

Steps	Procedure
1. Data collection	Collect a list of *Adverb +Adjective* collocations
2. Error identification	Grammatical (e.g. the use of incorrect tense) Semantic error (e.g. the meaning is accurately conveyed)
3. Error classification	The types of error that mostly occur.
4. Error quantification	The number of errors.
5. Analyse source of errors	Interlingual errors Intralingual errors Is the error caused by? - Differentiation - New category - Absent category - Omission or addition (§Data analysis for explanations of these types of errors)

Table 1: Method of error analysis used in this study (adapted from Gass and Selinker (2008)

Another reason for merging the two frameworks has to do with the nature of this study. As it is empirically based, this should validate the results of the hypotheses being tested in this study, and compensate for the fact that Lado's framework is insufficiently empirical, as it involves creating a list of potential problems before checking to see if those problems actually exist. Lado (1957) stated that:

> The list of problems resulting from the comparison of the foreign language with the native language […] must be considered a list of hypothetical problems until a final validation is achieved by checking it against the actual speech of students. This final check will show in some instances that a problem was not adequately analysed and may be more of a problem than predicted.

From my point of view, shared with many other scholars, collocation is a key element within a language that requires a complex level of language proficiency (Shammas, 2013; Siyanova and Schmitt, 2008). Most of the studies of EFLLs have shown that using collocations poses a difficulty for language learning production, as these central elements of a language require a knowledge of L2 grammar, i.e. correctly placing vocabulary in a sentence (Al-Zahrani, 1998; Alangari, 2019; Laufer and Waldman, 2011). Also, their correct use is indicative of a level of language proficiency being that of a near-native speaker; the more learners produce correct collocations, the more proficient they appear to be in that language (Siyanova and Schmitt, 2008). The use of lexical collocation has received a lot of research attention as it is viewed as troublesome not only for language learners but also for translators (Mahmoud, Abdulmoneim., 2005; Nesselhauf, 2003).

One noteworthy example, related to the main objective of this paper, is the set of rules for using adverbs in Arabic; in English, the adverb precedes the adjective it modifies, which is not the case in Arabic. To illustrate this, Diab (1997) performed an error analysis study on Lebanese EFL students' written essays in which he found word-order errors, specifically in the placement of adverbs. For example, 'every person *almost* has a car' (*almost* every person has a car). The Arabic version of this sentence is:كل شخص تقريبا لديه سيارة. There are many possible ways to formulate the sentence above in Arabic (the adverb *almost* in the previous example can be placed at the beginning, middle or at the end of the sentence); but in English, the adverb 'almost' should be placed at the beginning of the sentence, so the error is caused by L1 transfer.

Most recent literature agrees that adverbs are the most difficult syntactic category for AEFLLs (Al-Shormani and Al-Sohbani, 2012; Rajab et al., 2016), possibly because AEFLLs copy the rules for the placement of adverbs from their L1 to the L2. The difficulty of adverbs is a common problem for EFLLs in general (Yilmaz and Dikilitas, 2017). Unlike English, Arabic is a 'free word order language' in which this kind of sentence could have four different word orders (Al Aqad, 2013):

-    Subject (S) - Verb (V) - Adverb (Adv),

      e.g. the machine operates *quickly* – الالةُ تعمل بسرعةٍ

-    Verb (V) - Subject (S) - Adverb (Adv),

      e.g. operates the machine *quickly* – تعملُ الالةُ بسرعةٍ

-    Verb (V) - Adverb (Adv) - Subject (S),

e.g. Operates _quickly_ the machine – تعملُ بِسرعةِ الالةُ

- Adverb (Adv)- Verb (V) - Subject (S)

e.g. _quickly_ operates the machine – بِسرعةِ تعملُ الالةُ

The Adverb can be placed in the initial, medial (in sentences containing verbs), and final position, creating four possible positions within Arabic sentence structure, which explains the source of difficulty for AEFLLs using adverbs. Al Aqad has pointed out that there is a particular difficulty in placing adverbs in English due to the flexibility of their positions in Arabic, in which they can occur before or after adjectives or verbs, which presents several possibilities for potential errors caused by L1 interference (2013).

METHODS

This is a preliminary study aiming to analyse the use of Adverb-Adjective English collocations used by AEFLLs and to use the results of that analysis to make judgements about the validity of the L1 interference hypothesis. It is a comparative corpus-based study which compares Arabic-speaking learners' data with actual and authentic instances of language use by students who are native-speakers of English. In this case the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus of native British English students' (NBES) academic written English to provide reliable evidence for the claims made in this study.

Related terms to the methodology

In the following sub-sections, I briefly explain and put into context terminology referred to throughout the study - such as _raw_ and _normalised frequency_, _token_ and _type_.

Raw frequency (RF) and Normalised frequency (NF)

The term frequency refers to the number of instances occurring within a particular data set. Two frequencies will be reported: raw frequency and relative/normalised frequency. Raw frequency is commonly referred to as an absolute frequency, representing the actual number of occurrences of an instance, commonly reported when considering one corpus. Raw frequency is calculated through the following formula:

Total occurrence of (x) in a corpus ÷ Total number of words in a corpus

Relative/normalised frequency is usually reported when comparing two or more corpora of different sizes. Normalised frequency is usually presented as the number of instances per million words (ipmw) and calculated through the following formula:

Raw frequency = (Total number of words in a corpus) x 1,000,000

(Evison, 2010; McEnery and Hardie, 2012).

Token and Type

Token and *type* are two terms that need to be clarified when talking about word frequencies in a corpus. Token and type are terms used to refer to a particular relation between lexical items in a corpus (Lennon, 1991). Both represent the number of words in a corpus (Hunston, Susan., 2002; McEnery and Hardie, 2012). On one hand, a token refers to the total number of words in a corpus ignoring the number of repetitions of each word, and often includes punctuation marks. Type, on the other hand, refers to the number of distinctive words in a corpus (see Table 2 for detailed information about the number of tokens and types for the learner corpora used in this paper). To clarify the distinction between the two terms, the sentence, 'To be or not to be; that is the question' has eight types and 10 tokens since *type* disregards the number of repetitions of the words 'to' and 'be' in the example.

Data analysis

In this study, I have tried to investigate the frequency differences between the use by AEFLLs and by NBES of Adverb-Adjective collocations. The second aim of this study was to investigate the influence of Arabic as an L1 on the use of Adverb-Adjective collocations by AEFLLs. Therefore, two methods of analysis have been adopted to answer the two research questions; frequency-based analysis and error analysis. Frequency-based analysis identifies the commonly used Adverb-Adjective collocations based on their occurrence. This first approach will provide the baseline data for the comparison. The second approach will use the collocation output from the first research question to investigate L1 interference following the error analysis analytical framework.

Procedure

The initial step in the preparation of this paper was to collect a list of the top fifty most frequently occurring Adverb-Adjective collocations within the Arabic speakers' corpus to be compared with the list of the top fifty collocations in the BAWE corpus. Due to the insufficient number of instances of the AEFLLs use of Adverb-Adjective collocations within the Arabic speakers' corpus (only 63 instances in total), I have adopted another procedure to compile additional data that displays AEFLLs' use of Adverb-Adjective lexical collocations; these specifically focused on the use of adverbs ending with -y (very) and -ly. Using the Wordlist function in Sketch Engine, the 100 most frequent adverbs were retrieved from the BAWE. These 100 adverbs also occur on the top 100 adverb Wordlist in the BNC using Sketch Engine. Then, a search was made on each adverb for its adjective collocates, as those adverbs were used as a baseline for comparisons between AEFLLs' use and native speakers' use. These two steps assisted in generally generating more examples of learners' use of lexical collocations. The collocation lists were then analysed to identify whether there is an Arabic L1 influence that affected AEFLLs' use of Adverb-Adjective collocations.

It is important to talk about the collocation extraction procedure as there is no agreement over the frequency cut-off point for collocation extraction in the literature, as it is said to be 'somehow arbitrary' (Biber and Barbieri, 2007). Nonetheless, most agree on focusing on instances that have at least a frequency of ≥ 20- 40 ipmw within written data (Biber and Barbieri, 2007; Biber et al., 2004). For example, Siyanova and Schmitt (2008) investigated the use and processing of Adjective-Noun collocations in a multi-study perspective. They extracted 810 instances for L2 learners and 806 instances for native speakers. They then consulted the BNC to classify the collocations into four groups based on frequency-occurrence bands:

1. Group 1: contains collocations that occurred between 1-5 times in the BNC;

2. Group 2: contains collocations that occurred 6-20 times in the BNC;

3. Group 3: contains collocations that occurred 21-100 times in the BNC;

4. Group 4: contains collocations that occurred >100 times in the BNC.

The selection criteria vary in the literature, on one hand, Chen and Baker (2010) and Ädel and Erman(2012) focused on lexical bundles and word combinations respectively by setting the frequency cut-off point at 25 *ipmw*. On the other hand, in Laufer and Waldman (2011) a minimum frequency of 20 *ipmw* or more was considered adequate to investigate the use of Verb-Noun collocations by Hebrew students of English, with the 220 most frequently occurring nouns. This

being said, the present study shows a small number of collocations that have an occurrence of >20 ipmw, therefore I have provisionally set the frequency range at 6-200 *ipmw* in the Arabic speakers' corpora. This has generated a list of 20 collocations to be compared against the native use.

Software and Packages

This study was carried out concurrently using both the IntelliText and Sketch Engine web interfaces to extract the widest range of possible usages of Adverb-Adjective collocations. A major reason for working with both web interfaces was due to a specific weakness in the Word Sketch tool in Sketch Engine which does not allow users to search for specific adverbs in the BAWE corpus. The Sketch Engine support team replied to an email enquiry that it would not be possible to search for adverbs in the BAWE corpus via this web interface as 'this corpus was processed by a different tool than the other corpora and [they] do not have sketch grammar for as many parts of speech as in the other case' (V Ohlídalová 2019, personal communication, 1 November). Another motive for using both web interfaces was that, in combination, they offer a range of association measures for collocation extraction, for example, the raw frequency for each word within the collocation, t-score and log likelihood. The data compiled will be tabulated in Excel files.

The findings were analysed statistically through the Statistical Package for Social Science program (SPSS). Significance and descriptive statistical tests were calculated such as the p-Value, mean scores, median, and standard deviation.

Corpora selected

Learner corpora

The two learner corpora compiled for this study were one for the AEFLLs and the other an academic corpus for the NBES. Detailed information about each corpus is given in Table 3 below.

The Arabic speaker corpus (henceforth referred to in the plural form) consists of data from two independent corpora of AEFLLs which come from the:

- Arabic Learner English Corpus (ALEC) in Kuwait, and the

- British University in Dubai (BUiD) Arab Learner Corpus (BALC hereafter) in Dubai, UAE.

Based on direct contact with the compilers of both corpora, the majority of learners were:

- Arabs from Kuwait for the ALEC and Emiratis for the BALC, with some presence of other Arab nationalities in the ALEC;

- All around the same age.

Despite the fact that the data were collected from two Arab countries, the learners in both, as well as the native corpus, were mostly from the same age group. For the native speakers of English, one corpus will be used:

- British Academic Written English (BAWE) Corpus.

The data is compiled from native speaker English students from Britain who belong to the same age group.

	AEFLLs Corpora (ALEC+ BALC)	Native British Corpus (BAWE)
Tokens	1,268,975	8,336,262
Types	883,141	6,968,089

Table 2: The corpus size

Table 2 presents information about the size of both corpora in terms of the number of tokens and types. The native speaker corpus has a larger store of words, both tokens and types, while the AEFLLs corpora have fewer tokens and types. There is a huge difference between the AEFLLs and NBES in terms of type and token numbers. Though one limitation of the AEFLLs corpora size is that it is small when compared to the BAWE corpus, it still provides enough data for a robust analysis. Given the fact that the size of the two corpora is not identical, the AEFLLs corpora (883,141words) and the BAWE corpus (6,968,089 words), the first step for processing the data is calculating the normalised frequencies. The base of normalisation in this study was per 1,000,000 words. The formula for normalization per 1,000,000 words (*pmw*) is as follows:

$$F_n = F_O(10^6)/C$$

Where, F_n is the normalised frequency, F_O is the absolute frequency, and C is corpus size in words.

Corpus Acronym	Origin of Learners	Corpus Size	Learners' Level	Teachers and type of curriculum
ALEC	Kuwait (70%) Egypt, Lebanon, Syria	510,589	Freshman level	American teachers within American model of higher education
BALC	Emirates	290,000	First-year university students Last year of high school students	Most teachers are British, but they could be from other English-speaking countries - British, Australasian, and North American (BANA) countries or even fluent non-native speakers. British published textbooks
BAWE	British English	6,506,995	Undergraduates Master's students	British teachers

Table 3: Brief information about the selected learner corpora

Reference corpus

Due to the nature of the research being a comparative corpus-based study, there is also the necessity to use an English reference corpus. A reference corpus is usually referred to as the 'general corpus' defined as containing a balanced representation of a given language. The typical balanced representation in the reference corpus is seen in terms of the genres and domains of the language considered (McEnery et al., 2006). In this case, I used the British National Corpus (BNC), a 100-million-word corpus of written and spoken British English collected from the 1980s to 1993. The BNC is used as the baseline for choosing the adverbs in this study. Therefore, to improve the reliability of the experimental design, the top 100 adverbs in the BAWE corpus were checked against the top 100

adverbs in the BNC. The BNC is large enough to be representative of the English language to be compared with the written essays of both datasets.

RESULTS

In the first research question I aim to identify any statistically significant differences between AEFLLs and NBES in the use of Adverb-Adjective collocation. I compared the number of collocations extracted from both corpora, which suggests the first significant difference; there were 211 and 1253 instances in total for the AEFLLs and British students respectively (see Table 4). The total numbers suggest that the AEFLLs use fewer Adverb-Adjective collocations than the NBES do. This is also clear in the number of collocations list for the AEFLLs where 193 collocations out of the 211, accounting for 91.14%, only have a single occurrence.

Normalized frequency cut-off point	AEFLLs corpora	%	Native speakers (BAWE)	%
0-5	193	91.14%	1225	97.76%
6-20	11	5.21%	22	1.75%
21-50	7	3.31%	6	0.47%
51-100	0	0%	0	0
101-150	2	0.94%	0	0
>150	0	0%	0	0
Totals	211	100%	1253	100%

Table 4: Normalised frequency cut-off points in AEFLLs and BAWE corpora (Note: Normalised frequencies per 1,000,000 words)

Setting the normalised frequency threshold of ($f \geq 20$) would restrict the study to only nine collocation sets for the AEFLLs and six for the NBES. The threshold was thus set to $f \geq 6$ as a minimum frequency threshold generating 20 collocation sets for the AEFLLs and 28 for the NBES. The 20 collocations for the AEFLLs are presented along with their normalised frequencies, in both learner corpora and the BNC, being the English reference corpus (see Table 5).

Adverb-Adjective Collocation	AEFLLs Corpora (NF)	BAWE (NF)	BNC (NF)
1. Very happy	185.19	1.08	6.51
2. Very nice	171	0.24	12.66
3. Very important	85.11	36.67	19.18
4. Very wonderful	55.95	0	0.25
5. Very sad	44.92	0.24	2.58
6. Very good	81.17	15.59	46.1
7. Very big	61.47	1.2	4.22
8. Very beautiful	47.28	0.12	2.44
9. Very bad	67.77	0.12	4.65
10. Very hot	26.01	0.6	2.56
11. Very cold	18.91	0.48	2.35
12. Very tired	21.28	0.12	1.96
13. Very interesting	18.91	4.2	5.59
14. Very sick	12.61	0.12	0.71
15. Very useful	11.82	13.56	6.33
16. Very long	16.55	3.72	10.73
17. Very popular	6.3	5.28	4.78
18. Very dangerous	20.49	1.2	2.33
19. Really happy	8.67	0.12	0.61
20. Really bad	8.67	0.48	1.86

Table 5: Normalised frequencies of the Adverb-Adjective collocations in the three corpora with a minimum occurrence of ≥ 6

Table 5 illustrates that all the collocations listed have a higher frequency of occurrence in the AEFLLs corpus, which is an unexpected result of the comparison between the two.

A visual examination of the box plot and the scatter plot graph revealed that the sample data were not normally distributed, but positively skewed (see Figure 1 and Figure 2 below). The degree of skewness requires a non-parametric test to examine the statistical difference between the three data sets.
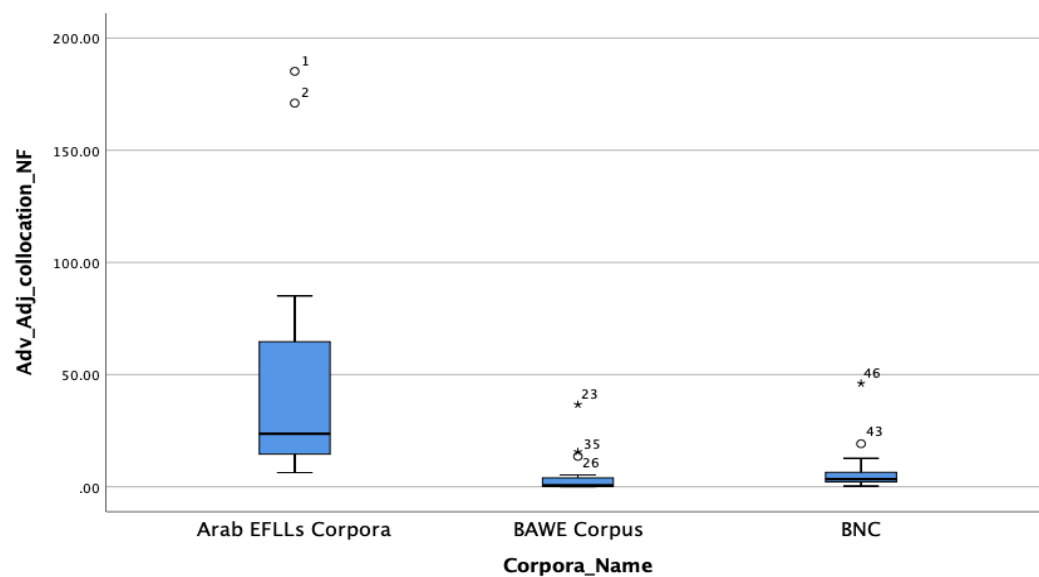

Figure 1: Box plot for the 20 collocations across the three corpora
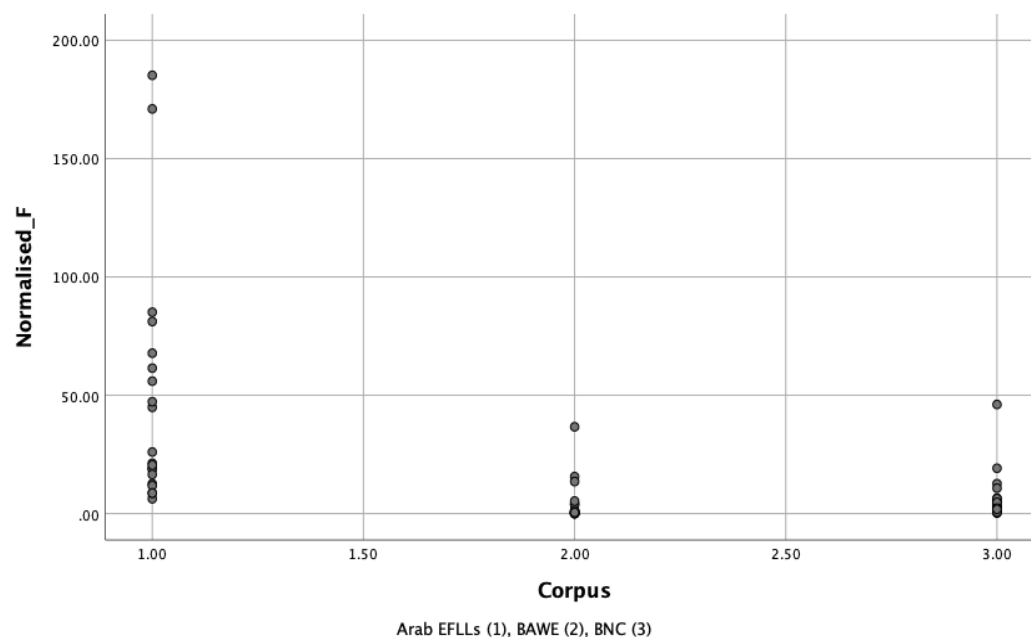

Figure 2: Scatter plot for the frequencies of the 20 collocations within the three corpora

The Kruskal-Wallis H test was applied to analyse the differences between the three corpora in terms of the use of the 20 collocations listed in Table 5. The Kruskal-Wallis H test is a non-parametric test based on ranks, used to determine the decision parameter between groups of more than two (*Kruskal-Wallis H Test using SPSS Statistics*, n.d). The Kruskal-Wallis H test illustrated that there was a statistically significant difference in the use of the 20 collocations amongst the three corpora, H-statistic = 35.555, *p* = 0.000, with a median rank of 47.95 for the AEFLLs corpora, 16.55 for the BAWE and 27.0 for the BNC (see Figure 2).

Kruskal–Wallis Test

Ranks

	Corpus	N	Mean Rank
Normalised_F	Arab EFLLs Corpus	20	47.95
	BAWE Corpus	20	16.55
	BNC	20	27.00
	Total	60	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	Normalised_F
Kruskal–Wallis H	33.555
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: Corpus

Figure 3: Kruskal-Wallis H test SPSS output[1]

This implies that variability in the ranks for the two groups (AEFLLs data and BAWE data), would be close to a significant effect based on the partial eta-squared result in which $\eta^2 > 0.319$ (See Figure 4), which is a substantial effect based on the suggested norms for partial eta-squared (Privitera and Mayeaux, 2018). In conclusion, 31% of the variability is significantly higher than the percentage expected by chance $p < 0.000$ ($\eta^2 = 0.319$). Thus, this result leads to rejecting the first null hypothesis, $H1_0$, concluding that there is a statistically significant difference between AEFLLs and the NBES in terms of the use of Adverb-Adjective collocations, H-statistic =(p>alpha).

Measures of Association

	Eta	Eta Squared
Normalised_F * Corpus	.565	.319

Figure 4: Eta squared SPSS output

---

[1] Mean Rank values represent the median rank (a default error by the statistical package).

This is also a primary effect based on Cohen's (1988) guidelines (Privitera and Mayeaux, 2018). Therefore, this indicates also that there are statistically significant differences between AEFLLs and NBES in terms of the frequency of the use of Adverb-Adjective collocations.

The eta-squared formula is $\eta^2[H]= (H-k+1)/(n-k)$, where H is the obtained value of the Kruskal-Wallis test in SPSS, k is the size of the corpora and n is the total number of collocations for both the AEFLLs corpora, BAWE corpus and BNC (Tomczak and Tomczak, 2014).

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Normalised_F
Tukey HSD

(I) Corpus	(J) Corpus	Mean Difference (I–J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Arab EFLLs Corpus	BAWE Corpus	44.24700*	9.60597	.000	21.1310	67.3630
	BNC	41.58400*	9.60597	.000	18.4680	64.7000
BAWE Corpus	Arab EFLLs Corpus	–44.24700*	9.60597	.000	–67.3630	–21.1310
	BNC	–2.66300	9.60597	.959	–25.7790	20.4530
BNC	Arab EFLLs Corpus	–41.58400*	9.60597	.000	–64.7000	–18.4680
	BAWE Corpus	2.66300	9.60597	.959	–20.4530	25.7790

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Figure 5: Multiple comparisons for the use of the 20 collocation sets in the three corpora

In addition to the Kruskal-Wallis H test, the multiple comparisons indicate that there is no significant difference between the BNC and BAWE in terms of the use of the 20-collocation set. However, the comparison suggests that there is a significant difference between the AEFLLs corpus and both native English corpora, rejecting the null hypothesis at *p*-value >0.000.

Table 6 below lists 28 collocations with the assigned frequency threshold in BAWE. Like the AEFLLs, 'very' is the most frequent adverb occurring 18 times, which accounts for 64.28%. Five of these collocations also occur in the 20 collocations for the AEFLLs. They are 'very important', 'very useful', 'very good', 'very popular' and 'very dangerous'. These five collocations are common in everyday language, in which they are more frequently used by the NBES than AEFLLs, except for 'very good' and 'very dangerous'.

Adverb-Adjective Collocation	Absolute Frequency	Normalized Frequency
2. Very important	303	43.48
3. Very little	177	25.40
4. Very similar	187	26.84
5. Very difficult	150	21.53
6. Very different	200	28.70
7. Very useful	144	20.67
8. Very high	113	16.22
9. Very few	167	23.97
10. Very low	108	15.50
11. Very good	119	17.08
12. Very large	117	16.79
13. Very hard	94	13.49
14. Very close	66	9.47
15. Very popular	64	9.18
16. Very simple	44	6.31
17. Very strong	45	6.46
18. Only possible	50	7.18
19. Very dangerous	6.81	1.2
20. Particularly important	63	9.04
21. Relatively small	97	13.92
22. Relatively low	83	11.91
23. Relatively high	88	12.63
24. Mainly due	62	8.90

25. Probably due	60	8.61
26. Slightly different	100	14.35
27. Completely different	71	10.19
28. Extremely important	60	8.61

Table 6: Adverb-Adjective collocations with ≥ 6 frequency threshold used in the BAWE corpus

Error analysis results

According to the analytical framework of error analysis, the results showed a natural use of the set of 20 collocations in the AEFLLs data. The 20 collocations are grammatically correct as standalone entities. The concordance analysis identified three broad categories of error in the collocation sets which were interlingual errors, intralingual errors, and errors attributed to an interaction between the interlingual and intralingual error classifications to which I refer as overlap errors (see Table 9 in the Appendices). Figure 6 shows the total frequency counts in percentage for each error type. The interlingual errors have the highest frequency of occurrence, followed by intralingual and overlap errors, accounting for 32%, 27%, and 12% respectively.
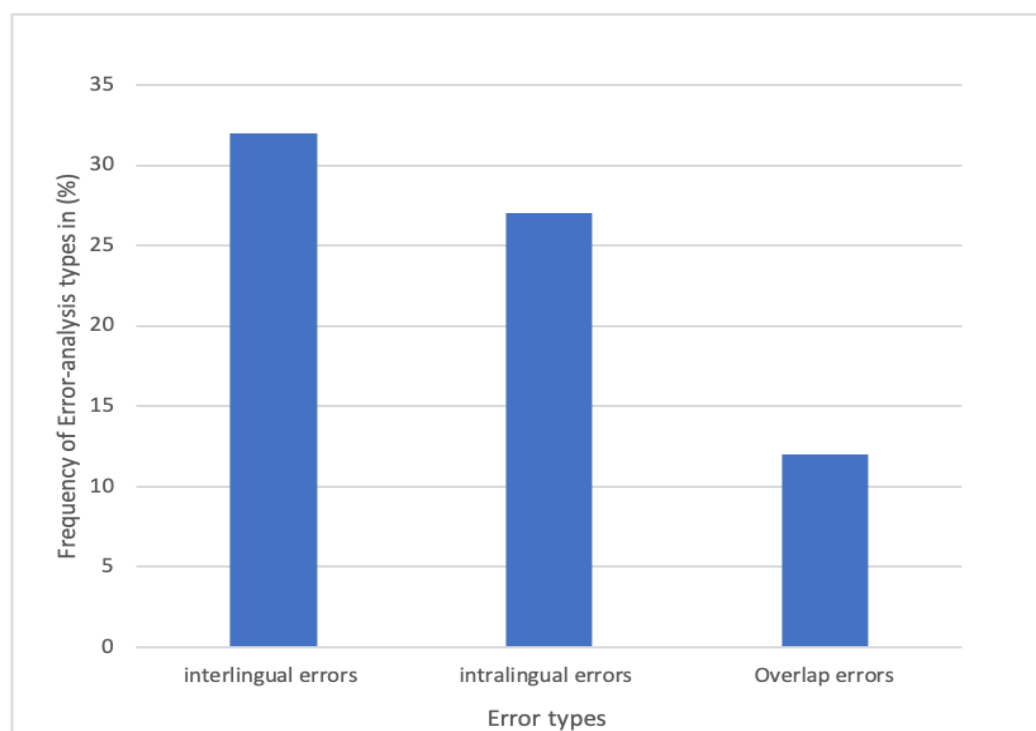

Figure 6: Bar graph of the error types in the AEFLLs corpus

The first category, interlingual error, is syntactic, seen in the following example of a noun that is modified by an adjective. The noun 'clothes' incorrectly precedes the adjective in the sentence 'I bought clothes very nice'. Adjectives can be attributive or predictive; the adjective in the collocation 'very nice' in this example should be attributive, but incorrect usage creates a humorous effect as if the learner is talking to him/herself. The second interlingual error is in the positioning of a collocation in a sentence creating unnatural sentences, such as 'very wonderful my summer holiday'. This sentence has a clear L1 influence in terms of sentence structure. The two errors shown here could be related to the four possible sentence structures in Arabic.

The second category is intralingual errors which consist mainly of errors that occur around the collocation. One of these is the addition of extra sentence elements preceding a collocation, such as the addition of the verb 'is' in the sentence:

- 'I am <u>is</u> very happy'*

- and the addition of 'it' in 'the holiday <u>it</u> was very nice'*.

The second intralingual error is related to subject-verb agreement. For example, the verb 'be' in 'the actors was very nice'*.

The third category is the overlap error, referred to as such as it includes both interlingual and intralingual factors, mostly contextual errors that occur within the context of the collocation. The errors classified under this type were sentence fragments, incorrect sentence structure around the collocation, direct L1 influence errors and lexical errors. First, sentence fragments were observed in the absence of the modified noun that follows the adjective collocates. To illustrate this, the AEFLLs corpus includes sentences such as 'I was very happy and interesting' and 'I am very nice and wonderful'. The two examples show that learners tend to use these collocations in isolation without completing the intended meaning, creating fragmented sentences. The second error is seen in the arrangement of the sentence structures particularly when using the English relative clauses. For example, there is an error in saying, 'We saw the Kaaba we had very happy' which should be said as 'We were very happy when we saw the Kaaba'. This particular sentence structure could be especially difficult, in the same vein as Haza'Al Rdaat and Gardner (2017) who found that conditional clauses are challenging for AEFLLs. The third type is unusual as an apparently direct L1 influence leads to a negative transfer. The error is observed in the position of the pronoun in the example 'a friend her is very nice'* in which the student used a pronoun after the subject. In Arabic, the affixed pronouns

are usually attached at the end of a word, in this case, هَا[ha], the 3rd person feminine singular pronoun. These three subtype errors are related to the word order structure that AEFLLs encounter when using English as a foreign language (Al-Khresheh, 2010; Murad and Khalil, 2015). The last error type under this category is the lexical error. This is mostly associated with the choice of lexical items within the collocation component. This can be seen in cases where some adjectives are better than others in conveying the intended meaning. For instance, the adjective 'powerful' is better than 'good' in the collocation 'very good search engine' (see list of examples is given in Table 9).

DISCUSSION

It is noteworthy to mention some contributory factors to the main differences between the two corpora. The collocation output for the AEFLLs shows that they use certain essential English words more often than others, more than native speakers do. For example, the adverb 'very' is used instead of other adverbs where other degree adverbs would be somewhat better in delivering the right meaning. However, some instances do not require the use of 'very' which points to a direct L1 interference (e.g. when the learners express their happiness when they are with their family, they tend to exaggerate the feeling by using 'very' which is a common adverb in Arabic). The use of 'very' is linguistically correct in most cases. However, other adverbs would be more natural/expressive in certain contexts, which is in line with findings by Yilmaz and Dikilitas (2017) that Turkish learners tend to rely on degree adverbs such as 'very' and 'so'. Foreign language learners tend to use a narrow range of words (Appel and Szeib, 2018). Also, this result is in agreement with other studies that have found that EFLLs face difficulty with word choice as they resort to using and repeating some adverbs more than others (Murad and Khalil, 2015; Phuket and Othman, 2015). The learners' lexical choice errors are a common problem for EFLLs from different L1s; it reveals that their choice is limited as the learners are not familiar with other words that would enable them to communicate more effectively and efficiently (Xu and Liu, 2012). Moreover, the AEFLLs corpus shows the use of generic vocabulary which could be attributed to the topics covered in the corpus. In contrast, the BAWE corpus reveals a more varied use of collocations.

The extraction phase reveals a difference between the two corpora in terms of the number of Adverb-Adjective collocations. The collocation output in IntelliText revealed only 63 and 101 collocations for the AEFLLs corpora and the BAWE corpus respectively. Therefore, I have

implemented another extraction method to extract more data for the comparative study by considering the top 100 adverbs in the BNC; these adverbs also occur in the top 100 adverb list in the BAWE corpus. Besides, the data in this study leads to the rejection of the method that investigates instances with a 20 *ipmw* cut-off frequency as there were only nine collocations with this frequency range in the AEFLLs corpus; most of the collocations listed fall under the 0-5 *ipmw* cut-off frequency, which accounts for 91.14% of the AEFLLs corpus and 97.76% of the BAWE corpus (see Table 4). According to this result, setting the cut-off frequency to 20 *ipmw* seems to be an inappropriate approach to implement when investigating the differences between the two data sets. Therefore, I proceeded to investigate the collocations that occurred within the range of 6-150 *ipmw*, creating a list of 20 collocations (see Table 6).

The first set of questions aimed to investigate whether there are statistically significant differences between AEFLLs and NBES in terms of the use of Adverb-Adjective lexical collocations. The results suggest that the Adverb-Adjective collocation is not frequently used by AEFLLs. It seems that this collocation set is challenging to EFLLs, which is apparent in the small number of the total instances in the AEFLLs corpus (Demir, 2017). This is in agreement with other scholars who found that EFLLs found that Adverb-Adjective collocations were the most challenging collocation to produce, both for Japanese and French EFLLs (Kurosaki, 2012), and for Arab EFLLs (Farooqui, 2016; Mahmoud, Abdulmoneim., 2005). The single most striking observation to emerge from the data comparison is that the frequency results for the 20 collocations were significantly higher for the AEFLLs corpus than the NBES corpus. This observation contradicts the findings of Demir (2017) who found a statistically significant difference in the opposite direction between native English students and Turkish EFLLs in terms of the use of Adverb-Adjective collocations.

The second research question of this paper aimed to examine L1 interference on the use of Adverb-Adjective collocation. The EA has shown that the collocations sound correct when seen as separate entities yet there were contextual errors that could be attributed to L1 influence, mainly seen in the position of a collocation within a sentence (e.g. 'We saw the Kaaba we had very happy'*). This finding is consistent with that of (Al-Shormani and Al-Sohbani, 2012) who found that collocations were linguistically well formed. Still, the errors were mainly contextual (e.g. 'get marriage' instead of 'get married'). The EA has shown that there are three types of contextual errors that could be attributed to L1 interference, which were interlingual errors, intralingual errors, and overlap errors. I deliberately named the third type an overlap error as some previous studies refer to this type as bi-

source caused by both L1 and L2 (Rostami Abusaeedi and Boroomand, 2015; Tajadini Rabori, 2006). L1 interference for AEFLLs is seen in the first and the third type mainly in the position of the collocation within the sentence, and the position of the noun that should follow the adjective in the collocation set, which usually precedes the adjective in Arabic as in the learners' attempts. This is related to word order problems that face EFLLs in English writing and speaking (Al-Tamari, 2019; Latupeirissa and Sayd, 2019). Also, the choice of lexical items could be influenced by learners' L1 (Mahmoud, Abdulmoneim, 2011). The errors in the choice of lexical items are in line with previous studies that found these errors were caused by interlingual factors (Mahmoud, Abdulmoneim, 2011; Shammas, 2013).

The second type is intralingual error, usually caused by the differences between the two languages; the collocation is correct in this type yet what precedes and follows the collocation is incorrect. Subject-verb agreement is also observed in the context around the collocation due to over-generalisation of some English grammatical rules. These include the addition of the verb 'be' and incorrect forms of lexical items within the sentence around the collocation. The results of the intralingual types are in line with previous studies of AEFLLs (El-Dakhs, 2015; Sabah, 2015). The third type, the overlap error, is seen in the creation of sentence fragments and incorrect sentence structures that are attributed to or are caused by L1 influence and the over-generalisation of the rules of L2. The overlap error consists of both interlingual and intralingual errors. To clarify this, learners add the article 'a' following the English Article system and incorrectly position the pronoun 'her' following the L1 rules (e.g. 'A friend her is very happy'*), thus creating an overlap error with both interlingual and intralingual errors in a single sentence.

IMPLICATIONS FOR LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY AND CONCLUSION

The findings of this study have several important pedagogical implications for future practice. The study provides a new understanding of the positioning of the Adverb-Adjective collocation within the English and Arabic sentence. Therefore, teaching the differences in word order between English and Arabic and using corpora to train AEFLLs to identify the natural word-order of sentences containing Adverb-Adjective collocations would help improve learners' language proficiency. The observations resulting from this study may also contribute to the teaching of Adverb-Adjective collocations and their position in a sentence among EFLLs more generally. The frequency analysis revealed an interesting result for the set of 20 collocations (see Table 5); I found that these

collocations have a higher frequency of occurrence in the AEFLLs corpora than in the native corpus. This result indicates that EFLLs tend to rely on the specific collocations with which they are familiar; for example, they use 'very' instead of other adverbs and 'nice' instead of other adjectives. Therefore, using corpora to identify possible synonyms for adverbs like 'very' and adjectives like 'nice' can help learners produce native-like collocations and expressions and avoid literal translations of collocations from their L1. For example, language teachers can use corpus data to create classroom materials and exercises to teach synonyms of 'very' and other possible adverbs. Corpora can benefit from??? learning and teaching in terms of observing how some adverbs are more suitable than others. For instance, learners would see that for 'infectious' the adverb 'highly' is much more common than 'very'. This is an example of a hands-off approach to corpus-based language learning. Corpus-based language learning could be of immense value to English curriculum designers, as corpus data may form the basis for the development of essential English language learning materials and methods practiced in classrooms, developing strategies to improve three types of contextual errors that could be attributed to L1 interference: interlingual errors (i.e. caused by L1 interference), intralingual errors (i.e. caused by the rules of the second/foreign language learned), and overlap errors. Thus, teachers should consider focusing on L1 interference when creating classroom materials and exercises, whenever this is possible for comparison purposes. L1 interference should be taken as a positive difference because this will allow learners to notice the differences between the structures of the two languages (Hamdallah and Tushyeh, 1993).

Furthermore, this study has demonstrated that AEFLLs tend to rely on using more generic adverbs and adjectives in collocations. Therefore, the focus should be on teaching the possible words that would typically appear with the vocabulary being taught which could enhance language development in terms of understanding definitions and increasing vocabulary stock. From personal experience, foreign language teaching in Arab teaching settings focuses on vocabulary teaching without explaining how to employ vocabulary in context. Some scholars stated that EFL is limited to teaching grammar and overlooks vocabulary teaching (Martyńska, 2004; Newton, 2018). The teaching system mainly considers providing definitions for words and giving synonyms and antonyms, yet they disregard teaching the possible co-occurring words (i.e. collocations). In line with teaching the typical co-occurring words, Hunston and Francis claimed that 'most words have no meaning in isolation, or at least are very ambiguous' (2000). Also, this study has shown that Adverb-Adjective collocations are used much less frequently by AEFLLs than by native speakers. This observation demonstrates the necessity to encourage the teaching of Adverb-Adjective collocations, especially as this collocation is absent in Arabic. Furthermore, the study has shown that AEFLLs

rarely use adverbs and this observation indicates a need for tutors to place more emphasis on the teaching of different types of adverbs and their use in English (Yilmaz and Dikilitas, 2017).

Grammatical differences between Arabic and English in terms of lexical collocations should be highlighted. There should be a focus on teaching adverbs through a corpus-based approach (e.g. through concordances). This approach is also beneficial for language teachers seeking to create examples for classroom exercises. Referring back to corpus data would be beneficial for having informative and detailed answers to the questions raised by students about collocations (Aijmer, 2009). This study has shown a need to focus on contrastive pairs to improve collocation teaching (e.g. use of the adjectives 'large' versus 'big'*).*

In this paper, I set out to explore the use of Adverb-Adjective collocations by Arab EFLLs from Kuwait and Dubai, UAE and NBES. I have identified that Arab EFLLs use Adverb-Adjective collocations considerably less than NBES. This observation may indicate that Arabic-speaking EFLLs find Adverb-Adjective collocations particularly challenging and they thus avoid using them; however, more quantitative and qualitative data would need to be analysed in order to further explore the L1 interference on the use of Adverb-Adjective collocations.

For future studies, a larger sample of Adverb-Adjective collocations would need to be collected and analysed to understand the core issues related to Adverb-Adjective collocation by Arabic speaking EFLLs. In addition, a further corpus-based study that focused on degree adverbs such as the adverb 'very' *jadan* جداً could provide further insight into the teaching of Adverb-Adjective collocations to AEFLLs. Thus, teachers should consider creating classroom materials and exercises that consider L1 interference on the use of adverbs. Finally, further comparative studies that utilise a parallel English-Arabic learner corpus would be beneficial to examine the L1 influences behind learners' choice of lexical items within the Adverb-Adjective collocation.

Address for correspondence: mlrra@leeds.ac.uk

Rrm.alshammari@hotmail/gmail.com

REFERENCES

Abd Ai-Qadir, M. 2015. "Voice'S Collocations, and Its Role in "Coherence" in The Narrative Text: (Ghadah Al-Samman, S" Beirut 75"). *Tishreen University Journal for Research and Scientific Studies- Arts and Humanities Series.* **37**(2), pp.112-129.

Abushihab, I., El-Omari, A.H. and Tobat, M. 2011. An Analysis of Written Grammatical Errors of Arab Learners of English as a Foreign Language at Alzaytoonah Private University of Jordan. *European Journal of Social Sciences.* **20**(4), pp.543-552.

Ädel, A. and Erman, B. 2012. Recurrent word combinations in academic writing by native and non-native speakers of English: A lexical bundles approach. *English for Specific Purposes.* **31**(2), pp.81-92.

Aijmer, K. 2009. *Corpora and language teaching.* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.

Al Aqad, M. 2013. Syntactic Analysis of Arabic Adverb's between Arabic and English: X Bar Theory. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics.* **1**(3), pp.70-74.

Al-Khresheh, M. 2010. Interlingual interference in the English language word order structure of Jordanian EFL learners. *European Journal of Social Sciences.* **16**(1), pp.105-113.

Al-Shormani, M.Q. and Al-Sohbani, Y.A. 2012. Semantic errors committed by Yemeni university learners: Classifications and sources. *International Journal of English Linguistics.* **2**(6), pp.120-139.

Al-Tamari, E.A. 2019. Analyzing Speaking Errors Made by EFL Saudi University Students. *Arab World English Journal.* **Special Issue** (The Dynamics of EFL in Saudi Arabia.), pp.56 -69.

Al-Zahrani, M. 1998. *Knowledge of English lexical collocations among male Saudi college students majoring in English at a Saudi university.* Doctoral dissertation thesis, Indiana University of Pennsylvania.

Alanazi, M. 2017. On the Production of Synonyms by Arabic-Speaking EFL Learners. *International Journal of English Linguistics.* **7**(3), pp.17-28.

Alangari, M.A. 2019. *A corpus-based study of verb-noun collocations and verb complementation clause structures in the writing of advanced Saudi learners of English.* thesis, University of Reading.

Aldera, A.S. 2016. Cohesion in Written Discourse: A Case Study of Arab EFL Students. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ).* **7**(2), pp.328-341.

Alharbi, R.M. 2017. *Acquisition of Lexical Collocation: A corpus-assisted contrastive analysis and translation approach.* Doctor of Philosophy thesis, Newcastle University.

Alsied, S.M., Ibrahim, N.W. and Pathan, M.M. 2018. Errors Analysis of Libyan EFL Learners' Written Essays at Sebha University. *International Journal of Language and Applied Linguistics.* **3**(1), pp.1-32.

Appel, R. and Szeib, A. 2018. Linking adverbials in L2 English academic writing: L1-related differences. *System.* **78**, pp.115-129.

Auer, P. 1997. Co-occurrence restrictions between linguistic variables. *Variation, change, and phonological theory.* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company pp.69-100.

Bahns, J. 1993. Lexical collocations: a contrastive view. *ELT Journal.* **47**(1), pp.56-63.

Bahns, J. and Eldaw, M. 1993. Should we teach EFL students collocations? *System.* **21**(1), pp.101-114.

Bahumaid, S. 2006. Collocation in English-Arabic translation. *Babel.* **52**(2), pp.133-152.

Bartsch, S. 2004. *Structural and functional properties of collocations in English: A corpus study of lexical and pragmatic constraints on lexical co-occurrence.* Germany: Gunter Narr Verlag.

Basal, A. 2017. Learning collocations: Effects of online tools on teaching English adjective-noun collocations. *British Journal of Educational Technology.* **50**(1), pp.342-356.

Biber, D. and Barbieri, F. 2007. Lexical bundles in university spoken and written registers. *English for Specific Purposes.* **26**(3), pp.263-286.

Biber, D., Conrad, S. and Cortes, V. 2004. If you look at . . . : Lexical Bundles in University Teaching and Textbooks. *Applied Linguistics.* **25**(3), pp.371-405.

Brashi, A.S. 2005. *Arabic collocations: implications for translations.* Doctor of Philosophy thesis, University of Western Sydney.

Chang, Y. 2018. Features of Lexical Collocations in L2 Writing: A Case of Korean Adult Learners of English. *English Teaching.* **73**(2), pp.3-36.

Chen, Y.-H. and Baker, P. 2010. Lexical bundles in L1 and L2 academic writing. *Language Learning & Technology.* **14**(2), pp.30-49.

Cohen, J. 1988. *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences.* Second Edition. ed. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Corder, S.P. 1967. The significance of learner's errors. *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching.* **5**(1-4), pp.161-170.

Demir, C.n. 2017. Lexical Collocations in English: A Comparative Study of Native and Non-native Scholars of English. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies.* **13**(1), pp.75-87.

Diab, N. 1997. The transfer of Arabic in the English writings of Lebanese students. *The ESPecialist.* **18**(1), pp.71-83.

Durrant, P. and Schmitt, N. 2010. Adult learners' retention of collocations from exposure. *Second language research.* **26**(2), pp.163-188.

El-Dakhs, D.A.S. 2015. The lexical collocational competence of Arab undergraduate EFL learners. *International Journal of English Linguistics.* **5**(5), pp.60-74.

Evison, J. 2010. What are the basics of analysing a corpus. *The Routledge handbook of corpus linguistics.* New York.: Routledge, pp.122-135.

Farooqui, A.S. 2016. *A Corpus-Based Study of Academic-Collocation Use and Patterns in Postgraduate Computer Science Students' Writing*. Doctor of Philosophy thesis, University of Essex.

Farrokh, P. 2012. Raising awareness of collocation in ESL/EFL classrooms. *Journal of Studies in Education.* **2**(3), pp.55-74.

Firth, J.R. 1957. *Papers in linguistics 1934-1951.* Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Gass, S.M. and Selinker, L. 2008. *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course.* Third edition. ed. New York and London: Routledge.

Ghazala, H. 1993. *Translating Collocations: Arabic-English (in Arabic).* Turjuman.

Gilquin, G.t. 2005. From design to collection of learner corpora. In: Granger., S., et al. eds. *The Cambridge Handbook of Learner Corpus Research.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press., pp.1-27.

Granger, S. 2003. The international corpus of learner English: a new resource for foreign language learning and teaching and second language acquisition research. *Tesol Quarterly.* **37**(3), pp.538-546.

Gries, S. 2013. Corpus Linguistics: Quantitative Methods. In: Chapelle, C. ed. *The Encyclopaedia of Applied Linguistics.* Oxford, Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

Hago, O.E. and Ali, M.H. 2015. Assessing English Syntactic Structures Experienced by Sudanese Female Students at Secondary Schools, (2013-2014). *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ).* **6**(2), pp.213-241.

Hamdallah, R. and Tushyeh, H. 1993. A contrastive analysis of selected English and Arabic prepositions with pedagogical implications. *Papers and Studies in Contrastive Linguistics.* **28**(2), pp.181-190.

Hashim, A. 2017. Crosslinguistic influence in the written English of Malay undergraduates. *Journal of Modern languages.* **12**(1), pp.60-76.

Haza'Al Rdaat, S. and Gardner, S. 2017. An analysis of use of conditional sentences by Arab students of English. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies.* **8**(2), pp.1-13.

Henriksen, B. 2013. Research on L2 learners' collocational competence and development–a progress report. *C. Bardel, C. Lindqvist, & B. Laufer (Eds.) L.* **2**, pp.29-56.

Hunston, S. 2002. *Corpora in Applied Linguistics.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hunston, S. and Francis, G. 2000. *Pattern grammar: A corpus-driven approach to the lexical grammar of English.* Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.

Husamaddin, K. 1985. *Idiomatic Expressions. Cairo*: *Maktabat Al-Anjilu Al-Masriyah*.

Izwaini, S. 2016. The translation of Arabic lexical collocations. *Translation and Interpreting Studies.* **11**(2), pp.306-328.

Kennedy, G. 2014. *An introduction to corpus linguistics.* New York: Routledge.

Khansir, A.A. 2012. Error Analysis and Second Language Acquisition. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies.* **2**(5), pp.1027-1032.

Khoja, H.Y.Y. 2019. *Exploring the Use of Collocation in the Writing of Foundation-Year Students at King Abdulaziz University*. Doctor of Philosophy thesis, The University of Leeds.

Kruskal-Wallis H Test using SPSS Statistics. n.d. [Online]. [Accessed 25 February]. Available from: https://statistics.laerd.com/spss-tutorials/kruskal-wallis-h-test-using-spss-statistics.php

Kurosaki, S. 2012. *An analysis of the knowledge and use of English collocations by French and Japanese learners.* Doctor of Philosophy thesis, University of London Institute in Paris.

Lado, R. 1957. *Linguistics across cultures.* MI: University of Michigan Press.

Latupeirissa, D.S. and Sayd, A.I. 2019. Grammatical errors of writing in EFL class. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Culture.* **5**(2), pp.1-12.

Laufer, B. and Waldman, T. 2011. Verb-Noun Collocations in Second Language Writing: A Corpus Analysis of Learners' English. *Language Learning.* **61**(2), pp.647-672.

Leech, G. 1992. Corpora and theories of linguistic performance. In: Svartvik, J. ed. *Directions in corpus linguistics.* Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter., pp.105-122.

Lennon, P. 1991. Error: Some problems of definition, identification, and distinction. *Applied Linguistics.* **12**(2), pp.180-196.

MacArthur, F. and Littlemore, J. 2008. A discovery approach to figurative language learning with the use of corpora. In: Boers, F. and Lindstromberg, S. eds. *Cognitive linguistic approaches to teaching vocabulary and phraseology.*, pp.159-188.

Mahmoud, A. 2005. Collocation errors made by Arab learners of English. *Asian EFL Journal.* **5**(2), pp.117–126.

Mahmoud, A. 2011. The role of interlingual and intralingual transfer in learner-centered EFL vocabulary instruction. *Arab World English Journal.* **2**(3), pp.28-47.

Manning, C.D., Manning, C.D. and Schütze, H. 1999. *Foundations of statistical natural language processing.* MIT press.

Martinez, R. and Schmitt, N. 2012. A phrasal expressions list. *Applied Linguistics.* **33**(3), pp.299-320.

Martyńska, M. 2004. Do English language learners know collocations? *Investigationes linguisticae.* **11**, pp.1-12.

McEnery, T. and Hardie, A. 2011. *Corpus linguistics: Method, theory and practice.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

McEnery, T. and Hardie, A. 2012. *Corpus Linguistics: Method, theory and practice.* [Online]. [Accessed 16 January 2020]. Available from: http://corpora.lancs.ac.uk/clmtp/2-stat.php

McEnery, T. and Hardie, A. 2013. The History of Corpus Linguistics. In: *Allan, K.* ed. *The Oxford Handbook of the History of Linguistics.*

McEnery, T., Xiao, R. and Tono, Y. 2006. *Corpus-based language studies: An advanced resource book.* Routledge.

Mel'čuk, I. 1998. Collocations and lexical functions. *Phraseology. Theory, analysis, and applications.* pp.23-53.

Murad, T.M. and Khalil, M.H. 2015. Analysis of Errors in English Writings Committed by Arab First-year College Students of EFL in Israel. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research.* **6**(3), pp.475-481.

Mustafa, B.A. 2010. Collocation in English and Arabic: A Linguistic and Cultural Analysis. *Journal of the College of Basic Education.* **15**(65), pp.29-43.

Nesselhauf, N. 2003. The use of collocations by advanced learners of English and some implications for teaching. *Applied Linguistics.* **24**(2), pp.223-242.

Newton, J. 2018. Teachers as learners: The impact of teachers' morphological awareness on vocabulary instruction. *Education Sciences.* **8**(4), p161.

Nugroho, A. 2015. Students' Knowledge and Production of English Lexical Collocations. *Journal of English Language and Culture.* **5**(2), pp.87-106.

Phoocharoensil, S. 2013. Cross-Linguistic Influence: Its Impact on L2 English Collocation Production. *English Language Teaching.* **6**(1), pp.1-10.

Phuket, P.R.N. and Othman, N.B. 2015. Understanding EFL Students' Errors in Writing. *Journal of Education and Practice.* **6**(32), pp.99-106.

Privitera, G.J. and Mayeaux, D.J. 2018. *Core Statistical Concepts With Excel®: An Interactive Modular Approach.* California: SAGE Publications.

Rabeh, F. 2010. *Problems in Translating collocations - The Case of Master I Students of Applied Languages.* Master degree in Applied Language Studies thesis, Mentouri University-Constantine.

Rajab , A.S., Darus, S. and Aladdin, A. 2016. An investigation of Semantic Interlingual Errors in the Writing of Libyan English as Foreign Language Learners. *Arab World English Journal.* **7**(4), pp.277-296.

Regan, V. 1998. Sociolinguistics and language learning in a study abroad context. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad.* **4**(3), pp.61-91.

Richards, J.C. 1971. A non-contrastive approach to error analysis. *English Language Teaching Journal.* **25**, pp.204-219.

Rostami Abusaeedi, A.A. and Boroomand, F. 2015. A quantitative analysis of Iranian EFL learners' sources of written errors. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning.* **4**(1), pp.31-42.

Sabah, S.S. 2015. Negative Transfer: Arabic Language Interference to Learning English. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ).* **4**(Special Issue on Translation), pp.269-288.

Shammas, N.A. 2013. Collocation in English: Comprehension and Use by MA Students at Arab Universities. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science.* **3**(9), pp.107-122.

Siyanova, A. and Schmitt, N. 2008. L2 Learner Production and Processing of Collocation: A Multi-study Perspective. *The Canadian Modern Language Review.* **64**(3), pp.429-458.

Tahseldar, M., Kanso, S. and Sabra, Y. 2018. The Effect of Interlanguage and Arabic Verb System on Producing Present Perfect by EFL Learners. *International Journal of New Technology and Research.* **4**(8), pp.53-65.

Tajadini Rabori, M. 2006. "Error Detection" as a Device towards the Investigation and Elaboration of Interlanguage. *Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities of Shiraz University.* **23**(1), pp.91-106.

Tomczak, M. and Tomczak, E. 2014. The need to report effect size estimates revisited. An overview of some recommended measures of effect size. *Trends in Sport Science.* **1**(21), pp.19-25.

Xu, Y. and Liu, Y. 2012. The Use of Adverbial Conjuncts of Chinese EFL Learners and Native Speakers--Corpus-based Study. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies.* **2**(11), pp.2316-2321.

Yilmaz, E. and Dikilitas, K. 2017. EFL Learners' Uses of Adverbs in Argumentative Essays. *Novitas-ROYAL (Research on Youth and Language).* **11**(1), pp.69-87.

APPENDICES

Appendix I

	Data_sets		Statistic	Std. Error
Descriptives				
Adv_Adj collocation Normalised Frequency	**Arab EFLLs Corpora**	Mean	3.8526	.92561
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	2.0279	
		Upper Bound	5.6773	
		5% Trimmed Mean	1.4172	
		Median	.8500	
		Variance	179.917	
		Std. Deviation	13.41332	
		Minimum	.85	
		Maximum	123.39	
		Range	122.54	
		Interquartile Range	.00	
		Skewness	6.882	.168
		Kurtosis	53.784	.334
	BAWE Corpus	Mean	.9083	.08810
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean Lower Bound	.7354	
		Upper Bound	1.0811	
		5% Trimmed Mean	.4393	
		Median	.1400	
		Variance	8.096	
		Std. Deviation	2.84533	
		Minimum	.14	

Maximum	43.48	
Range	43.34	
Interquartile Range	.43	
Skewness	7.938	.076
Kurtosis	81.036	.151

Table 7: SPSS descriptive statistics output

Appendix II

Category of error	Error type in learner corpus	Example of error		Source of error	Frequency of errors
		Learner use \Correction is provided by the researcher			
Type 1: **Interlingual error**	Wrong word order (noun preceding the modified adjective)	- I bought clothes very wonderful* - He brother is drive the small car is very happy *	- I bought very wonderful clothes - Her brother is very happy to drive the small car	Differentiation The adverbs can take four positions in the Arabic sentence (§2).	14%
L1 influence	Wrong placement of Adverb-Adjective collocation within a sentence	- Very wonderful my summer holiday* - We learned about animals very useful things* - The weather was there very nice* - The weather in the desert very nice* - To see the dolphins it is very nice* - Because she was very sad her brother travelled with Amisha* - But it have some films are very good*	- My summer holiday was very wonderful. - We learned very useful things about animals - The weather was very nice there. - The weather is very nice in the dessert - It is very nice to see the dolphins - She was very sad because her brother travelled with Amisha. - But it have some very good films. - It is a very good food		18%

		- Food its very good*			
		- In the dessert the weather the very good*	- The weather is very good in the dessert.		
Type 2: **Intralingual error** Regularization of grammatical rules	Adding a verb alongside the singular form of the verb *be* or omission of the verb	- Sun here very hot* - The holiday it was very nice* - I am is very happy* - I am be very happy* - I'm was very happy with my family* - Sun here very hot* - The holiday it was very nice*	- The sun is very hot here. - The holiday was very nice - I am very happy - I was very happy with my family - The sun is very hot here. - The holiday was very nice	Incorrectly applying the generalized rule to similar cases in L2	18%
	Subject-verb agreement preceding the collocation	- I *am* very happy to visited Egypt* - I *will* very happy* - We *was* so afraid and very sad* - The actors *was* very nice* - We will *spent* a very nice time* - The Hatta is very very nice* - Punctualit*y is* very important elements*		These errors are caused by the rules of L2.	9%
Type 3:	Fragments (not a complete sentence!)	- In started <u>I was very happy*</u> - I was <u>very happy and interesting*</u>		These errors are caused due to two reasons:	3%

Overlap errors Errors attributed to both interlingual and intralingual factors		- I am very nice and wonderful*	1. The differences in sentence structure between L1 and L2. 2. L1 Interference.	
	Incorrect sentence arrangement around the collocation	- We saw the kaaba we had very happy* - I go with my family and I will be very happy*		
	Direct L1 influence	- A friend <u>her</u> is very happy*	This is caused by differentiation between L1 structure and L2. Arabic has the affixed pronouns attached to the subject هَـ [ha] is the 3rd person feminine singular pronoun usually attached to the end of the word.	2%
	Lexical errors	- Happy - pleasant, enjoyable, amusement, and attributes of people e.g. kind. - Very long - very far - Very useful - very interesting - Very hot - very spicy - Very habby* in my ideas - very proud of my ideas - useful	The lexical errors are grammatically correct but were not the correct words that serve the intended meaning.	7%

		- Good	- powerful search engines	
		- Good search engines	- nice building	
		- Good building	- very tired	
		- Very Bad	- very harmful	
		- Very Bad	- very sick	
		- Very Bad	- very naughty	
		- Very Bad		

Table 1: Types of errors in Adverb-Adjective collocations used in Arab EFLLs corpus

Scholarbits

Reflections of Using Drama in the Second Language Classroom

Catherine Mildred

Language Centre, University of Leeds

This is a reflection on my experiences of using drama to teach English to a mixed ability class. It aims to show thoughts on taking on this new teaching challenge and the successes that came from it.

INTRODUCTION

Several years ago, I was given the task of developing a drama course for the Language in Context (LinC) module that the Language Centre was offering our students. It was being offered to students studying on both the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and General English (GE) courses. This meant it was being offered to students who were planning to do their undergraduate or postgraduate studies at a UK university and those who were in the UK to improve their general English skills, perhaps as part of their home university courses. Outside of the LinC module, these students did not have much, if any, interaction. So, although I anticipated that this would provide some challenges, this was a task I relished as I had previous experience in drama, and I felt it could be very beneficial for language learners.

I am not alone in having this feeling, many others have done research on the benefits of using drama in the second language classroom: 'Drama encourages adaptability, fluency and communicative competence. It puts language into context and, by giving learners experience of success in real-life situations, it could arm them with confidence for tackling the world outside the classroom' (Davies, 1990, cited in Belliveau and Kim, 2013, p.7). It was this knowledge that I took with me as I planned the first term of drama.

CHALLENGES AND THE FIRST STEPS

As with most courses, the drama module continually changed shape as I slowly learned what worked and what didn't. As I spent more time with the students, developing a better understanding of what they wanted from such a course, I was able to alter the course to try and meet these needs. This came from formal feedback, informal classroom discussions, and my own observations in the classroom. I also had to accept that certain sessions maybe hadn't gone the way I had hoped. It involved a little bit of trial and error as I had never run a drama course for language students before, and I soon realised there were many things to consider:

1. Different nationalities in one class and different cultural backgrounds. This meant that certain activities worked well with some students and less so with others.

Drama, as a rule, is not the type of subject studied behind the desk, it involves a lot of interaction, and often, moving away from your comfort zone. This can be a challenge in your own culture and when using a first language, but then to do this in a second language and with other cultures and nationalities, this can become even more of a potential issue. I therefore had to try and balance the type of activities done in class, involving a mix of quieter desk work and more interactive activities. I also had to be aware of any cultural differences and be sensitive to the fact that some students might simply wish to sit some activities out. Overall, most students were more than willing to join in with a wide variety of drama-based activities, and I think it is worth mentioning that 'there is great potential for learning about other cultures through [drama]' (Fleming, 2006, p.59). It can 'foster intercultural awareness" among students and "encourage self-reflection on their own cultural expectations' (Cunico, 2005, p.21).

2. Students from different EAP and GE levels. Having a full range of language abilities in the class meant that differentiation was key to making the lesson work for all students.

As with all the LinC modules, there was a full range of language abilities in drama, and again, this was an important aspect to be aware of. It was crucial to try and find ways for the classes to benefit all the students and encourage them to work together, regardless of language ability. Drama is particularly focused on communication skills, so it was important to try to create a safe environment for all students to participate fully. Therefore, I had to make sure to allow for differentiation within the activities to ensure that all the learners gained from them.

3. What skills did the students want/need to develop from this course? Drama games are fun, but the course needed to offer more than just fun. Drama is, and should be, fun. This helps students and teachers to relax and make the most of the course. In fact, I would say that it is crucial that it is fun as this is motivating in a drama classroom. "The fun aspect should not be underestimated. When students are enjoying an activity, they are learning and letting their guard down" (Boudreault, 2010, no pagination). However, as true as this is, this drama module needed to offer more than just fun games. It needed to have goals that would help the students to develop transferable skills. One of my aims was that they would be able to take away skills from the drama course and use them in their EAP/GE courses and beyond. For example, I tried to find activities that would help learners to work on different aspects of speaking skills (such as intonation and fluency) so that they could use these on other courses. I had to try and manage expectations: this wasn't an EAP course, but the skills covered in it would help with some academic work. For example, helping students develop their presenting skills in a fun, relaxed way which would hopefully help them with any presentations they would need to give outside of the course.

A POTENTIAL COLLABORATION

By the time I had been running this course for a couple of years, it felt like it was almost at the point I wanted it to be. Students seemed to be enjoying it and they were producing successful projects at the end of term. However, there remained the feeling that an element was missing, a way to enhance the students' experience even further and help them to work on the main skills that they had come to the class for: speaking and confidence building. I could include more games and tasks that would enable this, but I was really looking for something more. The idea of a collaboration crossed my mind, but I wasn't sure where to start with that. I had one contact who was doing an MA in theatre studies, but by the time I had reached this idea, she was no longer in Leeds. So, it was back to the drawing board.

As luck would have it, the Summer course I was teaching on in 2018 offered me a potential solution. I had several students in my class who would be going on to complete an MA in the School of Performance and Cultural Industries (PCI) and I started to wonder if this could be the way forward. A collaboration with PCI had the potential to enhance the drama course I was offering, and hopefully, give something in return. So, after a bit of research I sent an email, outlining some of my ideas, and waited patiently for a response. I heard back from Ally Walsh who is one of the lecturers in PCI.

Thankfully, she seemed to like the idea so we agreed to meet and try to get an idea of what could work.

WORKING TOGETHER

When we first met, my original idea was that I could maybe bring my students along to the theatre to run a class there, and if I was lucky, maybe have a workshop or two with one of their MA students. However, it became clear that we could do more than this. If Ally could find some volunteers, we would maybe be able to arrange for them to come to my lessons more frequently, as this would benefit my students and the MA students, as they would be able to work on the practical side of their course. This was a very exciting proposal and one that we both hoped would raise some volunteers.

Thankfully, Ally had three volunteers who were very keen to come to one of the drama sessions every week to run activities. In return, I would give them feedback and we would help them with their practical assessment later in the year. The three students she sent were fantastic and I could tell from the beginning that this would work well. Each of these students had existing practice working in communities using drama as a learning medium. After meeting with them before the term started, we agreed that they would follow my syllabus but that they would have freedom within that to plan and carry out drama activities of their choice. I think that giving them the freedom to take such control is one of the reasons it worked well. I made the conscious decision from the beginning to not micromanage what they did. I didn't want to take away from their knowledge of drama and I was interested to see how they would interpret my ideas and approach the classes. We had weekly chats where we discussed the coming lessons but also any feedback from me following a session.

THE MANY BENEFITS OF THE COLLABORATION

I'm very pleased that I did it this way. My LinC students seemed to thoroughly enjoy the extra support in the classroom and enthusiastically joined in with the activities that were planned. It was great to see how the MA students worked within my syllabus and developed the activities to complement the aims. It was very useful for myself too, as I was able to watch as three drama

experts came and ran activities in ways I hadn't tried. Whilst they ran some activities, I offered teacher supervision and extra support as needed. This meant I was able to help the MA students further develop their skills when delivering the activities, as it was very important for the benefits of this collaboration to be mutual. Each week the sessions were relaxed and the LinC students really started to grow in confidence. Even the quieter students started to speak up more and it was great to see each student develop different skills from the course.

Another aspect of the collaboration that I feel is worth a mention is the sense of community that it brought about. I had never seen a group of students from different backgrounds and different language courses bond in such a way before. The group gelled and enjoyed each other's company and I think that this helped them to make the most out of the sessions. Burke and O'Sullivan mention that 'if students are relaxed, they are less self-conscious and more willing to experiment' (2002, p.22). I noticed that this can be the case in our classes. The students were at ease with each other and the MA students and this meant that they would take more "risks". Now, I know that this can also be the case in other types of classes, but it was noticeable in all the sessions and I feel that it really helped the students' confidence and, as a result, their speaking skills.

Building on from this, I think the fact that my role became more of a facilitator and less of a teacher is important, especially when the MA students were running activities, I sometimes joined in as a member and my students seemed to love that aspect. I think it really helped that I also looked a bit "silly" and I was taking the same risks as they were, we could all enjoy the drama games and activities together and it felt very safe. I also enjoyed being able to take on this role and relax into the games as a participant when the opportunity arose. I could go on and on about the sessions and how well they went but I think I can summarise by saying that it was easily the best term of drama that I had run so far.

One of the UK's most influential practitioners of drama in education, Dorothy Heathcote, had this to say about the power of working with drama: '1. It works through social collaboration; and 2. It will always involve exploration in immediate 'now' time where participants engage with events in the first person; I do. That's the drama element.' (Heathcote, 2002).

The benefit of this approach is working through play, and providing a collaborative set of activities, building a sense of common purpose that sits aside from the language learning, but that nonetheless provides the foundations for improving, modelling correct forms and loosening the grip of error-anxiety to the playfulness of the activities. Given time, this approach can build towards using technical language 'in role' in a much more profound way than language classroom role play has time for.

COMPLETING THE COLLABORATION

This isn't where the collaboration ends though. We then arranged that the same class of Language Centre students would come along and participate in the PCI practical assessment later in the academic year. Now, bear in mind that this was to take place several months after our course ended. The drama class students were all on different courses and it was at a particularly busy point in their term. Yet, when I sent the email, all but one or two replied and all of these turned up on the day. It allowed us the chance to return the help that had been given to us in our drama course, and it brought the collaboration full circle. More than that, it was wonderful to see the same group of students immediately fall back into the class dynamic. It was like no time had passed at all. The community feeling was still there, and the workshop was fun and relaxed, and my students responded to the MA students in the same way. It was a great way to conclude the partnership between our departments.

CONCLUSION

Overall, I would say that this collaboration was a success. It took time to set up and we all went into it unsure of what would happen. We had to spend a lot of time planning and setting it up to make it a success, but it was more than worth the hard work. It has helped me to forge a good relationship with PCI and there is potential for more collaboration in the future.

Address for correspondence: C.J.Mildred@leeds.ac.uk

REFERENCES

Belliveau, G. and Kim, W. 2013. Drama in L2 learning: a research synthesis. *Scenario.* **7**(2), pp.7-27.

Boudreault, C. 2010. The benefits of using drama in the ESL/EFL classroom. *The Internet TESL Journal*. **16**(1), [No pagination].

Burke, A.F. and O'Sullivan, J. 2002. *Stage by stage: a handbook for using drama in the second language classroom*. Portsmouth, Nh: Heinemann.

Cunico, S. 2005. Teaching language and intercultural competence through drama: some suggestions for a neglected resource. *The Language Learning Journal*. **31**(1), pp.21-29.

Fleming, M. 2006. Justifying the arts: drama and intercultural education. *The Journal of Aesthetic Education*. **40**(1), pp.54–64.

Heathcote, D. 2002. *Dorothy Heathcote: four models for teaching and learning.* [Online]. [Accessed 5 November 2020]. Available from: https://www.mantleoftheexpert.com/blog-post/dorothy-heathcote-four-models-for-teaching-learning/

Problems Teaching Listening Online

Marc Jones

Department of Global Innovation Studies, Faculty of Global and Regional Studies, Toyo University

ABSTRACT

Due to the move to online remote teaching, teachers and students have been required to change the way they undertake teaching and learning. Predictably, these changes have led to difficulties, in particular when teaching listening. Problems discussed include: use of streaming media playback resulting in effects that can hinder listening comprehension; learner use of subtitles and potential overdependence as well as negative effects upon phonological acquisition; and assessment of listening when learners are capable of cheating. Solutions suggested are shifts in control of media, ways to mitigate cognitive load (Sweller, 2011) due to environmental factors form-focused interventions for listening difficulties, creation of websites to store files or links to media, and options for assessment that use a collaborative, humanistic approach. While important for online listening pedagogy, many of the suggested interventions may be useful for classroom instruction.

KEYWORDS: listening, online, pedagogy, infrastructure, assessment

INTRODUCTION

According to survey-based research carried out five years ago, most teachers in Japan want more training in teaching listening (Jones, 2016). Given the strains and stresses of post-COVID-19 teaching, would the proportions be even higher and would this be generalizable to contexts outside Japan? Arguably this is highly probable. According to a survey with a very small sample, university English teachers did not receive much training to prepare for online remote teaching (Jones, 2020c). This is likely to exacerbate problems further. In this article I detail some of the problems that may arise in

teaching listening online and detail some of the possible solutions or mitigations that teachers can use.

MCGURK EFFECTS AND STREAMING INFRASTRUCTURE

Streaming video can be 'bumpy' in Zoom according to some of my students. It can also be difficult to stream video on other internet meeting sites. This can result in audiovisual lag, with information on screen not corresponding to the correct audio. Such lags can generate McGurk effects (McGurk & MacDonald, 1976), where perceived phonemic information is actually different to the audio. An example of this may be the audio produced being /bi/, the visual information being that of /gi/, and the resulting perception being /di/ (Green & Kuhl, 1989). When listening is already a skill that students have problems with and may feel that their perception cannot be fully relied upon, such effects are likely to add to more negative feelings regarding the possibility of task completion. Additionally, even when McGurk effects are not produced a mismatch between what is heard and what is seen can create more work for the brain (Kolozsvári et al., 2019). Some learners are likely to notice the mismatch and move on, whereas others will become distracted which may lead to feelings of being overwhelmed, particularly if such effects are frequent.

Ways to get around this may be to use an alternative method of delivery. Instead of teachers controlling a video stream through a meeting service, it may be more beneficial to share the stream and time codes with learners. Alternatively, if it is a video on YouTube (YouTube, no date) the start and end times can be manipulated by adding codes at the end of the URL in embed codes (detailed in Jones, 2020b). If teachers use a type of internet site called a learning management system (LMS) for distributing files to students and managing student assignments, they may also use downloaded video and edit it into sections. Some popular LMS are Moodle (Moodle, no date), Canvas (Instructure, no date) and Google Classroom (Google, no date). If using video from a paid streaming site such as Netflix, legal issues aside, it may be the case that students already have their own accounts with the service and they can be given season and episode numbers, and possibly time codes.

SUBTITLES

If the only reason for teacher control of video files or streams is to prevent student access to L1 subtitles, this begs the question of how we expect learners to take responsibility for their own learning choices. Making clear the expectation of using no subtitles on a first play in order to practice listening to the target section is likely to lead to the vast majority of students following instructions. Subtitles themselves have mixed merits in listening pedagogy.

The advantages of subtitles, according to Wisniewska & Mora (2020) are that L1 subtitles improve understanding of meaning and L2 subtitles improve pronunciation. This is especially useful in autonomous listening because the process should be enjoyable to ensure that it is a repeated activity. However, the effects of orthography in subtitles may interfere with learning. Sokolović-Perović et al., (2019) found an effect on phoneme length by Japanese learners of English in that phonemes represented by double letters were produced with lengthened phonemes despite there being no long consonants in English. Bassetti (2007) found that Pinyin (romanized text) may interfere with learning of Chinese by 'non-native speakers'. In both Sokolović-Perović et al., (2019) and Bassetti (2007), learners were substantially familiar with the script involved, even if their reading of the words was not orthodox in the case of Sokolović-Perović et al., (2019). However, Showalter and Hayes-Harb, (2013) found novel orthography (tone marks) for English learners of Chinese can be positive. It may be the case that the unfamiliar script means that assumptions about that orthography are non-existent and therefore cannot be carried over to the L2 schema. Whether subtitles actually improve listening is difficult to confirm but Wisniewska & Mora (2020) found no significant benefits for phonological accuracy in perception. Therefore, it is unlikely that orthography is going to aid learning of new sounds among learners.

So why do I encourage listeners to use subtitles if they are not going to learn new sounds? The subtitles are not there as a learning aid, but more as a way to check what was heard on the first pass through the text. Alternatively, if learners do use subtitles while listening, there is the small chance that they will hear something that does not match with their expectations based upon the subtitles they read. This mismatch is salient, and therefore noticeable. Whether or not Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis is correct, learners do need to perceive a form in order to be able to process it (Pienemann, 1997) and therefore need to pay attention to form if it is unfamiliar. Therefore, through this process it is hoped that the mismatch becomes a learning episode.

INDEPENDENCE AND AUTONOMY WITH DIFFICULTIES

As stated above, students have reported problems with the audio in streaming shared video recordings through video chat services. Though this appears to be a problem, it is actually a sign that teachers can free themselves of the need to regulate the recorded media that their students listen to. By providing a link in a chat box or a file in a learning management system, students can access the recording themselves and teachers can provide a time limit for everyone to regroup in the virtual classroom. If more time is made available than is required to watch the recording in real time, it is also possible for students to revisit problematic sections, which can foster reflection on what exactly is difficult about that particular part of the text. Additionally, websites can be created easily using numerous free services and are useful places to store links or recordings that are not sensitive. By freeing teachers of the responsibility of managing the media and passing it on to learners, this opens up a pathway to greater learner responsibility and agency overall, and therefore fewer cumbersome responsibilities (alluded to as 'monkeys' in Waters, 1998) for the teacher. While teachers may be unsure of learners' capacity to take on greater agency and therefore autonomous learning, Benson (2013, p. 840) reminds us that "autonomous language learning is more likely to be self-initiated and carried out without the intervention, or even knowledge, of language teachers."

Regarding difficult sections of recordings, Field (2008, p. 90) recommends 'micro-listening' which "ideally feature single sentences, pairs of sentences or very short sections of text, drawn from published, off-air or internet recordings." Essentially, this involves simple decoding, or drawing attention to features of spoken language that cause difficulties. By exposing them in isolation to learners, they become less difficult, because there is no need to attempt to retain the information mentally while also paying attention to upcoming auditory information. With fewer distractions, one would hope that the features in micro-listening can be salient enough for noticing (Schmidt, 1990). However, this is not only suitable for classroom work but is also a way for learners to troubleshoot their listening difficulties independently.

I have found micro-listening to work well with partial YouTube (no date) embeds in a Moodle (n.d.) page or another webpage such as a Wordpress (no date) blog (partial embeds do not work in Google applications). To do this, minor adjustments need to be made in the URL to provide the start and end time in seconds as referenced above in Jones (2020b). The minimum length of a partial embed is 2 seconds. If learners can provide time codes, this can be carried out as a reactive Focus on Form

(FonF) (Long, 2015), and have even greater connection to the lesson. Additionally, if learners are taught how to create such embeds, they can revisit their own problematic sections in their own time. While embeds shorter than 2 seconds are not possible, with editing software it is both possible and realistic to use clips shorter than this. However, this is likely time consuming, particularly for teachers unfamiliar with multimedia software. Due to this, a case-by-case evaluation needs to be made regarding whether the effort is worth the potential pedagogical benefit. However, when not embedded, learners may also be able to share an extremely short excerpt by sharing screens and sound and using the pause button.

After micro-listening, it is probably advisable to return to the recording at the macro level and allow students to hear the shortened excerpt in context again. As with recasts in spoken error treatment, teachers usually intend for the treatment not to be the end point but as the start of rectifying miscommunication. With micro-listening as FonF, there ought to be an opportunity to reconnect to its original context and then aim to rectify the miscommunication that occurred while trying to parse the text. This can provide an affordance for reflection on aspects of the listening process or features of speech that cause difficulties and of potential strategies to try in order to overcome those difficulties.

COGNITIVE LOAD

Due to the high cognitive load (Sweller et al., 2011) that can be involved in listening due to phonemic discrimination, lexical segmentation, parsing of message and semantic and/or pragmatic evaluation, the amount of listening work assigned needs to be carefully considered. If there is too much in the stream of speech that needs to be attended to in working memory, this can cause students to feel overwhelmed. Once overwhelmed, this is likely to be stressful and thus affect working memory (Baddeley, 1992) due to attention to one's own affective state and also toward the speech stream. Therefore, by providing breaks in the speech stream and therefore the need to attend to it for prolonged periods, learners can focus upon listening only and teachers may increase the length of listening periods in order to train working memory to handle L2 speech over a longer period. Additionally, by teaching a systematic notetaking method, students can develop the skills to manage information in longer streams of L2 speech that their working memory alone cannot handle.

As detailed in an article written about difficulties teaching listening in a physical environment (Jones, 2020a), several environmental factors can impact learners' working memory and therefore the executive function relating to task focus as well as the phonological loop (Baddeley, 1992) which is used to attend to sound and speech. We cannot control the actual learning environment so we must advise on it. In the physical classroom learning environment temperature and air flow are regulated centrally or by someone physically present who notices their impact, it is obviously not possible for the teachers online to notice students' physical environment factors. Additionally, if there are distractions present, this can be another factor affecting quality of attention. However, all of these can be mitigated with a short reminder at the beginning of a lesson. It may appear to be overly patrician and even patronizing at first mention, but when considering that students may become absorbed in solving the problems of their own learning and language acquisition, it is a useful prompt. Speaking from my own experience, it may also be useful for teachers who may be tempted to otherwise sit in the same position for several online teaching sessions in a day with little movement or air flow in their room.

ASSESSMENT

There has been a move, particularly in higher education and particularly in North America to move toward online proctoring software for examination (Moro, 2020; Watters, 2020). While there has been criticism of this, as well as student protest (Harwell, 2020), it appears to continue unabated. However, particularly for the purposes of an ESL/EFL/ESOL course, sleepwalking toward a situation where we assume the presence of bad actors is probably counterproductive. Cormier (2021) describes an arms-race situation that emerges in the higher education context, with students likely to use websites that provide correct answers to exams in order to deal with the increasing difficulty and workload involved in keeping up with teachers increasing 'rigour' due to the anxiety of online teaching. This may be due to the lack of means for heuristic formative assessment such as whether students look confused, appear to be struggling, how much they appear to be writing notes, etc. However, as language teachers and in particular listening teachers, we should hope that our students are communicating in the target language or collaborating on ways to deal with the comprehensibility and intelligibility challenges that different examples of spoken language provide.

It is my belief that we should assume that students are collaborating during listening assessment, and in fact, this is a natural condition for many of the listening tasks we assign in English for

(General) Academic Purposes (EAP, or EGAP) and General English, where collaboration with peers to make sense of a difficult lecture or a speech act that is not wholly comprehensible, is not only common but assumed to be good practice. The trade-off with this is a loss of granularity in assessment, which may be difficult to justify in comparison to a standardised test. The factor to consider in this is whether we are educating students to solve problems they are likely to face on an ongoing basis, or whether we are educating students to solve problems they are likely to face only during their institutionalised education.

Some approaches to listening that have worked for me are provided below, with the caveat that they are unlikely to work in every context due to an array of factors such as student orientation toward autonomous learning, technology familiarity, general language proficiency. etc.

Independent listening journals have been a useful tool for me to assess my students' listening skills development because it shows how much the listening skills I teach in class are portable to an independent listening context. I require a set of notes taken during listening, a reaction to and a summary of the text as well as new language items learned from it. I also ask students to log whether they used subtitles to assist their listening or whether they listened without subtitles. The final stage is students logging the difficulties they faced when listening to that particular text, as specifically as possible, and considering strategies they could employ to work beyond this difficulty. This stage of self-reflection fosters a greater sense of responsibility for one's own learning and teacher assistance is requested in a more positive, specific way which enables more effective instruction in solving listening problems. Learners also use the strategies and reflect upon them in a way that allows them to develop longer-term developmental strategies for their listening skills, such as intention to listen to a wider variety of Englishes or wider range of genres to gain greater familiarity. Furthermore, because the journals are kept over a period of time, collaboration occurs as a way of providing interesting listening material and experiences between students, and any poor academic behaviour such as plagiarism is easy to observe through a simple journal comparison. This reduces the need for 'policing' student behaviour, because any infraction of rules is not only documented but also submitted by the students themselves without relying on surveillance technology.

In the online environment, the use of tests becomes somewhat more difficult, or at least different. When conducting listening tests, the use of a LMS such as Moodle (no date) has been useful if only

because it can be used as file storage and the medium for the test itself. Additionally, if test questions are input with answers, they can be automatically marked. This is a lot of work upfront but can result in less time later. Additionally, longer recording clips can be used with summarizing tasks. While summarizing tasks cannot be graded automatically, placing key words in the answer section typically used for automatic marking can serve as a reminder and thus cut down the time taken to mark rather complex test questions.

SUMMARY

One of the main issues with teaching listening online is considering the locus of control in the lessons. Teachers may be accustomed to being responsible for control of recorded media, the modality it is shared in, and also how and whether parts of it are revisited. By shifting this to students, it is not only creating a more egalitarian learning environment in general, but also may assist in developing responsibility for learning among the individual students rather than creating conditions for overreliance upon teacher intervention. Obviously, more research is required into the conditions of online learning and the different types and magnitudes of autonomy learners experience and how these translate to language acquisition. However, my hope is that with greater learner collaboration in the online learning environment, teachers and students can co-create something more equitable and more conducive to listening skill development than appears to be the case with existing models of instruction both in the classroom and online.

Address for correspondence: jones056@toyo.jp

REFERENCES

Baddeley, A. 1992. Working Memory. *Science*, **255**(5044), pp.556–559.

Bassetti, B. 2007. [Post-print] Effects of hanyu pinyin on pronunciation in learners of Chinese as a foreign language. In: Guder, A. and Jiang, X. and Wan, Y. (eds.) *The Cognition, Learning and Teaching of Chinese Characters.* Beijing: Beijing Language and Culture University Press.

Benson, P. 2013. Learner Autonomy. *TESOL Quarterly.* **47**(4), pp.839–843.

Cormier, D. 2021. After Cheggification – A way forward (Part 1). 10 February. *Dave's Educational Blog*. [Online]. [Accessed 11 February 2021]. Available from:

http://davecormier.com/edblog/2021/02/10/after-cheggification-a-way-forward-part-1/

Field, J. 2008. *Listening in the language classroom*. Cambridge, UK; New York: Cambridge University Press.

Google. [no date]. *Google for Education. Solutions Built for Teachers and Students | Google for Education*. [Online]. [Accessed 7 May 2021]. Available from: https://edu.google.com/

Green, K. P., and Kuhl, P. K. 1989. The role of visual information in the processing of place and manner features in speech perception. *Perception & Psychophysics.* **45**(1), pp.34–42.

Harwell, D. 2020. Cheating-detection companies made millions during the pandemic. Now students are fighting back. *Washington Post*. [Online]. 12 November. [Accessed 7 May 2021]. Available from: https://www.washingtonpost.com/technology/2020/11/12/test-monitoring-student-revolt/

Hayes-Harb, R., Nicol, J. and Barker, J. 2010. Learning the Phonological Forms of New Words: Effects of Orthographic and Auditory Input. *Language and Speech*. **53**(3), pp.367–381.

Instructure. [no date]. *Canvas Overview. Instructure.* [Online]. [Accessed June 11, 2021] Available from: https://www.instructure.com/en-au/canvas

Iverson, P., Kuhl, P. K., Akahane-Yamada, R., Diesch, E., Tohkura, Y., Kettermann, A., and Siebert, C. 2003. A perceptual interference account of acquisition difficulties for non-native phonemes. *Cognition*. **87**(1), pp.B47–B57.

Jones, M. 2016. Teachers' Beliefs and Practices Regarding Listening and Pronunciation in EFL. *Explorations in Teacher Development*, **23**(1), pp. 11–16.

Jones, M. 2020a. Exploring Difficulties Faced in Teaching Elective English Listening Courses at Japanese Universities. *Listening Education Online Journal*. **10**(1), pp.12–20.

Jones, M. 2020b. How can I Teach Listening Online? 10 April. *Freelance Teacher Self Development*. [Online]. [Accessed 7 May 2021]. Available from: http://getgreatenglish.com/ftsd/2020/04/10/how-can-i-teach-listening-online/

Jones, M. 2020c. [Preprint] Technology Expenses and Education among University English Language Teachers. *SocArXiv*.

Kolozsvári, O. B., Xu, W., Leppänen, P. H. T., and Hämäläinen, J. A. 2019. Top-Down Predictions of Familiarity and Congruency in Audio-Visual Speech Perception at Neural Level. *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, **13**.

Long, M. H. 1991. Focus on Form: A Design Feature in Language Teaching Methodology. In: de Bot, K., Ginsberg, R. B., and Kramsch, C. eds. *Foreign Language Research in Cross-Cultural Perspective*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 39–52.

McGurk, H. and MacDonald, J. 1976. Hearing lips and seeing voices. *Nature*. **264**(5588), pp.746–748.

Moro, J. 2020. *Against Cop Shit*. 13 February. *Jeffrey Moro*. [Accessed 7 May 2021]. Available from: https://jeffreymoro.com/blog/2020-02-13-against-cop-shit/

Pienemann, M. 1999. *Language processing and second language development: processability theory*. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Schmidt, R. W. 1990. The Role of Consciousness in Second Language Learning. *Applied Linguistics.* **11**(2), pp.129–158.

Showalter, C. E. and Hayes-Harb, R. 2013. Unfamiliar orthographic information and second language word learning: A novel lexicon study. *Second Language Research.* **29**(2), pp.185–200.

Sokolović-Perović, M., Bassetti, B. and Dillon, S. 2019. English orthographic forms affect L2 English speech production in native users of a non-alphabetic writing system. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*. **23**(3), pp.1–11.

Sweller, J., Ayres, P. and Kalyuga, S. 2011. *Cognitive Load Theory*. New York, NY: Springer New York.

Tyler, M. D. 2019. PAM-L2 and Phonological Category Acquisition in the Foreign Language Classroom, in: Nyvad, A. M., Hejná, M., Højen, A., Jespersen, A. B., and Sørensen, M. H. eds. *A Sound Approach to Language Matters: In Honor of Ocke-Schwen Bohn.* Aarhus: Aarhus University, pp.607–630.

Vandergrift, L. 1997. The Cinderella of Communication Strategies: Reception Strategies in Interactive Listening. *The Modern Language Journal*. **81**(4), pp.494–505.

Waters, A. 1998. Managing monkeys in the ELT classroom. *ELT Journal.* **52**(1), pp.11–18.

Watters, A. 2020. Cheating, Policing, and School Surveillance. 06 October. *Hack Education*. [Online]. [Accessed 7 May 2021]. Available at: http://hackeducation.com/2020/10/06/surveillance

Wisniewska, N. and Mora, J. C. 2020. Can captioned video benefit second language pronunciation? *Studies in Second Language Acquisition.* **42**(3), pp.599–624.

Wordpress [no date]. *Wordpress.org*, *WordPress*. [Online]. [Accessed 7 May 2021]. Available from: https://wordpress.org/

YouTube [no date]. *YouTube*. [Online]. [Accessed 7 May 2021]. Available from: https://www.youtube.com/

Narratives of scholarship

A Dance of Dichotomies: Developing a Personal Understanding of Scholarship

Deak Kirkham

School of Languages Cultures and Societies, University of Leeds

ABSTRACT

This narrative of scholarship is a biographical account of the author's journey in the scholarship of language teaching and learning. Framed within Felten's (2013) characterisation of the scholarship of teaching and learning, it draws on three dichotomies to unpack some of the dynamics of the author's developing and ongoing scholarly identity.

KEYWORDS: narrative of scholarship, biography, dichotomy, scholarly identity

INTRODUCTION

This reflective piece is a biographical narrative of scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL) in a language teaching context. After a brief specification of SoTL, which will serve as a reference point in some of what follows, I employ three dichotomies through which to narrativise my own journey into becoming a scholar of language learning and teaching. Each dichotomy takes the form of 'X ~ Y' where X and Y are the two opposing or in-tension poles of the dichotomy. The tilde in this formulation might be read as 'and/ to(wards)': it represents both an idealised *balance* between the two poles of the dichotomy as well as a *process* from the first to(wards) the second. The 'and' aspect of the dichotomy speaks for itself: a dichotomy can be thought of as some form of creative tension or dynamic opposition. The 'to(wards)', or process, aspect of the tilde symbol is the lens through which I examine my own scholarly journey as biography: each dichotomy captures a journey from a

former attitude of mind to(wards) a second such that the creative tension of the dichotomy can be fully exploited and enjoyed.

A WORKING DEFINITION AND CHARACTERISATION OF SCHOLARSHIP

The notion of the scholarship of teaching and learning (SoTL), has been conceptualised in many ways. It tends to exist in an uneasy relationship with the term 'research' but may also resonate in clearer or muddier ways with (equally complex) concepts such as 'practice', 'reflection', 'CPD' and 'identity'. Boyer's (1990) seminal four-fold characterisation speaks to the polysemy, if not ambiguity of the term, the meaning of which of may remain elusive and the form of which 'continues to be debated at colleges and universities' (Glassick 2000). Much, therefore, has been written on this term, its value and applications, and no extensive review will be given here of the various formulations that have been proposed, their relationship and the problems they raise (see Simmons (2020) and Simmons and Marquis (2017) for succinct summaries). However, that scholarship can be considered a complex concept with competing understandings and complexities of application is a central assumption and motivation of this biography, which reports on the writer's changing, and indeed developing, understanding of the term and how, perhaps, to go about doing it; this piece should therefore be read as a validation of the vagaries of the term 'scholarship' and the challenges it poses for those who seek to undertake it.

As such, I shall resist the temptation to offer a definition, as this would seem to go against the exploratory tone of this piece; however, to set the stage for the narrative of scholarship which follows, consider Felten's (2013) characterisation of scholarship as: (1) inquiry into student learning, (2) grounded in context, (3) methodologically sound, (4) conducted in partnership with students, and (5) appropriately public. For this piece, criteria 1, 2 and 4 may be most relevant. With this typology as a working specification, we turn to three dichotomies which I feel have shaped my own narrative of scholarship.

INTELLECT(UALISM) ~ INHABITING

As scholarship is by definition an intellectual endeavour (Felten's characterisation uses the term 'inquiry' which is 'methodologically sound'), it seems apt to begin with this construct. This concept

will first be set alongside its perhaps less benign cousin, intellectualism. Then, in keeping with the dichotomous construction of each section of the biography, these two concepts will be set in relation to, and in tension and balance with, the notion of inhabiting.

The intellect has been of central interest to philosophers for millennia. The Neoplatonist philosopher Plotinus (204/5 - 270 CE), for example, saw intellect (or, indeed, 'Intellect') as one of three basic metaphysical principles alongside the One and the Soul. For Plotinus, the Intellect is an emanation from the One and repository of the Forms of his forerunner, Plato. More recently, cognitive science and neuroscience have sought more empirical answers to the nature of the intellect. Nevertheless, the faculty remains mysterious, despite experience yielding a strong set of intuitions as to its nature. Moreover, far from being a removed, even lofty, object of reverence, the intellect has been shown to be sensitive to and shaped by contextual factors resulting in a view of the intellect that is deeply social, interpersonal and emotional (e.g., Goleman 2006). It is this latter view which dovetails more cleanly with Felten's characterisation of scholarship as 'grounded in context' and 'conducted in partnership with students'.

This distinction between a removed versus a contextualised operation of the mind may be how the term 'intellect' might be contrasted with 'intellectualism', with the latter therefore being imbued with a certain pejorative connotation. This semantic differentation seems to be present in some definitions of the two terms: although Merriam-Webster (2021) defines this latter term fairly neutrally: 'devotion to the intellect or intellectual pursuits'. The Cambridge Dictionary (2021) seems to go further: 'the ability to think about a subject in a detailed and intelligent way without involving [one's] emotions or feelings'. The Collins Dictionary (2021) goes further still suggesting in its second definition that intellectualism may involve *disregard* for the emotion in thinking, and a sense that reason or rationality alone may suffice. Intellectualism seems to be an over-reliance on intellect, perhaps to the detriment of other dynamics. It may not be a wholly positive term in its connotations. It is this third sense which will be most relevant in the following discussion in which I reflect on my own conceptualisation of intellect and intellectualism in relation to the scholarship of language learning and teaching.

I grew up in a milieu which I would describe as intellectualist in this third sense above: debate, argument and challenge, often around relatively obscure points of logic, were a staple of family interaction, with emotional concerns perhaps less foregrounded. In this environment, I developed a

reliance, possibly an over-reliance, on intellect: that with intellect alone, all would be well. I carried this intellectualist attitude into university life (where it served me very well academically during four years' study largely of theoretical linguistics) and then into life beyond (where it very quicky started serving me less well). When I came to start teaching, I had already learnt the limits of intellectualism; however, in thinking about *scholarship*, as a form of intellectual activity, this attitude has been harder to shed.

In approaching scholarship in language teaching and learning, an exclusively intellectualist approach may not, I think, be the most valuable. Scholarship is radically contextualised: it must inhabit the context of the student (Felten's criteria 1, 2 and 4) and go back out into a public world (criterion 5); scholarship of language teaching and learning emanates from and returns to very real-world contexts. In my own journey in scholarship, I have had to consider not so much the limits of intellectualism but its dangers; and to learn to embrace the embodiment and application of intellect to avoid tottering (back) into intellectualism. Although scholarship is by definition an inquiry of the intellect, an exclusively intellectualist approach, which may be useful in certain activities of the life of the mind, may not be appropriate for the scholarship of language learning and teaching, in which multiply-embedded contexts and practitioner experience play such a role.

Consider, for example, the nature of the efficacy of written feedback on grammar errors. Truscott's (1996) seminal treatment of the value of written corrective feedback (WCF) on certain errors of grammar questioned the efficacy of this well-established practice is an extensive and tightly argued article. The resultant - and voluminous – literature (e.g., Bitchener and Knoch 2008) bears witness not only to deeply held divergent views of WCF but also the necessity, indeed the inescapability, of embedding the discussion in the students' context (c.f. Felten's criteria) and in the aims and values of the teacher. This area of second language pedagogy, among many others, suggests to me that the field is intrinsically multiply contextualised and is indeed a prime exemplar of the epistemological position of contextualism (e.g., Rysiew 2020). The ramifications for my own conceptualisation of scholarship have been to seek a corrective to, or balancing principle of, intellectualism in my own scholarly journey: I have come to see the opposing side of the intellectual(ist) equation as to do with what I will term 'inhabiting'.

Inhabiting may be thought of as embodiment or 'living in': the mind is not alone or aloof or aloft but sits in, moves by means of and is fed by the body and senses. Such an embodiment refuses the

abstract nature of intellectualism but invites an intellect which inhabits the real world. Here the processes of the mind do not stand apart from the reality of the classroom, the profession, professional identity, colleagues, the institution and wider society. Instead, these forces must be radically wrapped up in any scholarly thinking. Inhabiting also speaks to and provides a corrective for the independence that for me was fed by intellectualism: as we work with and for our students in a community of scholarship, there may be blurring of boundaries between one's own thoughts and those of others (c.f. Ding 2020).

Aside from the conceptual or ideological shift from intellectualism to integration, I have seen this process of inhabiting enacted in at least two practical ways in my own intellectual journey in SoTL, firstly with respect to my understanding of linguistics. The difference of scholarly emphasis between the theoretical linguistics of my university training and scholarship of language teaching and learning have already been alluded to. However, in my ongoing reading of and writing about linguistic theory, both for itself and in relation to language pedagogy I have gradually felt increasingly distant from the Chomskyan view of language in which I was trained to a theoretical framework that explicitly celebrates embodiment, that of Cognitive Construction Grammar (CCxG) (e.g., De Knop and Gilquin 2016; Holme 2009; Tomasello 2005). By this I refer less to the rather dense prose in which Chomsky himself writes, and to the complex theoretical machinery in which the model is explicated, but more to Jackendoff's (1990) critique of the Chomskyan paradigm on the basis of syntactico-centrism: that the doctrine of syntax as the sole generative component is not only not the optimum explanation but also robs linguistic theorising of key elements such as metaphor, polysemy and construal, all of which CCxG draws on far more richly. It always felt to me that the abstract element of Generativism under-emphasised the usage aspect of language – but it was this very abstractness and technical complexity that appealed to my penchant for intellectualism.

This shift in my appreciation of cognitive aspects of linguistic theory is connected to a second shift: from pre-occupations about the role of complex grammatical constructions in adult second language learning to a wider range of interests including aspects of student identity, academic writing and teacher training and development. This in effect has been one way into, or at least towards, Felten's first and second criteria, journeying from viewing language as abstract patterns to being part of cognition, social use and identity. That is not to say that my own earlier thinking about language did not include these perspectives at an *intellectual* level; more that in distancing myself from

intellectualist views I have been better able to think about them in the context of pedagogical practice.

The shift was first brought home to me in my first piece of collaborative scholarship (Hernandez and Kirkham 2015). Although a conceptually and methodologically relatively straightforward piece of work which simply involved a short series of post-course qualitative interviews with students, the aim of which was to obtain a more rounded array of responses to otherwise purely quantitative course feedback, the experience of working directly with students alongside a colleague was a revelatory one: far from framing language in abstract terms, this richly contextually grounded piece of work opened my eyes to the relative in-principle simplicity of engaging in some form of language teaching scholarship, but also of the value and importance of thinking seriously about one's own teaching and the learning contexts in which one works. This inhabiting, although its ramifications have taken some time to dawn fully for me, was revelatory.

To summarise, the notion of scholarship for me is now closer to thinking from, through, in and to a learning-teaching context where ideas are integrated with the educational world and inhabit a person living in that world. This shift has taken place not only in respect of how I may think about language but in a wider sense of moving away from intellectualism towards a greater sense of the human context in which thought is played out. In other words, some greater appreciation of Felten's first and second criteria has emerged. That shift has meant learning to accept and understand that pure reason alone cannot triumph in this domain and that a profound sensitivity to the context, the self and the other (students, colleagues) is a more efficacious approach. Can or should one still 'intellectualise' in scholarly work? I don't know. I think I still do, but I also think I know its limits; a context-integrated intellect is to be preferred.

CONFLICT AND CHALLENGE ~ CONTRIBUTION AND COLLABORATION

This second dichotomy may be thought of as an extension of the inhabiting intellect. The intellectual(ist) tendencies of earlier phases of my scholarship endeavours fitted neatly with a kind of adversarialism which are labeled here as 'conflict and challenge'. Once again, the milieu in which I grew up and what I experienced as the somewhat combative nature of the discourse in my degree training left me with an understanding of thinking which sought, enjoyed and celebrated conflict and

challenge. This is not unrelated to the theme of intellectualism discussed above, in my view; intellectualism may have a tendency to seek to win. An ideology of thought as conquest, victory is clearly one that may seek conflict and challenge.

I suspect that in a field other than language pedagogy, this attitude of mind may have gone unchecked for some time. However, within language pedagogy, although controversy and difference of opinion are widespread on a range of issues, both the discipline itself and its tone may be less comfortable with conflict and challenge. The highly contextualised nature of teaching and reflection thereupon does not - rightly - permit practitioners or scholars easily to see truth as absolute in many elements of the field: certain phenomena in language learning may be thought of in objectivist terms: an example may be developmental hierarchies in Pieneman's Processability Theory (Pieneman 2005), which are viewed manifestations of universal cognitive constraints on processing and retention; however, much of what constitutes the matter of classroom learning and teaching is multifactorial and context dependent. This is different, in my view, to (for example) theoretical linguistics where objectivist framings of questions such as the nature of form-function mappings in lexico-morphosyntax is justified. Moreover, for scholarship to be characterised as 'inquiry into student learning' (Felten's first criterion) signifies that it is there primarily to effect change (ideally for the better) not merely to search out truth, whatever that may be.

It is within language learning and teaching that my scholarship has, for the most part, taken place, and as such is not a purely theoretical enquiry but one grounded in the practice of supporting student learning. Therefore, in a shift somewhat analogous to that of the first dichotomy, my journey in the scholarship of language teaching and learning has moved from asking purely 'what is right?' towards the question 'what may help?'. In more technical language, pre-occupations with ontology and epistemology, and a view that these constitute the be-all and end-all of the intellectual endeavour has morphed into additional concerns with efficacy and value. To paraphrase, I have learnt to ask about and take interest in what may help the language learning and teaching community, both students and practitioners.

At a practical level, part of this shift for me has come through collaboration. To date I have collaborated with six individuals, all but one has been for one project only; nevertheless, taken together, I have come to see the value of collaboration and how it anchors one in a wider community and enhances one's contribution. And, while conflict and challenge may persist within

the collaboration, and indeed beyond, the overarching idea is not one of antagonism, certainly not for its own sake, but one of creative co-working drawing on, and developing, each other's strengths.

In terms of Felten's characterisation, this seems to me to speak most clearly to criteria 2 and 5. Criterion 2, the ambition that scholarship be grounded in context, may be achieved more effectively, for me, through collaboration: the task of working in and attempting to think about context (or indeed multiple interacting contexts) is supported through the insights, and varying interpretations and evaluations, of aspects of other colleagues. I have experienced this in two recent collaborations with a colleague (Kirkham and Harrop 2019, 2020 (being a two-part article); and Kirkham and Harrop (forthcoming)). In both cases, while the initial impetus for these pieces came from myself, I found progressing with both pieces of work challenging to the point of nearly abandoning them. Approaching, and then working with a particular colleague on these pieces, not only provided a powerful motivation - both through an injection of energy, and a sense of greater accountability to the colleague - but, more substantively, the comments, views and other perspectives of my co-author created a richer, more contextualised discourse around the themes of the pieces which not only got them finished and published but resulted in, in my view, better work. While Felten's characterisation does not mention collaboration per se, I see co-working as a proxy for, or at least an indirect influence on, grounding work in context and in making work public. While collaboration brings its own challenges, 'going it alone' has its limitations. It increasingly seems to me that it is often within the spirit of SoTL to seek out and work with others.

The realisation of the affordances of collaboration may not be exceptional or noteworthy for some readers: this reflects my own personal journey from an intellectualist orientation to scholarship that in some senses sought and enjoyed conflict. My journey from this earlier set of attitudes to a more collaborative and contribution-oriented viewpoint may be thought about simply as stepping more wholly into the community of SoTL scholarship, a shift which has been much discussed in the literature: the first three of Palmer's (1998 cited in Simmons 2020) four-point progression charts the move from isolated individuals who form communities of congruence which in turn allows the move to going public. This shift has nevertheless been significant for me.

OVER-PRODUCTIVITY ~ SUSTAINABILITY

This final dichotomy considers the nature of scholarly productivity. My scholarly endeavours have often been marked by a degree of hyper-activity: ideas seem to come easily to me but can tumble over each other in my mind; it's hard to focus on one at a time and they all seem to relate to each other in a myriad of complex ways. However, in undertaking sustained thinking to produce something that can be made public, as per Felten's fifth criterion, the rough and tumble of ideas needs to transform itself into steady, stable, sustained thought. This for me, has been an extremely challenging skill to learn. As my mind tumbles over, I feel a sense of panic in 'getting everything down'; I start lots of things but don't bring them all to completion; I want to try to 'say everything' (whatever that means!).

There are positives to this way of working: it can result in high productivity in the sense of lots of energy and outputs. However, the depth of ideas can be skirted over; I may read things superficially or piecemeal, immediately trying to integrate what I have read into my own narrative; reflection is deprioritised and the multiplicity of projects I have had 'on the go' at once, while offering an energy, can scatter and dissipate one's energy. Over many years of working in this way, my scholarship journey may be slowly taking me towards a steadier, more measured and gentler pace of productivity. I think of this as pacing (as opposed to panic) and process (as opposed to product). As regards the latter, I have been surprised to see that as one focuses more on – and allows oneself to enjoy – the process, paradoxically, the product often self-emerges. I say paradoxically; perhaps this is not paradox: instead, the paradox may be the attitude of mind that rushing at many things at once and expects any of them to come to completion.

The above comments on over-productivity notwithstanding, I do not wish to reject entirely the idea of undertaking multiple projects at the same time: it offers variety and the cross-fertilisation of ideas. More significantly, though, and at a practical level, I think I *had* to take this approach in one sense. I mean this: whatever I am thinking about, my mind tends to move outwards from that theme to related questions. Indeed, as soon as an idea is formed, I immediately question and seek to controvert it. In other words, epistemologically, I am not content with any one part of the picture until I have an overview. I think best – or at least most naturally – holistically, not about individual aspects of something. And to develop a holistic approach to teaching takes time. For me, this points to the highly individual nature of scholarship: individuals approach the task in very different ways

and a tolerance and openness to this is to be encouraged in how scholarship is conceptualised and managed in an institution.

I suspect that not everyone will experience this particular barrier to scholarship. However, experience does suggest that similar dynamics may play a role in many people's scholarly journey including struggling with motivation, getting and developing ideas, and the process of getting one's thoughts down in writing. These may or may not also be part of my own story but I've chosen here to speak about the particular challenge of over-productivity. I hope that this has at least indirect relevance to others.

FINAL THOUGHTS

This piece has aspired to provide a narrative of scholarship from a biographical point of view. Three dichotomies were used to chart some of my own changes (or developments?) in the scholarship of language learning and teaching. In charting these journeys, I have tried to be appropriately open about how my intellectual life has changed through undertaking scholarship in this field. I have not always found the journey easy but have started, I hope, to create a more rounded scholarly persona, drawing the best from my own starting point (energy, productivity, ideas) but tempering them with relevant antitheses so as to achieve a balance that is, in the end, richer.

Two final comments by way of conclusion. Firstly, aside from being simply a biography, I wonder if the structure of this piece may offer an application in the reflections of others in relation to scholarly identity. Specifically, the use of dichotomies seems to me one useful way to frame a narrative of scholarship. Secondly, and finally, nothing in the above should suggest that some ultimate 'end point' has been reached: despite the rhetoric ostensibly taking the form of 'the resolution of dichotomies', the three dichotomies represent only one way of thinking about my scholarly journey, and even together are necessarily partial (in at least two senses of the term). Moreover, because the life of the mind is an ongoing set of reflections on a complex, dynamic and multi-dimensional reality, any 'resolution' of any proposed dichotomy is, at best, temporary; new questions are asked, new 'dichotomies' emerge, and the journey - intellectual, pedagogic and scholarly - continues onwards.

Address for correspondence: d.e.a.kirkham@leeds.ac.uk

REFERENCES

Bitchener, J. and Knoch, U. 2008. The value of written corrective feedback for migrant and international students. *Language Teaching Research.* **12**(3), pp.409-431.

Boyer, E. L. 1990. Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate. Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. John Wiley and Sons: New York.

Cambridge Dictionary. [Online]. 2021. s.v. Intellectualism. [Accessed on 16 March 2021]. Available from: https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/intellectualism

Collins Dictionary. [Online]. 2021. s.v. Intellectualism. [Accessed on 16 March 2021]. Available from: https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/intellectualism

De Knop, S. and Gilquin, G. 2016. *Applied construction grammar*. Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter Mouton.

Ding, A. 2020. Acknowledgment and scholarship. 19 March 2020. *Teaching EAP.* [Online]. [Accessed on 16th March 2021]. Available from: https://teachingeap.wordpress.com/author/alexanderding/

Felten, P. 2013. Principles of good practice is SoTL. *Teaching & Learning Inquiry. The ISSOTL Journal.* **1**(1), pp.121-125.

Glassick, C. E. 2000. Boyer's expanded definitions of scholarship, the standards for assessing scholarship, and the elusiveness of the scholarship of teaching. *Academic Medicine.* **75**(9), pp.877-80.

Goleman, D. 2006. *Social intelligence: The new science of human relationships.* New York: Bantam Books.

Hernandez, G. and Kirkham, D. 2015. *Rounding it out: rethinking end-of-course evaluation (a case study from the Language Centre).* Leeds University Student Education Conference, University of Leeds, January 2015 Leeds.

Holme, R. 2009. *Cognitive linguistics and language teaching*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Jackendoff, R. 2002. *Foundations of language: brain, meaning, grammar, evolution.* Oxford: OUP.

Kirkham, D. and Harrop, H. 2019. Taking an epistemological PEEP at English language teaching (Part 1). *The Teacher.* 173, pp.35-45.

Kirkham, D. and Harrop, H. 2020. Taking an epistemological PEEP at English language teaching (Part 2). *The Teacher*. 174, pp.8-18.

Kirkham, D and Harrop, H. [Forthcoming] Towards a linguistically informed view of reduplication. *Journal of Applied Languages and Linguistics*. **5**(1), [no pagination].

Merriam-Webster. [Online]. s.v. Intellectualism. [Accessed on 16 March 2021]. Available from: https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/intellectualism

Palmer, P. 1998. *The courage to teach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Pienemann, M. 2005. *Cross-linguistic aspects of Processability Theory.* Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Rysiew, P. 2020. Epistemic Contextualism. *The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy* [Accessed on 4 July 2021]. Available from: https://plato.stanford.edu/archives/spr2021/entries/contextualism-epistemology/

Simmons, N. 2008. Mapping a mirage: documenting the scholarship of teaching and learning. *Collected Essays on Learning and Teaching.* 1, pp.3-8.

Simmons, N. and Marquis, E. 2017. Defining the scholarship of teaching and learning. *The Canadian Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning.* **8**(2), pp.1-5.

Tomasello, M. 2005. *Constructing a language: a usage-based theory of language acquisition*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.

Truscott, J. 1996. The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language Learning.* **46**(2), pp.327-369.

Scholarship is a Journey

Milada Walková

Language Centre, University of Leeds

INTRODUCTION

This narrative recounts my work on a particular scholarship project within the field of English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The project resulted in two publications (Walková, 2020; in press), and the narrative aims to depict the decisions I made in order to make it a success, informed by my previous scholarship experience. The narrative therefore includes many detours to that previous experience and learning from failure. The text is thus necessarily non-linear, and I hope this non-linearity will illustrate the complexity typical of a scholarship journey. I will be using my individual, personal experience to draw more general implications applicable to other scholarship projects and hopefully useful to other practitioners. As I do so, I will offer recommendations to language teachers relatively new to scholarship.

Before I embark on recounting my scholarship project, however, I would like to ponder on reasons for conducting scholarship. The most important reason, I believe, is improving one's pedagogical practice (Davis, 2019). Scholarship enhances teaching in manifold ways: firstly, good scholarship needs to be grounded in systematic engagement with literature on the topic. While I would expect all language teachers to read professional literature as part of Continuous Professional Development (CPD), reading scholarly works is particularly important for EAP practitioners, as it provides us with numerous authentic, recent examples of academic discourse – the discourse we teach. These examples will typically be varied and complex, and thus very different from the over-simplified models of academic writing presented in some published EAP textbooks (e.g. Phillips and Phillips, 2013). Intimate knowledge of authentic academic discourse can help us avoid the pitfalls of perpetuating myths about academic writing, such as good academic texts never use phrasal verbs (cf. Alangari et al., 2020) or the pronoun *I* (cf. e.g. Hyland, 2001). Moreover, reading for scholarship rather than for CPD makes reading more focused and more purposeful, as we learn about a particular topic in greater depth, and thus build our knowledge base of EAP more systematically.

Secondly, when inspiration for scholarship comes from teaching practice, it makes one's own teaching more informed and more reflective (see e.g. Bond, 2017). In this way, and given that such activities are institutionally supported, scholarship can help us avoid stagnation and burnout (Davis, 2019). Finally, by engaging in scholarship, we experience public academic speaking, practise *the doing of* (rather than just the teaching of) academic writing, step out of our comfort zone by facing peer review, and expose our work to public scrutiny. All this experience is paramount to EAP practitioners, as it shows us the difficulties of putting into practice what we teach about academic discourse in our classes and helps us develop greater empathy for our students. In sum, I believe that scholarship can make teaching practice research-informed, reflective and experiential.

Another reason for doing scholarship concerns the EAP community and discipline at large. Within EAP community, scholarship can create impact on the teaching practice of our colleagues and on the learning of their students (Ding et al., 2018). Within academia, scholarship can put EAP on a par with other academic disciplines (Ding and Bruce, 2017; Davis, 2019). In order for scholarship to accomplish these goals, it has to be public and open to discussion (Ding et al., 2018). I believe, therefore, that we have a responsibility to undertake and disseminate our own scholarship as well as to implement and critique the scholarship of others.

Davis (2019) suggests yet another reason for conducting scholarship – career development by raising one's profile. Scholarship can certainly increase one's visibility and be a source of professional and personal satisfaction; I would be careful, however, not to interpret career development in the sense that conducting scholarship will shield an individual EAP practitioner from precarity. As Bond (2021) notes, there is no guaranteed way to secure a permanent position in EAP. Job security, therefore, while a potential and very welcome by-product of scholarship, should not be the sole motivation for doing scholarship. In other words, motivation for scholarship is an essential part of our professional development which, although it requires support, cannot be driven purely by external pressures and/or awards.

This narrative will incorporate the points just made: I will show how my scholarship project was inspired by my teaching practice, directed by my knowledge of academic discourse, and re-defined by reading literature. I will also briefly mention the role precarity has played in my scholarship journey and the impact my project has achieved.

DEPARTURE

Working alongside colleagues new to scholarship, I sometimes see them struggling with scholarship for not knowing where to start. My advice is to find a topic of interest, ideally an issue that arises from one's teaching practice. The scholarship project described in this narrative started as such.

Back in 2018, I was teaching on a pre-sessional EAP course for postgraduate students and I noticed excessive use of linking words[1] (e.g. *however*, *in addition*) in student writing, to the extent that almost every sentence started with one. The tendency struck me because of its stark contrast to expert writing in published journal articles that I was used to reading. I wondered where students' tendency to overuse linking words came from – perhaps it was a result of IELTS[2] training? With this question in mind, I started noticing how colleagues taught linking words and I realised that IELTS was not necessarily to blame: I heard colleagues encouraging students to use more, rather than fewer, linking words. I saw teaching materials illustrating linking words in non-authentic texts suffering from the exact same issue I saw in student writing – virtually every sentence starting with a linking word. I became curious as to how teaching practice can be enhanced to help students use linking words appropriately.

At this point I knew I wanted to do a scholarship project on linking words. I was considering using a corpus linguistic approach as I had done for previous scholarship projects: I would collect a sample of student assignments, analyse the frequency of linking words in them and compare it to the frequency of linking words in expert writing, a sample of published journal articles.

Before I could collect and analyse my data, I turned to literature. For me, reading previous research is an essential part of conducting scholarship – without it, we risk unwittingly re-inventing the wheel, or worse, arriving at conclusions distorted by a lack of information. During my career I have seen colleagues skip this step – or postpone it until after they have analysed their data – whether due to time constraints, impatience to start a scholarship project, or even a desire to be *surprised* by one's results. Such an approach often leads to duplication, rather than verification or extension, of

---

[1] I use the term *linking words* here for its prevalence in teaching jargon yet I use a more technical term *transition markers* elsewhere (Walková, 2020; in press).
[2] IELTS stands for *International English Language Testing System*, and its *IELTS Academic* version is a common test for entry to higher education in the UK (British Council, 2021).

scholarship that has been published previously. The problem with duplicating is that we are not advancing the field: it is only when we attempt to extend existing knowledge, even on a small scale, that our scholarship becomes meaningful and our field scholarly. I would therefore urge colleagues eager to embark on a scholarship project to inform their project with relevant literature.

BUMPY ROAD

When reviewing literature on linking words, I found many studies confirming my intuitions about student overuse of linking words compared to expert use. This was in a way disappointing, as I felt that there was no need to conduct yet another study arriving at the same conclusion – one replicating existing knowledge. I thus lost a rationale for my project. The realisation that an idea I was forming had already been published by other scholars was not new to me. The first time it happened was during my PhD study: I made an exciting observation about lexical aspect, the topic of my dissertation, but when I shared it with my supervisor, she kindly smiled at me and told me I was *ready to read* a paper by Henriette de Swart (1998) which made the exact same argument. Upon seeing my despair, my supervisor told me I should be *proud* of myself – and this is how I try to view such situations ever since; if anything, it shows that I am on the right track in my thinking.

I was thus facing a dilemma as to whether I should abandon the project on linking words completely. I had done this in the past before, when I found a paper that addressed the issue I was going to address, and did it even better than I had envisaged for my project. This time (as during my PhD study), however, I decided to try to go beyond the existing literature and, more importantly, beyond my original idea. Challenging as this is, I find that the projects which result from a decision to re-think my original plans are my best ones. In the case of my linking words project, I returned to my observation that the way we as EAP practitioners teach linking words probably contributes to students' overuse and I decided to turn my attention from student use to teaching, and from student texts to textbooks.

The first stage of my re-designed project involved looking at practical recommendations for teaching linking words, which I presented at the BALEAP 2019 conference. I wrote up the paper for the conference proceedings and although, after some revisions, the paper has been accepted for publication (Walková, in press), I am not entirely happy with it. The reason is that I feel the paper

lacks substance. While it does point out problems in teaching practice and it does suggest solutions, it does so in a very cursory and uninventive manner, restricted by a tight word limit which did not allow me to explore the issue in great depth. A degree of dissatisfaction with my own previous work is not unique to this project; looking at my list of publications, there are a few papers which I feel have contributed important new knowledge, but also a few papers that are far removed from any pedagogical application. The majority of my publications are somewhere in between, offering new data and conclusions, yet circumscribed by methodological limitations or not being particularly moving. Nevertheless, all of my papers served a particular purpose at a given time, whether it was to present and publish my first paper, to learn about or share knowledge of a particular topic, to participate within a particular research community, or to contribute to a collaborative project. And all of my papers taught me a valuable lesson about conducting scholarship, writing, and the publication process. I would therefore encourage colleagues who feel inhibited to start scholarship for fear of failure to allow themselves imperfection and to view scholarship as a journey of learning.

The second stage of investigating the practice of teaching linking words involved analysing EAP textbooks and evaluating them against the principles of good practice for teaching linking words from existing literature. This meant going beyond the comfort zone of my usual methods. While the approach I chose is not innovative, as others have used a similar approach before me (e.g. Paltridge, 2002; Deroey, 2018), it is not one of the central approaches of EAP research, namely corpus analysis, genre analysis and the Systemic Functional Linguistics approaches, which, as Bruce (2021) puts it, have become *research orthodoxies*. As Bruce points out, overreliance on these orthodoxies limits both EAP research and teaching practice. What enabled me to try an approach that is a bit unorthodox was actually my position on the job market at the time. Previously I had felt compelled to use central methods in order to secure publication in a high impact journal (e.g. Walková, 2019) as a means of improving my publication record, hoping this would increase my chances to land a job fitting my long-term career goals. I am not sure what role my publication record played, but it was during my project on linking words that I obtained an ongoing contract at a university, and at a language centre that wholeheartedly supports scholarship by building scholarship time into teachers' workloads, allocating a budget for conference participation, recognising scholarly activity in promotion criteria, organising scholarly events and encouraging collaborative as well as individual projects. This freed me from the hamster wheel of constantly trying to prove myself and to play it safe and enabled me instead to experiment, and take risks, in scholarship. I would probably never have written my paper on linking words in EAP textbooks without a permanent contract. A similar point has been raised by Allison (2021) who suggests that there is so very little socio-political

scholarship in EAP – as found by Riazi et al. (2020) – because many EAP practitioners do not have a secure position to be able to carry out such research. I would argue, therefore, that job security advances the field of EAP. Precarity is a barrier to knowledge.

DESTINATION

Stepping out of my scholarly comfort zone paid off. My paper was published as Walková (2020). The reviewers praised it for its very practical orientation. Colleagues have used it to inform their teaching. Others have cited it in their work (e.g. Han and Gardner, 2021). Not all of my scholarship projects went so smoothly, however. Many of my papers were rejected by the first journal to which I submitted and they only became accepted, after reworking, in a second or third journal. Most decisions to accept were preceded by major revisions of my manuscripts involving re-coding the data and rewriting large proportions of the text. Such revisions, although demanding and laborious, considerably improved the manuscript in question and taught me valuable lessons for future scholarship projects. My final piece of advice for novice language scholars is therefore the following: expect being asked to revise your paper (perhaps substantially) before publication, and when you are asked, do the revisions. When your paper is rejected, revise it anyway and submit elsewhere.

CLOSING REMARKS

This narrative has depicted scholarship as a journey that starts with a pedagogical issue to be explored and informed by reading relevant literature, and that ends with becoming public and achieving impact. I have suggested that difficulties of finding a research niche, overcoming fear of failure, and undertaking revisions actually stimulate and improve scholarly work. I have pointed out that scholarship advances the field of EAP, especially when it is not limited by mere duplication or barred by precarity.

Over the years, I have found satisfaction from scholarship in its different aspects. At the beginning of my scholarship journey, it was really rewarding to simply see my papers published. As it happens, the novelty wore off after a certain number of papers, but the fulfilment came when colleagues told me they read and enjoyed a paper of mine, or when my paper was cited by other scholars. With growing experience, I find that I get most satisfaction from informal mentoring of colleagues less

experienced in scholarship – whether through collaboration, through feedback on work in progress, or through sharing experience and encouragement. This piece has been an attempt to do just that.

Address for correspondence: M.Walkova@leeds.ac.uk

REFERENCES

Alangari, M., Jaworska, S. and Laws, J. 2020. Who's afraid of phrasal verbs? The use of phrasal verbs in expert academic writing in the discipline of linguistics. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes.* **43**, article no: 100814 [no pagination]

Allison, N. 2021. *Ask questions of power, but not if you're looking for a job*. [Online]. [Accessed 8 May 2021]. Available from: https://englishforacademicstudy.wordpress.com/2021/03/02/ask-questions-of-power-but-not-if-youre-looking-for-a-job/

Bond, B. 2017. The E(A)P of spelling: using exploratory practice to (re)engage teachers and students. In: Kemp, J. ed. *EAP in a rapidly changing landscape: issues, challenges and solutions – Proceedings of the 2015 BALEAP conference, 17-19 April 2015, Leicester.* Reading: Garnet Education, pp.65-70.

Bond, B. 2021. *Conference panel*. 2021 BALEAP Conference: Exploring Pedagogical Approaches in EAP Teaching, 6-10 April, Glasgow/online.

British Council. 2021. *IELTS*. [Online]. [Accessed 8 May 2021]. Available from: https://takeielts.britishcouncil.org/

Bruce, I. 2021. Towards an EAP without borders: developing knowledge, practitioners, and communities. *International Journal of English for Academic Purposes: Research and Practice*. **2021**(Spring), pp.23-37.

Davis, M. 2019. Publishing research as an EAP practitioner: opportunities and threats. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*. 39, pp.72-86.

De Swart, H. 1998. Aspect shift and coercion. *Natural Language & Linguistic Theory.* **16**(2), pp.347-385.

Deroey, K.L. 2018. The representativeness of lecture listening coursebooks: language, lecture authenticity, research-informedness. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes.* 34, pp.57-67.

Ding, A. and Bruce, I. 2017. *The English for academic purposes practitioner:* o*perating on the edge of academia*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Ding, A., Bodin-Galvez, J., Bond, B., Morimoto, K., Ragni, V., Rust, N., Soliman, R. 2018. Manifesto for the scholarship of language teaching and learning. *The Language Scholar*. 3, pp.58-60.

Han, C. and Gardner, S. 2021. *However* and other transitions in the Han CH-EN corpus. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*. 51, article no: 100984 [no pagination]

Hyland, K. 2001. Humble servants of the discipline? Self-mention in research articles. *English for Specific Purposes.* **20**(3), pp.207-226.

Paltridge, B. 2002. Thesis and dissertation writing: an examination of published advice and actual practice. *English for Specific Purposes.* **21**(2), pp.125-143.

Phillips, T. and Phillips, A. 2013. *Progressive skills in English: level 4*. Reading: Garnet Education.

Riazi, A.M., Ghanbar, H. and Fazel, I. 2020. The contexts, theoretical and methodological orientation of EAP research: evidence from empirical articles published in the Journal of English for Academic Purposes. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*. 48, article no: 100925 [no pagination]

Walková, M. 2019. A three-dimensional model of personal self-mention in research papers. *English for Specific Purpose*s. **53**(1), pp.60-73.

Walková, M. 2020. Transition markers in EAP textbooks. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes.* 46, article no: 100874 [no pagination]

Walková, M. In press. Exploring transition markers in class. In: Bond, B., Ding, A. and Evans, M. eds. *Innovation, exploration and transformation – Proceedings of the 2019 BALEAP conference, 12-14 April 2019, Leeds.*