A Case Study of ESP for Medical Workplaces in Saudi Arabia from a Needs Analysis Perspective

by

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Abstract

This case study has been built on a theoretical basis that recognises the current status of English as an international language, especially its influence on specific domains. The theories underpinning the study generally recognise that the presumed 'superiority' of native speakers can be depreciated, taking into account the huge numbers of non-native speakers worldwide. Specifically, the study has targeted the medical field in Saudi Arabia from a needs analysis perspective, as this domain represents a typical representative milieu where the adopted theories of the language universality and its role as lingua franca can be validated.

Interviews and questionnaires were used in a mixed-method approach, to investigate needs, attitudes, and motivations of both medical students and practitioners in their current or prospective situations. Before conducting the research, it was assumed that the researched constructs in presumably two different sites, i.e. academic and professional, would engender different sets of data. Yet, the participants addressed viewpoints appeared to be mostly unanimous.

The findings also showed that the increased influx of Saudis in the medical workplaces has minimised the role of English as a communicative means, and English was relegated to specific occupational purposes in such settings. This specific English refers mainly to medical terms, which are mostly code-mixed with Arabic. The study concluded that in this multilingual setting, Arabic has somehow restricted the '*nativisation*' of English in the Saudi medical spheres.

One of the initial motives of the research was to allow a space for non-native Englishes in the context of the study. However, the study found that the issue of certain variety, whether native or non-native, is at a secondary position to the participants, compared to other prioritised needs. Furthermore, the findings exhibited some issues related to learners' motivation and language courses failure, which unfolded the expediency of a content-based approach, namely English as a medium of instruction (EMI). More clearly, the participants' learning experiences revealed the usefulness of EMI in enhancing their proficiency levels, more than language courses can do.

Abbreviations

AL:	Applied Linguistics
AmE:	American English
BrE:	British English
CBI:	Content Based Instruction
CLIL:	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLT:	Communicative Language Teaching
EAP:	English for Academic Purposes
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
EGP:	English for General Purposes
EIL:	English as International Language
ELF:	English as *lingua franca*
ESL:	English as a Second Language
ELC:	English Language Centre
ELT:	English Language Teaching
EMI:	English as a Medium of Instruction
ENL:	English Native Language
ESP:	English for Specific Purposes
GA:	General American
GE:	General English
GCCCs:	Gulf Corporation Council Countries
IAMTB:	International Attitude/Motivation Test Battery
IELTS:	International English Language Testing System
IR:	Interviewer
IL:	Interlanguage
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
LSP:	Language for Specific Purposes
MOH:	Ministry of Health
ML:	Medical Language
MOE:	Ministry of Education
MOHE:	Ministry of Higher Education
MT:	Medical Terminology/Terms
NA:	Needs Analysis/Needs Assessment
NET:	Native English Teacher
NNET:	Non-native Speaker Teacher
NNEST:	Non-native English Speaker Teachers
NNS:	Non-native Speaker
NS:	Native Speaker
RP:	Received Pronunciation
SA:	Saudi Arabia
SE:	Standard English
SLA:	Second Language Acquisition
SPSS:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TESOL:	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TOEFL:	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TSA:	Target Situation Analysis

UK: United Kingdom
US: United States
USA: United States of America
WEs: World Englishes

Chapter 1: Setting the Scene

1.1 An Overview

Our current understanding of English Language Teaching (ELT) as a concept, and as also appearing in the relevant literature, has been significantly shaped by recent recognition of the spread of English as an International Language (EIL), (refer to **2.4.1** for definitions of terms, namely EIL, English as *lingua franca* and World Englishes.) Hence, traditional views of the language and proposed approaches of teaching should be and have been changed accordingly. This continuously emerging phenomenon has naturally evoked a growing number of interested educationalists to re-examine ELT traditional assumptions, and to embrace EIL implications instead. Although an awareness of the language role today has been firmly established across the world, real implications and specific characteristics assigned to this language in its new shape can be viewed as completely absent from the minds of a great number of populations. In various ELT contexts, it still can be viewed as an international language only in theory, not in practice (Yang, 2010).

English is still looked upon by the majority of people as the language only spoken in the UK or USA, while in reality it is spoken by a much greater number of speakers around the world. According to Matsuda (2003), whereas the notion of World Englishes (WEs) and its implications to ELT may seem familiar to some TESOL professionals, such ideas can be seen as radical, or even outrageous to the public, including students and their parents. The fact referred to by Mauranen (2010) may well justify this situation. According to her, most people are used to thinking of the ideal English speaker as the educated native speaker, according to whom the language standards are modelled, and university education is undoubtedly the institution that produces such speakers in real

life. In particular, Mauranen highlights the universal phenomenon of adopting English, which usually implies the adoption of English Native Language (ENL) models. Similarly, McArthur's (2004) interpretation for the term *Global English* as a globally used 'standard English' echos Mauranen's previous argument. Consequently, English is assumed to equal ENL in the academic institutions, while most of the uses of language in academia contexts are being carried out in English as *lingua franca* (ELF) all over the world. Thus, the issue of ENL is neither central nor indispensable (Mauranen, 2010:12). Apparently, Mauranen disapproves the idea of closely observing what ENL speakers do, as the resource that would yield the best basis for teaching and assessing students with other first languages in environments where English functions as the main language for international groups of people. It is viewed as an unreasonable point of departure based on the current status of English, she elaborates. Observing the way English is developing in the world, "the target speaker may not be a *native* speaker in the future, but probably *educated* all the same" (p.10). Thus, she views ELF as "a better representative than native English" if we are to capture English contextualised use in real life (p.21). In the same line of thought, Matsuda (2003) argues that the international scope of learners' learning agenda should be matched by pedagogical approaches that teach EIL, by including varieties of WEs in particular. The previous discussion can be applied to Saudi Arabia (SA)[1] – the context of the upcoming study- as it represents a very typical situation in terms of how English is taught and used.

To present how English is used, learned, and taught in SA, the model proposed by Braj B. Kachru (1985), which is of a tremendous use by interested researchers, is adopted for discussion in this research. In Kachru's model, three concentric circles are used to

[1] SA is one of the Arabian Gulf countries, also named Gulf Corporation Council Countries (GCC), in the Middle East. The Arabian Gulf countries include SA, Kuwait, Qatar, Bahrain, Oman, United Arab Emirates and recently Yemen.

classify world countries according to English status and its speakers in these countries. English speakers are categorised under three circles: *inner circle,* which includes countries where English is the mother tongue or first language (L1) for the majority of their people who are considered natives, such as the UK, the USA, Australia and New Zealand, referred to as 'norm-providing varieties'. The second is the *outer circle,* where English is spoken as a second language by non-native speakers who have developed institutionalised varieties of English, such as India, the Philippines, and Malaysia, considered 'norm-developing varieties'. People who learn or speak English as a foreign language belong to the *expanding circle*, which includes, for example, all Arabian Gulf countries, China, and Russia, relying on the inner-circle norms, hence called 'norm-dependent varieties'.

However, Moody (2009), following Kachru's viewpoint of the difficulty in demarcating the outer circle from the expanding circle sometimes, points out that Gulf Corporation Council (GCC) countries exhibit characteristics of both circles. He posits it clearly by explaining that English is taught as a foreign language, while to some extent, it is used in institutional and national communication, an outer-circle countries' feature. In this area, much communication in English occurs between non-native speakers (NNSs), a fact that necessitates re-examining L1 standards of the inner circle, questioning the relevance of these standards in such situations. Being 'norm-dependent' is, in fact, the case of many other expanding-circle countries. In such a situation, teaching English is supposed to follow native models as they are spoken in norm-providing countries, while the reality of speaking the language in these contexts contradicts this teaching assumption. Consequently, a wide gap between the expectations and results regarding ELT is created. Thus, ELT practices that teach English as inner-circle language may

seem to be inappropriate in certain situations, Matsuda (2003) argues. The current

existing contradictions between beliefs about and realities of the English

use in the region can be viewed as resulting from the emerging phenomenon of English

as international language *per se*, and, at the same time, the lack of awareness of such a

trend. Indeed, it is surprising to see this character of language is completely neglected in

the pedagogical considerations of an area where it is clearly predominant (Tomlinson,

2004).

Moody (2009:101) describes the situation of ELT in the GCC countries as one that

"does not take into account *who* communication in English is assumed to be between."

He also points out the fact that learners in this context are required to communicate with

a complex variety of first language, second language, and foreign language speakers of

English. Furthermore, he clarifies that even if *who* communication is supposed to be

with is considered, it is tacitly assumed that the communicative partner is either a native

speaker or a competent international speaker, neither of whom is common outside the

classrooms of GCC countries.

According to Matsuda (2003), the inner-circle orientation to ELT may be appropriate

only for ESL programs that prepare learners to interact in the inner circle. Therefore,

such orientation is inadequate for a course that teaches English for international

communication purposes. Moreover, teaching inner-circle English in this case seems to

neglect the real linguistic needs of the learners, eclipses their education about the history

and politics of English, and fails to empower them with ownership of the language.

Thus, it is suggested that EIL users are as likely to be exposed to outer- and expanding-

circle Englishes as they are to inner-circle Englishes, since the limited exposure to

English varieties in the classroom may lead to learners' confusion or resistance when they are confronted with different types of English users. Exposure to different forms and functions of English is crucial for EIL learners, who may use the language with speakers of an English variety other than American or British English (AmE and BrE henceforth) (*ibid.*)

1.2 Research Theories

Mauranen (2010:6) indicates that one of the most influential domains, wherein English is broadly adopted as a common language, is the domain of *English for Specific Purposes* (ESP). In ESP contexts, "international communication characterises the domain across the board." She elaborates that:

> English is used as a *global lingua franca* in an enormous range of *domains*, from international politics to entertainment, from air traffic to academia, trade, diplomacy and social media. Its *non-native speakers* outnumber its native speakers, and bend the language to their own purposes.

That English is used as an *international language* and taught for *international purposes* in specific domains and spheres, i.e. in ESP contexts, is the fundamental assumption of the research theories presented in the present study. In other words, English has now become the primary means of communication for many professions in an era where this language is functioning as an international language or English as a *lingua franca*. Therefore, specific domains have been viewed by many as typical representative contexts of EIL/ELF (Maher, 1986; Widdowson, 1997; Essen, 2000; Yano, 2009; Mauranen, 2010).

According to Aniroh (2009), a result of the rapid development of English as a *lingua franca* for this 'interconnected world', it is quickly becoming a requirement for formal qualifications, effectiveness in workplaces, and career advancement. Likewise,

Keresztes (2009) points out that the spread of English in all major areas of life is a significant side effect of globalisation. As it plays a fundamental role within communication in multinational settings, such as in business, science, technology, and medicine on a global scale, English has proven to be a medium of international communication in several domains and spheres (Maher, 1986). Also Essen (2000) claims that the prevalence of English as a global language is of greater interest in specific contexts. According to Maher (1986), English is acknowledged as the international language of a wide range of occupations. It appears to be the linguistic medium of many communication systems and activities, including nuclear science, diplomacy, maritime communication, sports, telecommunications, and numerous other fields. Thus, ESP is viewed as a major reason for the existence of EIL; hence, a variety of English as *lingua franca* (Essen, 2000). Widdowson (1997:144) argues that EIL and ESP are coterminous, that is, English would not have spread, or "regulated itself as an effective means of global communication" without ESP. Also, "there would, for most people, be little point in learning it at school or university," otherwise. Indeed, the fact that users in the fields specified and working around the globe have adopted English as their *lingua franca* asserts the language international characteristic (see also, Louhiala-Salminen et al., 2005; Ehrenreich, 2010). Similarly, Ferguson (2007) points out that, besides being the language of publication for sciences, English has predominantly established itself as the language of scientific information communication in almost all scientific fields; a status that has led to increased development in the field of English for both specific and/or academic purposes. In other words, an unsurprising consequence of the language internationality that has dominated specific fields is its specialisation in the field of ELT (DeMarco, 2011). Or as Harrabi (2010) describes it, the demands and

requirements of the contemporary world have resulted in the expansion of primarily one particular aspect of ELT, which is ESP.

Since English has and is immensely spreading across the globe, most of the world countries today, for which English is an additional or foreign language, are adopting English as the language of instruction in tertiary institutions (Pakir, 2004; González Ardeo, 2013). Due to globalisation, "English-medium higher education" has become a common feature of numerous academic institutions around the world (Björkman, 2011). According to González Ardeo (2013), the attempt of universities to internationalise curricula simply means implementing higher education (HE) in English or 'Anglicisation'. Adopting English as "a means of instruction and a working language" in universities (*ibid.*) in its turn means using the language as a *lingua franca* for academia (Mauranen and Ranta, 2009, as cited in González Ardeo 2013; Mauranen, 2010; Björkman, 2008; Björkman, 2011**)**.

According to Lo Bianco (2002), a major consequence of globalisation has been its challenge to the unavoidable "unilingual world view" (cited in Crawford, 2005). In other words, with the massive global growth of English, especially in specific contexts and settings, the native speaker (NS) as the dominating agent of correctness and standardisation or as the "sole arbiter of language norms" has been constantly challenged (Crawford, 2005:84; Nayar 2002). As Crawford (2005) puts it, "a major implication of the spread of English as a lingua franca and the need for transcultural communication is the challenge this poses to current native speaker standards." Indeed, NS models and standards have been challenged by many scholars, the most prominent among them being Jennifer Jenkins and Barbara Seidlhofer.

If we examine the previous discussion of how and where English is used today or if we follow McKay's (2002; 2003) point, as an example, when she states that individuals use English for their specific purposes and communication across cultures, where the link between ESP and EIL becomes strong and clear. Mackay raises this point as an invitation to re-visualise the 'native speaker' notion in relation to English status today.

Medicine, the field approached in this upcoming study, is one of the referred to domains, which can be very representative of the presented theories. About two decades ago, Maher (1986) pointed out how English has grown into *intra*-national, as well as international currency, in medical communication. Although other earlier *lingua francas* occurred in the field of medicine, e.g. Latin, Greek, and Chinese, English replaced them all, one by one, to become the most dominant medium of international communication in medical sciences (Frînculescu, 2009). Consequently, the most widely cited medical journals have been in English, with most of the best contributions in science and medicine being published in English also. So English has become a prime vehicle for transmission of information in recent years. Since it has become the primary medium of international scientific publications, non-English speaking scientists soon realised the relevance of medical literature in English to their work and were obliged to publish in English rather than in their native languages (Alcaraz-Ariza, 2006, as cited in Frinculescu, 2009).

Indeed, here I would like to play the role of a respondent to McKay's (2002; 2003) invitation outlined previously, as her argument shapes this study. To put it clearly, I will be examining the relevance of that 'native speakers' notion to the Saudi medical fields, and how it affects stakeholders in relation to the current global and universal status of

the language today. The exclusivity of the native speaker is no longer valid, especially for such specific and international/global domains. According to Yano (2009), specific interests or purposes of certain groups of people appeal to EIL and ELF instead of inner-circle models.

In other words, the recognised dichotomy, which usually creates issues of discrimination between native and non-native speakers and teachers, should be reconsidered in the light of the current globalised world. According to Björkman (2011), such dichotomy is no longer relevant in today's international settings.

This enormous movement has led to English keeping a distance from "its original native speakers," resulting in "a vast array of indigenised, localised practices of communication in which local standards function alongside more international ones" (Lo Bianco, 2002:21, in Crawford, 2005).

The essence of ESP programmes is to have clear and meaningful reasons for learning (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). According to Canagarajah (2005), in this 'glocalising' world, it is very important to create a meaningful context for teaching/learning the language in universities. Demarco (2011) argues that, as the focus of today's learners is to develop English as a means to an end needed to acquire vocational training or professional expertise, the current mission of English teachers is to help their students relate language instruction to the uses they will make of the language. Similarly, Aniroh (2009) indicates that the current global world of communication has generated the need to communicate with English, which varies in different workforces; thus, language courses should be responsive to this situation,

focusing on the functional mastery of content and language skills as primary targets. In other words, the current international trend of the language has resulted in increased demands for courses that can prepare prospective users to understand the workplace context of the language, by equipping them with 'performing' skills in specific English that will be needed in such contexts.

Thus, Björkman (2011) argues that ESP programmes should move forward, meeting the current demands instead of "feeding on dated descriptions of English, and differentiating between different types of learners and their needs." She elaborates that, in international settings, knowledge of how language is used by its non-native speakers (NNSs) will be more relevant in such courses than how it is used by its NSs. Therefore, the merits of non-native teachers alongside NSs should both be acknowledged alike (Jenkins, 2006: 172). Furthermore, "efforts to reduce the 'nativespeakerist' element in some teaching materials" should be considered (Jenkins, 2006: 169, as appears in Björkman, 2011).

Consequently, this study advocates that the present learning situation of ESP students should match their future professional context, so as attempting to create a meaningful teaching/learning context based on the current reality of the medical field workplaces. In other words, students' *Present Situation Needs* are to be reflected from their *Target Situation Needs,* which can be mainly obtained by participants involved in their future workplaces.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The situation at medical schools wherein this study will be conducted appears to be a true representative of Maurenen (2010) Moody (2009) Björkman (2011) and Matsuda's (2003) descriptions and arguments outlined earlier. Talking from the 'emic' perspective,

it can be viewed as a context where NS models and teachers are highly emphasised, asserted, and favoured by learners and educators alike. The targeted university is no exception from the movement of 'internationalisation', wherein large populations of non-native teachers mainly represents its staff, in addition to its students who are almost all Saudis, i.e. NNSs as well. This can similarly be said of the language courses. Therefore, the university represents part of the contexts where English acts as *de facto*, not *de jure*, ELF in academia, especially when it is the medium of instruction. Although NS teachers, in the language course particularly, do not constitute a major role in the current situation of globalisation and the role of English in specific domains internationally, they remain the ideal target as expressed in aims and objectives of many courses, and as reflected by the syllabuses, teaching materials, and methodologies, and in the minds of educators and learners. Hypothesising that the medical workplace context is an international one, in which English operates as a *lingua franca*, besides the *status quo* of the academic context, I argue that ESP programmes should be adjusted in a way that responds more to the needs of current realities.

Concentrating on NS models alone in education is being frequently revisited by scholars nowadays, due to the inappropriateness of native standards in the current globalised 'postmodern' world, and to the emerging character of English as an international language and *lingua franca* in almost all the countries around the world, including Asia in general, and the Middle East in particular.

Acknowledging the international character of English in specific domains, I argue that exclusively adopting and emphasising NS models and hiring or favouring NS teachers in the targeted medical academic context may not match the situation in the target

professional context, for which learners are supposedly being prepared. Besides, such practice may lead to learners becoming prone to miscommunication problems in their future professional lives, when encountering varieties other than the ones emphasised in their undergraduate study. I hereby will establish the role of English in the professional lives of my potential research participants by pointing out a number of facts as well as misconception associated with English as encountered on a daily basis in medical workplaces.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The complete misrecognition of GCC countries for the current global status of the language, or simply EIL, as an omnipresent and legitimate phenomenon that can have pedagogical implications, can mainly establish the significance of conducting this research. Although some applied linguists, native and non-native, have conducted extensive research regarding the current international character of English, in relation to the various ubiquitous WEs, this discussion is still absent from the scene in GCC countries in general, and SA in particular. It can be observed that even when English international character is acknowledged, this does not entail any pedagogical decisions that may truly reflect such theory into teaching/learning practices. That is, NS remains the ideal target, towards whom the materials and syllabuses, namely of ESP, are geared. That is, the traditional goal of producing and creating "ersatz native speakers" can be noticed (Cook, 2001a: 179).

The discrimination resulting from the superior status of the NS against his/her non-native counterparts, can be said, is prominent in such contexts. The upcoming study hopes to reach findings that can either maintain or rearrange the *status quo*, i.e. to endorse or forsake non-native English Teachers (NNETs). By drawing on especially the

target workplace, the current practices at the university can be built upon concrete realities. That is, if the target professional contexts suggests by one way or another endorsing NNSs as teachers, the university recruiting and hiring practices for international and overseas staff members can be considered as justified, and *vice versa*.

That said, by considering the needs at both the *present* and *target* situations, this study can be seen as being responsive to the interested applied linguists' calls for adjusting ESP courses in the light of the arising needs resulting from the universality of the language in this globalised world, with a special reference to its spreading into specific domains, medicine in this case. Briefly put, partially responding to the needs of the contemporary world, I take the medical workplace as an indicator that can identify what should be either endorsed or neglected in the academic context in relation to ESP programmes.

Apparently, no ESP study with a concern of resisting the dominance of NSs and native models, and accepting other varieties or models in the region, can be acquired, which suggests it does not exist or has not been properly disseminated. Therefore, the primary aim of this study is to fill this gap. This point appears to be more evident when reviewing other studies in the context of SA, as I will demonstrate in the following chapters.

1.5 Medical Workplace in SA: Rationale

The health and medical positions in the Ministry of Health (MOH) are mostly engaged by foreigners in the country. According to Al-Harby (2005) and Al-Eissa's (2008) studies, which target hospitals in SA, the medical situation at the targeted hospitals is multinational and multilingual. Al-Harby (2005) argues that, since most of employees

are international professionals coming from different backgrounds, trained in English or hired in part because of their acceptable level of English proficiency, English comes as a natural choice in communication in hospitals. It is also uniquely represented as the *lingua franca* in these settings.

Another important finding resulting from Al-Harby's study shows the medical context in the country as the one wherein Saudis represent a minority of the workforce. In his study, Saudi employees constitute only 18.7% in the medical sites he was targeting. In fact, Saudi personnel, physicians, and dentists in particular, have been under-represented in this professional context since that time and a few years after, according to the MOH annual statistical booklets. Although the country has witnessed a significant growth in the number of medical teaching schools and hospitals, the Saudis representation among the total numbers of personnel employed at hospitals and health centres is still much below the desired goals. Yet, if we follow the Saudi representations among the total numbers of MOH workforce, Saudi percentages are seen to increase between 2007 and 2011, especially in nursing, pharmacology, and allied health specialties. For example, the number of Saudi physicians (including dentists) has risen from 19.3% to 23%, nurses from 41.5% to 51.9%, pharmacists from 69.8% to 82.4%, and allied health personnel from 71.4% to 87.25%, over that period, (See Table 1.1 below.)

The case of the King Fahd Medical City (in 2010) shows that Saudi employees are outnumbering foreigners in almost all fields. This representation appears to be more in tune with the country's plans of 'Saudisation', a move towards hiring more Saudis in different and various sectors. Yet, the context of this last hospital portrays a very rich and diverse multilingual surrounding at the same time, with Filipinos and Indians

constituting the second and third largest groups of employees, respectively. (See

Appendix 6.)

Again, the representations of Saudis and foreigners in the country's medical settings can

indicate how and between whom the language is used. That is, a *lingua franca* mainly

between NNSs, and rarely with NSs.

Job Title	2007		2008		2009		2010		2011	
	Total number	Saudi %	Total number	Saudi %	Total number	Saudi %	Total number	Saudi %	Total number	Saudi %
Physicians	21265	4098 19.3	24802	4714 19.0	25832	5831 22.6	31, 517	6,818 21.63	33999	7817 23.0
Pharma-cists	1023	714 69.8	1529	1072 70.1	1654	1239 74.9	1,790	1,406 78.55	1897	1563 82.4
Nurses	44395	18444 41.5	55429	24689 44.5	63297	31824 50.3	75,978	37,009 48.71	77946	40437 51.9
Allied Health personnel	25052	17895 71.4	28752	22519 78.3	32360	27851 86.1	40,110	35, 023 87.32	43422	37886 87.25

Table 1.1 The Representation of Saudi Personnel/Professionals in the Saudi Medical Contexts

It is however worth mentioning here, that the country's plans of 'Saudisation' still seem

to be, at the same time, disappointing to most of Saudi citizens. In other words,

employers mostly favour foreigners over the Saudis. For example, the Filipino

employees have not been affected by 'Saudisation' (SIBOS Daily News, 2012 in Al-

Arabia.net http://www.alarabiya.net/articles/2012/08/31/235266.html.) Indeed, the

Filipino workforce in SA has increased by 8%, i.e. from 293049 to 316736, within the

period from 2010 to 2012, a majority of whom are employed by the MOH (Al-

Arabia.net, 2012 http://www.alarabiya.net/articles/2012/08/31/235266.html.) Also,

according to *The Times of India* (2012), the MOH has recently (30/05/2012) recruited

hundreds of Indian nurses from Kochi to work in SA

(http://www.daralakhbar.com/articles/1770573.) Indeed, a quick analysis of the

workforce in private sector hospitals can be clear-cut evidence that shows how the

expatriates' hegemony leads to under-representation of the nationals who form the

minorities. For example, from 2008 to late 2011, the Saudi physicians formed only

4.46% and 11.56%, out of the total number of physicians who work in private hospitals

and polyclinics, respective. This shortage of Saudi workforce in the private sector is also

applicable to nursing, pharmacology, and allied health specialties. In 2008, nurses

formed 4.07%, pharmacists 11.88%, and allied health personnel 18.38%. With no

considerable differences, the Saudi nurses formed 6.1%, pharmacists 12.27%, and allied

health personnel 33.72% in 2011. However, the percentages can be seen to be growing

steadily, with the same average over a period of four years.

The current situation of the medical field as analysed above requires investigating the

linguistic scene in the Saudi hospitals. Thus, this research, in the light of the populations

presented, intends to identify what English/es, how and when it/they is/are used in

medical workplaces.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The discussion of EIL and the globalising role of English is usually represented and

achieved by tackling certain crucial elements. These elements usually include, the

debate over native and non-native speakers and teachers, and analysis of linguistic needs, motivations, and attitudes.

In this study, EIL discussion will mainly be addressed through investigating the needs of ESP users and learners – specifically, needs in a professional medical context, and the needs of current medical and health-allied students. As Czabanowska *et al*. (2007) suggest, the foreign language needs expressed by students, staff, and practitioners in their career context, must be acknowledged by specialist English teaching program planners. Thus, analysing the future workplace needs of learners is thought to be important in this study, as an attempt to have the *target situation* reflected in the academic setting, i.e. the *present situation*. The study hopes to identify the professional needs regarding the language models spoken in the workplace, so that the decisions of the university regarding recruiting teachers, the teaching models, techniques, and materials could be properly guided. By identifying specific professional needs, the relevance of native speaker models in the workplace can be proven to be either beneficial and relevant or the opposite to the career of participants and, hence, to the scene in the academic setting.

The importance of carrying out a needs analysis (NA) with adult learners in EIL situations has been highlighted by Sifakis (2004). Sifakis indicates that NA is important for EIL teachers to determine models dominating their learners' viewpoints regarding both communication and teaching domains.

Identifying and analysing the learners' needs entails an investigation into their attitudes toward native and non-native speakers, teachers, and models, as well as examination of

their motivations for studying English. Sifakis (2004) believes that when the issue of English status in international and intercultural communication is considered, learners' attitudes are paramount and the first to be investigated. In fact, the most significant area to be addressed in relation to EIL is the language attitudes. Also, Widdowson (2004) and Guerra (2005) highlight the importance of attitudes in current EIL research. According to Guerra (*ibid.),* examining English as a global language without careful analysis of the attitudes would not be considered as a complete examination. Therefore, on a more comprehensive level, the attitudes of the targeted context stakeholders will be approached and analysed. In other words, integral to the investigation into the validity of the research theories in the targeted context as outlined previously, the individuals' affiliations are to be examined so as to draw a comprehensive picture of the situation in SA. That is, to investigate how the participants view themselves in this globalised world, users or learners, and to what English model they affiliate themselves, probably as products of the practices asserted by educational authorities in the region.

Usually pertinent to examining the learners' attitude is identifying their learning motivations. In this study, the participants' motivations will be analysed according to Gardener's agenda of motivations, namely instrumental and integrative motivations, and Yashima's (2002) 'international posture.' In fact, the three constructs of NA, attitudes, and motivations are usually employed in research that approaches EIL perspectives, which will be shown in the second section of Chapter 2.

If any discrepancy between the current teaching and future workplace situations is spotted, authorities must then address suggestions on how language instruction might better match the actual language usage requirements in the targeted professional context.

As DeMarco (2011) puts it, an essential assumption of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) or ESP is to make a strong association between focusing on the relative actual language use and the improvement in learners' attitude, motivation, and performance.

Having outlined the areas and contexts this study will address, I will demonstrate how these areas will be approached and employed through identifying the aims and objectives of this study.

1.7 Aims and Objectives of the Study

This study aims to identify the actual usage of the language in medical workplaces in SA, so the priorities of ELT/ESP programmes can be reassessed, particularly the emphasis put on the NS as the ideal target and model of English. It seeks to find out how ESP courses in particular can best respond to the needs of Saudi medical and medical-related/health students, through addressing the realities of the learners' future workplace. In other words, the study is concerned with identifying the language policy that will best address the realities of the learners' future context in terms of the needs required at the workplace, with a special reference to the language standards and models. I hope to inform that policy through the medical workplace by analysing the needs of stakeholders, to identify *objective needs* of the learner. The study will also determine what these students need for communication in that future workplace, including the required and needed language model.

More precisely, to determine the extent to which such learners need NS models to communicate in that future workplace, the study will examine the feasibility of minimising the dominance of native speakers and varieties as the only advocated teaching models. This can be anticipated by reporting the participants' attitudes toward

these models in comparison to other Englishes, and the learners' integrative and instrumental motivations, and 'international posture'. If my initial observations prove to be represented widely in the attitudes and opinions of stakeholders, raising awareness of how a teaching syllabus can serve the purpose of future medical professionals is needed. The aims and objectives are, then, as follows:

- To identify linguistic needs, namely *necessities, lacks, and wants* of participants.
- To identify when, how, between whom, and why English is needed in the workplace.
- To determine what medical students need to be able to participate in their future workplace culture from professionals' viewpoints, in comparison to what they think they need currently.
- To examine the relevance of NS models to medical professionals and students, accordingly.
- To investigate the participants' attitudes towards NS models in comparison to other WEs.
- To identify the participants' motivations; integrative, instrumental and international posture, and their reasons and purposes of using and learning English.

These aims and objectives will be reflected in the research questions in Chapter 4.

1.8 Summary

This chapter presents the discussion that motivated me to conduct this research. Through this discussion, I have tried to shed light on how English is taught and used in the GCC countries in general, and Saudi Arabia in particular—the main field wherein the study will be conducted. I have also tried to briefly set out the scope, rationale, aims, and objectives I adopted for the research. Generally, this chapter can be viewed as the basis upon which this research is founded. It aims to pave the way for all following discussions in the chapter on literature review. The literature review chapter will include aspects and debates related to EIL, with special references to how such aspects are and/or should be reflected in ELT in general, and ESP in particular. Needs Analysis, which consititues a major aspect of the study, will also be explained. Similarly, motivations, and attitudes will be discussed after presenting theortical underpinning through which these two constructs are usually applied.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This study has evolved from a perspective which views EIL as a legitimate phenomenon, which tries to reduce the 'native-speaker' hegemony in education, and which allows a space for other speakers labelled as 'non-native', with particular reference to the field of ESP. Thus, it is this chapter's mission to review the development of ESP and to delineate its relation to EIL. Needs analysis, as a main construct to be applied in this study, is also reviewed. In other words, the chapter attempts to review the way in ESP in particular EIL is positioned among other related pedagogic aspects, the most prominent of which is the 'standardness' of the NS models over other possible choices in ELT. It begins with a discussion that portrays how English has successfully achieved its unprecedented spread around the world, and how this spread has given birth to ESP and other trends in academia.

The spread of English has resulted in the proliferation of a massive number of speakers, who are represented by several different models, based on certain characteristics. Scholars created such models to categorise and sometimes amalgamate the variety of different English speakers around the world. Although some of these models are summarised in this chapter, Kachru's model is indicated to be the one that is followed in this study, as will be discussed in (2.4.2.)

Ketabi and Shomoossi (2007:172) assert that, as a consequence of the fact that NNSs currently forming the majority of English users, many 'fresh outlooks' have emerged, mainly relating to the practises of ELT in non-English speaking countries. Discussions on how ELT can be affected by other interrelated notions, such are the created

dichotomy of English speakers and teachers as native or non-native, are also presented in this chapter.

In short, this chapter attempts to establish the theoretical basis of this research, which mainly concerns ESP in relation to the global role of the language. It also presents elements through which the status of the language can be characterised, namely needs analysis, attitude, and motivation. Finally, these latter elements will be supplemented by reviews of similar studies conducted in some expanding-circle countries, including SA, which represents the context of the current research, so as the gap this study attempts and intends to fill can be indicated.

2.2 The Spread of English and ESP

English has undoubtedly played a very significant role in the twenty-first century worldwide communications, establishing itself as the primary means of interaction among various groups of people in different settings around the world. Presently, and for several decades, it has been used internationally as the sole communication choice of many professions. Trying to reach a reasonable explanation for the spread of English, Keresztes (2009:55) argues that English is intrinsically described as "God-given, rich, noble and interesting," which implies that English is and other languages are not.

A lot has been written discussing this overwhelming spread of English around the globe. The majority seem to agree upon two main factors that have helped to globalise English: the former expansion of British colonial power in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, and the more recent emergence of the USA as the leading power of the twentieth century (Crystal, 1995; Frinculescu, 2009; Graddol, 1997). The journey of English around the world started with the beginning of the British Empire in the

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seventeenth century. According to Phillipson (1992:109), "whenever British have settled, they have taken their language with them." However, delivering English internationally as achieved by British imperialism cannot be seen as the sole agent maintaining English globally. According to Graddol (1997), it is American economic supremacy that maintained the international role of English in the twentieth century. This is well summed up by Crystal (1997:7-8), when he indicates, "it may take a militarily powerful nation to establish a language, but it takes an economically powerful one to maintain and expand it." In fact, as Keresztes (2009) views it, the dominance of the US in the media and culture industries has resulted in the global availability of American English products. This process created 1.3 billion more or less fluent speakers of English around the world by the end of the twentieth century.

Crystal (1997) argues that, due to British or American imperialism, English is still used as the main and institutional language in some countries. It is also used in diverse contexts, and characterised as a 'second language' to speakers' native language of these countries. US power stimulated vast international trade and business, which imposed the use of English upon companies and organisations. Crystal draws some practical reasons for the language spread. These include using English in different domains, such as for maritime, policing, air traffic control, conferences and international tourism, as well as for intellectual reasons since most academic information in the world is in English. In fact, the globalisation *per se* has been viewed as the third strand of the twenty-first century that helped spread English, (refer to Saxena and Omoniyi, 2010.)

The expansion of the language across specific domains internationally has generated individuals' specific reasons for learning English, and exigencies to satisfy such specified needs, which have in turn given birth to the ESP approach to learning and

teaching English. In other words, with the demands of a world of "enormous and unprecedented expansion in scientific, technical and economic activity on an international scale," ESP has emerged as a learner-focused means to cater to specific needs (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987:6). Hutchinson and Waters (*ibid.*) elaborate that: "As English became the accepted language of technology and commerce, it created a new generation of learners who knew specifically why they were learning a language."

They also indicate that the early Oil Crisis of the 1970s played a significant role in accelerating the development of ESP, and explain that this crisis resulted in exporting huge Western funds and expertise into oil-rich countries. This consequently led to English being a big business in such regions, and evoked the need for courses with clearly defined goals, especially with commercial pressures and time constraints at that time (see 1.2 for related considerations).

2.2.1 ESP History and Development

The fact that what may be specific and appropriate in a particular context may not be so in another has led to variances in interpretations of what ESP is or can be. That is, it is difficult to reach a single unifying and globally accepted definition of ESP (Robinson, 1991:1). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) define it as a language teaching approach, the content and method of which is built upon the learner's reasons for learning the language. Similarly, Robinson (1991) indicates that ESP is normally goal-oriented.

As it is generally linked with specific disciplines and occupations, ESP has been broadly adopted in higher education over the last three decades (Anthony, 1997). Consequently, and to cater for these demands in HE, mounting numbers of MA ESP courses and other courses offered to teachers involved in ESP contexts have increased, Anthony (1998) argues. The noticeable increase of such MA courses and teacher development

programmes is in itself a clear indication and reflection of ESP development. Similarly, Tarnopolsky (2013:1) claims that the English courses that are offered to tertiary students in non-English-speaking countries are practically always ESP courses, focusing on the professional communication language that learners are supposed to acquire. In such cases, the methods of teaching are presupposed to include "professional content matter in language courses."

Anthony (1998) points out that some simply describe ESP as teaching English for any purpose that could be specified, whereas others describe it more precisely as the teaching of English for vocational or professional purposes, or the teaching of English used in academic studies.

Indeed, two major sub-branches of ESP that have been widely implemented are English for Academic Purposes and English for Occupational Purposes (EAP and EOP). Key concepts related to ESP include needs analysis, learning-centred processes, register analysis, rhetorical/discourse analysis, situational analysis, skills and strategies, and authenticity of input and purpose (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; González Ardeo, 2013).

Regardless of the fact the defining ESP is a much-debated issue and scholars constantly endeavour to define it, many seem to agree to resort to Strevens' (1988) categories that characterise ESP (others use Dudley-Evans' (1997) modified version of ESP characteristics). Strevens distinguishes between absolute and variable characteristics of ESP. The absolute characteristics describe ESP as: being designed for specified learners' needs, centred on language appropriate to activities in syntax, discourse analysis, lexis

and semantics, and unlike General English (GE), ESP is a branch of ELT which is designed to meet the learner's specified needs for a particular discipline, occupation or activities. According to variable characteristics, on the other hand, ESP is viewed as being restricted to learning skills to be learnt, and may be taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

In this section, I have attempted to show that ESP is a prominent reflection of the international spread of English into specific domains, including academic domains. In the following section I will discuss particular features of teaching English for the needs and purposes of specific domains in academia or HE.

2.2.2 Contemporary Trends for Teaching English in Higher Education

Attempting to follow the pace of the contemporary age, HE institutions, mainly in non-English-speaking countries, attempt to follow what are thought to be efficient approaches of teaching English, in accordance with both the academic and professional needs of their learners, i.e. the learners' present and target situations, as will be illustrated further later. Here I attempt to present some elaborations of two widely followed approaches, namely ESP and Content Based Instruction (CBI).

2.2.2.1 ESP and CBI Approaches

Tarnopolsky (2013:1) illustrates that the inclusion of professional matters in language courses always comes in one of the following ways: "more or less traditional ESP", CBI or content and language integrated learning (CLIL), or immersion into the target language when English is used as the medium of instruction (EMI).

Arguing that the role of ESP courses in HE mainly focuses on teaching the language of professional communication, while students have little or no access to such contexts where English is the communication medium, Tarnopolsky presents the two basic forms of such courses that have been adopted for this purpose: traditional ESP teaching and integrated language ESP learning. The focus of the former is on the language of professional communication (Robinson, 1991, in Tarnopolsky, 2013), i.e. the language is connected with content matter of the students' future profession, yet this content is simply a source to obtain language taught in the course, such as terminology. Tarnopolsky believes that such teaching only terminology has no learning value for students, since they do not acquire any professional knowledge or new skills while learning ESP. The latter type, on the other hand, shifts the focus from learning the language to "learning in unison both the language for professional communication and the professional content matter of that communication" (*ibid.*:2.) Highlighting the usefulness and success of such integration that unites learning the language and content in one single approach, Tarnopolsky questions whether language-focused traditional ESP should be abandoned in favour of integrated ESP learning.

Indeed, the integration of content and language is widely and strongly considered as crucial in HE, "in which knowledge of the subject is of paramount importance and in which a proficient mastery of professional and academic competences is necessary" (Francomacaro, 2011:38), the very premise of CBI.

CBI, as defined by Brinton *et al.* (1989), is grounded on students' parallel acquisition of knowledge about certain non-linguistic discipline(s) and target language communication skills. Since students in such an approach focus on specialised content delivered through

a target language, unconscious acquisition of the language occurs, i.e. implicitly (Krashen, 1981). When the language is shifted to be used as a means to deliver knowledge, it is likely to have an effect on the communicative event in action (Francomacaro, 2011:43). In this approach, "the language is not a language in itself; it is, instead, the instrument to deeply access the discipline and to make efficient use of it" (*ibid.*:39.) March (2002:15) indicates that every context wherein a dual-focused instruction or learning occurs, i.e. both a target language and non-linguistic content, can be called CLIL (in Tarnopolsky, 2013).

In fact, CLIL is used as an umbrella term to describe a range of approaches (González Ardeo, 2013; March 2000; Coyle, 2007). As Mehisto *et al.* (2008:12) put it, CLIL covers "a dozen or more educational approaches (e.g. immersion, bilingual education, multilingual education, language showers and enriched language programmes)." González Ardeo (2013:27) illustrates that the differences between CLIL and all the other approaches developed within the CBI framework, such as EMI or integrated ESP, are mainly ontological and, consequently, epistemological.

To a certain extent, CBI, CLIL and EMI, although different acronyms, are identical methods, "with CLIL being broader in scope" (Tarnopolsky, 2013:1), since it is "used as a vehicle of instruction in a setting in which a different L1 –or different L1s- are spoken," and "in itself does not privilege any specific language" (Francomacaro, 2011:33). Generally, these acronyms are all simply varieties of CBI (Greere and Räsänen, 2008). However, despite the obvious similarities among them, there are certain points at which they can diverge, as I will attempt to highlight in the discussion at hand.

These approaches get bundled together because they share some assumptions, namely: teaching/learning a foreign language is an educational practise; content is inseparable from linguistic expression; it is necessary to coordinate the learning of language and subject-matter; language is the major medium of instruction and learning; subject-matter content contextualises language learning (González Ardeo, 2013:27).

Francomacaro (2011:37) explains that, rather than being a methodology or approach, CLIL is basically a learning environment in which specific methodologies and approaches can be implemented, and it is this fact from which the analogy with the umbrella originates.

2.2.2.2 ESP and CLIL

According to the European Commission, European language policy and CLIL (2005), "within CLIL, language is used as a medium for learning content, and the content is used in turn as a resource for language learning."

According to Gil (2012), CLIL can offer a natural situation for language development, through which 'peripheral learning' can occur, taking into account the hurdle that most learners come across, which is the failure to relate what is being learnt to meaningful real-life situations.

Graddol (2006) claims that CLIL has been a successful trend in Europe. For example, according to Rubio and Lirola (2010), learning English in Finland has greatly been promoted due to implementing CLIL (Buchberger, 2002). Through their investigations about the appropriateness of teaching practises in terms of developing speaking skills, Rubio and Lirola concluded that, CLIL has been found to be an effective method of favouring language learning.

However, recent research, although advocating the transfer from ESP to CLIL, argues that both approaches are related or interrelated, and asserts that this relationship or link is dated back in the literature to 1997 (Ruiz-Garrido and Fortanet-Gómez, 2009). Furthermore, Greere and Räsänen (2008) think that CLIL should be seen as a continuum of other approaches that aim at facilitating learning.

González Ardeo (2013) clearly lists the similarities and differences between CLIL and ESP. He defines the areas where CLIL and ESP can come together as: the use of content from various non-linguistic subjects, academic and communication skills development, and the use of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methodology; whilst the areas at which these two approaches diverge, according to him, are the objectives and learning outcomes. While content-learning objectives are of equal bearing/weight to language-learning objectives, or even more in CLIL, ESP, on the other hand, is language-led, as its focus is primarily or exclusively on language-learning objectives.

González Ardeo (2013) refers to another area that is shared by ESP and CLIL, which is the language (L2), yet with some differences. Language is both the content of the course and the medium of learning this content in ESP, and is usually adapted to the proficiency level of the learners in this approach. Whereas in CLIL, language is viewed as a means and not a goal in itself (*ibid.*) Besides, it is always advised to use 'scaffolding' strategies in CLIL to facilitate content without adapting it (Hammond and Gibbons 2005, in González Ardeo, 2013). Thus, González Ardeo indicates, since the focus of each is different, CLIL is not an evolution of ESP. That is, although the aim of both approaches is acquiring and developing the learner's language, CLIL does not focus on teaching this language, unlike what ESP does.

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The last shared area between the two approaches referred to by González Ardeo is teacher. Teachers in CLIL are subject specialists with appropriate language proficiency levels; whereas a language teacher is a typical ESP teacher, whose responsibility is not teaching subject content, which is usually beyond their competence (*ibid*.)

The implementation of CLIL presupposes and assumes collaboration between both language and subjects specialists. According to Greere and Räsänen (2008), there are several forms about how to implement CLIL, which in turn determine the shape of collaboration between the two groups of teachers.

A merit of CLIL is that it is responsive to contexts in which it is implemented. It also encourages teachers to act according to the needs of their settings (Holmes, 2005 in GIL, 2012). Besides, it can be adapted according to the learners' age, proficiency level, and their interests, in a learner-centred classroom (Dalton-Puffer, 2008).

Tarnopolsky (2013) argues that, although the voices that call for discarding traditional language-focused ESP teaching, in favour of CBI approaches, are becoming louder more recently, such courses may still be required for students who are studying in a non-English-speaking country, especially because they have little or no access to *genuine* professional communication in English while studying. He illustrates that, since CLIL "requires side-by-side acquisition of the language for professional communication and professional content matter and knowledge," it may become too hard for students who mostly "do not know much but often even do not even have any clear ideas about their future profession." This is usually common when they are enrolled in the first year at the university level (p.3). He elaborates that, in such countries, students quite often join universities with levels that are not high enough to meet CLIL requirements. In such a

situation, traditional ESP seems to be appropriate and useful. Also, such courses can be preparatory, or 'buffer courses', before integrated learning starts (*ibid.*:p.3).

2.2.2.3 CLIL and EMI

A significant international educational trend is the teaching of disciplines courses in universities through the medium of English (Graddol, 1997). With the development towards increasing English as a medium of instruction, consequently, English has become "overwhelmingly dominant language in academia" (Björkman, 2008).

A great number of universities worldwide are trying to internationalise their curricula, and this is achieved by 'Englishisation' or 'Anglicisation', hence these two terms have become coterminous with "internationalisation", a natural consequence of globalisation (Graddol, 1997; González Ardeo, 2013)

The definition of EMI suggests its relationship with CLIL, as it is "the use of English as a means to teach and to learn curricular non-linguistic subjects in foreign or second languages," yet with CLIL not privileging a particular language (Francomacaro, 2011:33). They both share the setting or the educational environment, in which they can be implemented; in both the means of instruction is different from the learner's L1; and "for both the presence of native-speakers is not a *sine qua non* condition" (*ibid.*34). Also, Francomacaro indicates that, when an L1 is shared by the participants, in both cases of CLIL and EMI, the *code-switching* phenomenon, or code-mixing, can occur. Additionally, Francomacaro (2011) points out that despite the established and recognised agreement on how language and culture are closely and strongly related, EMI or CLIL are "unconsciously regarded as a culturally neutral language within the academic settings" (p.40). CLIL and EMI may only differ in what each of the two focuses on. While CLIL aims at developing both language and content knowledge, EMI

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exploits the language to focus on subject learning; hence, the language is just a tool to achieve such a goal (p.34). However, this does not mean that in EMI the language cannot be developed. Instead, research has shown that learners' language proficiency can be improved effectively in EMI context, e.g. Chang (2010), Wong (2010), Francomacaro (2011), and Dearden (2014). Yet, scaffolding through other pragmatic strategies, such as code switching and translating, to facilitate knowledge to students who do not have adequate linguistic proficiency, are mostly required in non-English EMI contexts, as concluded by Somer (2001), Arkın (2013), Kagwesage (2013), and Dearden (2014).

2.2.2.4 English as *lingua franca* in Academia

The predominant use of English in academic communities has led to English being served as a *lingua franca* in academia (Björkman, 2008). As Mauranen and Ranta (2009), in González Ardeo (2013:25), put it, 'Anglicisation', or EMI, in higher education, means making use of the English language as a *lingua franca* for academia. Francomacaro (2011) asserts that neither the use of ELF nor EMI does imply the adoption of native norms. Instead, both imply "inclusion of the local norms and the adaptation of the native norms to the local functional needs." As well as, together with Francomacaro (2011), González Ardeo (2013:30) asserts that CLIL tolerates more use of L1, and code-switching strategies.

According to Nilep (2006:1) code switching is used in language acquisition, second language acquisition, and language learning studies to describe "either bilingual speakers' or language learners' cognitive linguistic abilities, or to describe classroom or learner involving the use of more than one language." Scholars who are interested in

these fields usually use Heller's (1988:1) definition of code switching, which is "the use of more than one language in the course of a single communicative episode" (*ibid.:* p.16). It is the practice of alternating the use of languages in different situations, or switching between a primary and a secondary language or discourse, which, in educational contents, "implies the occasional insertion of linguistic elements belonging to different codes at word, phrase, clause or even sentence level" (Francomacaro, 2011:34).

Research has shown that ELF users usually use code switching not because they lack knowledge about a language, but as a creative pragmatic strategy to enhance communication (refer to Jenkins 2006b and Cogo 2009). According to Jenkins *et al.* (2011), ELF speakers reveal considerable linguistic variations to achieve several various purposes. Cogo (2009) illustrates that code switching is a strategy that aids adapting speech for communicative purposes, and signifies solidarity and affiliation to a specific community or group.

The previous deliberations can suggest how ESP is closely related to the learners' needs, hence needs assessment or analysis is predominately implicated. In other words, ESP is sometimes defined as an approach that is revolved around analysing learners' needs. According to Robinson (1991), a main criterion of defining ESP is its inclusion of needs analysis that contributes in developing courses and precisely what students will use English for. Therefore, I will review NA in the following, since it is considered a major element of this study.

2.3. Needs Analysis

West (1997) finds reaching an agreed upon definition for NA difficult due to the earlier ways through which the concept of NA has evolved. He refers to Richterich's (1983:2) comment, which states that "the very concept of language needs has never been clearly defined and remains at best ambiguous." However, West (1994:1) introduces his definition of NA as: "What learners will be required to do with the foreign language in the target situation, and how learners might best master the target language during the period of training." Also, NA has been defined in conventional approaches as the attempt to systematically collect information about the communicative demands faced by those in the target situation. This analysis involves information about language use in specific academic, professional, or vocational groups, the linguistic skills used most frequently in the target situation, and the difficulties experienced by second language learners in such contexts (Basturkmen and Elder, 2005:674). Indeed, the notion of needs is still viewed to be complex, extending beyond a simple conceptualisation of the target language context wherein the target language will be used. Therefore, three categories of needs should be taken into account during the foreign language NA; target, current, and future, hypothetical needs (Czabanowska *et al*, 2007). In view of this, Hutchinson and Waters (1987:59) suggest some questions regarding the target needs that should be asked in order to discover the reasons learners are studying the language for, and how/where they will apply their learning. Their questions are presented as follows:

1- Why is the language needed?
2- How will the language be used?
3- What will the content areas be?
4- Who will the learners use the language with?
5- When/Where will the language be used?

In the same manner, Benesch (2001:40) argues that needs were strongly associated with the demands of the target situation in the early years of EAP.

2.3.1. Needs Analysis and ESP

The centrality of NA has consensually been emphasised in the literature of ESP. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) view it, carrying out NA is imperative in designing an ESP course, in order to determine the specific reasons for learning the language. According to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), NA constitutes the "cornerstone of ESP." Songhori (2008) likewise points out to the role of NA as indisputable in any ESP course. Furthermore, Basturkmen and Elder (2005) view NA and description of language use in target situations as two central aspects and key features LSP courses.

Nunan (1988:5,1996:24) indicates that the first and earliest stage in designing a syllabus can be an analysis of the language, information about the learner, beliefs about the learning process itself, or a combination of these. Yet, thorough analysis may not be applicable according to specific research aims or contexts.

Songhori (2008) explains that NA was mainly concerned with linguistic and register analysis in the earlier periods. As described by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998), needs were seen as distinct language items of grammar and vocabulary. Later, Munby's Communicative Syllabus Design (1978) tried to solve the problem of the 'disguised' GE courses, named ESP courses, as a communicative area lacking a rigorous system for deriving appropriate syllabus specification from adequate profiles of communication needs. A shift was subsequently made in the process of NA, moving the learner's priorities to the centre stage in its framework. This shift yields the paramount notion of target needs. Thus, the function and situation have proven to be fundamental. Following this movement, the term Target Situation Analysis (TSA) was introduced and first used by Chambers in his 1980 article (p.29), referring to communication in the target situation. Focusing on communication, this draws attention to the issue raised by Munby

(1978), when he argued that ESP in recent years had become a major developmental focus in the area of communicative syllabus design.

Cooper (1968) and Hymes' (1966) views of communicative competence indicate that effective communication requires more than linguistic competence. According to them, the speaker must know what to say, when, with whom, and where, i.e. specific contextual competencies, besides the linguistic competence. In other words, knowledge of the target language may not be sufficient for effective communication to occur in that language. For instance, Cooper points out that in social situations where such communication takes place, more than one variety of the language may be required as 'linguistic repertoire' needed by the second language speaker (in Munby, 1978).

International in scope and specific in purpose, ESP has encouraged some linguists to conduct NA in order to exploit the ethnographic principles of 'thick description'; as an attempt to identify the various elements of students' target situation where they will be using English (Johns and Dudley-Evans, 1991). In a similar vein, and more particularly, Long (2005) addresses this issue by stating that NA of students' current and future use of English must be conducted to identify the varieties with which they are to come into contact.

2.3.2 Needs Analysis Forms
There are different forms of NA from which interested researchers or educators should approach the most appropriate to their contexts; regarding the specific aspects they are emphasising. West (1994) categorises the main forms of NA as follows:

l) TSA: this was the earliest form of NA, in which learners' language requirements of the target situation are identified by observing, questioning and contemplating those already in that situation.

2) Deficiency Analysis: overcoming the limitation of the TSA type, i.e. taking little account of the present state of the learners' language proficiency, this type considers the analysis of both the present and target situations, estimating and bringing the 'learning gap' between the two.

3) Strategy Analysis: it establishes the learners' preferences regarding the learning styles and strategies.

4) Means Analysis: this concerns identifying the teaching environment and establishes the constraints and opportunities of ESP.

5) Language Audits: they constitute a large-scale exercise, forming the LSP practice of, for example, a company or policy of a ministry. Thus, this type should embrace all the previous forms of need analysis.

Deficiency Analysis is viewed as well suiting the research aims, since this research is concerned with both learners' present and future situations, but with more focus on the target situation. Basturkmen and Elder (2004) claim that NA has been seen as based on West's deficiency analysis. It has been as an attempt to identify the gap between what students know and can do at the present point of time, and what they need ideally to be able to do in the target situation (Shavelson *et al.,* 2008). Berwick's (1989:52) definition reinforces such a claim as he states, "in general the skeletal structure of a definition is most often expressed as a gap or measurable discrepancy between a current state of affairs and a desired future state."

2.3.3 Types of Needs

Hutchinson and Waters (1987:54) distinguish between target situation and learning needs as: 'what the learner needs to do in the target situation', and 'what the learner needs to do in order to learn', respectively. According to them, the target situation is formulated of the following needs: Necessities: "what the learner has to know in order to

function effectively in the target situation," Lacks: "the necessities the learner lacks," and Wants: "what the learners want or feel they need" (p.55, 56, 57).

Needs can also be classified as Subjective and Objective. The subjective needs are the needs stated by the learners themselves (Wants), while the objective needs are conceptualised by other parties or stakeholders involved (Necessities and Lacks) (see, for example, Richterich, 1972; Brindley, 1989; Branden, 2006). Teachers and educationists were primarily looked upon as the only determiner of needs till the early 1970s. However, a change had been brought up since that time, when the learners' voices and views started to contribute in determining their own learning needs. Yet, it is noteworthy that Scriven and Roth (1990) try to indicate from their argument that people usually are not able to determine their needs for sure, and the reason behind this is the human denial factor (Posavac, 2006).

2.3.4 Critical Needs Analysis

As Benesch (1996) concludes, NA research is mainly descriptive in ESP and EAP, i.e. researchers describe elements of the target situation to provide the basis for curriculum development. She seems to be in favour of an alternative critical approach to NA. According to her, critical NA looks at the target situation as a "site of possible reform", since it is concerned with the "hierarchical nature of social institutions and treats inequality, both inside and outside the institution" (*ibid*. 723). Benesch (2001) further criticises Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) categories of the target situation needs referred to above in (**2.3.1.3.**) According to Benesch (2001), the notion of the target needs as subjected to criticism or change is missing in Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) formulation. It visualises the target as firmly fixed and set by the society. Hence, individuals must get as close as possible to that target. Furthermore, Benesch (2001)

argues that Hutchinson and Waters do not explain how 'society' sets that target needs. Therefore, she suggests NA must examine and question: "who sets the goals, why they were formulated, whose interests are served by them, and whether they should be challenged," in order to reach an ethics of EAP. Thus, NA must be critical as well as pragmatic to carry out this type of investigation (p.40-41).

The previous accounts attempted to showcase the internationality of English and how ELT was developing in line with the language movement. That is, the universality of the language has greatly contributed into the development of ESP and other trendy approaches in education, higher education, or academia in particular. All can easily reflect how English has been encroaching everywhere across the globe, influencing the lives of several different nations the majority of whom are described as NNSs. The entanglement of the NNSs itself has had several reflections into education which are mainly and constantly discussed by applied linguists.

Through the ensuing reviews, I will go on reviewing debates and repercussions resultant of the current status of English, in relation to teaching the language. In other words, I will attempt to present theories underpinning the study and its framework of ESP and NA.

I will firstly present some 'new' faces of English, resulting from its incomparable global spread that has given birth to new terms, labelling various types and characteristics of the language.

2.4 Aspects Relating to the International Nature of English

2.4.1 EIL, ELF or WEs?

When English commenced its journey around the world, it started to develop into local varieties for international use. It is a fact that, rather than closely following the Anglo-American norms of use set by NSs, people use English freely in their own way (Yano, 2009:249). As these 'local varieties', or the so called 'New Englishes' (Graddol, 2006:84), come in contact with each other in international settings, various terms have been proposed by scholars attempting to describe the new globalising role of English. As Bolton (2004: 367) puts it, a plethora of terms and terminology has come into use recently. So we have WEs, EIL, ELF[2], global English(es), international English(es), localised varieties of English, new varieties of English, non-native varieties of English, second language varieties of English, new Englishes. Bolton (*ibid*: p.367) introduces three interpretations for the term WEs. Firstly, "perhaps, the term functions as an umbrella label referring to a wide range of differing approaches to the description and analysis of English(es) worldwide." Bolton gives examples of how some scholars favour a discussion of 'world English' in the singular, and how they sometimes employ terms such as 'global English' and 'international English'. Yet others adopt the same terms in their plural forms.

As with the second interpretation of WEs, Bolton indicates that:

> The term is used to specifically refer to the 'new Englishes' found in the Caribbean and in West and East African societies such as Nigeria and Kenya, as well as Asian Englishes as Hong Kong English, Indian English, Malaysian English, Singaporean English, and Philippine English.

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[2] In this project, EIL and ELF will be used interchangeably to refer to an independent model of communication that may involve various and several WEs, and tends to get freed from the dominance of the NS models.

Thirdly, WEs refers to the wide-ranging approach to the study of the English language worldwide, particularly associated with Kachru and other scholars working in a "world Englishes paradigm." How the term 'WEs' will be used in the upcoming study largely represents Bolton's third definition.

According to Yano (2009:249), WEs constitutes "a league of varieties within each region, and share cross-national intelligibility within the region while keeping local lingua-cultural characteristics and identities." Yano argues that with the diversity of these local varieties, which were originally developed for international use, "the language is required to stay internationally intelligible due to its growing use as a global lingua franca" (p.249).

As with how EIL is defined, Sharifian (2009:2) states that, "EIL emphasises that English, with its many varieties, is a language of international, and therefore *intercultural*, communication." He points out that EIL does not refer to any particular variety of English, so it is not equal to the term *International English,* which is used as an alternative by many scholars. The upcoming study tends to use the term EIL in the sense illustrated by Sharifian, rather than the *International English*. Sharifian illustrates that; because of the added adjective, International English refers to a particular variety, such as in the case of AmE or Chinese English. His illustration seems to be in resonance with Seidlhofer's (2004: 211) comment on the confusion caused by this term. As she puts it, "it suggests that there is one clearly distinguishable, codified, and unitary variety called International English, which is certainly not the case."

This, however, brings us to the desire expressed by some linguists to have one international codified variety, as a possible unifying model for the ever-increasing

number of NNSs all over the world. As Crystal (1994:113) puts it, in this diverse situation, some intellectuals look forward to identifying a "unifying force among the vast range of variation." Essen (2000) raises the question of whether the development of regional, e.g. Indian English, or functional, e.g. ESP, varieties can establish a common standard for EIL, which requires mutual intelligibility in order to function properly. Keresztes (2009) conceptualises the globalising status of English as *lingua franca* of the twentieth century, as a phenomenon that evokes the need for a common code. Similarly, Crawford (2005) thinks that, if English is to play this role, i.e. as a global language, there should be a certain level of standardisation in order to maintain intelligibility. On the contrary, like many other scholars, Yano (2009:249) does not think that such a common code will be feasible, saying that: "I do not think it will be desirable, necessary, or feasible to have one and only one variety of English for international use." Jenkins (2006:160) emphasises that *International English* is used to refer to the use of English as a means of international communication across national and linguistic boundaries (primarily, but not exclusively, across the countries of Kachru's expanding circle), hence it is a shorthand for EIL.

Jenkins comments that this confusion adds to the complication of ELF, since EIL itself can be used as an alternative term for ELF. However, she concludes that ELF researchers prefer the term ELF to EIL, due to the potential for confusion caused by the word *international*, despite the fact that both terms are currently in use, adding to the confusion.

Seidlhofer (2005:339) defines ELF as: "[A] way of referring to communication in English between speakers with different first languages." Whereas, Jenkins (2006:157)

states that ELF "refers to English when it is used as a contact language across lingua-cultures whose members are in the main so-called non-native speakers." As Jenkins puts it, "in its purest form, ELF is defined as a contact language used only among non–mother tongue speakers" (p.160). She points out that mother tongue speakers specifically are excluded from the data collection conducted by ELF researchers. She also refers to House's (1999) definition as an example. According to House, "ELF interactions are defined as interactions between members of two or more different lingua-cultures in English, *for none of whom English is the mother tongue*" (p.74, italics added by Jenkins.) However, Jenkins expresses her opposition to the idea of excluding the inner-circle speakers, as it restricts "ELF communication this narrowly". She claims that "the majority of ELF researchers nevertheless accept that speakers of English from both inner- and outer-circles also participate in intercultural communication" (p.161).

Kim (2007b) concludes from Erling (2004-2005) that such various terms are interchangeably used by academics who recognise that English is used as a *lingua franca* for international communication. In fact, Seidlhofer (2009: 236) argues, despite important differences, ELF research and the "world Englishes paradigm" have much in common. They both share the assumption that English belongs to all its users, and the applied linguistic implications of this assumption.

Due to the commonalities these terms have, and the complications they bring within each other, Erling (2005:43) suggests that the idea of finding appropriate terms should be abandoned altogether, and more importantly to focus on the following instead:

> Ensuring that ELT professionals around the world move their practice away from an ideology that privileges LI 'inner circle' varieties. The language must be taught as a means of intercultural communication, critical analysis and indeed, where necessary, resistance.

Concomitant with the emergence of these various names assigned to English is the

argument about classifying English speakers or users, accordingly. English speakers,

native and non-native, are placed by some linguists into different ranks, or under certain

labels, mainly in terms of their distance from the 'nativeness paradigm', as will be

shown in the following section.

2.4.2 Models of Describing English Speakers around the World

Graddol (2006) relates the great achievement of English to the increasing numbers of its

non-native speakers, when he states, "if it represents any kind of triumph it is probably

not a cause of celebration by native speakers" (p.11). As stated by Gnutzmann (2000),

eighty percent of verbal exchanges now occur between non-native users of English

where it is spoken as a foreign or second language. Likewise, Pakir (1999) concludes

that the worldwide number of non-native speakers of English is triple that of native

speakers. Bolton (2004) reports current statistics which suggest that the number of

English users totals over 600 million people in Asia alone, including over 300 million in

India, and over 200 million in China. Graddol (1999) estimates that, in the next 50 years,

the number of L2 users will grow from 235 million to about 462 million. He claims that

the number of L1 speakers will be further overtaken by L2 speakers. Finally, Crystal

(2008) estimates there may be two billion 'non-native' users of English. Jenkins (2003)

assumes that, due to the current international status of English today, L1 speakers of

English may not even be involved in most communications. Therefore, Graddol (2006)

views English of the twenty-first century as a new phenomenon, differing from the

language that has been thought of and taught according to the native norms.

Away from figuring English speakers by numbers, some scholars conceptualise the

speakers of English geographically and demographically. For example, there are models

proposed by Strang in 1970, Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik in 1972, identified in McArthur (1998).

Strang's (1970) model categorises English speakers into three groups, i.e. A, B and C. The first letter represents who speak the language as their mother tongue, in countries such as the UK, the USA, Canada, and South Africa. The second letter stands for speakers of countries that can be considered as former colonial territories in Asia and Africa. Whereas, speakers who learn English following their countries' educational systems, where it is a foreign language, are represented by the third letter.

 The second model by Quirk *et al.* (1972) identifies English speakers as Native users (ENL Speakers), users of English as a second language (ESL Speakers), and those who use it as a foreign language (EFL Speakers) (in McArthur, 1998)

Kachru's (1985:12-17) three concentric circles model, inner, outer and expanding circles, perhaps is the most widely used and referred to by so many linguists and researchers. These circles are respectively occupied by ENL, ESL, and EFL, as identified by Quirk *et al*. (1972). Although widely used, Kachru's model is criticised because of 'the centre-periphery dichotomy' (Erling 2004:224). It reinforces the superiority of NSs from the inner-circle. Besides, it cannot explain the increase in bilingual speakers who acquire both a native language and English simultaneously (e.g. McKay, 2002 and Jenkins, 2000.) Regarding placing the native-speaking countries and NSs at the centre of this model, Graddol (1997:10) indicates that this placement represents the NSs as 'the source of models of correctness, the best teachers as well as the source of goods and services for those in the outer and expanding circle.' Another criticism is proposed by McKay (2002), addressing Kachru's classification of the outer

and expanding circle. Today, there are many more English-speaking bilinguals in the expanding circle countries, such as Norway and Denmark, than some countries in the outer circle, where English has official status, such as Gambia and Rwanda.
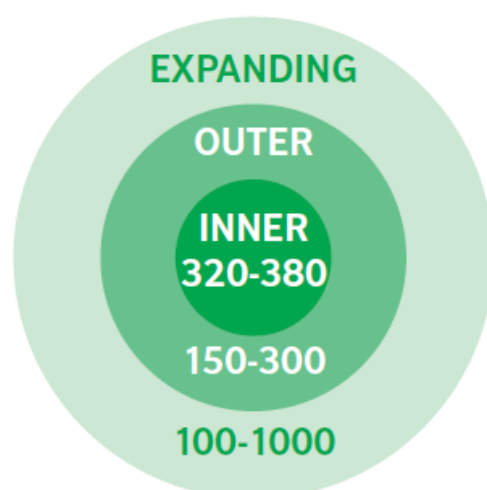
Figure 2.1 Kachru (1985) Three-Concentric model in Graddol (2006)

Furthermore, Tripathi (1998) and Guerra (2005:9) view this 'Kachruvian' model as just a variant of ENL, ESL, EFL taxonomy. I tend to agree with Guerra on his description that, all the three models are just different ways of describing the same set of characteristics. Paine (2010:12) interprets Tripthai's (1998) criticism as, "with circles denoting closed conditions, expanding denotes more of a process; in one case completed but in the other an ongoing situation."

Guerra summarises the similarities of all the previous models in the following table:

Barbara Strang (1970)	Randolph Quirk, Sidney Greenbaum, Geoffrey Leech, Jan Svartvik (1972)	Braj B. Kachru (1988)
A-speakers	ENL speakers	Members of the Inner Circle
B-speakers	ESL speakers	Members of the Outer Circle
C-speakers	EFL speakers	Members of the Expanding Circle

Table 2.1 Guerra's Summary of Some Models on Describing the Language Speakers

As an attempt to overcome some of Kachru's model drawbacks, Graddol (1997) proposes different classifications of English users around the world. In his classification, there are, firstly, First language speakers (L1) who use English as the first and often the only language, and live in countries where the dominant culture is based around English, such as the US and the UK. Secondly, Second language speakers (L2), who use English as a second language in communities where they might use local varieties of English, which reflect local indigenous cultures and languages. Hence, they are divergent from the varieties of English spoken by first language speakers. In the third place, there are foreign language speakers, those who learn English as a foreign language (EFL). Although it does not sound as introducing a change to Kachru's model, Graddol's model can make difference when it is represented graphically:
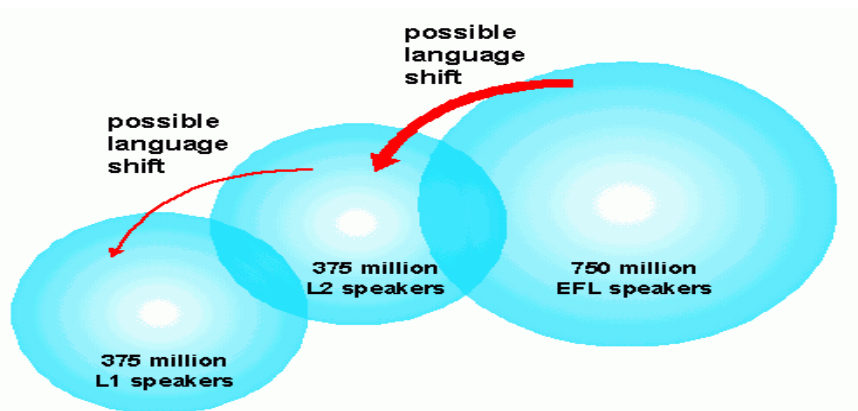
Figure2.2 Graddol's 1997 Distribution of English Speakers around the World

Graddol's model suggests, as mentioned earlier, L2 and EFL speakers will eventually outnumber L1 speakers. Quoting Graddol's (1997:10) words, "showing the three circles of English as overlapping makes it easier to see how the 'centre of gravity' will shift towards L2 speakers at the start of the twenty-first century." This may present the model with flexibility and dynamism, as it suggests the gradual shift of emphasis to L2 speakers.

The distinction of second and foreign language has also been criticised by Crystal (1997), although he makes use of this distinction. That is, one may find more use of English in countries where it is considered as a foreign language than in countries where it is a second language (also see Tripathi, 1998).

However, it is noteworthy that, according to Graddol (2006:110), Kachru has recently propounded a modified model, in which the 'inner circle' is populated by a group of highly proficient English speakers, i.e. 'those who have "functional nativeness" regardless of how they learned or use the language.'
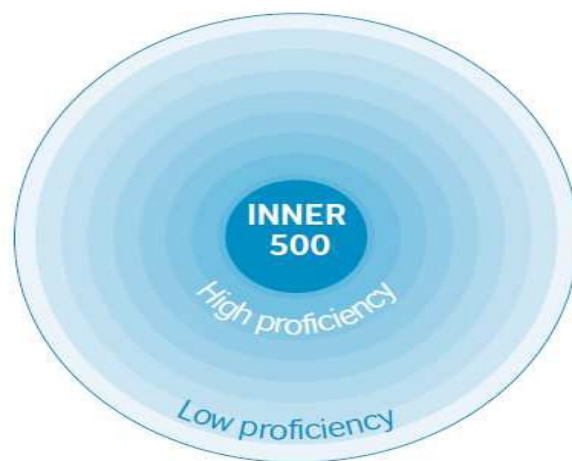
Figure 2.3 Kachru's Modified Model, in Graddol (2006)

Few years before Kachru's recent model, Modiano (1999:26) proposed his model, which was based upon "democratic basis for language development". Modiano tried to avoid the geographical trend of placing English speakers in political territories, in his identification of the status of English today. In this model, it is the communicative abilities that determine the speakers' categories instead of their countries of birthplace. It is clearly shown that Modiano's model overcomes the criticism with which Kachru's model has been addressed, that of presenting the inner-circle as the norm that both the outer and expanding circles should follow. Unlike Kachru's traditional model,

Modiano's model represents the proficient speakers of the international English in the centre, i.e. those who "function well in cross-cultural communication where English is the lingua franca" (Jenkins, 2003:20).

Away from the proficiency element, the criterion of identifying speakers of the first band in Modiano's (1999) model is that they do not have strong regional accent or dialect. Speakers with different competence levels in a local variety, that is considered as not effective in international communication, makeup Modiano's second circle. They are the speakers "who have proficiency in English as either a first or second language rather as an international language" (Jenkins, 2003:20). Learners who are not yet proficient makeup the third circle of this model, whereas the final band, located outside the third circle, is constituted of people without any literacy of English at all (*ibid*.). It is clear that in this model, which focuses on EIL as its centre, proficiency is the yardstick, regardless of any geographical, historical, or genetic features of speakers:
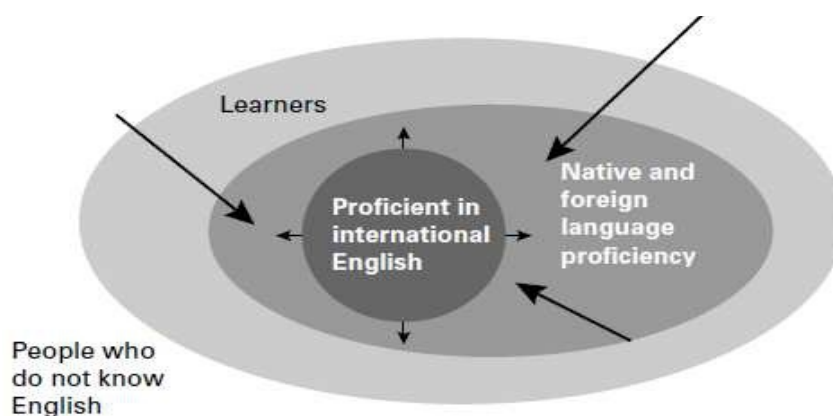
Figure 2.4 Modiano's Centripetal Circles of International English Model, in Jenkins (2003)

According to Guerra (2005:26), when native speakers in Kachru's 'inner circle' are not competent users of international English, they should not occupy any central position if compared to any other competent communicators in international contexts, native or

non-native. Guerra refers to the dynamic nature of Modiano's model since speakers can move from the third circle to the second, and from the second to the first categories as they become more fluent in a variety of English that is internationally understood. Also, "speakers of English who speak a variety which is not operational in international contexts must also speak EIL if they want to be effective cross-culturally in English" (*ibid*.), (refer to Crystal, 1988,1997 and McArthur, 1998.) Yet, Modiano's model has also received criticism, as some questions of defining proficiency in international English, and the identification of strong regional accent, which is a determining criterion in his model, remained unanswered (Jenkins, 2003).

Later on, responding to the criticism, Modiano proposed a revised model based upon a core of features common to all NSs and NNSs. EIL is at the centre, representing a core of features comprehensible to the majority of speakers, both native and non-native alike. The second circle contains features that "may become internationally common or may fall into obscurity." Each of the other five outer circles represents features peculiar to a certain variety or speech community, "unlikely to be understood by most members of the other four groups" (*ibid*. p.21).
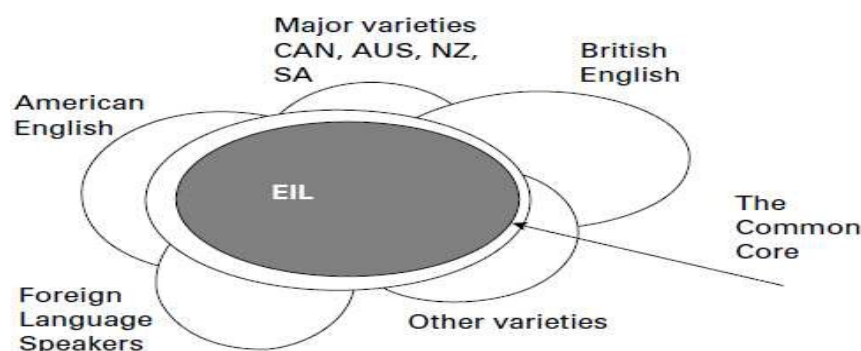
Figure 2.5 Modiano's Revised Model of Features Common to all varieties of English, in Jenkins (2003)

Again, Jenkins (2003) underlines problems with this model related to the difficulty of drawing a clear distinction between core and non-core varieties. She elaborates that Modiano equates the 'competent' non-native with the native speakers, assuming that all natives are competent users, which is "unpalatably and blatantly untrue". Moreover, the labelling of native and non-native varieties as major and local, respectively, may also be objected.

It is apparent that the proficiency criterion has made its way into the more recent models. However, despite the criticism Kachru's model receives, his model indeed is still considered as an influential one that is mostly cited and referred to by researchers and linguists. In fact, as an insider to the context of the study, the centrality of the inner circle, which is the most criticised area in this model, generally represents the situation in SA. That is, NSs and 'their' countries are commonly and generally viewed as the centre that should be followed. Thus, in this study I will make use of its circles in defining speakers and countries.

Owning to the fact that the language ownership somehow influences the distribution of speakers under certain labels and models, I will attempt to discuss this notion in the following section, to present some scholars' views about it.

2.4.3 Whose Property is English?

The fact that NNSs constitute the majority of English users, far outnumbering native speakers, consequently raises the issue of ownership of English as an international language. The controversial notion of *who owns English* is briefly summarised in Norton's (1997) central question, in which he asks about the extent to which English belongs to white native speakers of Standard English (SE), or to all people who speak it,

irrespective of linguistic or sociocultural history. Norton believes such questions have a direct bearing on the relationship between language and identity. He refers to Bourdieu's (1977) point, which asserts that learners of English might not consider themselves legitimate speakers of a language if they cannot claim ownership of this language. It is only by maintaining and advocating 'variations' in English, that the language can be viewed in the process of acquiring "multiple ownerships and multiple international identities" Kachru (1986) argues.

Since English is used internationally as a communication vehicle, many scholars argue that English is no longer possessed by people from Kachru's inner circle alone. As Widdowson (1994:385) puts it, "it is not a possession which they lease out to others, while still retaining the freehold." According to Widdowson, English NSs cannot claim its ownership, "they have no say in the matter, no right to intervene or pass judgment," and they are 'irrelevant' (*ibid*.). In view of this, many scholars react positively to the idea of speakers from either outer or expanding circles as legitimate owners of the language (Kachru 1992; Mckay, 2003; Smith and Nelson, 2006). Considering its current international status, English cannot be possessed by a certain population; instead, any of its users can claim the *language ownership* through such an international perspective. As Widdowson (1994:385) puts it, "the very fact that English is an international language means that no nation can have custody over it." (For other examples see Norton, 1997; Brumfit, 1995; Jenkins, 2003; McKay, 2003.)

The previous discussion, which creates confusion about who can be a legitimate English speaker, has its effects on pedagogical decisions regarding teaching English in different contexts, and to diverse learners around the world. Here I refer again to Erling's (2005:43) quote presented earlier on, in which he underestimates the debates about

issues of terms and names to describe language, in favour of focussing on how ELT practises should be responsive to the current international phenomenon of English. Indeed, all the arguments of different terms and models are presented to see how they are reflected in ELT. In the following section, we will explore questions of which language model is suitable in a specific academic setting, in this contemporary world.

2.4.4 Models Choices in ELT and Voices for a Paradigm Shift

Traditionally, the general assumption in ELT pedagogy has been that the English language is a property of inner-circle nations. Widdowson (1994) claims such an idea is related to a "preservation of the language" attitude, which in turn presupposes the native speakers' authority of SE. According to Thorne (1997), SE is the property of Anglophone countries, since she defines it as any English form that can be accepted in any of such countries. However, Crystal (1994) argues that neither the grammar nor vocabulary of any piece of SE tell which part of a country it comes from. Crystal also indicates that the linguistic features of the usually 'prestigious' SE "are chiefly matters of grammar, vocabulary and orthography" (p.24). He emphasises that SE is not a matter of pronunciation. Debates are apparently in flux as to how such a variety can be defined. Yet, in general it is perceived as the formal written or spoken language that can or should be used by educators.

Whatever it might look like, and wherever it might be from, this so-called SE is still the sole target that ESL and EFL contexts' learners or stakeholders aspire to achieve (Goldstien, 1987). For example, a study conducted by Li (2009) shows that 80% of the participants reveal a desire to speak like NS, i.e. the natives of the Anglophone countries. (Refer to Sharifian, 2009:122-126, and to **2.7.3** for similar attitudinal studies.)

Kirkpatrick (2007) states that one reason for the preference of NS models is that ministries of education around the world are eager to be seen as providing the best for their students. By their insistence on NSs, they claim to be upholding standards and providing students with internationally recognised and intelligible varieties of English.

In fact, many researchers (e.g. Jenkins, 2000; Strevens, 1992) have highlighted this native-like competence as being a goal of ELT, i.e. based on the NS model and culture in the EFL context. Canale and Swain's (1980) communicative competence model is a good example of such an assumption. The basis and central tenet of this model includes the four native speakers' competencies: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. In addition, Doerr (2009) cites Cook (1999:188-189), highlighting his reference to the NS competence as a judge, since "students need to get an idea of how the language is used by native speakers." Cook refers to the course-books as well; he comments that these books seem to be implicitly native-based. Consequently, any model different from the native speakers' models is wrong according to this tradition (Kachru, 1992b; Jenkins, 2003).

As an international language, English creates a complex situation for linguists and educators engaged in ELT. Since NSs are no longer the only winner in the English ownership case, one might question whether or not native models should continue to dominate ELT. Graddol (1999) and Jenkins (2000) believe that NNSs should have a hand in determining the future of English. By doing so, they can acquire a significant role as 'norm-providing' speakers, if the shift of balance between native and non-native speakers of English is to be achieved.

Kirkpatrick (2007) argues that educators who are obsessed by NS models apparently ignore the fact that these models are not always easily understood in international communication. Graddol (2006) claims that research is beginning to show how bad some native speakers are at using English for international communication. According to Jenkins (2000), in such a situation, standard accents, such as (RP) and (GA), should not be considered as the norms for 'correct' pronunciation. Instead, the focus should be on features of pronunciation that can ensure mutual intelligibility. Although Coskun (2010) argues that, in international contexts, learners should be given the choice of acquiring a more intelligible pronunciation, their lack of awareness of specific pedagogical issues means that many of them tend to opt for inner-circle models; so this decision should be reconsidered.

As Baumgardner and Brown (2003) suggest, learners, for whatever reasons, may find varieties of the inner-circle superior; therefore teachers who design materials for all pedagogical contexts must realise that the needs of the local context should determine their pedagogical choices. Zacharias (2003) argues that in this emerging globalised world, there is a need to be familiar with the cultural norms and pronunciation of the outer and expanding circles. Students need this in order to carry out effective intercultural communication with speakers in these circles. Moreover, Zacharias claims that, as English is used in the inner, outer, and expanding circles, it serves different purposes and needs. To accept the notion that all learners of English need to achieve the so-called 'native-speaker' competence will contribute little to serve the various language needs of these people. Indeed, having this so-called NS competence, as a target competence in ELT, is viewed by Kachru and Nelson (2006:87-89) as a "totally unrealistic and misinformed appraisal of their situation and linguistic competence."

Furthermore, some scholars resist this traditional native-like competence, lest it may affect the learners' identities. In other words, some applied linguists believe the global dominance of English is acting as a threat to nations' identities. This phenomenon, which has brought about a voluminous diversity of 'home-grown' and 'national' English varieties, "has by no means eclipsed these various countries' efforts to defend their national identities" (Nihalani, 2010:36). Together with Nihalani (*ibid*.), Tsuda (1986) and Kim (2007a), assert the same point. They argue that globalising English is damaging other nations' identities; imposing itself on non-Western people, and overtly restricting their freedom of expression. Therefore, Nihalani (*ibid.*) suggests, in order to characterise and maintain one's national and social identity, every nation should keep its 'national flavour', i.e. retain its own segmental features when speaking English. In view of this, Hortobagyi (2009:262), reacting against 'English imperialism', referred to by Phillipson (1992a), suggests the development of "radical pedagogical structures that provide students with the opportunity to exploit their own cultural identities and linguistic realities as a basis of oral and written communication." Furthermore, Atechi (2007) argues that, for the same reason, these days very few people in non-native settings would persist in sticking to only native English models. People in these areas are gradually seeing English as their own, as a "marker of national identity". They view their accents as identifying them with their home countries and regions (p.33). Therefore, it is argued that learners in certain contexts do not need to strive for standard pronunciation, nor for the values and behaviours of NSs of English (Byram, 1997). Again, based on the global status of English today, the twin traditions of ELT, i.e. ESL and EFL, seem to be inappropriate and unsatisfying as pedagogic practises that can meet the needs of this different world (Graddol, 2006:85). Graddol suggests that ELF as a new model can "represent significant departures from both traditional EFL and ESL."

Kramsch (1993:49), in Davies (2004), suggests that it is time to "take our cues not from monolingual native speakers [. . .] but from the multilingual non-native speakers that constitute the majority of human beings on the planet."

Bolton (2004:388) criticises "the maintenance of traditional target norms of English proficiency." He claims that it lacks realism and contributes to "the stigmatisation of the norms of local users (including teachers and learners)." That has resulted from the language being communicated by teachers, the majority of whom are non-native, working in a wide range of settings in the outer and/or expanding-circle societies.

Similarly, Seidlhofer (2000) calls for abandonment of the traditional NS model, and instead for attention to the variety of English used by speakers of ELF communicating with one another. According to Davies (2004), Seidlhofer claims that appealing to the NS as the only model is no longer appropriate due to the fact of the increasing number of NNSs. Particularly, since the L1 model is neither desired by nor relevant to communication between ELF speakers, "it is important to realise that native-speaker's language use is just one kind of reality, and not necessarily the relevant one for lingua franca contexts" (Seidlhofer, 2000:54, as cited in Davis, 2004:444). Seidlhofer claims that, "there is really no justification for doggedly persisting in referring to an item as 'an error' if the vast majority of the world's L2 English speakers produce and understand it" (Seidlhofer, 2000: 65, as cited in Davis, 2004: 444).

Like Matsuda (2003), Modiano (1999) propounds the idea of introducing WEs features into the classroom. Moreover, he advocates WEs as substitute standards for the native ones used in international proficiency tests. However, the idea of accepting WEs as

legitimate models in academic settings would be a giant step forward. Atechi (2007) quotes Chevillet's (1992) question that seems to ridicule such Englishes in the classroom: "Would it be reasonable for an EFL teacher to recommend to his students to acquire a Nigerian or an Indian accent? Certainly not…" In fact, some believe even if WEs gain recognition, the idea of following these varieties as classroom models appears to be in its infancy.

The dominance of English as exclusively coming from the west does not only affect learners and the pedagogical decisions in terms of what to teach and learn as previewed above, but also English teachers other than 'white westerners' (Holliday, 2009). In other words, this supremacy and imperialistic pressure of the "native" English is seriously causing NNETs harmful damage. Their status can be considered inferior to their native English counterparts (NETs), and affect their career in terms of recruitment possibilities.

2.4.5 How Native/non-native Dichotomy Affects Non-native Teachers

The debate over NSs and NNSs has serious implications on ELT practises. Sharifian (2009) comments that in communities which try to establish a strong allegiance among its 'true members', the division between NSs and NNSs clearly resembles the separation between 'us' and 'the others'. Thus, it prevents 'the others' from full participation in the activities of that community. Such a claim seems to be valid in most educational contexts, where NNETs are not privileged, hence deprived of most of their supposed rights, compared to NETs. They have to compete for teaching jobs with those who are usually less professionally qualified, but have the nativeness advantage (Holliday, 2009). This can justify how the division among English speakers as NSs and NNSs creates an environment of discrimination.

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A growing number of studies have been carried out focusing on the NS and NNS issue as a criterion of recruitment in ELT. For example, Ali (2009) exhibits how the hiring practises in the GCC countries discriminate against the outer-circle teachers. These teachers are not offered equal employment opportunities as they are considered non-native. Yet, in reality, students cannot always tell the difference between native and non-native teachers. Despite the fact that Phillipson's (1992a) "native speaker fallacy" is constantly challenged and rejected, Sharifan (2009) concludes that, until now, diversity of evidence shows that many people revere NSs as the best teachers of the language.

Ironically, even many ESL and/or EFL NNETs themselves are strongly governed by NS' models and admire the person they will never be (Sharifan, 2009), as "a point of reference" (Jenkins, 1998:124). NNSs in Tsui and Bunton's (2000:294) study express their belief in NSs, either explicitly or implicitly, as "a source of authority". Seidlhofer (1999) reports that 57% of bilingual teachers surveyed by her in Austria feel insecure being NNETs. Indeed, there seems to be a worldwide stubborn insistence and belief that English teachers must be native speakers (Canagarajah, 1999:126).

Medgyes (1992:342) believes that "those who use English as their first language have an advantage over those for whom it is a foreign language." He points out that NNETs can be seen as especially handicapped in the areas of the language competence, fluency and vocabulary, as compared to NETs (Medgyes, 1999; Reves and Medgyes, 1994). Besides, NNETs are 'grammar-centred', with a strong belief in grammar as the route to a good language usage. Their focus on grammar tends to deflect them away from pronunciation and vocabulary (Medgyes, 1999).

Pennycook (1994:175) describes NSs as having a "complete and possibly innate competence", in comparison to NNSs. Selinker's (1972) theory of *Fossilisation*, i.e. "the cessation of learning of permanent plateaus that learners reach resulting from no change in some or all of their interlanguage forms," (Gass and Selinker, 2001), can prove the claim of NETs's superiority over NNETs. It asserts that NNSs cannot develop a native-like competence or proficiency, since sometimes they repeat the same errors and their levels cease and stabilise. Gass and Selinker further indicate the NNSs inability to reach the targeted native language as they are usually influenced by the interlanguage (IL) system. According to Selinker (1972), IL is a system of developing one's internal rule that is not a total approximation of NS language. Selinker introduced this term in order to signify a second language systematic knowledge that falls between the learner's first language and the target language used by NNSs. According to Gass and Selinker (2001), IL has elements that do not originate in either the native language of the learner or the target language s/he is trying to develop.

Similarly, Davies (2003) recognises that "it is difficult for an adult non-native speaker to become a native speaker of a second language precisely," because she defines a native speaker as a person "who acquired the language naturally and effortlessly in childhood." Following Medgyes' (1992:343) viewpoint, the English of non-native speakers is "but an imitation of some form of native use." Thus, being norm-dependent, they cannot claim to be native speakers.

Nonetheless, it is argued that NNETs are not necessarily worse than their NS colleagues, and they can be as 'expert' in ELT as NS, or even better (Prodromou, 1992).

Rampton (1996) argues that, rather than being a gift, speaking a language is an acquired skill that needs constant practise to be developed. In a similar manner, Doerr (2009) states that, the concepts of native speakers and non-native speakers are not necessarily in opposition to each other. This relationship lacks a theoretical place in formal linguistics, since nativeness is often unmarked. It is claimed that NNSs from Kachru's outer and expanding circles may have the capacity to acquire some of the NSs' characteristics, if not all of them. According to Cook (2001a), such characteristics are not necessarily the native speakers' prerogative. Phillipson (1992a: 194) claims that "none of these virtues is […] something that well-trained non-natives cannot acquire." Echoing this is Davies' (2003: 213) belief, which says that NNSs are able to acquire communicative competence of the native speaker.

2.4.6 The Non-native English Teachers Advocacy

Despite what can be seen as disadvantageous to NNETs above, NNETs teachers are sometimes viewed to have advantages over NETs. Driven by a belief in NNETs, a number of applied linguists have begun to defend the latter group and advocate the rights of its members (e.g. Braine 1999, 2005). As summarised by Llurda (2009), Medgys has continued the campaign with his associates and pursued the promotion of research in this area. Consequently, some advantages of NNETs have emerged. Based on Cook's (2001b) viewpoint, NNETs can be privileged since they have command of two languages, hence being bilingual. He believes that L1s shared by teachers and their learners play a significant role in the teaching/learning process, as it can help to produce authentic L2 users. Thus, it should not be "shunned at all costs." Through the following quote, Cook illustrates how the learners' L1 can be useful:

> Treating the L1 as a classroom resource opens up several ways to use it, such as for teachers to convey meaning, explain grammar, and organize the class, and for students to use as part of their collaborative learning and individual strategy use.

Similarly, According to Xhemaili (2013), the mother tongue is a powerful resource in SLA, as it can be used in several principled ways for the sake of enhancing learning. The literature reflects a mounting conviction that L1 has a beneficial and active role as a facilitating strategy in language teaching/learning classrooms (Schweer, 1999; Ferrer, 2000 in Xhemaili, 2013)

Another advantage of NNETs is that they had been in their students' situation, and having undergone the same experience of language acquisition, they can be better informed and aware of the difficulties and strategies that helped them in their journey of learning the language. Assuming that they have gone through the complex process of acquiring English, Phillipson (1992b) claims that such teachers may be better qualified than NSs. Supposedly, they have insight into the linguistic and cultural needs of the learners, and an awareness of how their mother tongue and the target language differ. At the same time, they can be good models as successful learners. They can deal with any difficulties encountered by their students, empowered by the ability of helping them with their 'mother tongue' (Medgyes, 1999; Britten, 1985:116; Phillipson, 1992:195). Likewise, Canagarajah (1999) and Widdowson (1994) argue that local NNETs know the cultural world and the beliefs, expectations, levels of competencies and assumptions of local learners. This argument is also espoused by Seidlhofer (1999), as she points out that these teachers often share the same backgrounds as their learners. They know the cultural context from which they have constructed the classroom context, rather than just modelling it on the target community. The shared learning experience between the teachers and their students is highlighted by Seidlhofer as the most prominent merit of

NNETs in their teaching contexts, better than NETs "who have not travelled the same route." Thus, such an experience should "constitute the basis for non-native confidence, not for their insecurity" (p. 238).

In fact, it can be concluded that the criterion of nativeness is irrelevant when defining a good language teacher. In other words, there are many other features to identify a good English teacher, none of which is based on whether the teacher is a NS or NNS. Thus, again, this fact supports the claim that NETs are not necessarily better than NNETs.

Apart from the nativeness criterion, there are other significant angles, as Borg (2006) puts it, according to which a language teacher can be judged and evaluated. Brog's categories, for example, include, "personal qualities, pedagogical skills, classroom practices, subject matter and psychological constructs such as knowledge and attitude" (p.2).

Several distinctive characteristics of good language teachers are also provided by other interested researchers, such as Girard (1977) and Brosh (1996). For example, Girard (1977) concludes that a good language teacher is a patient teacher who speaks good English, teaches good pronunciation, encourages the students to participate, reveals the same interest in all the students, clearly explains the subject matter and makes his/her course interesting. Another study by Prodromou (1991) defines a good teacher as being a friendly teacher, who provides good notes to his/her learners, and entertains them by telling jokes and playing games.

Although there is no reference to nativeness in these lists of characteristics, it is still evident that the target language is, more often than not, represented by SE, as discussed in (**2.4.4.**) Therefore, it can be said that knowledge of SE is imperative in ELT industry,

rather than emphasising the nativeness paradigm.

Jenkins (2009:9) claims that such a dichotomy brings about negative perceptions and self-perceptions of 'non-native teacher'. As she puts it, "it leads to 'non-natives' being refused places in EFL teacher training courses, limited publication of their articles in prestigious international journals, and a simplistic view of what constitutes an error." Therefore, some scholars suggest that this native versus non-native distinction should be reformulated into a continuum focusing on teaching expertise and ability instead of the nativeness concept (Liu, 1999:174). Prodromou (1992) states that to students, the teacher's ability to do the job well seems to matter most. Also, Rampton (1990) suggests substituting the term *native speaker* with *language expert*. Rampton asserts that 'linguistic expertise' is more important than the idea of who is and who is not a native speaker. He argues that 'linguistic expertise' proposes justice for both learners and teachers, as it shifts the emphasis from "who you are" to "what you know" which apparently seems to be more appealing to the ELT contexts (p.90).

If the case of NNETs's merits has already been defended by some linguists, one might wonder why NNETs always face discrimination in ELT when compared to their native speaker counterparts, who are even sometimes unqualified as English teachers. I attempt to discuss possible reasons contributing to this issue in the following section.

2.4.7 How the Native/non-native Dichotomy is Supported: *Political, Ideological, Racial, and Intelligibility* Issues

Holliday (2009: 24) illustrates that; the native and non-native distinction is sustained throughout the TESOL profession as a basic means for labelling English users. He also points out that the NNEST Caucus has sustained the labelling of NNS, even though they

are "the people who most decry" the dichotomy of NS and NNS, with its major goal "to create a nondiscriminatory professional environment for all TESOL members regardless of native language and place of birth" (http://www.tesol.org/connect/interest-sections/nonnative-english-speakers-in-tesol.) It has been argued that the native/non-native dichotomy is a *political* issue rather than a linguistic one, as expressed by Phillipson's (1992a) 'linguistic imperialism'. Holliday (2009:24) concludes that, "while language is still the prime focus, it is the *politics* of English as a potentially imperialist force, rather than concerns with linguistic models." He also states that much of the above mentioned discrimination is based on *ideological* rather than linguistic grounds. This can be deduced by the way in which the superiority of the NS has been constructed all along as a part of the grand plan for the superiority of English (Phillipson, 1992a).

Some argue that the discrimination imposed upon the NNS is "a little more *racial*" since "the color of the skin" is what sometimes matters (Holliday, 2005, as cited in Holliday, 2009). As Holliday (2009) puts it, it is evident that the populist notion of native speaker is viewed to be connected with the image of a 'White Anglo-Saxon' who comes from the English speaking West. Such a notion excludes the NNS educators from the NS status, as they do not fall into this image. Holliday concludes that the 'fair skinned' northern Europeans from countries where English is not a mother tongue, can escape this discrimination simply because of how they look.

Another factor why non-native speakers and their varieties might be rejected is *intelligibility*. Indeed, the issue of *intelligibility* is related to other pedagogical and attitudinal concerns (Atechi, 2007). Atechi refers to the fears nursed by several scholars due to the emergence of non-native varieties as this may lead to mutual unintelligibility

between English users and speakers around the world. In most of the studies that revealed negative attitudes towards non-native speakers or varieties, intelligibility stood as a factor, sometimes as a major one, behind such attitudes (refer to **2.7.3**) However, Smith (1992) finds that familiarity is an important factor that largely affects intelligibility. He views intelligibility as being dependent upon familiarity, as if in a positive relationship. That is, with greater exposure to and familiarity with a certain variety, there is more chance for the user to be able to understand that variety or accent. Atechi (2007: 49) also concludes that, "many surveys on intelligibility have proven that familiarity stands out as one of the key factors that foster intelligibility." In short, some Englishes might be rejected by stakeholders in certain contexts due to their unfamiliarity, hence unintelligibility, with such Englishes. This can also help explain why stakeholders resort to native models and NS in most cases.

Through the previous discussions, I reviewed the two main areas with which the upcoming study can be characterised, i.e. ESP and NA. I also attempted to explore the theoretical foundation of this research that mainly comes from an understanding of English *status quo* as an international language. Having achieved this objective, I will now review two constructs that are always pertinent to such theoretical underpinning, i.e. motivations and attitudes. Indeed, these two constructs are usually employed in research from the perspective of EIL, as shall be shown in the following sections.

In fact, any investigation into stakeholders' attitudes, perceptions, needs, and motivations should appraise the extent of rapport between policies and practises, i.e. what do they say should be done and what is really taking place. In fact, such data should always be of interest to policy-makers. They should be aware of learners' needs

in order to address these needs in their classes and materials (Yang, 2010). Thus, carrying out research to investigate and analyse learners' attitudes, motivations and needs is viewed to be an important process that should inform policy-makers' future decisions.

2.5 Motivations

According to Rubin (1975), learners' motivation is a crucial element in learning a foreign or second language. In the field of motivation, the agenda of theories developed by Gardner and Lambert in 1958, has proved to be a pioneering work focusing formally on SLA. According to Gardner (1985:10), motivation refers to "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity."

How motivations and attitudes interrelate to each other can be explained through Gardner's elaboration of the notion of motives as an important concept in relation to language attitudes. Gardner (1985) provided the International Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (IAMTB), including over 130 items in order to mainly test motivation and attitudes toward French Canadians and European French people, and interest in foreign languages. This work gave birth to the socio-educational/socio-psychological model focusing on second and foreign language learning and acquisition. The premise of this test is to determine the learners' success level in terms of the extents of their psychological readiness to be valued as members of the target language culture group. In Gardner's model, motivation is considered as a complex of variables, i.e. "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language" (*ibid.*:10).

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Since the dawn of Gardner's framework, motivation has gained a strong recognition among researchers and educators as one of the most influential aspects necessary for success in SLA. An agreement has been reached that highly motivated students are usually apt for getting higher proficiency level (Oxford, 1996; Oxford and Shearin, 1994).

2.5.1 Instrumentality and Integrativeness

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) define motivation as the learner's orientation about his/her goal of learning a second language, whereas Hudson (2000) describes it as a desire to obtain something practical or concrete out of studying a second language. These two definitions, respectively, represent Gardner's work that can be viewed as classifying motivations into two categories: integrative and instrumental orientations. Due to the complexity of the motivation constructs, Dörnyei (2001) discusses the convenience of conceptualising the goal of learning a language like "providing an orientation for the amounts of desire and energy expended." He highlights the integrativeness and instrumentality as the only two orientations that have received the most empirical attention. Likewise, Al-Ansari (1993) concludes that learners' reasons for attaining second or foreign language proficiency are usually investigated in terms of their perception of what is derived from the instrumental or integrative value. As Gardner (2001:9) puts it:

> The integratively motivated individual is the one who is motivated to learn the second language, has a desire or willingness to identify with the other language community, and tends to evaluate the learning situation positively

Gardner (2006) indicates that *integrativeness* includes openness to cultural identification. Likewise, Dörnyei (2001) describes the integratively motivated learner as the one who has a desire or willingness to be identified with the other language

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community. Essentially, integrative motivation underlies that SLA involves the development of bilingual skill in the language (*ibid.*). Furthermore, Finegan (1999:568) states that the integrative motivation typically underlies both a 'nativelike pronunciation' and a successful acquisition of various types of registers. Gardner and Lambert (1972) argue that a second language near-native level can be well achieved depending on the learners' willingness to be integrated and associated with the target language speakers. In this case, the learner can be viewed as undertaking "an act of extending the self so as to take on a new identity," which is crucial in SLA (Guiora *et al.*, 1972).

Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, is defined by Gardner and Lambert (1972) as the wish to learn the language for the purpose of study or career promotion. They view it as "a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language" (p.14). This orientation depicts reasons for learning a second language, which usually reflect the learner's practical goals; e.g. to get a better job or attain an academic goal (Dörnyei, 2001).

It seems as if there is a consensus that the integrative orientation is the one that has been more emphasised in SLA than the instrumental orientation. It is usually linked with a high positive attitude towards the L2 community, hence sustaining the eventual proficiency (Dörnyei, 2001). According to Norris-Holt (2001), learners with integrative orientation are usually more highly motivated and more successful in language learning. This argument of integrative motivation as gaining emphasis and importance in the learning environment was first suggested by Gardner and Lambert's earlier work in 1959 and 1972 (Dörnyei, 2001; Ellis, 1997).

As with the instrumental orientation, it has been acknowledged that this motivation is considered as a significant factor in some research, i.e. usually in certain specific situations. Gardner and Lambert (1959), as cited in (Al-Ansari, 1993) suggest, if foreign language learners learn a language for particular purposes, such as passing an exam, to use the language in their work, or even in the country where it is spoken, they are identified as instrumental performers. In a similar manner, Gibb (1999) argues, the prominence or significance of instrumental motivation has been evident in specific educational contexts, more than the integrative motivation. In view of this, Norris-Holt (2001) refers to situation where learners have no opportunity to access the target community, hence interact with its members, as the best and only area where instrumental motivation can prove to be successful. In contrast to the integrative motivation, which has been viewed as yielding successful learning in general formal settings. Consequently, the realisation of ESP students as mainly instrumentally motivated can be indicated. Al-Jurf (1994) and Al-Huqbani (2005), focussing on the Saudi context, indicate that, ESP students reveal a more positive attitude toward learning English than those who might study the language for general purposes.

Dörnyei (2001) and Norris-Holt (2001) argue it has been found that, in general, while students studying languages select instrumental reasons more frequently than integrative reasons. In other words, Dörnyei (2001) argues, the instrumental motivation can be of equal importance to, and even a better 'predictor' than the integrative motivation. Furthermore, Norris-Holt (2001) claims that the instrumental motivation is usually stronger than the integrative motivation.

Gardner (2001) highlights the difficulty of distinguishing people to be either instrumentally or integratively motivated, referring to such a distinction as oversimplified, in contrast to the complex human nature. Kormos and Csizér (2008) seem to concur with Gardner's argument, citing Lamb's (2004), who asserts the validity of this complexity. As Lamb (2004:15) puts it, "meeting with westerners, using pop-songs, studying and traveling abroad, pursuing a desirable career – all these aspirations are associated with each other…" More recently, Gardner (2005) states that the three constructs formulating motivation in his framework, i.e. attitudes to learning situation, integrativeness and instrumentality, are all in a positive correlation with each other. However, Gardner (2001) refers to the learners' favourable attitude and openness to others' language community as an indicator of the absence of ethnocentrism. That is to say, nowadays the group of English language speakers is not exclusively of those 'white westerners'. Instead, the language community can be represented by diverse groups from all over the world. According to Ushioda (2006:149), applying the concept of integrative motivation appears to be problematic since till recently "there is no specific target reference of speakers."

Kormos and Csizér (2008:6) argue that the changing world of the twenty-first century poses a challenge for Gardner's (1985) traditional concept of integrativeness. They claim that, in this age, a massive number of students learn "a second language in a foreign language setting with the purpose of being able to communicate with other non-native speakers in an international environment." They view Gardner's notion of NS and learners' desire to be identified with them as an interpretation of integrative motivation as illogical. Together with Ushioda (2006), they advocate expanding the notion of integrativeness as one response to the problem. To put it in Kormos and Csizér's (2008:6) words, 'Integrativeness in the sense as defined by Gardner […] has no

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relevance in today's world.' In order to overcome the challenge of Gardner's traditional sense of integrativeness today, Kormos and Csizér resort to Dörnyei's (2005) and Csizér and Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self-System model. This model is composed of three components: Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 Self and L2 Learning Experience. Kormos and Csizér (2008) elaborate that integrativeness becomes included in the construct of the Ideal L2 Self in this model. They identify this construct as: "one's ideal self-image expressing the wish to become a competent L2 speaker" (p.7).

Moreover, and for the same reason of overcoming the twenty-first century challenge posited for Gardner's traditional integrativeness, Ushioda (2006) and Kormos and Csizér (2008) highlight the importance of approaching the notion of cosmopolitan identity and Yashima's (2002:57) 'international posture'. This last concept encompasses "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to study or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners…and a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures," as cited in Kormos and Csizér (2008). Thus, it "considerably broadens the external reference group for integrative attitudes from a specific geographic, linguistic and cultural community to a nonspecific global community of English language users" (Ushioda, 2006:150).

Gardner (1985) referred to attitudes as a variable constituting the complex construct of motivation in his model, i.e. as a subcategory under the construct of motivation. Kormos and Csizér (2008) have recently found language-learning attitudes as a main factor that affects students' L2 motivation. Likewise, Gardner and MacIntyre (1992), with Young (2006), assert the existence of a positive or direct relationship between language attitudes, motivations, and L2 achievement. As Young puts it, "learners' positive attitudes may lead to increased motivation," a factor that can subsequently entail

successful attainment of proficiency, which is a resultant of increased input and interaction (p.480). Gardner and Lambert (1972) were mainly examining their participants' attitude toward culture, and if this attitude had an impact on these participants' learning motivation. Later, in 1985, Gardner distinguished this construct as integrative motivation. However, based on Dornyei's (2005:1) definition of motivation, as a concept that influences behaviour, used to "explain why people think and behave as they do," motivations can be viewed as a construct that helps explain people's attitudes. The following quote from Ushioda's (2006:149) argument about the changing perspectives of integrative motivation in particular indicates the existence of an attitudinal dimension in the theoretical concept of integrative orientation:

> Perhaps the principal legacy of the social-psychological tradition in L2 motivation research has been to illuminate understanding of the motivational role of attitudes towards target language speakers and their culture.

Although closely related, it can be argued that motivations may stand as a factor that explains behaviour or attitude. They can be referred to as the reasons behind attitudes Therefore, motivations and attitudes are usually investigated together.

2.6 Attitudes

According to Gardner (1985), attitude is the evaluation of, or reaction to, some referent in the world, or an attitude object based upon the individual perceptions or beliefs of the nature of this referent. Baker (1992:10) views attitude as "a hypothetical construct used to explain the direction and persistence of human behaviour" that touches the reality of the language itself (Baker, 1988). That is to say, thoughts, feelings, and tendencies in behaviour can be represented in attitudes.

Baker (1988:112-115) presents certain characteristics of attitudes that can show how and to what extent such constructs are complex. He argues that attitudes are not inherited, they are learned predispositions, and are likely to be relatively stable. Although they include a tendency to persist, they are affected by experience hence can be changed. Baker's (*ibid*.) point is further argued regarding language by some other scholars, such as Giles and Powesland (1975), Ryan and Giles (1982), and Trudgill (1983). They mention that language attitudes are rarely static, arguing that personal introspection experience or exposure to social influence may lead to a change in attitudes. In addition, Baker (1988) states that attitude is individual, but it also has origins in collective behaviour. He elaborates that both positive and negative feelings may be attached to a language situation, and they vary from favourability to 'unfavourability'.

2.6.1 Language Attitudes

The complexity of the attitude construct as presented above may stand as the main factor that urges Baker (*ibid*.) to assert its value when discussing bilingualism. Furthermore, he views adopted or learned attitudes as an important agent, from which the status and significance of language in society and within an individual mainly derive. It is, therefore, responsible for the growth or decay, restoration or destruction of a language.

It is indisputable that in any language there are certain types of speech which are more prestigious and pleasant than other varieties of that language, hence achieving superiority of these varieties (Giles *et al*. 1974a). Giles *et al*. (1974b), cited in Giles *et al*. (1974a), outline two possible answers to why some varieties are considered inferior to a prestigious form of a language, which are: the 'inherent value' and 'imposed norm' hypotheses. The former, 'inherent value', is closely related to the theory of 'deficit' position of speech usage, considering that non-standard varieties are sub-standards of a

prestigious variety. According to this theory, the prestigious standard is "the most aesthetically pleasing and linguistically the most sophisticated form of that language" (*ibid*., p.406). On the other hand, the 'imposed norm' theory indicates that judgments about certain languages are not inherited, but are rather based upon adopted cultural norms about a language being pleasant or unpleasant (*ibid*., p.406).

Learning a language is closely related to the attitudes toward the language (Starks and Paltridge, 1996:218). Csizér and Dornyei (2005) and Gardner and Lambert (1972) discuss that the beliefs the language learners hold should be considered as a case in point in second language acquisition. Similarly, Bernat and Gvozdenko (2005) discuss that attitudes have an important place in the pedagogical implications and new directions in language learning beliefs, including, cognitive, contextual, social, cultural, affective, and personal factors. Richards *et al.* (1992:199) define language attitudes as:

> The attitude that speakers of different languages or language varieties have towards each others' languages or to their own language. Expressions of positive or negative feelings towards a language may reflect impressions of linguistic difficulty or simplicity, ease or difficulty of learning, degree of importance, elegance, social status, etc. Attitudes towards a language may also show what people feel about the speakers of that language.

Commentating on the last sentence from Richards' *et al.* definition, the conception that links attitudes towards a language, or its varieties, with attitudes toward its speakers has constantly recurred in the literature, apparently by believers in the 'imposed norm' theory. That is, the attitude construct should not be restricted to only the language itself, but to encompass attitudes toward the speakers of that language (Fasold, 1984). As Fasold puts it, the concept of language attitudes includes the stance towards speakers of a particular language, and a variety of behaviour concerning language (p.148). He views attitudes towards a language as a reflection of attitudes towards members of various ethnic groups. Thus, the term can allow all kinds of behaviour concerning language to

be treated by applied linguistics today. In other words, the reactions of individuals to language varieties reveal their perception of these varieties' speakers (Edwards, 1982: 20).

According to Ammon (2000), some components shape a status of any language. These components mainly include issues related to speakers of any particular language; e.g. their number, social class, wealth…etc. In fact, Edwards (1982) refers to social status and group solidarity as two prominent variables that can determine views about languages. In view of this, he elaborates that the power of the group or their social status can be reflected through their language being a standard or non-standard language/variety. There is also what he calls in-group solidarity that can constitute a social pressure to preserve the language or any of its varieties.

Also reflected in Richards' *et al*. (1992) definition above is the point Gardner (1985:40) emphasises, which calls attention to the concepts of attitudes being investigated. Gardner propounds that attitudes can refer to educationally relevant factors such as the teacher or the language itself, or to socially relevant factors, such as the community of that language's speakers. In other words, attitudes "can refer to more general attitudinal dispositions such as ethnocentrism, authoritarianism, or anomie dissatisfaction with one's role in society" (*ibid.*).

Sifakis (2004) states that learners' attitudes are paramount and the first to be investigated in research with concerns of issues of English varieties, ownership, and its status in international/intercultural communication. Likewise, Friedrich (2000: 216) reinforces studying attitudes as an essential part of a WEs approach to language use. In fact, exploring the attitudes of learners toward different varieties of English has been

conducted through a whole breadth of studies, due to the global spread of English and the wide recognition of WEs (Yang, 2010). Due to the complexity of factors that affect shaping language attitudes, we are likely to come across different attitudes towards language varieties.

Having reviewed the development of NA (in 2.3), motivations, and attitudes as relevant constructs in ESP and EIL studies, and as major elements of the current project framework, I will now attempt to present some relevant studies that approached these three constructs, so the originality of the current study might be revealed. In particular, I will attempt to position the study in relation to other similar studies conducted both in the expanding-circle countries and the context of the upcoming study, i.e. SA.

2.7 The Current Study in Relation to Other Relevant Studies

As indicated above, relevant studies that approached NA, attitudes, and motivations, with concerns that are comparatively similar to those addressed by the current study, will be reviewed through the remainder of this chapter.

2.7.1 Needs Analysis Studies in SA

Although I did my best to find a reasonable number of relevant studies in this context, the results came up with a tiny number. Only seven NA projects were undertaken with this concern, involving ESP students, namely, medical, engineering and general EAP students, by Al-Harby (2005), Al-Ghamdi (2005), Al-Eissa (2008), Abu-Rizaizah (2009), Shukri (2008), Madkhali (2005) and Al-Shumaimeri (1999). Thus, it is hoped that this research can participate in enriching the literature of NA in the Saudi context by drawing attention to the importance of conducting this activity while proposing any ESP

programme. Here I try to produce brief accounts of each study, by identifying the aims, contexts, stakeholders, and findings.

Al-Harby (2005) admits that only a few applications have been carried out in SA with the aim of customising ESP courses suitable to the local work environment, especially in the medical field wherein English plays a major communicative role. Therefore, he investigated the language use in the medical workplace with the aim of providing empirical data that can best serve Saudi ESP, namely, medical settings. Questionnaire was the only feasible tool for this researcher to access the medical professionals. Results indicated that the productive skills (speaking and writing) were perceived as less important than receptive skills (reading and listening), yet with very little differences percentages. These findings led the researcher to state that the English language courses were inappropriate so far as the English language use in hospitals is considered.

There is also Al-Ghamdi's (2005) evaluative study that investigates both the products and processes of the medical English course. Through this study, Al-Ghamdi attempted to appraise the effectiveness of that program in terms of the appropriateness of its content and methodology of its objectives, and the attitudes of the involved stakeholders toward its products and processes. Unlike the other evaluative studies reviewed in this project, Al-Ghamdi's findings showed that the investigated EAP program was effective and successful on the whole, yet with some limitations attributed to the course's general organisation and its syllabus specifications. Reaching this result, Al-Ghamdi conducted present and target communicative language needs analysis from the viewpoints of all programme's stakeholders, in order to suggest a new 'integrated' language presentation scheme.

The third study was carried out by Al-Eissa (2008). Al-Eissa acknowledged the importance of linking the needs of the learners' current situation to those required in their future workplace. He evaluated the *status quo* of health-related students' language needs, focusing on reading, writing and conversation needs, both in the educational and professional circles. The language needs for ESP students as perceived by educators at the King Abdul-Aziz University Medical colleges were presented, with reference to how these perceptions were reflected in the syllabus design and materials selection. This study was concerned with determining the language proficiency needs required in both the medical contexts and the courses. The findings indicated that the language ability primarily required at the college was the writing skill. Regarding the medical contexts, the data represented speaking, with paying attention to accurate pronunciation and fluency, as the most emphasised skill in hospitals. The most interesting finding revealed that the language course developers were not aware of the needs that should be addressed due to their unfamiliarity with health courses and future occupational requirements. This finding can indicate the importance of investigating the target workplace as a source that can well inform the needs that should be addressed in language courses.

Similarly, in Abu-Rizaizah's (2009) evaluative study, the needs of the academic English programme and the workplace were identified through a pre-designed framework of analysis developed by Chen (2005) and Jacobs (2000). In order to comprehensively evaluate the efficiency of the program, he identified the skills and proficiency levels needed by the students, in order to meet academic and workplace requirements. The findings of the study indicated a discrepancy between the current situation and the target situation in the English language-teaching programme. As identified by the NA, the

programme was meeting neither the requirements of any of the involved stakeholders, i.e. students, English language and Engineering teachers, academic staff, companies' representatives, nor the aims of the programme.

Likewise, Madkhali's (2005) project addressed both academic and occupational needs so as to inform the process of establishing goals of the Institute of Public Administration in SA. His main incentive was to help build academic goals based on the needs found in the workplace, then to propose an alternative design, informed by the job market, for the English language programme taught at this institute. The results of NA in business settings show that English is often used in the private sector due to the existence of expatriates, non-native speakers of Arabic in non-Saudi companies, i.e. the nature of the company being non-Saudi emphasises the use of English. The academic settings, on the other hand, reflect students' facing challenges mainly in three skills: reading, writing, and speaking. Reaching such results, the researcher was able to propose an alternative design for the English Language Center Programme, emphasising teaching GE, rather than ESP.

Shukri (2008) explored the perceptions of medical students towards their writing needs in medical biology (MB) classes. She investigated their needs through their own perceptions, and their ESP and MB teachers' viewpoints. The medical students reported writing practice, reading for different schemata, and grammar practice as their writing 'wants'.

Al-Shumaimeri's (1999) study, however, was mainly concerned with analysing high school textbooks. He followed the NA approach in order to investigate how far the

textbooks were helpful in satisfying the learners' needs. He highlighted the spread of English in his introduction, referring to the mounting number of NNSs around the world and how this phenomenon affects communication. However, this discussion was not clearly reflected as a primary concern in the research questions or objectives. The study was primarily concerned with only analysing the textbooks under investigation. Yet, a finding referred to a considerable number of students who used English outside the classroom, which could indicate that the actual use of English is as a means of communication with non-Arab speakers in SA. In general, students thought that the textbooks were not very helpful in developing their desired skills.

It can be argued that none of the studies reviewed above come originally from an EIL perspective. Furthermore, researchers did not refer to any area within this perspective, apart from the fact that communication in the target workplaces mostly occurs between foreigners or non-native English speakers. Although these researchers conducted TSA in order to inform pedagogical issues and decisions about present situations at their institutions, they were focusing on either the English programs efficiency and appropriateness, or the level of students' proficiency. Their evaluations were mainly concerned with the content areas that should be included in the teaching materials, or the four skills, receptive and/or productive.

Having reviewed NA studies, I will now move on to present similar studies that investigated the second construct, i.e. motivations, and namely learners' motivations in the field of ESP, some with relation to EIL perspective, particularly in expanding-circle countries and the Saudi context.

2.7.2 Motivations Studies

2.7.2.1 Motivational Studies from Expanding-circle Countries

As mentioned above, by virtue of its established recognition worldwide, Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model has been adopted and employed by many following interested researchers. For example, Lai (2008) conducted a motivational study from the perspective of EIL. He explored Taiwanese, English-major and non-English-major university students' motivations for learning English in general, examining changes in their motivations, and influences that might have caused them. Besides, he investigated their perceptions of the role of the phenomenon of EIL. Gardner's agenda of attitudes and motivations forms the main theoretical basis of this research. Lai examines the instrumentality and integrativeness. The findings of this research showed that the majority of the students adopts a combination of instrumental and integrative motivations for studying English. Yet, Lai found that the majority of the students was more instrumentally motivated, indicating reasons for learning, such as finding a good job or having a better salary. Although reviewed studies in the Taiwanese context showed that Taiwanese learners were not integratively motivated, the respondents of Lai's questionnaire revealed a positive correlation between integrative and instrumental motivations. Nonetheless, Lai argues that the term 'integrative orientation' in his study is not in accordance with that of Gardner's (1985), hence it needs to be further explained.

In a similar manner, Guerra (2005) investigates his participants' reasons for studying English on the basis of integrativeness and instrumentality. The data analysis indicated interesting differences in the students' instrumental and integrative motivations. The findings revealed that ESP students appeared to be instrumentally motivated when identifying their reasons for learning English. This study can prove that instrumental

motivation is quite relevant in countries where English is considered as a foreign language. However, integrativeness and instrumentality in this study were influenced by the students' course and length of time studying English. That is, the more students spend time studying English, the more they develop motivations.

The literature related to the analysis of attitudes and motivations in the field of ESP is still comparatively little, especially in SA (Makrami, 2010), if it is not so in other contexts. Therefore, Al-Huqbani (2005:8) concluded, "there is no systematic line of studies in the literature that examined the motivation and attitudes of ESP learners towards the learning of English" in the region. I hope, therefore, to contribute to the discussion of motivations in the context of SA through the upcoming study. Following would be a brief review of a few studies, having concerns of language learning motivations, conducted in the context of SA.

2.7.2.2 Motivational Studies Including Saudi Participants
 According to Al-Seghayer (2012a), English in SA is used as an instrument for modernisation, advancement, technological transfer, a dependable means of strengthening and expanding the economy, a means of assimilating modern technology and of absorbing world science, and as a vehicle for global communication. Therefore, it can be emphasised that the use of English in the country is mainly for instrumental, rather than integrative, reasons.

Al-Shehri (2009) explored the motivations of Saudi students in the UK toward BrE and AmE, in terms of Gardner's orientations - integrativeness and instrumentality. His findings indicated that integrative motivation was not identified as important as instrumental motivation among the respondents.

In his investigation into high school students' perceptions about English textbooks, Al-Shumaimeri (1999) delved into the learners' reasons for learning the language. His research reported no integrative desire from the side of the students to adopt features of English-speaking culture in Saudis' life. Instead, students indicated instrumental reasons for learning the language, such as 'to pass the final exam', or 'to enter a scientific college at the tertiary level.'

Makrami's (2010) study mainly focused on ESP students' motivations, in comparison to the motivations of English for General Purposes (EGP) students, namely integrative and instrumental motivations. The findings showed that the EGP group was more instrumentally and integratively motivated than the ESP group.

The following will present the third set of the reviewed studies, besides NA and motivations studies, which includes attitudinal studies, mostly investigating participants' attitudes toward NSs and NNs and their Englishes.

2.7.3 Attitudes Towards NS and NNS Varieties and Teachers

A plethora of studies reported negative attitudes toward English varieties other than 'standards', namely BrE or AmE, which are often assigned with strong preference. Atechi (2007) remarks that the terms 'variety' and 'variation' are associated with negative connotations, and people usually relate them to lower standards. For example, Jenkins (2007) conducted a study with participants from diverse backgrounds in order to investigate their attitudes toward ELF accents. She included three accents from inner-circle countries (US, UK, Australian), six from expanding-circle countries (Brazilian/ Portuguese, Spanish, German, Swedish, Chinese, Japanese), and one from an outer-

circle country (Indian). Both NS and NNS participants underestimated English non-native varieties, revealing a preference for standard Native Englishes instead, the AmE and BrE, in her study. Jenkins' (2007) book *English as Lingua Franca: Attitude and Identity* shows some previous studies on perceptions and attitudes towards English with ELF, WEs or EIL concerns. Almost all the studies reviewed by Jenkins revealed negative attitudes toward NNSs or their Englishes, such as Matsuda (2000), Scales *et al.* (2006) Friedrich (2000), Timmis (2002), Shim (2002), and Butler (2007). However, participants in Kim's (2007b) study, although indicated a quite strong positive attitude towards the AmE, revealed no discrimination toward NNSs. Indeed, the participants in her study revealed positive attitudes towards NNSs. (refer to Appendix 7 to see a table of more details about these studies.)

Most of the studies investigating motivations I presented earlier have been mainly attitudinal or dealing with attitudes in one way or another. Here, I am referring to these studies once again in order to present how they approach and discuss the attitudinal aspects of their concerns.

In general, studies over the past two decades show that people in the country of SA hold strong positive attitudes toward English. Saudi people believe that English is pivotal to the future prosperity of the country and that it is crucial if to meet the needs of various domains (Rahman, 2011; Seghayer, 2012).

Makrami's (2010) study reveals a strong positive correlation between students' motivation and attitude to learning English, i.e. correlation values indicate that the increase in motivation is correlated with the increase in attitude.

Al-Shehri (2009) investigated his participants' attitudes towards the BrE and AmE. BrE was preferred by most of the participants. The British speaker was evaluated more positively than the American in this study.

Similarly, Guerra's (2005) participants displayed some conservative attitudes by favouring the BrE as the only variety that should be followed, and by expressing a lack of interest in learning about other non-native varieties. However, the participants displayed a distinct tendency to accept other varieties and mix them, thinking that this helps the language user's ability to achieve mutual intelligibility.

Through analysing his students' integrative motivation, Lai (2008:205) concluded that these students "may have developed an attitude of 'international posture' with 'intercultural competence' and aim to achieve their ideal L2 self." Most of the Taiwanese students in this study expressed a desire to achieve native speakers' communicative competence in English as their ultimate learning goal. Particularly, they favoured the AmE and BrE as the language models that should be followed in the classroom.

Ghobain (2010) investigated medical students' attitudes toward and beliefs about both native and non-native English varieties, namely Indian and Filipino varieties, in SA. The participants in her study revealed a positive attitude towards NSs, as they believed in English-speaking countries as the major resource of 'perfect' English. However, some learners revealed a hesitant attitude toward native teachers due to reasons related to the notion of intelligibility, stating that their speaking was somehow unintelligible as non-native varieties. Therefore, they showed a preference for English spoken by Arabs in

general, and the variety that is spoken by Saudi teachers in particular. However, the participants accepted other 'Englishes' and showed a tendency to learn more about their characteristics, pronunciation in particular.

Also, the results of Yang's (2010) attitudinal study showed that Chinese students revealed positive attitudes toward the English language and 'China English'. Another significant finding asserted a positive relationship between the period of learning the language and the attitude towards it.

Al-Omrani's (2008) study was mainly concerned with the attitudes of Saudi learners towards NS and NNS teachers. Participants in this study reported advantages and disadvantages of both NS and NNS teachers. Thus, they, together with the researcher, seemed to highly recommend the collaboration between NETs and NNETs in the teaching process. In their viewpoint, NETs were better in teaching oral skills than their NNET counterparts, due to their fluency and accuracy. These participants rejected the pronunciation 'errors' made by NNETs; therefore, they preferred NETs, instead. However, they thought that NNETs could teach other linguistic skills, better than NETs could do, because such teachers had been through their students' situation previously. Furthermore, teachers who speak Arabic, the participants' L1, were seen advantageous in teaching vocabulary and grammar in particular. The participants believed that the most distinctive feature of good teachers is their expertise or experience of teaching, regardless of nativeness.

It should be noted that, through the latter section (2.7) of this chapter, none of the studies I have reviewed approached or investigated the combined three elements I am investigating in one study, i.e. needs, motivations, and attitudes, with a theoretical concern for EIL in medical contexts in Saudi Arabia, nor in other expanding-circle countries. However, these three elements are likely to have an important impact on the language development of medical students. Investigating them will at the same time contribute to clarification of how English as an International Language is to be conceived in a country like SA. Therefore, the current study should be viewed as an original attempt to fill this gap of knowledge, not only because it tackles an important issue in a context not fully investigated, but also because of the importance of exploring the combined effect of needs, motivation and attitude with regard to EIL in general. The following table clearly shows how the current study can be original as it identifies the areas that will be addressed in this project in relation to the reviewed studies.

Study	EIL	ESP	Context	Needs Analysis	Moti-vation	Attitudes	Participants
Lai 2008	√	N/A	Taiwan	N/A	√	√	University students
Yang 2010		N/A	China	N/A	√	√	College students
Aleisa 2008	N/A	Medicine	SA	Target and Present needs	N/A	N/A	College students, instructors, administrative staff
Alharby 2005	N/A	Medicine	SA	Target needs	N/A	N/A	Saudi health professionals
Abu-Rizaizah 2009	N/A	Engineering	SA	Target and Present needs	N/A	√ Toward program product and process	Students, Teachers, companies representatives
Makrami 2010	N/A	Medicine Engineering Computing	SA	N/A	√	√	University EGP and ESP students
Madkhlai 2005	N/A	Business	SA	Target and Present needs	N/A	N/A	Human resource managers,employes, students, teachers.
Alshehri 2009	√	N/A	UK Saudi Students	N/A	√	√	Under- and post-graduates Saudi students in the UK
Shukri 2008	N/A	Medical Biology (MB)	SA	Writing needs	N/A	N/A	English and MB teachers and students
Ghobain 2010	√	Medicine	SA	Present + students' perceptions toward future needs	√	√	Students
AlGhamdi 2006	N/A	Medicine	SA	Target and Present needs	N/A	√ Toward program product and process	Medical students, English and Medical teachers, administrators
Menkabu 2010	N/A	Medicine	SA	N/A			English instructor-university level
AlShumai-meri 1999	N/A	N/A	SA	Present	N/A	N/A	High-school students
Habbash 2008	√	N/A	SA	N/A	N/A	N/A	Educators and linguists, students, parents
Alfahadi 2006	√	N/A	SA	N/A	N/A	√	Teachers
AlOmrani 2008	√	N/A	SA	N/A		√	Students

Table 2.2 The Current Study elements in Relation to the Reviewed Studies

2.8 Summary

To sum up, through this chapter, I attempted to build the analysis with which this study

is primarily concerned, i.e. the discussion of EIL in relation to ESP. After that, I

presented certain trends of teaching English in Higher Education. Specifically, I attempted to review certain movements in HE, in terms of teaching the language to learners of specific disciplines, as a consequence of the language internationality. Then, I continued to present aspects concomitant to the current status of English, especially in the area of ELT.

In more details, I attempted to review the international role achieved by English in the twenty-first century, which gave birth to the increasing numbers of English speakers, the majority of whom are non-native. The new role of the language as a vehicle of international communication challenges the traditional pedagogic decisions, which are solely centred on the native speakers and models. In other words, this traditional view appears to be unjustified and inappropriate with the current global status of English, as the needs of this globalising world are different from those imported from the native-speaking countries.

I also reviewed the discussions of the elements through which the theoretical framework of this study will be implemented, namely needs, motivations, and attitudes.
In the latter section, I reviewed studies relevant to the study in terms of each element discussed.

As far as approaching the present medical educational and future professional situations in SA is concerned, I will try to shed light on the wider circles of educational and medical professional contexts in the country through the next chapter.

Chapter 3: Saudi Arabia: English Status in Specific Educational and Professional Contexts

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will attempt to highlight the defining features of the context in which the present study is to be carried out. The description begins with a general statement about the context. Then, it gradually moves towards the specific sectors that represent the settings of the project, namely the Ministry of Health (MOH) and the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE), with reference to medical education in SA.

The chapter begins with demonstrating the status of English in the country and how it is reflected in education, referring to Saudi students' levels in the subject, including teachers and materials used.

When discussing English as a foreign language in a country like SA, it is plausible to start by looking at how it is first introduced to average Saudi learners. In doing so, we need to investigate the role of the authority responsible for educational policies of academic levels, ranging from primary to pre-university. In the case of SA, this authority is represented by the Ministry of Education (MOE). In fact, the outcomes of both organisations, i.e. MOE and MOHE, hardly differ as far as individuals' English proficiency is concerned.

Towards the end of the chapter, I will try to describe the professional context, which is duly approached in this study, i.e. the medical context, how it is run and related to the HE context.

3.2 Educational Aspects and Circles of English

3.2.1 English in SA

On account of several reasons, English is highly acknowledged as the most important foreign language in the country. It has become a widespread choice of a foreign language since the 1930s, with the oil discovery that led to foreign companies' domination on the oil production. The substantial investments in oil achieved a rapid economic growth, hence a level of luxurious life in the society, which resulted in nearly complete reliance on foreigners from different parts of the world, who spoke different languages. For most of these foreigners, usually English is either a first or second language. Indeed, the role played by SA as a leading supporter in the world economy, through its contribution to international organisations, helped it earn tremendous international respect. Hence, it also became a significant market in South Asia, South East Asia and Europe. The country has had diplomatic relationships, as a world community member, with countries of NSs and NNSs of English alike. All of this created the need for using English as a means of communication, both between the foreigners themselves or between them and the Arabs or Saudi speakers (Al-Seghayer, 2005; Shukri, 2008; Al-Johani, 2009; Al-Shumaimeri, 1999).

SA is a big country that has a population of foreigners from different parts of the world (Parfit, 1998), as cited in Al-Shumaimeri (1999). With the growing increase in the foreigners' population, which constitutes about nearly nine million out of a total population of twenty-seven million, English has continued to play a very distinctive role in the country, especially since the days foreigners began to migrate to SA. Residents and other Arab groups usually use English as the only option in communicating with these foreigners.

The country has realised the significance of the English language role, i.e. being the sole medium – a lingua franca - of communication between expatriates and Arabs. Thus, SA spends multi billion dollars annually on ELT to have the knowledge of English imparted among its citizens (Rahman, 2011; Al-Seghayer, 2012a).

3.2.2 English and Education in SA

English is the language of commerce, business, technology, diplomacy, and travel in the country. Due to the increased awareness and strong belief in its vital role, English is taught as a foreign language in the country's general ELT contexts. It is the medium of instruction in almost all the higher education institutions, such as engineering, medicine, and business. In addition, it is a compulsory subject in intermediate, secondary, and recently in some levels of elementary schools.

The Kingdom utilises various language experts to design its appropriate syllabi, textbooks, methods and approaches. Besides, there are bodies responsible for the development of education in the country from the primary to the university levels, represented by the MOE and MOHE (Rahman, 2011). In addition, several 'western' materials are being imported to be experimented in selected schools at various levels across the country.

However, according to many experts, both local and expatriate, the Saudi educational system suffers from a number of problems that appear to potentially affect students' learning and their overall attainment (Ghobain, 2010). For instance, McKay (1992) claims that Saudi educational authorities went to the extreme of producing English materials without referring to the communities where English is spoken, probably as a

measure to preserve traditional values. Consequently, Saudi students are left unable to make a concrete link between what they learn and the real life situations (Syed, 2003).

Al-Shammari (1989) argues that while education is receiving enormous funds from the country governing body, there are a number of signs that indicate the failure in teaching English, which apparently has not realised the desired outcome. As Rahman (2011) elaborates, after spending seven years of studying English at elementary, intermediate and secondary schools, and universities, Saudi undergraduates fail to acquire English language proficiency, and consequently fail to use it in real life situations. Although English is taught during this relatively long period, the process of teaching/learning is repeated right from the beginning in the universities (Al-Shammari, 1989). It is repeated during the first preparatory year, in other educational colleges which run intensive English courses, or in the English language institutions whether in SA or abroad. Similarly, Khan (2011) concludes from his experience in SA that the achievement of learning is not up to the mark, although the government is spending much money on education. Furthermore, other studies conducted by Saudi researchers (Al-Shammari, 1984; Al-Majed, 2000; Al-Nafisah, 2001) show similar viewpoints, all reporting English teaching/learning problems and low achievement among Saudi learners in Saudi schools. Therefore, as far as IELTS is considered as a real indicator for proficiency, it is not surprising that Saudi students fail to do well in IELTS as shown below:

	Listening	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Overall
Saudi Arabia	5.17	4.97	4.83	5.81	5.26
South Africa	7.72	7.40	7.18	8.33	7.72
Spain	6.63	6.90	6.02	6.45	6.56
Sri Lanka	6.39	5.88	5.78	6.28	6.15
Taiwan	5.68	5.80	5.24	5.66	5.66
Thailand	5.84	5.80	5.29	5.67	5.71
Turkey	5.99	5.83	5.43	5.97	5.87
United Arab Emirates	4.87	4.80	4.73	5.33	5.00

Table 3.1 IELTS Test Performance 2008 (From Cambridge ESOL: Research Notes, Issue 36/May 2009)

Some more recent results show that Saudi students achieved the lowest scores among

other learners from all over the world, apart from the UAE and Qatar learners (all of

whom come from GCC countries).

Academic	Listening	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Overall
Saudi Arabia	5	4.9	4.7	5.7	5.1
United Arab Emirates (UAE)	5	4.8	4.7	5.4	5.1
Egypt	6.3	6.1	5.8	6.3	6.2
Iran	5.8	5.7	5.7	6.3	6
Qatar	4.8	4.6	4.5	5.3	4.9
Turkey	6	6	5.5	6	5.9
Sudan	5.8	5.7	5.6	6.2	5.9
Oman	5.1	5	4.9	5.6	5.2

Table 3.2 IELTS Test Performances. Adapted from ESOL: Research Notes, Issue 38 / May 2010

Academic	Listening	Reading	Writing	Speaking	Overall
Saudi Arabia	4.8	4.7	4.7	5.6	5.0
United Arab Emirates (UAE)	4.8	4.6	4.7	5.3	4.9
Egypt	6.4	6.2	5.9	6.4	6.3
Iran	5.9	5.9	5.7	6.3	6
Qatar	5.0	4.7	4.6	5.5	5.0
Turkey	5.9	5.9	5.5	6	5.9
Sudan	5.8	5.8	5.7	6.3	6.0
Oman	5.3	5.1	5.1	5.8	5.4

Table 3.3 IELTS Test Performances. Adapted from IELTS.org Website: Researchers, Test Takers Performance 2012

Rahman (2011:386) indicates that although syllabuses have recently been revised by

different universities in SA, the result is not yet satisfactory. Authorities have aimed at

promoting multi-fold objectives by focusing on teaching language skills to enable the

learners to acquire it for the purpose of communication. However, even after graduation

the students fail to develop productive skills. For example, they remain unable to "speak

or write a few intelligible sentences" (*ibid.*).

Abu-Ruzaizah (2009) reports the findings of a recent study in the Saudi context, in

which many Saudi employers describe university graduates as good in specific subject

knowledge, but lacking workplace skills such as communication, cooperative group or

teamwork skills, creative thinking, critical thinking, computer skills, and especially

English language skills (Asad, 2009, cited in Abu-Ruzaizah, 2009).

In an attempt to improve English teaching practices nationwide, the MOE in SA has

recently announced further developing projects to be put in actual practice in the next

few years, starting most likely from 2012/2013. These projects aim to use more

modernised curricula, methods and textbooks, designed by collaborative professional

academic experts, both from SA and abroad (Al-Thaqafi, 2011). In addition, the

ministry is seriously planning to introduce English to children from an early age.

Recently, it has been announced that the ministry would enact its plan of teaching

English to children at the age of 10, at the beginning of the academic year of 2011/2012

(Aleqtisadia Newspaper, 2011, *http://www.aleqt.com/2011/05/02/article_533806.html*,

Accessed 08 June 2011). This last amendment has been a hotly debated topic among

educators and policy makers; the majority of them believe it is a giant step to enhance

the Saudi students' English level.

In general, the situation in SA can be well figured out when we follow Al-Orainy's

(2011) critique for the first conference of quality in education that was organised by

MOE in Riyadh. His viewpoint indicates that the problem lies in transforming the main

principles and goals into reality. This viewpoint, unfortunately, can be said of most of

the conferences, which propose and recommend vivid solutions, yet lack proper

implementation.

3.2.3 English in SA; From a Socio-political/Socio-economical Perspective
Learning a foreign language, English in this situation, is among the Muslim's duties in

order to keep up with the world's civilisation and development movements. According

to Al-Majed (2000), a foreign language such as English stands for modernisation,

civilisation, and freedom. Therefore, some young Saudi students are attracted to learning it. However, the materials of ELT in SA have since long been centred around Islamic values and Saudi culture, and sensitive to the gender segregated milieu of the learners. However, as part of the educational reform process, which has been undergoing since 2003, target cultural values, exclusively the UK and US cultures, have been promoted through the new materials. Al-Issa (2005) refers to English in the Omani context in particular, and the Gulf region, including SA, in general, as the means by which the concepts, beliefs, and values of the UK and US have spread and transformed. Kramsch (2001) remarks that, being taught exclusively, these values and ideas may be internalised by language learners due to their desire to behave in native-like manner, indicating that this desire is usually concomitant to learning a foreign language. In fact, it is like a common belief shared by Arabs that English should be taught authentically, depending exclusively on these two cultures and norms. Therefore, native speakers, apart from native teachers, are highly valued by the Saudi society and educational authorities in the country. Accordingly, the native English culture becomes mostly, if not entirely, manifested through ELT materials in SA, which are produced by famous publishers such as Oxford or Cambridge (Al-Issa, 2005). Furthermore, the learners' levels are mainly assessed according to these standard models, i.e. BrE and AmE. For example, according to its new development project, MOE asserts that students' English level will be assessed with The Oxford Online Placement Test, after studying materials that are products of native-speaking countries (Al-Thaqafi, 2011).

That said, the massive spread of English and the heavy reliance on it cause insecurity to some parties in a country which values very highly its first language, as the language of their Holy book, Qura'an. Consequently, particular attitudes emerged regarding English

as a threat that has its impacts on the local language and culture. For example, Habbash (2008) critically approached the spread of English and globalisation, from a researcher's viewpoint that considered the possible repercussions of language imperialism. The researcher noticed that the spread of English in SA was value-laden. Thus, he pictured English as a threat to the official language of the country, assuming that it might have a negative influence on Arabic.

Also, Al-Fahadi (2006) reveals worries about the appropriateness of the westernised cultural models that have been followed in ELT since the educational reform in 2003. He tackles the western cultures presented in the new materials as being contravening with the local culture. He argues that, although the general guidelines express a desire for the students to be engaged in the globalised world, the cultures to be taught in English curriculum are solely the native English cultures. Accordingly, the researcher seems to acknowledge the general objective that calls for appreciation of the importance of English language as an international language of communication.

More recently, Al-Seghayer (2013) discussed the issue of whether to teach English in SA with or without its western cultural values, as an important controversial issue recurrently revived. His argument was raised due to recent strong complaints by some Saudi families, which were registered in Arabic newspapers, about selected English textbooks that included some inappropriate pictures and components of Western cultures adopted by one of the Saudi universities. He reported these opponents' worries about their Saudi students' identities being gradually eroded by teaching Western values. Furthermore, such concerns about learners' national identities and first language have

decelerated the introduction of English into primary schools, Al-Seghayer (2012b) argues.

As well as, Al-Na'aeem (2011) reveals worries about Arabic. He discusses the influence of the foreign languages on the GCC countries' first language as constituting a cultural trepidation on these countries' cultural identities.

3.2.4 Teachers of English in SA

According to Syed (2003), the most striking feature of ELT in the Gulf area is the large number of expatriate teachers of English. According to his general description of the area, the teachers who teach at K-12 level are usually Egyptians, Palestinians, Jordanians, and other Arab nationals. However, most of those teaching at the tertiary level are North Americans, Britons, and Australians, plus some Arab nationals. That said, Syed's (2003) description of the teaching contexts in the Gulf countries is not quite true of SA, where the situation is changing towards what is called 'Saudisation', i.e. a movement to 'nationalise' the labour force by employing more people from the local population (Bahgat, 1999). However, Syed's profile can still be typical of most of the private institutions, not the public schools that are fully funded by the Saudi government (Al-Omarni, 2008). The situation in public elementary, intermediate and high schools is different, where almost all teachers are now Saudi. It is believed that employers in all private sectors tend to employ foreigners as they are usually paid less than Saudis. In other words, the Saudis' salaries are allocated by the government if they are to join the private sectors, salaries that are in most cases higher than what is paid to foreigners. According to the Ministry of Labour, the foreigner employees are currently ten times more than Saudis in the private sectors, as the cost of hiring foreigners is much lower than that of Saudis (Al-Anezi, 2012). The Ministry, as it is constantly attempting to

convince the private sector to employ the large force of unemployed Saudis, finds the private sector usually reveals both justified and unjustified reasons for refraining from employing nationals (Al-Mukhtasar Newspaper,2012, http://www.almokhtsar.com/node/57105, Accessed 10 April 2012)

Ghobain (2010) claims that SA has, to a certain extent, succeeded in developing its own human resources of teachers in all majors, especially at K-12 levels. Nevertheless, the higher education institutions still depend on expatriate teachers in several areas, despite the considerable growing body of the Saudi staff in the country. Mazi and Abo-Amma (2006) justify this situation as resulting from the vast growth in the number of the Saudi students at the university level. This growth, in turn, resulted in a lack of teachers to meet the needs of this large number of students. Thus, hiring non-Saudi teachers has been looked upon as the only available solution to this problem. In fact, those teachers now far outnumber the Saudi teachers in certain fields. They form about 45.26% out of the total number of the teachers (*ibid*.). Furthermore, Mazi and Abo-Amma argue that most of the employed Saudi teachers are busy studying for their higher degrees either abroad or in SA. So, the heavy burden of teaching is placed on the expats. The university under the study represents a very similar situation, keeping in mind that it is classified as one of the recently inaugurated universities in the country. It relies heavily on expat teachers in most fields, due to the shortage of Saudi teachers. We conclude then that Syed's (2003) profile can be valid to the Saudi higher education schools, rather than K-12 level schools, where teachers and administrators are mostly Saudis at the present time.

For the sake of this study, it is worthy to note that, apparently for the same reason of hiring foreigners over Saudis, the expatriate teachers who are employed in either MOHE or private schools are mostly NNETs, Arabs in particular (Al-Omrani, 2008). The fact that NETs are paid much more than NNETs, and even triple times more than Saudis sometimes, can be a factor behind hiring NNETs, regardless of the employers' preferences or learners' aspirations.

Having shed the light on the practice of ELT in the country, I will move to portray some features of the situation in higher educational institutions particularly, as the context with which this study is concerned.

3.2.5 Higher Education in SA

Since 1932, the year in which the Kingdom of SA was united and founded, to around 2003, there were only eight universities across the country. However, with the wide and rapid economic expansion in the country, the number of public universities has increased to twenty-four. The records of MOHE indicate that a new university opened every three months and that there were three new colleges every month (Al-Humaidi, 2005). Furthermore, the enthusiastic development of MOHE in most of the fields, scientific fields in particular, encourages the contribution of the private sector by establishing private universities and colleges, in order to expand the base of HE. Presently, there are eight private universities offering both under- and postgraduate courses in different knowledge fields. Besides, there are other colleges which provide different educational courses, such as special education, technical education, vocational training, religious education, catering for various learners' needs (Al-Qahatani, 1999). The MOHE in SA, which was established in 1975, is considered as the main authority responsible for all the higher educational institutions in the country. More specifically,

the MOHE is primarily responsible for raising the level of communication and coordination between the universities with all their higher learning colleges and institutions. It coordinates policy with all the ministries and agencies in the country in order to meet the nation's needs, so it can take part and enhances the continuing development of the Kingdom. In 1993, a Royal Decree formed Supreme Council for Universities to act as a legislative coordinating body for all the universities. The responsibilities of this Higher Education Council include supervision of universities education development, coordination of degrees, and scientific departments among universities, research support, and the formulation of regulations and rules (http://education.stateuniversity.com/pages/1305/Saudi-Arabia-HIGHER-EDUCATION.html, Accessed at 09 June 2011).

Nonetheless, all universities still enjoy a high level of independence in both administrative and academic scopes (http://www.mohe.gov.sa/en/studyinside/Government-Universities/Pages/default.aspx, last retrieved 09 August 2011). For example, each university formulates its rules and regulations, plans its own educational policy, and distributes its allocated budget. In every university, there is a council representing a miniature of the ministry's council. It is responsible for all the university's administrative, educational and financial affairs, taking care of the implementation of university policy, and preparing its budget and future development plans. Within the university, each college has its own council that is responsible for implementing and carrying out the university policy, rules and regulations, submitting budget requests, and suggesting policy changes for improvement sake. Again, within the college, each department has an organisation in parallel to that of the college and university. Regarding scientific research, in each university, there is a scientific council charged with the responsibility of encouraging research, studies, and

publications (*ibid*.). In short, the relationship between the ministry and universities, the university and its colleges, and college with its departments, all seem to follow the same hierarchy, starting from the ministry down to the department.

However, the flexibility endowed by MOHE to the universities may have played a role in the absence of a clear unified educational policy. Thus, investigating each university's policy may be proposed as a helpful suggestion to draw a picture for the higher education general policy.

Abu-Ruzaizah (2009) argues that English language education has always presented a challenge for the MOHE. Therefore, an increased awareness of the importance of evaluating the learners' needs, and of the current status of English in HE institutions, seems to make its way into the educators' minds recently. For example, twenty-eight researchers from different universities across the country met in May 2005 at Al-Yamamah University to formulate and discuss 22 notes of reform, to be submitted to MOHE. These notes assert re-evaluating the experience of teaching English in SA (Al-Humaidi, 2005). In addition, a symposium discussing English language teaching *status quo* and challenges in SA was held at Immam Saud University in November 2011 (Immam Saud University Portal, 2011, http://www.imamu.edu.sa/news/Pages/news_19-11-1429_3.aspx, accessed 23 August 2011). Furthermore, a conference organised by Taibah University was held in April 2011. This conference's main concern was to discuss the status of English in the Saudi universities, its future and beyond (Taibah University Portal, 2011, http://www.taibahu.edu.sa/pages.aspx?pid=7385, accessed 22 August 2011; and Al-Harby, 2011).

Through the previous deliberations, I attempted to provide a general description of the education situation, its organisations and institutions, in SA. Having generally thrown light on the settings constituting this study's first targeted context, I will proceed to the medical field in the country, as the second targeted context.

3.3 Medical Circles

In this section, a closer look at the medical milieus in SA, both the academic and professional, how they are run and organised, is presented.

3.3.1 Medical Education in SA

Recently, medical education in SA is mainly managed and governed by the MOHE, which gives permits for new colleges, and provides supervision of private medical colleges. However, still there are a number of institutions and colleges that belong to MOH. This type of education was introduced in the country in 1967, with the foundation of the first medical school at King Saud University, followed by three other colleges at King Abdul-Aziz University, King Faisal University in 1975, and a branch college of King Saud University located in the city of Abha in 1980, which later became King Khalid University (Telmesani *et al*., 2011). At that time, the medical staff consisted of mainly expatriates from neighbouring Arab countries and India. Later, the government decided to have its own local medical personnel. Therefore, it offered scholarships for high school graduates to study medicine and health sciences abroad. Encouraging the citizens to join the medical schools, the government made job promises for every graduate (Al-Eissa, 2008). Although there was another medical school established at Umm Al-Qurra University in 1996, the output of these five colleges was not sufficient to meet the number of the Saudi doctors needed, as they formed less than 20% of the working physicians in the country (MOH's Statistical Booklet 2007; Telmesani *et al., in*

press). Therefore, the MOHE decided to take serious and broad steps in order to develop

the medical education at the beginning of the current millennium. Many medical

colleges were announced and inaugurated, ending up with ten new colleges by 2008.

Besides, the private sector participated by establishing three new colleges as well, upon

the government encouragement to invest for profit in HE. By 2010, there were 24

medical colleges scattered around different parts of the country: 21 governmental and

three private. In addition, there has been a movement for upgrading the health institutes.

Some of these institutes have been changed to colleges of health sciences, a result of the

MOH's aims to increase the quality of human resources. The ministry aims to update the

scientific efficiency of the national personnel, and it encourages them to get specialty in

different health and medical fields. As reported in MOH Statistical Booklet (2008), there

are 33 health colleges: 15 for males and 18 for females[3], which are run by and belong to

the MOH.

Presented in the ministry's annual statistical booklet is the number of Saudi students

who joined these colleges in 2008. The total was 12237 students, with females

representing 48.9% of this number. The number of these colleges' graduates was 3439,

34.4% of it were female students. On the other hand**,** the number of students attending

the university medical and health colleges, which are governed by MOHE, was 22917 in

2008. The female students represented 43.1% of them. While the number of graduates of

university medical and health colleges was 3055, the female graduates represented

47.1% of them.

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[3] Males and females are segregated in all educational contexts and institutions in SA.

Medical education is free for all citizens, except in private institutions. A medical student must pass an entrance examination and complete a 1-year pre-medical course. Such a course usually contains some basic medical subjects including: Biology, Organic Chemistry, Inorganic Chemistry, Physics, Medical Biostatistics, and English. This program is run at undergraduate levels, it requires the completion of one pre-medical course, and five medical years followed by one internship year. The degrees offered by these schools are Bachelor of Medicine, Bachelor of Surgery (Telmesani *et al.,* 2011).

Today, medical education is highly sought after amongst high school graduates. Admission to medical colleges requires high grades, passing an English written exam, summative exams, and the National Aptitude Test that is administered by the National Centre for Assessment in HE since 2002. Usually, students are to be interviewed as part of the admission process. Students who score the highest grades in all of these exams are admitted.

Being the medium of instruction of medicine in the country, as in any other Eastern Mediterranean country, English poses a challenge to the stressed Saudi medical students, especially for the new enrolled students who have "suboptimal competence in the English Language" (*ibid.,*p.705).

3.4 ELT, ESP and EAP in Medical and Applied Medical Sciences Schools at the Targeted University

3.4.1 English Language Centre (ELC) and Medical Colleges

Besides being the medium of instruction, English is taught as a core module for freshmen and sophomores at the medical colleges where the study shall be implemented. ELC allots and directs the language courses syllabuses and materials and is responsible

for hiring teachers at the targeted university. The centre was founded in 2006, as was the

Faculty of Medicine, i.e. with the foundation of this new-born university. Intensive

English courses for GE and specific purposes were developed for all the new faculties.

Currently, students who want to join any of these faculties are enrolled in the

preparatory program, which is introduced as the first academic year of their

undergraduate studies. Therefore, they attend the same English course provided by the

ELC for all the medical specialties. In other words, all students who attend different

medical specialties study and learn the same content and materials in terms of EGP,

whereas specialised textbooks vary according to the students' majors, such as English

for Nursing, English for Dentistry…etc.

The ELC seems to acknowledge the role of English as a global language for

international communication, and its status as a global *lingua franca.* That being so, the

centre seems to relate the role of this *lingua franca* as a means of instruction, as

reflected from the objectives it sets.

> The Center's views that English Language being a lingua franca, as well as the
> language of international trade, transactions and agreement, has been acknowledged
> as the most established and effective means of instructions in sciences, education and
> culture.

(http://centers.jazanu.edu.sa/sites/en/ELC/Pages/Vision.aspx, last retrieved 23 March 2012)

Although the centre apparently realises the current status of English as a global

language, it seems to also acknowledge English as a foreign language, hence teaching

EFL is the mission to be accomplished by this centre.

> Thus being so crucial for a university student to attain such international academic
> and linguistic level, English has rightly been declared as the language of instruction
> in all colleges of […] University, colleges like Medicine, Engineering, Computer
> Sciences, Applied Medical Sciences, Sciences and community College.

(http://centers.jazanu.edu.sa/sites/en/ELC/Pages/OurMessage.aspx, Last retrieved 23 March 2012)

The aims of the centre indicate that the centre apparently affiliates to the inner-circle NS models and culture. However, preparing the university graduates for international tests, such as IELTS and TOEFL, is proposed as a justification for this affiliation.

> Making contacts with some cultural centers such as the British Council, the American Cultural Center, the Canadian Cultural Center, the Australian Cultural Center, as well as, the New Zealand Cultural Center, so that our extraordinary and well selected students could guarantee the best of services to the community and the country while preparing their TOEFL or IELTS (as prerequisites for admission in universities of these aforementioned countries), or when exchanging bilateral research and scientific experiences at these universities.

(http://centers.jazanu.edu.sa/sites/en/ELC/Pages/Objectives.aspx, Last retrieved 23 March 2012)

(Refer to Appendix 3 for full details about the ELC Vision, Message and Mission, and Aims)

Also, the curricula and materials that are usually adopted by the centre members reflect the centre position. For example, it is stated as an objective of a computer-based program (ELLIS) course that this course aims at enhancing the students' comprehension of the native speaker's accent, AmE in this case, i.e. "to help the students comprehend the native accent in a better manner," (from ELC Teachers' portfolio, 2009-2010) However, since the inauguration of the university, the curriculums, both of ESP and EGP, have always been in a constant state of flux.

(For a brief presentation of the history of ELT in the medical colleges since 2006 to the present time, and the courses specifications, refer to Appendix 9. This information was obtained through the teacher's portfolios held by the ELC.)

3.5 Summary

This chapter describes how English plays an important role in Saudi educational and professional circles, namely medical, and how the recognition and realisation of this importance is emphasised and reflected in the classroom. Although the government is devoting resources to teaching English, the learners' level is still far from satisfactory.

Researchers constantly attempt to diagnose the reasons for learners' underachievement. They report various problems originating from different perspectives. Attempting to improve the educational level of the language, the Ministry of Education is constantly adopting what is considered as modern and communicative, usually by implementing methods and materials imported directly from the English-speaking countries, mainly the US and the UK. The ministry has recognised the importance of improving the teachers' ability to use imported 'modern' teaching methods as a part of its developing scheme, in order to help students acquire basic language skills. The chapter also shows that there is a great number of expats from different countries in Saudi Arabia. This issue may draw attention to the discrepancy between what is taught in contrast to what is actually used. That is, English is chiefly taught as EFL, while in fact it is used as ELF. Besides expat teachers, there are also expats in the medical context, the professional context of the students to be involved in this study, who constitute nearly half of the medical workforce in the country.

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This study seeks to investigate the extent of consistency, that may or may not exist, between medical workplaces, i.e. students' target situations, and the medical academic setting at the targeted university, i.e. the students' present situation. It seeks to identify who uses English and when and why, focussing on the professional milieus. Assuming the workplace to be multilingual, this study hopes to exhibit how language/s function/s in a medical context having a multilingual characteristic and consider how in such a workplace situation the appropriateness of NS models that dominate educational settings can be precisely appraised.

As such, this study examines whether the current perceptions in the academic setting should be prioritised or not using a workplace perspective. In other words, the reality of the students' future workplace is highly significant, and hence it should be seen as an important resource that influences the decision-making of targeted medical colleges. Adopting the belief that does not consider NS models as exclusively or necessarily the most important in language-learning, especially for ESP students, this study examines how deviating from nativeness or standardness is actually perceived by the participants in both contexts.

Further, a workplace and its culture may include other important elements in addition to the relevance of native speaker accents or competencies/proficiency. It is important to investigate whether students' perceived needs, as well as those emphasised by authorities, match the actual objectives of the target workplace. Consequently, language programmes efficiency should be evaluated from the perspective of a dual cohort, namely, both professional and student requirements for needed linguistic models.

As this research addresses both present and target situations, the research questions need to be addressed by the participants from both perspectives.

The proposed study will be structured to answer the following **Research Questions:**

1. What are the preferences of Saudi medical professionals and students in terms of models of English to use and learn?

    1.a How do they perceive certain NS and NNS Englishes?

    1.b What kind of motivations for using and learning English do the Saudi medical professionals and medical students display?

2. What needs for using and learning English are identified by Saudi medical professionals and medical students?

    2.a When do Saudi medical professionals use English, and why?
    2.b From the professionals' viewpoint, how proficient in English should medical personnel be?
    2.c What variety or varieties of English do professionals say they use?

    2.d What lacks and wants of English do the participants say they have?

3. On the basis of the participants' perceptions in general, and Q1 and Q2 in particular, how can medical and medical-related students be linguistically prepared for their future occupational/professional milieu?

Having identified the main research concerns and queries, I now proceed to identify the philosophical aspects and the approach that underpin my assumptions, the followed methodological framework, the research design and the employed instruments, and how they are designed and piloted, including validity and reliability issues.

4.2 Philosophical Stance

Positivists' fundamental beliefs about the objectivity and externality of the nature of reality have come from the nineteenth century (Creswell, 2002). Positivists, also called quantitative pursuits, think that educational researchers' biases should be eliminated,

and their emotions should remain detached and uninvolved with the objects of the study; they are just to justify their stated hypotheses empirically (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

With strong rejection to positivism beliefs, most of social scientists from different schools agree that the social world cannot be understood unless from the perspective of individuals who constitute part of the on-going action under investigation (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). According to Cohen *et al.* (*ibid.*), anti-positivists argue that an individuals' behaviour can only be understood when researchers share their participants frame of reference, advocating that understanding individuals' interpretations of the world has to come from inside, rather than outside. Thus, social sciences are viewed as subjective, instead of being objective as believed by positivists.

This new alternative stance that opposes positivism has developed into naturalistic, qualitative, and/or interpretive approaches. When qualitative researchers inquire into and observe a phenomenon in their natural settings, they attempt to make sense of or interpret that phenomenon according to the meanings people assign to them. Rossman and Rallis (2003) believe that this research paradigm is an endeavour to understand the social world as it is, in terms of its individuals' perspective. Interpretivism assumes "reality is dependent on the meanings of people in society, and such socially constructed reality is ungoverned by any natural laws, causal or otherwise" (Guba and Lincoln, 1989:86). As this inquiry aims at understanding the world from its dwellers' viewpoint, attempting to reach the meanings group members in question attribute to words and actions, qualitative research has been attributed with the nature of constructivism. Besides, qualitative research is associated with constructivism since all knowledge-

production in this approach is linked with the assumptions brought to studies by investigators themselves (e.g. Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Clark, 2001).

Rossman and Rallis (2003) view the knowledge that is constructed during a qualitative study as being interpretive. Wellington (2000:16) argues interpretivists believe "the observer makes deference to the observed and reality is a human construct." In addition, there is also what is referred to by Burr (1995:3) as critical social constructionism that is interpreted as "critical stance towards taken-for-granted knowledge." As she puts it, this constructionism "invites us to be critical of the idea that our observations of the world unproblematically yield its nature to us."

According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), like the quantitative positivist paradigm, the qualitative interpretive has also received criticism. For example, there is a lack of systematic standards that help judging the research quality, and the matter of quality judgment is relative to the judge's experience.

In fact, Positivism and Interpretevism have always been looked upon as the two paradigms which quantitative and qualitative researchers, respectively, persistently assign themselves to. The extremist stance held by both quantitative and qualitative researchers to their advocated paradigms seems to create 'paradigm wars'. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:15) argue that engaging in the debate of these two paradigms seems to confuse "the logic of justification with research methods." That is, some researchers tend to treat epistemology and method synonymously. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie indicate that the logic of justification, which is a significant aspect of epistemology, does not dictate researchers about the specific data collection and data analytical methods they must use, as the entailment from epistemology to methodology is rare. Hence,

differences in epistemological beliefs should not inhibit a qualitative researcher from exploiting data collection methods typically associated with quantitative research, and *vice versa*.

The preceding discussion, in fact, can fit the pragmatic method. The pragmatic paradigm claims that research problem should be prioritised instead of prioritising research methods. In this paradigm, researchers, as they are not committed to any one system, philosophy and reality, are free to elect procedures, techniques and methods that can best meet their needs and purposes. Indeed, such a philosophy underpins the mixed-methods research (Creswell, 2002). According to Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:16), the bottom line of Pragmatism is: "Research approaches should be mixed in ways that offer the best opportunities for answering important research questions."

 The mixed-methods paradigm appears to reconcile the situation. It can be viewed as bridging "across the sometimes adversarial divide between quantitative and qualitative researchers" (Creswell and Clark, 2011:12). This approach of mixed-methods has gained wide recognition and popularity during the second half of the twentieth century. It has been referred to as "the third methodological movement" following the quantitative then the qualitative research movements (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003:3). It is also referred to as, "the third research paradigm" by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004:15).

In fact, the two philosophical traditions, Positivism and Interpretevism, "have dominated the discussion of mixed methods research strategies" (Brannen, 2005:7). Yet, the mixed-methods paradigm overcomes the weaknesses of each of the two approaches, and it is this potential that gives this latter paradigm its strengths (Creswell and Clark, 2011:12). It provides more evidence for studying a research problem, and helps answering

questions that cannot be answered by conducting either a qualitative or quantitative approaches alone.

4.3 Research Design

Driven by the belief in both quantitative and qualitative approaches as representing "different ends on a continuum", instead of being viewed as two "polar opposites or dichotomies", this research appears to be in "the middle of this continuum" employing and incorporating elements of the two approaches (Newman and Benz, 1998; as cited in Creswell, 2009:3).

Creswell and Clark (2011:10) suggest adopting this approach at situations where "theoretical perspective provides a framework for the need to gather both quantitative and qualitative data in a mixed-methods study." I view the framework of this study as one that requires both qualitative and quantitative data. In fact, these two methods are usually, and widely, used together in needs analysis and attitudinal studies in order to avoid the bias that may be caused to the validity of results by adopting a mono-method approach. Many researchers view the mixed-methods approach as one that can provide an insightful, comprehensive, and in-depth conceptualisation about attitudes (Creswell and Clark, 2011; Cohen *et al*., 2011). In addition to attitudes, Alderson *et al*. (1995) believe that these two methods are very useful and helpful when conducting needs analysis. Furthermore, Creswell and Clark (2011) point out that the mixed-methods approach is usually adopted in cases when the researcher wants to overcome problems of insufficiency of the data provided by only one source. Creswell and Clark view this approach as a way to enhance a study with a second method, i.e. to provide an enhanced understanding of some phases of the research.

A rationale for adopting this approach is its potential of triangulation, i.e. to test the findings' consistency through applying different approaches, both qualitative and quantitative methods (Cohen *et al.*, 2007; Green *et al.*, 1989). Since applied linguistics (AL) and social sciences are concerned with the human behaviour, explaining its richness and complexity from more than one standpoint, methodological triangulation is strongly advocated. Triangulation asserts that "qualitative data provide a detailed understanding" and "quantitative data provide a more general understanding" of the problem. Another justification for following a mixed-methods approach is development. That is, the results of a method that is conducted at the first phase of the research helps developing a subsequent one (Greene *et al.*, 1989). In this study, the findings of the qualitative interviews are intended to help shaping and developing the questionnaires to be conducted in the second phase.

More specifically, the Priority Sequence Model as identified by Morgan (1998) is adopted to conduct the current study. According to Morgan, four basic designs have been developed by the priority and sequence decisions. These designs depend upon the principal method, which is either a qualitative or quantitative, and a complementary method which is conducted as a preliminary or follow-up stage to the principal method (Conway, 2009). The current study follows the Quantitative Follow-up design, in which a quantitative study is to be conducted to help "evaluate and interpret results from a principally qualitative study." Such design "can generalise results to different samples" and "test elements of emergent theories" (Morgan *ibid.*, p. 368).

4.4 Case Study Approach

Case study is "a research strategy which focuses on understanding the dynamics present within single settings" (Eisenhardt, 1989:534). As Robson (2002:178) puts it, case study

is "a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence." Hartley (2004) indicates that the case study method is widely used across the social sciences and in organisational studies. It typically consists of detailed investigations within its context, aiming at providing analysis of the context and process that illuminate the theoretical issues being studied (*ibid.*). Since the phenomenon is not isolated from its context, and as there is always an aim to understand the context of that phenomenon, i.e. how behaviour and/or processes are influenced by, and influence context, Hartley argues that case study is a key way to address this interest.

A case study can involve and employ an embedded design, multiple and numerous levels of analysis. In addition, this method can be used to accomplish various aims such as providing descriptions (Yin, 1984). According to Tellis (1997), case study can satisfy the three tenets of the qualitative method: describing, understanding, and explaining. Besides, Yin (1994a) and Hartley (2004) indicate that case studies typically include various methods, i.e. either qualitative, quantitative, or both may be used, using interviews, questionnaires, observations, documentary analysis, and in combination.

Yin (1994b) asserts that, it is this function of bringing the qualitative and quantitative evidence and methods together which gives the case study method a special strength. He elaborates that case study will be more prominent due to its broader applicability.

According to Benbasat *et al.* (1987: 370), besides its potential of studying the phenomenon in its natural setting, and enabling the researcher to ask "how" and "why" questions, case study is appropriate in a context where few previous studies have been carried out. Also, Benbasat *et al*. argue that case study can be used when research aims

at generating theories. Gable (1994) points out that the number of the included cases in research should be considered carefully - it is recommended to have multiple cases as this can make the study valid and generalizable. He elaborates that multiple cases are used when there is an aim to develop or test theories and describe phenomena.

According to Yin (2003), there are three types of case studies: explanatory, exploratory, and descriptive. A descriptive case study, which the current study intends to follow, presents a complete description of a phenomenon within its context. The investigator who has cases of this descriptive nature is required to begin with a descriptive theory, or face the possibility that problems will occur during the project. The descriptive theory must cover the depth and scope of the case under study. On the other hand, explanatory and exploratory case studies, respectively, present data bearing on cause-effect relationships, and aim at defining questions and hypotheses of a subsequent study, or at determining the feasibility of the desired research procedures (Yin, *ibid.*). In a similar manner, Merriam (1998) classifies case study types into descriptive, interpretive, and evaluative. Merriam's evaluative case study appears to include the other types, since it can involve description, explanation, and judgment (*ibid*.). According to The United States General Accounting Office (USGAO) (1990:116), data of the case study method is often more "judgmental, interpretive, and subjective than other methods."

As indicated earlier, the current study adopts an interpretivist perspective. Thus, it can be viewed as a study that attempts to develop an understanding of the phenomenon through the involved participants' interpretations of their context (Klein and Myers, 1999).

Reviewing the relevant literature, there are diverse examples of use of case study methodology in the areas of ESP, NA, and attitudes, the angles to be approached in this current study.

As indicated earlier, this study primarily focuses on learners' target and present situations, mainly concentrating on their language communication needs. It specifically intends to examine the English varieties that are used in the workplace and needed in academic settings, so that the objective needs that prioritise native speakers, models, and standards can be apprised realistically. Thus, this case study can stand on NA grounds, though restrictively.

4.5 Research Instruments

The instruments I used to implement the qualitative and quantitative approaches were, respectively, interviews and questionnaires. More details about each tool and how I used them for this study are provided in the following.

4.5.1 Interviews

In-depth interviews are believed to be the hallmark of qualitative research (Richards, 2003; Rossman and Rallis, 1998). Tierney and Dilley (2001:453) and McDonough and McDonough (1997:172) highlight the significance of interviews as a very common tool used in educational research. Advocating its relevance and importance in social sciences research, Briggs (1986) indicates that 90% of all social science investigations use interviews in one way or another. Researchers always use interviews as safeguards against the drawbacks of using only questionnaires. It is believed that interviews are helpful in balancing, enriching, and illuminating the findings obtained by questionnaires. As Matsuda (2000:16) puts it, "in questionnaire studies, each respondent's experiences

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are lost as they are reduced to numbers," a shortcoming that can be overcome by interviews through the potential of eliciting in-depth, detailed supplementary data to aspects that cannot be covered with questionnaires (Verma and Mallick, 1999:122). Sakui and Gaies (1999:486) explain that well-conducted interviews help in allowing the participants to "reveal beliefs which are not addressed in the questionnaire and to describe the reasons, sources, behavioural outcomes, and other dimensions of their beliefs." Furthermore, interviews allow for meaning negotiation, as researchers or interviewers are able to ask their respondents for clarification if certain responses are vague. Hence, researchers can investigate further information during the interviewing process. According to Brenner *et al*. (1985:3), "any misunderstandings on the part of the interviewer or the interviewee can be checked immediately."

Moreover, Powney and Watts (1987:18) believe that interviews give in-depth perspectives about the learners' beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions. Besides, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) view interviews as extremely useful tools in NA, with the feature of providing valuable information that cannot otherwise be obtained. With these two arguments in mind, data obtained through interviews have proved to be fundamental for the purposes of this study.

4.5.1.1 Interview Piloting: Issues of Validity and Reliability in Qualitative Research
Qualitative research and methods can form the basis of pilot studies. For example, there are several instances when researchers initiate their investigation with in-depth preliminary interviews in order to inform designing their other tools, usually questionnaires (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998; Teijlingen and Hundley, 2001). The current project can represent a typical case of such a process. That is, the interview formed the first phase of the study so that I could have an insight into how to develop

questionnaires. Also, before conducting the interviews, I wanted to test if the questions that were formulated could elicit the responses and generate the data needed to answer the research questions. Therefore, I interviewed two medical students, and two academic physicians. The interviewees responded interactively and did not indicate any ambiguity in terms of the interviews questions.

Golafshani (2003:601) states, "if we see the idea of testing as a way of information elicitation then the most important test of any qualitative study is its quality." Seale (1999:266) argues that the quality of the studies can be established through reliability and validity in qualitative research, which are represented by trustworthiness of a research report. In other words, the measures of validity and reliability as routes of searching the truth in quantitative or scientific research are substituted by the notion of trustworthiness in the qualitative paradigm (Mishler, 2000). However, Stenbacka (2001:552) views the reliability issue as being irrelevant in qualitative research, since it is primarily concerned with measurements. She also goes further by claiming that reliability should be excluded when to judge the quality of a qualitative study, otherwise "the study is no good." In this context, Creswell and Miller (2000) assert that researchers still need to check the validity of their qualitative studies, which is, in their viewpoint, influenced by the paradigm adopted by the researcher and his/her interpretation of the term validity. Therefore, researchers come up with what they consider as more appropriate terms such as quality, rigor, and trustworthiness (Golafshani, 2003). Davies and Dodd (2002: 280) point out that the term rigor arises when the discussion about "objectivity, neutrality, reliability, replication, and validity" is referred to. They also elaborate that, as qualitative researchers, "we now move on to develop our preconception of rigor by exploring subjectivity, reflexivity, and the social interaction of interviewing" (p.281). In short, Golafshani (2003: 602) explicitly

emphasises the importance of testing instruments, either quantitative, qualitative, or both, by stating that "testing and increasing the reliability, validity, trustworthiness, quality and rigor will be important to the research in any paradigm."

Acknowledging the subjectivity usually involved in the qualitative research, the current study will attempt to overcome this issue by employing two techniques, triangulation of sources and methods, and providing thick description about the context of the study. This research design employs triangulation of sources as it aims to collect data from two participating groups, namely medical professionals and students. It also employs triangulation of method by adopting quantitative follow-up surveys. A thick description about the context was provided in Chapter 3, besides detailed data to be analysed about the participants; their schools and specialities, proficiency levels, learning experiences, their motivations, attitudes and needs in relation to the areas discussed in this research.

Teijlingen and Hundley (2001) point out that the process of data collection and analysis in qualitative research is often progressive, as the first interview may yield the researcher with illuminating insights that can improve another subsequent interview. In the current study, besides Teijlingen and Hundley's (2001) point, interviews serve the basis of developing a further quantitative study.

4.5.1.2 Interviews in the Current Study

Since investigating the medical professional situation, as a target situation, is a fundamental concern in this research, interviewing some representatives of this context is, consequently, of a major significance. I was aware of the difficulties of chasing physicians for interviews, and this, in fact, constituted a considerable challenge for this

project. However, I was fortunate enough to be able to access seventeen interviewees who were involved in medical environments.

Eight out of these interviewees were academic doctors, besides working in hospitals. The presence and participation of these interviewees in an academic setting allowed me to somehow conduct the interviews smoothly. In other words, interviewing these participants in the academic setting, of which I am a member, was more feasible than conducting interviews in hospitals. These academics were all male general practitioners, aged from 28 to 32. Six of them were graduates of the targeted university, except a female nursing instructor and another male practitioner who did their studies in other two universities.

Nine other participants were interviewed at a small dental centre, with the assistance of some acquaintances who attempted to facilitate gaining permission to access that centre. These participants included five female nurses, a male radiologist, a female dentist, and two male dentists.

The interviews were semi-structured, mainly attempting to find answers to questions about what role English plays in medical professional contexts; when, why, and with whom stakeholders use English, hence needs of the language in such contexts can be identified. Besides, I attempted to investigate the interviewees' attitudes towards English in general, and toward various varieties of English, both native and non-native, in particular (See Appendix 1.)

Besides the professionals' interviews, I conducted semi-structured interviews with the second targeted group participating in this research, i.e. medical and health-allied students, also to get in-depth, detailed data about needs and attitudes at the medical academic settings.

In a similar manner to interviewing the first participating group, the students' opinions and beliefs about aspects pertaining to EIL, such as the current status of English and its varieties, i.e. native and non-native Englishes and teachers, and language ownership, were addressed. I was pursuing female medical students at any free time they could have afforded. I managed to conduct twenty-one interviews with students who were attending either their first, second, third, or forth year in the schools of Medicine and Surgery, Pharmacology, Applied Medical Science, and Dentistry.

4.5.2 Questionnaire

Since this case study is concerned with conducting NA and investigating stakeholders' attitudes, using questionnaires is thought to be suitable and useful as concluded by some researchers; e.g. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) and Long (2005).

Bohner and Wänke (2002) view questionnaire as the simplest way to assess individuals' attitudes. They elaborate that this process can be achieved through asking the participants a single question about their general evaluation of the attitude object, and to use a numeric scale along which they mark an alternative response. Dörnyei (2003) argues that questionnaire can measure attitudes, beliefs, and opinions. Likewise, measuring opinions and attitudes is identified by Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) as one of the several purposes for which questionnaires can be designed. According to Wray *et al*. (1998:168), questionnaire has been used extensively in studies investigating

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attitudes towards language and the process of teaching and learning it as a second or foreign language.

As with the purpose of NA, Long (2005) states that questionnaires are widely used in assessing needs projects, particularly in large organisations. Similarly, McDonough and McDonough (1997:171,179-181) point out to NA and program evaluations are the areas in which this instrument is extensively applied.

The questionnaire has indeed become one of the most prominent and common methods used in SLA research. According to Dörnyei (2003), it is widely applied across social sciences. Likewise, McDonough and McDonough (1997: 171,179-181) refer to the questionnaire as a very popular instrument used in educational research, particularly in ELT. It is viewed to be a very efficient tool, especially in large-scale studies; as it saves time, effort and cost (Johnson and Christensen, 2004; Cohen *et al*., 2000). According to Dörnyei (2003), it is possible to collect a considerable amount of information in less than an hour with questionnaires. However, it is argued by Dörnyei (*ibid*.), Gillham (2000) and Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) that, in the field of applied linguistics and social sciences, it is not an easy task to develop and construct a questionnaire that can yield worthwhile data, with sufficient and well-documented psychometric reliability and validity. Nevertheless, if a questionnaire is constructed well, and if it contains mainly closed-items, analysis and processing the responses can be straightforward, especially with the high technology of computers in this age (Dörnyei, 2003; Munn and Drever, 1999).

Since it is difficult to develop a questionnaire with ensured reliability and validity, questionnaires from similar studies were explored with the purpose of using some included items in the questionnaires of this study (Richards, 2001). All the reviewed questionnaires were implemented in expanding-circle countries, mostly including university ESP students, which is the case of the current study. According to Dornyei (2007), it is acceptable to borrow some questionnaire items from acknowledged questionnaires. Yet, any part of a questionnaire's content, format, response answers, or visual presentation, may be adapted in order to better fit the needs, location, language, mode, or any combination of these, of a new population (Harkness, 2010). Thus, I made some changes to the questionnaires' items to be adapted in this study (*ibid.*).

4.5.2.1 Online Surveys

Nowadays, according to Lazar and Preece (1999), electronic surveys have gained popularity and are becoming progressively widespread (cited in Andrews *et al*., 2003). Indeed, tremendous advantages have been provided by online-surveys as reported by many scholars (Andrews *et al*., 2003; Wright, 2005). Wright (2005) indicates that the online survey services have made survey research very fast and easy, providing the facility of accessing participants who are otherwise difficult to contact, i.e. "unique populations". Besides, the researcher's time and effort are reduced to the minimal with such services, since the data collection is automated. In this project, I used *Google docs* service to design and administer the questionnaires, as I found it to be very advanced, quick and easy, besides some other helpful features it provides. After the data had been collected, I stopped receiving responses, extracted the data into Excel database, and then I transferred it to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences software (SPSS).

According to Andrews *et al.* (2003:3), research has shown no differences between online and postal surveys, yet online surveys win the case of the speedy distribution and responses. Andrews *et al.* claim that web-based surveys can accommodate paper questionnaire design in terms of:

> The development of question scales and multiple choice answers from qualitative exploratory interview data, elimination of question bias through proper wording, and the use of clear, unambiguous and concise wording; as well as, informed consent information, rating definitions and examples, rating scale formats

However, Wright (2005) discusses some disadvantages of online surveys, such as: "uncertainty over the validity of the data and sampling issues, and concerns surrounding the design, implementation, and evaluation of an online survey." I attempted to overcome some of these disadvantages as much as possible. I was concerned about reaching the very targeted sample. Thus, I introduced variables that can somehow guarantee that the sample does not include 'false identities'; such as nationality, name of the university, specialty, academic level, faculty and job title. By doing so, trust and confidentiality issues are not exacerbated (Andrews *et al.*, 2003).

4.5.2.2 Questionnaires in the Current Study

Two questionnaires addressing the targeted groups were used in this project. The first questionnaire was administered to professionals working in the medical workplaces, whereas the second questionnaire addressed students at medical and medical-related colleges. (See Appendix 2.)

The questionnaires designed for this study underwent constant modifications and adaptations within the period from February 2011 to August 2012. They were initially and primarily developed according to some reviewed studies (Guerra, 2005 and Yang, 2010). I borrowed some items from these questionnaires, particularly the ones that are

thought to measure the same constructs I am investigating. It is worth-noting that the instruments of most of these studies are also adapted from other preceding studies. Regarding the motivation construct, some items from the test battery developed by Gardner (1985) were used. Besides, since the study mainly depends upon the first phase of data collection, i.e. the developmental and exploratory qualitative interviews, some specific items of emergent themes were added to the questionnaires. The wording of these added items followed the wording proposed by the interviewees.

Both questionnaires are, to a certain extent, identical, unless simple differences that accord with the nature of each context where the questionnaires were administered, and with the characteristics of each group's participants. However, as the feedback I received from the first group indicated that the questionnaire was 'very long', I attempted to slightly reduce the students' questionnaire by excluding some items, without jeopardising what I wanted to measure. For example, in the students' version, I reduced the items adapted from Gardner's test battery to measure motivations, to be nine rather than fourteen items, as it was in the professionals' questionnaire.

In general, both questionnaires were intended to examine the same constructs, and relatively through similar items, which are: needs, motivations, and attitudes.

In the following, I attempt to present a detailed description about the included items in each questionnaire.

4.5.2.3 The Medical Professionals' Questionnaire

This questionnaire mainly attempts to draw out the communication needs in medical professional contexts. The needs that will be reported by these participants can be classified as *objective* needs, with which the current academic scene should be informed.

Besides, as indicated earlier, items that can measure attitudes and identify motivations are included.

The questionnaire falls into six sections as shown below:

Section A

The first section in this questionnaire mainly aims to collect biographical information about the participants. It also contains some contingency questions, and other general questions that are concerned with the participants' proficiency levels and needs required in their workplaces.

Job title and specialty items are thought to be important to ensure that all the participating respondents belong to the medical field. Item 6 is added because, while interviewing a sample of the participants, I noticed that working experience could be considered as a variable related to the individual's perceptions.

Questions 7 and 8 aim at drawing the distinction and relationship between the participants' satisfaction about their current proficiency levels and their abilities to meet the tasks required while doing their jobs.

I developed questions 9 and 10 so as to have a closer look at the extent to which English is sought after in the region. Also, this might help indicating the efficiency of the courses attended at schools. That is, if most of the participants indicate they joined several courses, this could be a sign of the schools' courses insufficiency or inefficiency. In fact, this point has been brought to the discussion by the interviewees' references to the university courses as being inefficient or unsuccessful. It can be indicated that those who attended some courses abroad felt quite satisfied with their proficiency levels.

Therefore, attending private courses abroad or in the country thought to be a reason of any improvement achieved, rather than the university courses.

By question 11, I attempt to identify the participants' current needs. As revealed through the interviews data, there was a debate over what was needed, i.e. medical or general English. Furthermore, there was a conflict regarding what the participants meant by 'medical'. While some merely referred to medical terms, others meant medical discussions, arguments, and communications. It is worth-noting that this point emerged while attempting to ask about the needs related to the English or Englishes spoken in the medical field.

Questions from 12 to 16 focus on the efficiency of the attended university courses in meeting the medical professionals' needs and preparing them for their occupations. At the same time, by examining the participants' perceptions about their levels before doing their undergraduate courses, a picture about the English status at the levels that precede the university level might be drawn, which is an emergent theme from the interviews. Question 16, similarly, attempts to examine the courses' efficiency regarding certain specific skills; most of them were mentioned by the interviewees.

Question 17 attempts to identify the densest populations that use English in hospitals. At the same time, this is thought to somehow reflect the languages, or 'Englishes', that are mostly spoken, used and met in the medical context. Again, the presented speakers' groups are in accordance with the interviewees' responses.

Attempting to have the nature of the English mentioned by the participants further identified; and when or why the medical professionals usually use/speak English, I developed question 18. As shown in the interview data, most of the interviewees assign

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English with a high importance in relation to medicine because it is the language of their subject matter.

Section B

This section contains question 19, which includes 15 statements, aiming at identifying the respondents' motivations types through asking them about their reasons for using English and interests in acquiring the language. Items A, C, F, I and N are used to measure the instrumental motivations; D, H, K, M, and O aim to measure the integrative motivation; while B, E, G, J, and L for assessing reasons relating to the 'international use' or 'international posture'. Participants have to rank the degree of importance of each reason through a five-point scale, where 1 stands for *very important* and 5 for *very unimportant*.

Section C

Section C includes 12 Likert-type items, using summated rating scale. It aims at investigating the subjects' attitudes toward native and non-native varieties of English, their beliefs of how English should be spoken and used by NNSs, and their views regarding language ownership notion. Items from 20 to 26 are adapted from Yang's (2010) attitudinal study. Items numbered from 27 to 31 are formulated in the light of the interviews data.

However, as Oppenheim (1992) views it, an attitude, percept, or belief, is likely to be complex and multi-faced. Therefore, it has to be approached from many different angles, and should be addressed by multiple questions, in order to increase reliability. Thus, attitudes are further addressed by other general questions in the last section, i.e. in section F.

Section D

The items included in this section aim at examining the medical professional needs. These items were discussed and reported in the interviews. More clearly, the section aims at determining the proficiency level required from a medical professional, and the relevance of the goal of having a native-like proficiency to this career.

In detail, items 32, 33, and 37 reflect the statements provided by the interviewees regarding the level of English that is required in hospitals; and items 34 and 38 attempt to represent the participants' professional identity.

Section E

I attempt to have the participants' needs, opinions, views and learning experiences reflected by the means of this section, through the suggestions the respondents provide to course planners at academic contexts. Again, items 39, 40 and 42 reflect the conflict between what is necessarily needed and what is subjectively wanted, i.e. medical or general English. The statements numbered 41 and 45 are formulated following an opinion of some interviewees that English is best learnt through the medical and scientific subjects, as this is how it worked for them during their undergraduate studies.

The length of the learning period also was a recurring theme by most of the interviewees (43). While some view the period issue does not matter as much as the teaching methods and styles do, others suggest having more English courses over more undergraduate levels. That is, more courses are required because of the inadequate process of learning and teaching English previously.

Since most of the interviewees highlighted the role of practicing the language in hospitals as a major factor that has helped improving their English levels, more than attending the courses provided by the universities did, I developed items 48 and 50. There was as a consensus shared by the interviewees that if any improvement had been achieved to their proficiency levels, it was all because of their own efforts and endeavours (47), rather than attending courses. Thus, they realised the importance of being an autonomous learner, along with being motivated, encouraged and interested in learning the language (54). Therefore, I developed items 47 and 54. Another emerging theme indicated by the interviewees was the students' concerns and worries about passing exams constituting an obstacle in learning English adequately. This led them to suggest excluding English courses from the list of the compulsory modules. Therefore, I attempted to represent this issue in item 53.

Section F
This section includes 6 questions. Question 55 serves to identify the goal of the participants while speaking English, to examine if nativeness is a goal or not, and to identify the accent and level of competency they wish to attain.

Question 56 examines their views about and attitudes towards native and non-native speaker teachers. This question is followed by an open-ended question (57), that hopes to further investigate the reasons behind the participants' attitudes.

Questions 58 and 59 attempt to address the concepts of intelligibility, comprehensibility, and familiarity.

Question 58 tries to measure the Englishes with which the students feel familiar. In this question, items (a) and (b) refer to knowledge about the most common native varieties used in ELT (AmE and BrE), whereas items (c, d, e) indicate other native varieties as well as non-native varieties and EFL accents. Unlike the previous questions, subjects can choose more than one option for answering this question.

Question 59 hopes to elicit the most intelligible variety to the participants. They are asked to indicate their intelligibility and/or comprehensibility levels using a five-point scale, this scale would describe how far they can describe their level of intelligibility/comprehensibility, where 1 stands for the lowest, and 5 for the highest intelligibility and/or comprehensibility level.

4.5.2.4 The Students' Questionnaire
The second questionnaire can be seen as a reduced form of the first questionnaire, yet with certain necessary changes; such as some categorical variables of specialty and academic level. The targeted medical colleges were introduced as options in order to limit the categories that might be given by students. These colleges included the Faculty of Medicine, the Faculty of Dentistry, the Faculty of Applied Medical Sciences, the Faculty of Nursing, and The Faculty of Pharmacology. In addition, the levels the students were attending were provided in the first section, with the first and second levels being excluded. These two levels of the preparatory year were excluded assuming that freshmen were not aware yet about the nature of the study or the provided English courses in particular, due to the unsuitability of the administering time of the questionnaire. According to Andrews *et al*. (2003), coded and default information reduce non-response to questions.

4.5.2.5 Questionnaire Reliability and Validity

Validity is defined as the extent to which the instrument accurately measures what it has been designed for and supposed to measure (Dornyei, 2003; Vogt, 1999). The questionnaire items must be checked and reviewed in order to ensure the content validity, which focuses on the degree to which the instrument measures the intended content area, or the sample of interest behaviour domain (Vogt, 1999; Mertens, 1998).

In this study, questionnaires validity (face and content) and reliability were assured using selected measures, including borrowing items from previously used questionnaires, to establish a standardised questionnaire, be it with slight adaptations to respond better in this case. Besides, the questionnaires were largely shaped by the preceding qualitative phase, i.e. interviews. This somehow can indicate that the questions used have been partially or wholly validated in the previous stage.

As Vogt (1999:301) puts it, content validity is "a matter of expert judgment", instead of being "a statistical property". All the versions of my questionnaires were checked by colleagues who can be considered as experts in either the medical field, or the field of ELT and AL. In more details, the questionnaires were developed in the light of comments provided by contacting language experts, and by pilot surveys in the trial process. The professionals' questionnaire was tested through five of different individuals, a teaching doctor, an intern, two residents and a professor of pharmacology.

According to Cohen *et al.* (2011), if the questionnaire wording is of paramount importance, pre-testing is crucial to its success. Cohen *et al.* (*ibid.*) identify increasing the questionnaire reliability, validity, and practicability as principal functions achieved

by piloting the questionnaire. Therefore, I had to ensure piloting every questionnaire and item before conducting the main study.

After contacting experts from both fields, i.e. the fields of linguistics and medicine, a pilot study was conducted to eliminate any remaining ambiguities or difficulties of understanding from the participants' viewpoint. The revised versions were re-piloted to ensure the changes made were successful (Refer to Appendix 8.) The first version of the students' questionnaire was piloted to a representative sample in April 2011. I administered it to 45 first year (preparatory programme) female students. It was more convenient for me to test the questionnaire in the females' section at the medical faculty than in the males' section due to specific cultural boundaries (refer to Appendix 10.)

Regarding the sample size of the pilot study, I followed Rugg and Peter (2004) suggestion that, in pilot study, a sample of five to about 20 could be considered as reasonable.

Before testing, and in order to eliminate any threat to the validity and reliability of the questionnaires, I translated the questionnaires into the participants' L1, i.e. Arabic, due to the participants' presupposed lack of English mastery. To increase the instrument reliability, a Saudi linguist doing his PhD in the UK checked the translation. After checking the Arabic translation, I sent the questionnaires to a Saudi academician to do the back or reverse translation. After that, both questionnaires were double-checked by a friend of mine who is a teaching assistant in AL, working in SA.

No significant feedback was returned or suggested by the participants after piloting both questionnaires. In fact, the feedback obtained from the pilot study of the first questionnaire, the professionals group, helped revising the students' questionnaire before piloting it. Three out of the professionals who participated in the pilot-study indicated that the questionnaire was very long. Therefore, I tried to exclude items that seemed of minor relevance to the study, in the light of the interviews, from both questionnaires. Also, I eliminated the last question in the earlier versions of both questionnaires, as it was reported to be difficult by two of the practicing doctors in the pilot study. Thus, I thought such statements might not be understandable by the students in particular. Besides, other items could substitute what this question attempted to measure. As with students, one of them questioned about the items related to the notion of English ownership. Thus, re-wording the items that investigate this issue was considered.

4.6 Research Ethics and Access Issues

Throughout its different parts and stages, this study has made every effort to establish and maintain the highest standards of research ethics. In fact, various research manuals and guidelines that discuss research ethics, including Cohen *et al*., (2000 and 2007), Kent, (2000) and Mertens (1998), were consulted during the design of the study, analysis and representation of data.

First, I sought formal permission from the educational authorities of the university where the study would be conducted, in order to access its medical colleges and its students, and some medical professionals on its premises. In fact, I initiated the formal approval procedures as part of the data collection trip before conducting the interviews and distributing the questionnaire (see appendix 5.) Part of the formalities of getting

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approval for the data collection journey is to seek the approval of the sponsor in the country where the candidate does her/his degree. Thus, the Saudi Arabian Cultural Bureau in London was consulted first. On behalf of the researcher, the Bureau contacted the educational body where the study was eventually conducted. This formal procedure included lengthy correspondences that took four months, from November 2011 to February 2012.

Ethical considerations have a high degree of importance when any project deals with humans as its participants. Indeed, questionnaires and interviews have always been viewed as obtruding into the participants' lives; their times are taken due to the participation, their sensitivity levels of the questions might be affected, and/or their privacy is possibly invaded (Cohen *et al.*, 2000 and 2007; Denscombe, 2007).

If ethical concerns are important while involving humans as subjects, they are of extreme importance when any project is to approach a medical setting. Although the current study mainly took place in medical circles, it was important to stress that no patients were involved at any given moment. The entire study was carried out with medical students, and practitioners, NOT their patients. In line with the ethical principles of medical facilities' stakeholders, gatekeeping has deliberately become a general phenomenon within health care arena, in order to ensure that vulnerable people such as patients or their families are protected (Lee, 2005). Lee indicates that even professionals in these settings can be among vulnerable people that need to be protected when it comes to participation in research. Therefore, conducting fieldwork in health settings becomes significantly different to other domains due to the unique challenges it presents to researchers. For example, the considerable work-related pressures of these settings' stakeholders have always constituted a challenge for researchers. (Refer to Cohen, 2007; Bishop, 2012.)

The participants' privacy has always been maintained nonetheless. Besides, no threatening and/or fraudulent means to oblige the participants to be involved in the study were used whatsoever.

SA is no exception to the difficulties relating to performing fieldwork in medical settings. However, as no recording of practitioners operating in their workplaces was crucially needed at any stage, a designated permission was not necessary. The recordings of interviews, besides those conducted at the university, took place in a special convenience at a dental care unit where the participants were well informed that the interview was taking place for an academic project. In other words, Lee's (2005) recommendations of protecting professionals were not violated. In fact, all the participants, regardless of their professional background, were protected.

As Cohen (2007:52) puts it, "voluntarism entails applying the principle of informed consent and thus ensuring that participants freely choose to take part (or not)." In order to obtain their informed consent, all interviewees, both the professionals and students, were briefed about the nature and goals of the study. Every participant was assured of his/her anonymity and privacy, and was informed that the interview would be recorded only for the research purposes. In fact, I feel indebted to the interviewees as all of them granted me their absolute permission and authorisation to independently interpret the data and present it. I offered to show them how I would interpret and transcribe their responses should they need to check how they were represented, but none of them requested to see the transcripts. Similarly, the questionnaire participants were acknowledged in advance, in the introduction to the online questionnaires, that the information collected would be used exclusively for this study, and no third party would have access to their data without their consent. They were also acknowledged that their

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consent was considered as obtained by submitting the form, i.e. by clicking the 'submit'

button, (see appendix 2 for the questionnaire cover page.) Finally, the researcher stays

confident of having represented the data as honestly and accurately as possible.

4.7 Participants

Besides the 17 professional interviewees, 128 of this group responded to the online

questionnaire. However, nine questionnaires were submitted unfilled or incomplete, thus

were removed. In addition, 17 questionnaires were excluded as they were filled in by

participants who could be considered heterogeneous to the rest of the sample. They were

doing their higher degrees in English-speaking countries, thus thought to be

heterogeneous.

The students' sample was larger than the processionals', as the interviews included 21

female students, and the questionnaire respondents were 158.

Participants	Interviews	Questionnaires
Medical Professionals	17 (April 2012)	128 (May-June, 2012)
Medical Students	21 (April 2012)	158 (Aug-Nov, 2012)

Table 4.1 Participants in the Upcoming Study

4.8 Data Analysis

Before I move on to the findings chapter, I would like to explain how I dealt with the

data I had, the interview data in particular.

Overall, the research questions, i.e. the targeted contexts and areas of interest for this

research, guided the first attempt to conduct the thematic analysis. Although

challenging, I attempted to operationalize the main research objectives and questions as

much as possible, carrying out coding in accordance with the research questions, and

then going deeper into students' responses. More specifically, I linked specific excerpts

to analytical concepts or categories, starting with those based on the research assumptions and questions, and the main areas targeted by the research, such as needs, attitudes, motivations of both contexts' participants, i.e. professionals and students. Coding and categorising the data pertinent to the predefined themes itself helped reduce the whole data set, and hence facilitated moving on to remaining, emergent themes.

The predefined themes, for example, included attitudes towards native and certain non-native speakers and varieties of English, the varieties that are used in hospitals, purposes of learning and using English, linguistic needs at medical workplaces and colleges, and current and desired proficiency levels. The emergent themes, on the other hand, included, for example, Arabic in the workplace, identity issues, and themes relating to certain suggestions proposed by the interviewees regarding the current academic scenario.

Having indicated the overall approach, now I shall describe the step-by-step procedure I adopted. Firstly, all the 38 interviews were audio recorded. Once I finished interviewing the participants I transcribed the interviews, and translated them into English. A word processing programme was used for transcribing and typing all the audio recordings. Transcripts – 'just the words' transcriptions focusing on the content – served as the basis of the interview data analysis in this study. They were sorted into two digital folders for the two participating groups, according to the order and sequence of interviewing the participants. Each document was named with the interviewee's name. The interview data was analysed for the purposes of identifying both predefined and emerging main themes and sub-themes.

Dealing with a substantial amount of data over a comparatively long period of time, nearly four months, established and increased my familiarity with and understanding of major and specific patterns and themes in the data. I began the process of date reducation by taking some preliminary notes while transcribing interviews, in a separate Word file, which included points to refer to later when I commenced analysing and organising the data thematically. Via careful listening to the interview recordings and reading through the transcripts several times, tentative themes and some categories were also identified directly onto transcripts using the Word comments feature.

Attempting to conduct a systematic coding for the data, I began coding the data making use of the same Word comments feature. Similar codes / categories were coloured identically in Word comment boxes. Then I made specified folders and sub folders for different themes and sub themes, including all relevant codes / categories. More precisely, individual documents were named by themes, both predefined and emergent, and each included relevant sets of categories that were represented by excerpts from the transcripts. Every theme file generated further themes. That is, main themes were deconstructed into sub-themes. Consequently, the data was gradually reduced, and significant points were identified.

In the early stages of reducing the data, the participants' names were used to identify excerpts, and, as I mentioned above, there were separate and different folders and sub folders for each group of participants, i.e. professionals and students. In other words, at this stage the data from the two groups was being analysed separately.

As I became more familiar with the data and the participants, I could easily notice contradictions that occurred in data pertaining to certain individual interviewees. Within

an individual interviewee transcript file, the contradicting points were underlined and sometimes highlighted by specific colours, each point with a certain colour. As with the data in themes files, the names of the participants who revealed contradicting viewpoints or attitudes were highlighted in red so as to remind myself to refer to this participant's transcript file later, in order to check or recheck such contradictions for subsequent analysis or discussion. Besides, I wrote notes, using both Arabic and English, in files of interviewees who revealed contradicting attitudes. Thus, contradictions were clearly identifiable for reference when I arrived at the data discussion phase – they were mainly kept back for when data was discussed. That is, these contradictions were not a crucial part of the thematic analysis of data itself.

After conducting this long process of themes formation, I began to revise and refine those themes in terms of labelling appropriateness and inclusiveness of all the coded data. This refining process also included dismissing some themes that either were not satisfactorily maintained by data, or did not correspond with the research aims and questions.

As for the questionnaire analysis, as indicated above in 4.5.2.1**,** I used the SPSS software to generate percentages, frequencies, tables and figures, as will be shown in the next chapter.

4.9 Summary

In this chapter, I tried to identify why my study can be considered to be a case study that is influenced by a needs analysis perspective. I also attempted to identify the adopted approaches in the study, which are both qualitative and quantitative in a mixed-method design, mainly relying on both interviews and questionnaires as the study instruments. I also indicated that qualitative data is to constitute a wider area and a leading position in the data analysis framework and the study as a whole, in order to examine the main addressed constructs, i.e. needs, attitudes, and motivations.

It bears repeating that the study is concerned with two contexts, primarily looking at the target workplace setting as the resource that should inform the academic setting. Therefore, doctors and other professionals from some medical circles, and students attending the targeted medical colleges, were approached.

Chapter 5: Findings

5.1 Introduction

The first phase of conducting the study involved collecting and analysing interviews and questionnaires obtained from the professionals. The second stage was the collection and analysis of data (again, interviews and questionnaires) in the academic setting, from medical and medical-related students. I initially attempted to investigate whether medical students held different beliefs than their professional counterparts. Accordingly, the data obtained from each group of participants was analysed and initially presented separately. However, as the results emerged, it became obvious that distinctions were not salient enough to warrant a comparative study. Both groups of participants largely revealed similar perceptions about needs, attitudes, and motivations.

Thus, the following diagram represents my first attempt to represent the analysed data. In this diagram, the red colour refers to participants in the academic context (i.e. students), the blue to participants in the professional context, and the green to shared areas of concern:

Demographics
(Experience) (Speciality)
(General proficiency)
(Specific proficiency)
(Proficiency satisfaction)
(Goal proficiency)

Needs
(Courses efficiency) (Current competency)
(Required competencies) (Basic level)
(speaking practice) (Grammar)
- Suggestions (period) (GE) (ME) (CLIL)
(Autonomy and motivation) (pass Exams)
(teaching methods) (teaching styles)
Teachers (L1) (NET) (NNET)
(professionalism)

Demographics
(Level) (School)
(General E) (Specific E)
(Proficiency satisfaction)
(Goal proficiency)

Professional Context

Academic Context

Attitudes
(English importance EIL)
(World Englishes awareness)
(EIL awareness)
(World Englishs attitudes)(Indian
English/es) (Filipino English) (Arab
Englishes) (Saudi E.) (Saudi regionals)
(Egyptian E.) Sudanses E.) (intelligibility)
(familiarity) (intelligibility and proficiency)
(Clear Accent) (any other E. is wrong)
(teaching WEs) (non-native teachers) (NNS
easier)
Native Englishes (Native is difficult) (Native
Standard EIL) (Native E importance) (Native
Teachers) (Collaboration)

Language/s
(The extent to which English is
required) (English uses)
(Available World Englishes)
(Native speaker in workplace)
(Native is not required)
(Arabic vs. English) (Code-
mixing) (Medical Terms)

Language/s
(Available World Englishes)
(NET) (NNET)

Motivations
(English Medicine) (EIL
M.)(Goal speaker)
(Saudi Identity) (ELF
user/learner)

Firgure 5.1 An Initial Thematic Diagram of the Data Obtained from the Two Participating Groups

As can be seen, themes generated separately from the two groups, that is, professionals and students, did not differ in any important way, and this motivated my decision to amalgamate the two groups and present the findings for the two groups together under shared themes in the present chapter. Thus, after several attempts to keep the two sets of data apart, I finally decided to combine the data of the two groups into one single set of

data, and to treat the participants as one group while analysing and presenting the data. Thus, instead of comparing between the two groups, the focus became one of establishing a descriptive study which combines both groups as representatives of medical learning and medical training contexts in SA. When amalgamating the analysed data for this presentational purpose, I distinguished the professionals from the students by using the letters P and S to refer to the interviewees from the two groups, (e.g. P.AMN, S.HAW…), i.e. for professionals and students, respectively.

I therefore ended up presenting a form of analysis below which encompasses both interview and questionnaire findings for each participating group combined and presented under only two sections, for qualitative and quantitative data, respectively.

According to the mixed-methods design of this research, the qualitative interview data is to be considered more important than the quantitative data obtained through the questionnaires. In other words, in the course of this research, the qualitative data procured from interviews led the analysis process, to be further substantiated by the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaires. As the interviews determined the design of the questionnaires, it is logical that it dominates the analysis of data presented below.

Thus, interview findings form a major part of this chapter. Through these interviews, the two participating groups displayed their opinions on broader concepts of the study, relating to their professional and academic contexts. I attempted to synthesise the views of the two groups by presenting the data under themes, and frequently allowing the voices of participants, to be 'heard', from transcripts of actual conducted interviews.

As I mentioned earlier, I initially followed the research objectives and questions to guide

the analysis of what I found. The result was an outline that presented main headings and

subheadings, under which I filled in the main themes, leading to the current presentation

of the data in this chapter. The following table provides an overview of themes for

professionals and students combined, together with an indication of the sections of this

chapter where the themes are treated.

Available and needed language/s and English (5.3.2)
- The situation in hospitals (The extent to which English is required)
- Uses of English (When and why)
- Available World Englishes in the workplace and Academic settings
- Native speaker in the workplace (native speaker relevance) (Native is not required)
- Arabic vs. English (Code mixing) (Medical Terms)

Attitudes (5.3.1) (5.3.3) (5.3.4)
- English importance (as EIL)
- World Englishes awareness
- EIL awareness
- World Englishs attitudes (Indian English/es) (Filipino English) (Arab Englishes) (Saudi E.) (Saudi regionals) (Egyptian E.) Sudanses E.) (intelligibility) (familiarity) (intelligibility and proficiency) (Clear Accent) (any other E. is wrong) (teaching WEs) (non-native teachers) (NNS easier)
- Native Englishes (Native is difficult) (Native Standard EIL) (Native E importance) (Native Teachers)

Motivations (5.3.1)
- English for Medical purposes
- International reasons.
- Goal speaker
- Saudi Identity (ELF user/learner)

Needs (5.3.6) (5.3.5)
- Courses
- Current competencies
- Required competencies
- Goal proficiency
- Suggestions for reform (period) (GE) (ME) (CLIL) (Autonomy and motivation) (pass Exams) (teaching methods) (teaching styles)
- Teachers (L1) (NET) (NNET) (Collaboration) (professionalism)

Figure 5.2 A Map of Themes from Interviews with Professionals and Students Combined, with Correspsonding Section Titles Below in Parentheses

Following the sequence of conducting this study, this chapter will first introduce the

qualitative data obtained from both the professionals and students. The quantitative data

obtained from both groups will be presented in the ensuing chapter. However, before

presenting the data, I will present how participants evaluate their language proficiency

levels through the interviews, and the same will be done for participants in the surveys,

later on. After that, I will present the findings below in the order indicated above. I will

begin with how the interviewees perceive English, and how and why it affects their

professional, academic and social lives. The subsequent sections (areas of using English,

models preferences…) follow a similar format, in which responses are synthesised to

respond to a specific theme.

5.2 Participants' Proficiency Levels

5.2.1 The Participants' Self-assessment Reports
5.2.1.1 Professionals

The interviewees' reported proficiency levels ranged from good to upper- intermediate.

As an interviewee puts it, "big improvement" has been achieved, compared to how her

level used to be, i.e. through attending the university courses and practising the language

at hospitals. Although their proficiency has greatly improved, most of the participants

still aspire to a better proficiency level.

> **P.MHM1:** I'm not satisfied with my level as it should be better than this, a long
> period of studying the language, more than eight years, it's supposed to
> be better than this. My level can be good/C…

> **P.AZZ**: My English level is good, although I'm not satisfied with it and wish to
> have it improved more, I can speak, communicate and interact, even when
> I don't know any word, it's not a difficulty, I try to deliver the message.

> **P.SUA:** Actually I was a good student, a hard-worker, not only in English, but in all
> the subjects. Now, I feel I'm better than before, not that better, but I still
> wish to get better and better in English.

However, it is worth mentioning that when the practitioners rate their language

proficiency levels they seem to be referring to general English proficiency, i.e.

excluding their 'specific' linguistic levels in terms of their field and specialty. Thus, all

of the professionals, who indicated their dissatisfaction with their language proficiency

level, soon elaborated with the opposite opinion in relation to their specific-domain

language.

> **P.MHM1:** As a doctor, it's ok, but in general conversation, maybe not. Only in doing my job, I think I have sufficient ability to practice my job properly.
> **P.AZZ:** Yet, it's perfect in medical, and I have the potential to do my job.

This is supported by a female physician who did her undergraduate study in Syria,

where the medium of instruction was Arabic and no English courses were provided in

medical schools. She asserts that Saudi practitioners have good or high levels in terms of

the scientific language, but not in GE.

> **P.WID:** I think Saudi graduates are very good in the scientific language, just in the scientific language, because they had to learn it through studying medicine, but that studied in the high school, it's very weak. I compare myself to them as I benefited from what I studied in the high school and relied on it in my career. I see myself better than them, although, unlike me, they re-studied English during their undergraduate study. They are very poor as if they didn't study it again.

5.2.1.2 Students

Generally, most of the interviewed students evaluated their levels as intermediate or

lower. The majority of them indicated their dissatisfaction with their current levels, and

expressed their aspiration to develop better proficiency levels. In fact, even the three

interviewees who felt satisfied about their levels expressed this latter ambition.

> **S.HAN:** My level 'isn't good not bad'. But I wish I can go abroad to get a good language.
> **S.KHU:** Intermediate.
> **S.SAW:** Intermediate, it needs to get improved
> **S.GHA:** Lower than the intermediate...
> **S.MAT:** It's better than before, but still bad.
> **S.MAR:** I'm satisfied about my level, but of course I need to get improved more.
> **S.WEA:** Intermediate, but – God willing - it'll get improved, I hope.
> **S.MARY:** Not intermediate, maybe a bit lower.
> **S.WIJ:** Somehow good, but not that much.

5.3 Thematic analysis

5.3.1 Attitudes toward English

English is perceived to be very important by both medical professionals and students due to its recognised position as the "mother tongue of medicine", "the first language in the medical field and science" and because "originally it is the language that is supposed to be used in hospitals," as some professional interviewees put it. Since English is the language of all the medical textbooks and resources, the participants think that English is very important and is required by all the medical professionals, for promoting the process of learning and acquiring medical knowledge from "its original source", which is in English:

> **P.AL**: That said, you need to keep updated, to follow by yourself what is new in the field, in terms of scientific research, 'medical education', recent studies and new diseases, which are all in English references.

According to the following interviewee, this stands as the primary reason of recognising the significance of English language, i.e. the knowledge that is published in English:

> **P.RAD**: this is the only reason in my viewpoint, because there are no contemporary medical references in Arabic

As well as, all the students concurred upon this last opinion:

> **S.MARY**: Very important, because most of the books and references and lectures are in English.

The majority of the interviewed students viewed English as an essential pillar of medicine. They perceived success in medicine as largely dependent on good English knowledge, as their subjects are taught in English, and medicine is universally taught and studied in English:

> **S.MAR**: I feel it is necessary because all our subjects are in English, and taught around the world in this language.

> **S.AIS**: It is very important, no doubt! since basically speaking, the discipline we study is in English.

> **S.WAS**: It'll help me in the subjects of course, because all our study is in English.

> **S.WID**: Because our study is mostly in English, all over the world

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> **S.BUR**: I feel English is the basis of medicine.
>
> **S.TAH**: It's definitely important, no doubt, because the study itself is in English.
>
> **S.NOU**: It's necessary because most of our specialty subjects are in English..
>
> **S.WIJ**: Definitely! It is important because I need it in my study to read about studies and to get information. Because most of the best studies today are in America, Britain and Australia and others. So I need the language in order to learn more about my specialty.

Due to its highly perceived significance to the interviewees, one of the professionals indicated that a doctor must have an advanced level of English proficiency in order to properly understand the medical field. As another interviewee put it, "it tremendously helps in processing and acquiring information quickly." In fact, the professional interviewees assigned one hundred per cent dependency on English in all matters of medical science.

Some of the students expressed their ambitions to continue their higher study abroad, so English was considered imperative to them in such a case. It might be worth noting that 'abroad' is generally and usually used to refer to the inner-circle countries in the context of this study: (See the last quote above as an example.)

> **S.WID**: Secondly, if I want to continue my study, I will not have an opportunity in SA so my study will be abroad.

It seems that medicine being taught in English worldwide plays a key-role in the students' high perceptions of English. As an interviewee put it, studying medicine in Arabic would be problematic with the universal dominating status of English in this field, with a special reference to its importance as a medium of communication:

> **S.ROM**: If I study it in Arabic then I have to practice it in English and it will be difficult. So it's better to study it in English right from the beginning since medicine after all is in English.

Therefore, it seems that even when medicine is studied in the L1 of the country where it

is taught, English is still highly required while practising the medical profession. This is

indicated by a dentist who had gone through the same experience:

> **P.WID**: yes we studied medicine in Arabic in Syria, because it's our language and everyone should study knowledge in his language, but I need English because I don't practice the profession only in Syria. When I practiced it in Yemen I needed it, and when I practiced it in Saudi I also needed it

> **P.JAM**: English is an important and required language in the medical field for several reasons.

Yet, at the same time, studying medicine in Arabic was viewed as possibly facilitating

the students' medical knowledge. According to the following interviewee, English stood

as an obstacle as most of the challenges they came across were related to their linguistic

inabilities, while the subject matter itself could be comprehended and digested:

> **S.TAH**: because we see medicine is very difficult, but if we study it in Arabic it will never be difficult. Yes it depends upon understanding, but 40% of its difficulty is because of the language.

In fact, the crucial role of English in this specialty cannot be denied. For example, the

students viewed learning the language as very necessary for them to deal with the needs

of their majors, both in their study and future career:

> **S.WAS**: I'll practice it at the work and in my study first of all.

They assigned English a high degree of importance for communicating with foreign

colleagues and visiting professionals in the future. That is, English is perceived by the

participants to be the only medium of communication with varied people:

> **P.WID:** Usually with non-Arab doctors, mostly with foreigners.

> **P.AMN:** There are many people in hospitals I have to speak with them in English.

> **P.AL:** …especially in our hospitals, you need to communicate with some foreigners. Sometimes foreign doctors, from example from Canada and like that, so we need it.

> **P.MHM1:** it's mostly with foreigners.

> **P.RAD**: There are many people in hospitals you cannot communicate with them but

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in English.

P.JAM: There are some people you have to use English with them.

P.MEZ: there are some people who cannot speak Arabic so you have to use English.

P.MHM2:   I often use it with foreigners in hospitals. A doctor, in work, uses it for communication with foreigner colleagues and workers

S.TAH: Secondly, after the study, the doctor has no specific Arabic speaking people and place to work at, so I may meet people of other nationalities. It's known that English can help us communicate, so it's necessary. With Arabic, I can't deal with doctors whether in the university or hospital, such as the Indians, Filipinos, or sometimes they invite guests like Americans.

S.WID:… and up to now most of the employed people in hospitals are foreigners and the only language for communication is English

S.AMW: English is necessary, in the first place, because I will communicate with varied people who don't speak Arabic. And English is the most popular language that can be international.

It can be said, the importance assigned to English, especially for communication, apparently evolved from the participants' perception about the status of English as an international language. Thus, while identifying their needs and purposes for learning English, they referred to the status of English as an international language and the language of communication between different people around the world:

P.MHM2:…scientific research, international language, 'universal', the essential language, the most popular and familiar. Most of the references are in English

P.ADN: it's an international language for all people.

P.AL: we have to keep pace with the time and international community, and the countries which are now renowned by their advancement in the health care and medical industry

S.ZAI: I feel English has become everything for the whole world. It's necessary in medicine.

S.KHU: Of course it's important because it's an essential language for the whole world in general. We read medications, communicate with foreign doctors.

In addition to the prominent role it plays in both studying and practising medicine, English is perceived by the participants to equally impact their social lives:

P.AMN: frankly speaking, because English is generally important, regardless of medicine or nursing. All people now speak English, so the individual needs to learn English. The whole society speaks English nowadays, everything is in English; the market and everywhere

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Also, one of them views English as a must in order to follow the first world countries, which are most developed and modernised in relation to medicine:

> **P.AL:** We have to keep pace with the time and international community, and the countries which are now renowned by their advancement in the health care and medical industry

Therefore, it can be argued through either the interviewees' awareness about the status of English as an international language, or the importance they assign the language because of this status, that the participants value English and need it for both their specialty field and general social life:

> **S.MAR:** apart from this, it is a language of global communication, not only for medicine; a required and common language with which most of the countries communicate, not only for medicine, but as a language to use for medicine and other things

> **S.FAU:** for communication with people, most of the people around the world speak it, the most common and widely spread language.

> **S.WAS:** if we travel abroad, we need English in a restaurant, for both sides; scientific and general.

> **S.MAT:** In fact, I need it for both my study and social life, but first of all for my work, and then for my general life after that.

Having drawn a picture of how and why English is perceived to have this high degree of importance to the interviewees, I attempt to present an actual and vivid picture of this language status as reflected by the participants' perceptions about their current or future professional life.

5.3.2 The Nature of English in Workplace: what, when and how English is used by Saudi medical professionals

5.3.2.1 Medical Register

It can be established through the professionals' reports that most of them use English to achieve specific job-related tasks, which means that English is essentially used when needed for specific purposes. The cases when English is commonly used, include daily morning-rounds, daily morning-meetings, while diagnosing cases, prescribing

medications, identifying treatment plans, and other medicine-related areas of their work, as indicated by the professional interviewees:

> **P.AMN**:…for examples, during the rounds. We speak English just in work-related tasks
>
> **P.AZZ**: because not most, but all diseases, procedures, diagnoses, all are in English. Also, the patient files, all the information, medications, the pharmacy, are in English. Just these, diagnosis, files, everything related to medicine.
>
> **P.MH2**:…medications, the treatment plan, every scientific, medical issue is English.
>
> **P.WID**:…anything related to my job only; instruments and tools...
>
> **P.TAL**:…the medical language at work is English, only in medical discussions and knowledge.
>
> **P.RAD**:…everyday in the morning meeting all discussions are in English. Also, the rounds. Otherwise, not much.
>
> **P.MHM1:**…in the rounds, or morning meetings.
>
> **P.KHA:**…usually in the professional scientific field.
>
> **P.HAJ:**   while doing the job
>
> **P.ADN:**…dealing with nurses, electronic devices, medications, writing reports, writing prescriptions, reading... all depend on English.
>
> **P.HUS:**   We need English in dealing with doctors in the medical field. English is used usually at the rounds.
>
> **P.SUA:**…for example if there is a procedure, if the doctor says he wants to do this procedure, he says it in English, even the instruments…I mean anything related to the work, medicine, only.

As is evident, this 'domain-specific' English is dominated by the use of the medical register, namely Medical Terminology/Terms (MT) as will be indicated in **5.3.2.2**, be it Latin or English terms[4]. For example, when reflecting on the significance of English to them, the respondents mention 'diseases', 'tools' and 'instruments' as examples of what they have to say in 'English'.

Through the comments made by some interviewees, that 'English' is to be used even with Arab colleagues, it becomes clear that they mean MT. Some interviewees claimed it would be easier to use English while doing the job, rather than Arabic. This can be

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[4] MT will be used to refer to both Latin and English lexemes/ terms/ words.

supported by the professionals' reports in **5.3.2.2**, which assert that Arabs use Arabic,

not English, for casual conversations:

> **S.WIJ**: I suppose it is easier to use English rather than Arabic between medical
> cadres. It is easier to understand as we studied medicine in English.

> **S.ROM**: More than important, it is very necessary because the medications, medical
> terms, medicine is in English. I need to know medical, to know the
> medications, and substances.

> **S.WID**: With Saudis, communication is mostly in Arabic, it's just some English
> terms.

An interviewee used some terms as examples of the English used at hospitals, which

may well assert the point of MT just mentioned above:

> **S.BUR**:…how can one communicate with?! I feel everything in hospital is in
> English. If someone calls you to a ward, they will say 'obi-gyno', 'ER',
> everything is in English.

English acronyms were also referred to as English to be used by doctors. Another

interviewee referred to the use of acronyms in English as useful, since this cannot be

done in Arabic:

> **S.FAU**: The feature of taking the first letter of certain words to formulate a big term
> is very useful in English, while we cannot do this in Arabic, it sounds not
> good and it is stale.

This feature of 'abbreviations' seems to be a good reason to use English as put by the

following interviewee:

> **S.BUR**: Even with Arabs, they don't use Arabic with each other, if they do it'll take
> much of their time as compared with English. I mean the abbreviations in
> English make it easier.

As shown above, in the opinion of the interviewees, the use of Latin or 'English' terms

in medicine seems to be dominating the medical contexts worldwide, and this appears to

be the main reason for using this English. During the research, I happen to find a

substantial reason for using English by the medical professionals. It is perhaps, due to

the use of MT in the languages of its origin, which are Latin, Greek and English

internationally, its translation into other languages or the professional's L1 is considered

unintelligible. For example, some of the interviewees indicated that these terms were not easily understood when translated into Arabic as shown in the excerpts below:

> **P.KHA**: We, Saudis and foreigners, when we talk about any case we must use English, we can't use Arabic terms, we only can express them in English; when someone uses an English term, he's understood by all of us. Those who were taught using Arabic terms, we cannot understand the terms they are using. Since not all of the staff members are Saudi, it's a positive thing to speak in one language understood by all, and to use all the terms in that language during meetings

> **P.SUA**: if you ask me about the terms of these instruments in Arabic I don't understand what you are talking about

> **P.HUS**: Most of them are not translated into Arabic. Even if you translated the meaning, the doctor wouldn't know it in Arabic

At the same time, most of the participants identified the reason for using this English mostly in diagnoses and rounds as to take the patients' feelings into their account, assuming these patients in most cases would not have knowledge about English or MT. So the use of the medical register helps them to prevent the patients understanding their discussion:

> **P.JAM**: during the daily rounds, you need to use English so the patient doesn't get what the diseases he is suffering from, symptoms or further possible complications are. So, it's necessary to use English preventing the likelihood of the patient getting into a certain psychological disorder as a result of the discussion

> **P.MEZ**: sometimes the patient's case is dangerous, or there is a problem, so we speak in English in order to not let him know...when someone talks about the patient's case he never says the diagnosis in Arabic.

> **P.HUS:** the speech in the rounds is usually related to the subject matter, taking the patient or his accompanies' feelings into consideration, so not to shock them or let them worry.

> **P.FAT:** in front of the patient, we must use English. It is impossible!! to use Arabic in diagnosis, no! English is important because of the necessity for a language between the doctor and the nurse that a patient wouldn't understand.

> **S.NOU:** Yes I'll use it with Saudi doctors as they have to speak English sometimes in order to hide certain information from the patient.
> **S.MAT:** For example if I don't want the patient to know what we're saying.

According to nearly all the practitioner interviewees, the use of this dominating MT doesn't require an advanced English level. In other words, the rich knowledge of MT

can be operated on a basic or simple level of English proficiency with which the jobs can perfectly be achieved. Thus, communication and work-related tasks can be achieved mostly with the knowledge of MT. Also, it is indicated that all of the professionals feel confident about their MT or ML knowledge, thus they can confidently achieve their tasks and efficiently perform in the workplace:

> **P.RAD**: I think any level of English will do and be enough, but not to be very weak; good in that it does the job. A doctor with a good and accepted level of English will do well in the hospital without facing any problem, since what is important the most is the medical information and knowledge. It is not primarily important for a doctor to have a high level in English. The most important thing is to know all the medical terms, with the simple and basic rules of communication.

> **P.MEZ**: it's not a condition for a doctor to have an advanced level in English. But, to be honest, there are doctors whose levels of English are intermediate, but there work is still perfect.

> **P.MHM2:** to have his job perfectly achieved, a doctor doesn't need to be 'super' in English.

> **P.SUA:** the average level of English as we can see now, generally, we can say it's intermediate, and it's ok, it can do the job, we can communicate with each other and that's it.

That is, in the context of this study, a high level of English proficiency may not be required in the medical field. The quoted excerpt of **P.WID** in **5.2.1.1** can further support this finding. This participant's experience showed that she relied on her basic English level to practice the profession, as she did not receive any dedicated instruction about the language during her undergraduate study, and she succeeded in performing in her workplace with such a basic proficiency level, without any communicative challenges. Thus, as indicated in the previous quotes, a doctor can even be excellent and renowned in the medical field with a limited English proficiency level, i.e. GE. Apparently, as far as a practitioner has a broad knowledge about MT, it is unlikely that his/her career may be interrupted, and s/he can properly and successfully achieve his/her professional duties. So, it is clearly indicated that such a domain-specific language alone, is what is chiefly needed in any medical workplace.

P.MHM1: I think the words and topics mostly talked about are usually repeated in the medical field. Scientific discussions about diseases and medications, and mostly they are understood. I mean, it doesn't include slangs or words like 'cosmopolitan', 'conspiracy' or other political words; most of the words are known and familiar terms. So I expect no one will face problems in communication or understanding in the workplace, but outside, no. You may find someone is very good in English at the hospital, but once he is outside, no.

P.WID: If I attend a conference, and there will be a professor, this 'prof' may not write his lecture with a very correct language, he didn't study language, he is not a language teacher, he just writes it with a scientific language.

P.AZZ:… a doctor or nurse must be an expert in the medical terminology in order to succeed.

To put it differently, MT seems to be of a prime importance to the interviewees due to its exclusive and extensive use. The workplace stakeholders tend to mostly code-mix/switch between Arabic, their L1, and these technical terms, rather than using a basic level of English, as indicated by the interviewees. In other words, what the previous interviewee referred to as a basic level of English, with the MT, seems to be sufficient to carry out the practitioners' everyday tasks. The use of Arabic, in fact, seems to play a significant role in here. Not the whole conversation is in English, just some terms, i.e. MT, as they cannot be said but in English:

P.AZZ: its like, patient –in Arabic- 'diagnosis', you know! The medical things in English, the medical terms or medications, but the sentence is in Arabic

P.MEZ: Diagnosis must be in English, but sometimes not all of it, sometimes the speech is in Arabic, just the terms are in English. There might be several Arabic words, but most of it is English.

The respondents explained that, they speak in Arabic and use only the terms mixed with Arabic text. This is because these terms can only be understood in 'English'. So, it can be concluded that English could simply represent MT to these interviewees. It is clearly put by an interviewer that these acronyms and medical terms are mixed with Arabic in hospitals. So, it is the MTs that are used as English, whereas the "the rest of their conversation will be in Arabic."

S.ROM: …he might speak in Arabic, but he stops when he wants to say a medication or disease, which will be in English. There are machines and devices that

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> are long in Arabic and abbreviated in English, so English makes it easy at
> the hospital. If there are many Saudis in the hospitals they will say the
> term in English not Arabic, but...

In fact, most of the interviewees indicated that these terms could not be used in any

language but in its 'English' forms:

> **S.HAN**: No, of course, English terms definitely I'll have to say it is in English, it's
> impossible to say them in Arabic.

At the same time, knowing the term's Arabic is also advocated in terms of

communicating with patients who are mostly and usually Arabs:

> **P.WID:**…patients, rarely.
>
> **P.AMN:** you speak Arabic when dealing with someone who cannot use English
> such as patients…
>
> **S.FAU**: Actually, they always tell us at the college that it's necessary to know the
> term in Arabic in case we meet a patient for example from the rural areas,
> because actually they get annoyed.

5.3.2.2 The Status of English in the Medical Workplaces

The interviewees state in **(5.3.1)** that English is the medium of communication with

foreigners, i.e. non-Arabic speakers. Although English is perceived by the interviewees

to be very important and useful in medical circles, it can also be viewed as limited

primarily to academic and professional purposes [at Saudi medical circles]. According

to some interviewees, using English for communication (i.e. casual conversations)

between Arabs or people of Middle Eastern descent is useless because they are more

comfortable speaking in their L1, and would view speaking in English as showing off.

The interview results indicate that English is used only for medical or professional

purposes at the workplaces of the interviewees. Since the type of English used is

described as MT mixed with Arabic, plain English is not the dominant language of the

discussed workplaces, since it is not the medium of everyday communication. To put it

clearly, apart from such specific professional domains, Arabic, the participants' L1, is

used more often than English—usually for everyday, casual conversations:

> **P.MEZ**:…not all the time we use English, but to a certain extent. We, as Arabs, often don't use English

> **P.KHA**:   we, with each other, speak Arabic, we are proud of our language

> **P.MHM1**: I use English, if we can say to a moderate level, here in the region.

> **P.HUS:** We don't use English all the time.

> **P.HAJ:** Arab doctors, with each other, they don't speak English

> **P.TAL:**…even with Arabs or Saudis, but not all the time, not in casual conversations.

> **P.AMN:** yet not all the time, not in the casual conversations as we usually speak Arabic

> **P.JAM**:   frankly speaking, yes it's used daily at hospitals, but sometimes it's not used at all.

> **P**.**MHM2:**…with Arab colleagues and doctors usually no.

In fact, two interviewees stated that if Arabs use English apart from the defined

purposes, it might be considered bragging. Moreover, even code switching in that case,

with no specific reason, would be considered 'showing off', (see **5.3.3.3.3** and **5.4.4** for

Native English and the Medical Profession.)

> **S.FAU**: even if he is an Arab, if he likes to use English; you know some people like to show off by mixing Arabic and English words.

As perceived by an interviewee, many Arabs usually prefer to stick to their own or first

language, Arabic. This might be interpreted in the light of the previous quote:

> **S.HAW**: I'll use it with Saudis if some of them speak English, but they always prefer that you talk to them in Arabic.

In fact, as highlighted by the interviewees, the increasing numbers of Saudi

professionals who are populating medical workplaces, in addition to the large numbers

of Arab expatriates, tend to reduce the use of English and limit its usage to specific

professional purposes at Saudi hospitals:

> **P.RAD**: emmm, I use English by nearly 60%, I used to use it more with foreign nurses, but now there are more Saudi nurses. I use English just when there is someone who doesn't speak Arabic

> **P.HUS**: because the work environment is full of Saudis sometimes, you don't need English as you would speak Arabic all the time, and that's why our language didn't improve

> **S.WID**: so if one day, if the hospitals become mostly populated by Arabs, or medicine is to be taught in Arabic, English might not be of that importance at hospitals if there are more Saudis.

However, English is still needed when communicating with foreigners who do not speak Arabic, as indicated earlier in **5.3.1**:

> **P.MHM2**: …but not with Arab colleagues, Arabic is more comfortable. English is only with those who don't speak Arabic

> **P.WID**: I speak English with the assistants, if she is a foreigner

Yet, only a very basic proficiency level might be required for such communication:

> **P.AL:** you may need a very simple thing of the language to communicate with foreigners.

The perceived necessity of using English may vary according to the environment at Saudi hospitals in general, and sometimes according to the situation in a particular city or hospital. That is, the extent of using English depends upon the location and whether non-Arabic speakers are present. According to the interviewees, the bigger the hospital, the more chances there are to use English:

> **P.AMN**: The bigger the hospital, the more opportunity to speak English. There are more doctors, operations, emergencies....

> **P.HUS**: Doctors don't speak English all the time, especially here in …. Maybe English is used more in other hospitals

> **P.TAL**: The doctor, in workplace, it differs from a place to another.

> **S.NOU**: It depends upon the place I will work at, if in …..,here just few people speak English, so it'll be Arabic mostly. But if I work in Jeddah there are many English speakers, so I'll be able to speak.

> **S.HAN**: considering the hospitals here, their language is weak. You feel that their language is weak in the general hospital as compared to King Fahad Hospital. The bigger the hospital the better the language will be.

According to another interviewee, the opportunity to speak English is quite limited, not only in her town, but in the country of SA as a whole:

> **S.FAU**: even if I have a good English level, and the nurses are Saudis or…, I won't need English in …itself, I don't need perfect English, but probably if I go abroad.

At the same time, the interviewees notice that non-Arabic speaking foreigners learn Arabic and may use it to communicate with their Arab colleagues. So, the use of English is further minimised:

> **P.AZZ**: even the foreign doctors are now speaking little Arabic, and use their Arabic with nurses even in front of the patient. Here, there are great numbers of Saudi nurses who graduate every year from the colleges in the region, so our hospitals are fully covered by Saudi nurses.

Again, as indicated through the previous quote, the English used by Saudis in the medical field can be viewed as simple. It may be largely dominated by MT, hence it is not comparable to GE, which the participants consider to be 'perfect' spoken English. This may be further clarified through the elaboration made by the following interviewee:

> **S.FAU**: In the specialty itself, in the subjects I mean, it's all certain scientific things; it doesn't require much of the language or understanding.

5.3.3 Preferences of English Models and Varieties

Since investigating the extent to which the participants identify with native models is a major concern of this study, I tried to reach this point by examining their attitudes toward the Englishes that they either have come across or are encountering daily with non-native speakers. I reached this point by asking them if they were facing any challenges regarding their linguistic abilities while dealing with various foreigners. Therefore, this subsection examines more specific points about the participants' preferences of certain English models. It might be worthy to note that, to the interviewees, a specific model or variety of English is simply represented by its accent

or pronunciation. So the terms 'accent', 'variety', and 'model' are used interchangeably in this analysis.

> **P.JAM**:   There are some *Englishes* which are totally different, the Egyptian isn't like Pakistani, not like the Saudi and like that.

> **P.AL**:   Generally, the *languag*e, the *accent* of speaking English, differs among the people we have here, for example when we deal with Indian doctors, their *accent* is different from the Saudi doctors, the *language* of the Saudi doctors themselves differs, the English of Saudis, coming from different regions or cities, their accent, of course differs accordingly.

> **P.WID:**   *Accents* differ a lot among the speakers, in certain letters, in pronouncing them, in the voice also, everyone speaks English in tune with the accent of his/her country.

> **P.RAD**:   For example, if someone speaks to me over the phone, accent differs; I can identify the speaker from the way he speaks, whether he is Saudi, Egyptian, Indian or Pakistani.

> **P.MHM2**:   the accent is of course different, you can, for example, easily identify an Indian among a thousand of speakers'.

> **P.TAL**:   I feel some *languages* differs from each other, Egyptian, Sudanese

While discussing those specific non-native Englishes, the interviewees made references to other models. For example, the participants' local models were mentioned as the participants made use of them in the comparison with the other Englishes being discussed. As a result, an overall representation of the participants' attitudes towards non-native vs. native Englishes can be drawn.

In the following analysis, I loosely use the term 'native' to refer to the two English accents that interviewees have classified as the most common: BrE and AmE. However, this does not exclude other accents, such as Australian, South African, or New Zealand Englishes, to mention just a few.

The term 'non-native' refers to the English varieties of the largest foreign populations accommodated in the context of this study, generally Asian and some Arab people

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groups. Also, Saudi English naturally features significantly among the non-native

models, given the context of the study.

 Before presenting my analysis of participants' attitudes toward non-native Englishes, I

shall evaluate the claim that participants seldom meet NSs in the context of the study.

> **P.WID:**   in hospitals there are no many British.
>
> **P.AMN:**   No, in fact I don't come across neither Americans nor British in the hospitals.
>
> **P.AL:**   Some doctors speak only English. When I worked in Riyadh the department \ head was American, and there was one form South Africa. Usually we don't need the language this much to communicate with such people.
>
> **P.TAL:** According to the situation in the region, there are no people from Europe. In … I don't think you might meet an American or British, maybe in other cities.
>
> **P.FAT:** Currently, there are not people from America or Britain in hospitals.
>
> **P.MHM2:** Neither Americans not British, but…
>
> **P.RAD:**   Very few natives maybe in the city, but there was an American visitor sometime.

5.3.3.1 Attitudes towards Non-native Englishes

The interviewees' attitudes towards different English models have been established

through their experiences in dealing with non-native speakers in workplaces or

educational settings. The interviewees identify the speakers they encounter or need to

communicate with as mainly Indians[5], Bengalis, Pakistanis, and Filipinos. In most cases,

the interviewees named these groups of speakers when they were asked whether there

were any challenges that might hinder their communication or learning:

> **P.JAM:**   there are many whom you have to speak in English with such as India and Pakistan, these are the most populations and nationalities you come across, just those
>
> **P.MHM2:** most of the foreigners in Saudi are from East Asia and India.
>
> **P.SAU:**   mostly from the Philippines, and also India.
>
> **P.MEZ:** most of the foreigners here are from the Philippines.

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[5] The reference to Indian English or people does not exclude Pakistani or Bengali Englishes.

Although English is not a common medium of communication between Saudis or other Arabs, interviewees refer to the accents of these speakers as being 'different'. According to the interview participants, the common feature of all non-native Englishes is the quality of being 'different', i.e. non-native speakers have a different manner of speaking English. (Refer to **5.3.3**)

It becomes obvious from the quoted excerpts below that by 'different', the interviewees mean that these non-native Englishes are different from native English models. Therefore, it follows that one English accent differs from another, because these varieties are represented the by local or regional accents of their speakers.

> **P.TAL**: The Indian language is somehow *different*.
>
> **P.AMN:** The speaking of Indians is *different*…
>
> **P.MHM2**: ..their accents are *different*, and *differ*..
>
> **P.MHM1:** emmm!…it could be…but it's *different*. Indians are very good in English, but their 'accent' is very *different*

It might be worthy to note that the interviewees' attitudes towards non-native Englishes have been developed through encountering representatives of each English variety, either through teachers during university levels or workplace colleagues, or both. Additionally, the wider society of the participants' context includes large populations of different nationalities, predominantly the non-native Englishes and people groups associated with the interviewees' own nationalities and backgrounds.

5.3.3.1.1 Indian, Filipino, Saudi, Egyptian, and Sudanese Englishes

5.3.3.1.1.1 Indian English

Many interviewees perceived the Indian accent to be the most distinguishable among other accents, i.e. the most heavily accented English, which makes the sounds and words

'different', and hence difficult to understand. The participants labelled the Indian accent

as the most unintelligible, compared to other accents:

> **P.JAM:** but some of the Indians I met in the hospital, you would never understand anything from him. Some Indians, sometimes, you listen or understand nothing from them, unlike Egyptians or Syrians for example, you can understand them, but the most difficult is Indians, their speaking or accent!!
>
> **P.AZZ**: For me, I have never met an accent that is more difficult than the Indians.
>
> **P.MEZ:** For example, the way the Indians speak, their way is very difficult… their English is exactly like the Indian language.
>
> **P.SUA:** you know the Indian language and how it sounds when English is mingled with it.
>
> **P.AMN:** the Indian accent interferes with their speaking so it becomes not Understandable.
>
> **P.JAM**: sometimes, the difficulty is in the way the Indian pronounces words, and that's it.
>
> **P.TAL**: the way some letters are pronounced is different.

The interviewees claimed that these 'different' pronunciations of Indian English were

confusing, interrupting their understanding of the language. Also, they considered these

accented pronunciations 'wrong', describing the Indian English as 'a bit broken',

'weird', and certain letters as 'swallowed'. These responses seem to indicate that the

majority of the participants did not favour Indian English pronunciations:

> **P.AMN:**…if he is an Indian, their speaking is not understandable
>
> **P.TAL:** Some accents are somehow difficult, such as the Indian; it's somehow difficult.
>
> **P.SUA:** There were also Indians...oh!! the Indian teacher was a totally different thing
>
> **S.WID**: India! And who teach me are Indians? No no no!!
> **IR**: Why?
> **S.WID**: I feel their pronunciation for some letters, they are difficult for them to pronounce. I don't know, their pronunciation is different, it needs a translator. For example, the letter 'g', I don't know how they pronounce it, as mixed with 'z'. They alter most of the letters.
>
> **S.TAH**: Indians have some wrong letters, they pronounce them wrong. For example, the 'v' and 'w'. If someone knows what an Indian mean by that will understand, otherwise not.
>
> **S.ZAI**: their accent is different than those who speak English. In their speaking, there's an Indian accent with English. There's a difficulty, for example now

in the college there's a big difficulty in understanding them, we can barely understand.

S.SAW: The difficulty was in their accent if it's Indian. You feel they put English into their own accent, so you feel there's a difficulty understanding them.

IR: Are there any challenges?
S.KHU: In the class, sometimes, we can never understand her, there must be someone to translate into Arabic to understand.

IR: Is there any difficulty?
S.MAT: Of course! Because their English is different. Last year, the teacher was saying 'vhat', after a long while later, I knew it's 'what', when she wrote it. Even the rest of the teachers' speaking is also difficult.

S.HAN: Because essentially their accent is difficult.

S.FAU: If the Indian just pronounces English right, to take English not as an Indian English, I might benefit a lot.

S.WAS: I feel her language is weird. The way she pronounces English is Indian.

However, some interviewees indicated that this unintelligibility was not typical of all Indian speakers, and some had met Indians whose speaking was 'good' and 'clear'. That is, the matter of intelligibility 'depends' upon individuals' speaking styles. Hence, there is not necessarily a general judgment about the English-speaking abilities of Indian teachers:

S.HAN: there're some Indians whose accent is good and you can understand with them, but the majority have an accent that's absolutely rejected.

S.ROM: The English of some of them isn't English, but some others master the language.

S.SAW: Here, the speaking of some Indians is good and understandable, but others' are not, like most of what we have here.

Some interviewees, regardless of their preference (or lack thereof) for the Indian accent, indicate they can understand Indians speaking English. It should be indicated that some of these interviewees revealed negative attitudes towards the Indian accent, although they acknowledge that they understand it. As far as familiarity is concerned, some indicated that their understanding was due to their regular exposure to the Indian accent,

whereas others admitted that the Indian accent was not difficult since the first occasion they had heard it, (refer to **5.3.4.1**, for WEs and Familiarity.)

> **P.MHM1**: The first time I heard the Indian English was in the college, I think, but from the first time I could understand it, I don't think there was a difficulty understanding it.

> **P.KHA**: From the first time I met Indians I haven't found it difficult.

In fact, there might be some other reasons for underestimating the Indian accent, other than the issue of intelligibility, which is apparently linked to the native models. As the following interviewee put it, the Indian accent can be understood, yet it is still not favourable. The likelihood of acquiring this unfavourable accent through Indian teachers can be another reason for adopting a negative attitude towards Indian English:

> **S.WAS**: It's not that we cannot understand with them. Of course we understand or we wouldn't have passed the course. But their way of speaking, the accent is annoying, but not harmful. But what if I go to the hospital in the future speaking like her?

> **S.AMW**: I don't prefer the Indian accent. I'm afraid there'll be a difficulty understanding them, besides getting influenced/affected by their accent.
> **IR**: Even if you get used of it?
> **S.AMW**: Of course not, my speaking will be like them.

> **S.FAU**:… at the end, I don't want to speak Indian English like him, I want to speak as how English originally is.

On the other hand, although the following interviewee viewed Indian English pronunciations as wrong, this student accepted the accent because she had other concerns about learning the language outside of the 'correct pronunciation':

> **S.WIJ**: It's ok to have Indians here and there later in hospitals; the spoken message is the same at the end. They'll teach me the language, and I won't get affected by their pronunciation, I'll search for the correct pronunciation myself. If I discover it's wrong, I'll stick to the correct one.

5.3.3.1.1.2 The Filipino English

When compared to Indian accents, Filipino accents seem to be far more intelligible to most of the interview participants. Thus, the Filipino accent can be considered as more favourable than the Indian from the interviewees' point of view.

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> **P.AMN**: The speaking of Indians is different from the Filipinos', you can't understand their speaking. I mean the correct English is that of the Filipinos. It's more correct than the Indian, they speak better.
>
> **S.AIS:** Filipino teacher taught us. Indeed, their pronunciation is very amazing. The Indian sometimes she says a word that the whole class cannot understand, we try to find it in the dictionary and discover that the spelling is wrong. But the Filipino is clear.
>
> **S.WAS**: …unlike Filipinos, I heard there are some here in the college who speak English much better than Indians…Indians, there's a difficulty. The Filipinos' accent is much better.
> **IR**: Why it's better?
> **S.WAS**: t's clear. Yes it's clear. Unlike the Indian; you feel their pronunciation for the letters is different.
>
> **S.MARM**: Maybe because Filipinos are better than Indians in their accent; it's clearer than Indians.

The following interviewee expressed her admiration of a Saudi nurse whom she met when she was an intern. She justified her positive attitude towards the nurse's speaking style because it was similar to that of the Filipinos:

> **P.HAJ:** The nurse I met, I wish to speak like her. she speaks like Filipinos, you know how they speak, very fast and their speaking is understandable so you don't find it difficult to deal with them.

Yet, to a certain extent, interview participants also viewed Filipino English as flawed, since it is still somehow different from the native models. However, this perception of the Filipino accent reflects a lesser degree of rejection when compared with the interviewees' opinions about Indian accents:

> **S.MARY**: Filipinos may have things in their pronunciation like what we do. There might be imperfection that leads to misunderstanding or error in communication.
>
> **S.SAW**: The Filipino's speaking can be understood; but bit by bit.

Two of the interviewees expressed the opinion that the Filipinos' speaking style is 'wrong', since they pronounce most of the words incorrectly according to native models. One of them (**P.MEZ**) gave an example of the 'wrong' words she heard from Filipinos, such the word 'vacation', which they pronounce /vakason/. Thus, she concluded, "if you learn something, it will be wrong, because you learn it from the Filipinos." Similarly,

the other interviewee used Filipino English as an example for different Englishes as spoken by different people groups. Like the first interviewee, she gave the Filipino pronunciation for the number fifty-five as an example of their 'wrong' pronunciation:

> **P.WID**:　Filipino, for example, /pipty-pipe/, meaning 'fifty-five', like that..hhhh

However, the following interviewee thinks that the Filipino accent sounds like her own pronunciation, and therefore finds it easy to understand:

> **S.MARY**:　Filipinos may be nearer to the way with which I pronounce so I understand them more.

It can be concluded from the previous quote that some participants prefer the Saudi pronunciation, since it is easier to understand. Therefore, the similarity of other English accents to the Saudi accent becomes an important factor in determining to what extent the participants accept non-native models. In the following subsection, I attempt to present the interviewees' opinions and definitions of this Saudi pronunciation.

5.3.3.1.1.3 Saudi and Arab Englishes

Most of the interviewees acknowledge that the individuals' national accents are recognised when attempting to speak English. They pointed out that 'their' accents could be noticed while speaking English. The reference to this accent was brought to the discussion through participants' reflections on their own 'Saudi' English.

They perceive the way they speak as being specific to Saudis, since they can easily be identified as Saudis with their ways of speaking English:

> **P.MHM2:** Saudis speak in their own way.
>
> **P.AZZ:**　The way I speak English is similar to that of Saudis
>
> **P.FAT**:　I used to mimic, but now I speak with my accent, when you first here me you know and feel I'm Saudi'
>
> **P.AMN:**　When I speak of course you would know I'm Saudi, it's obvious
>
> **P.JAM**:　It doesn't sound like any specific accent or certain nation's accent, maybe we can call it an Arabic English, or Saudi English.
>
> **P.AL:**　I speak like the 'language' of Saudis, yes I did a summer course in Britain

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but I don't have that command, maybe it's closer to the British, but when you hear me, I'm Saudi.

P.RAD: I speak the way Saudis speak, if you have watched that video of the guy who mimics English accents including the Saudis'. Although I watch American movies since I was in the high school, and I spend a year and a half in America, it may be leaning to the American accent just a little bit, but it's still so obvious that it's a Saudi accent.

Likewise, the following interviewee asserted that even though she has a noticeable accent, she viewed it as a 'normal' phenomenon:

S.ZAI: I feel everyone speaks with his accent, like ourselves, if we speak English our accent is identified. The teacher at high school kept asking us to speak real English, not with our accent.
IR: Do you think it's a problem?
S.ZAI: No, it's very normal.

Like the Indian accent, this Saudi way of speaking English was also described as 'broken' by the following interviewees:

P.MHM1:… it's broken, like ours.

P.AL: The Saudis' language is broken, the accent interferes with the language.
P.MHM2: if we are to be honest, our speaking is broken, all of us.

Also, another two interviewees perceived it as wrong. They regret speaking with their accent, and complain about their failure of speaking like natives:

P.FAT: We try to imitate the correct English, but our Arabic and … accent is always obvious.
P.HAJ: I'm trying to be better by speaking like them.

Therefore, participants' comparatively negative perceptions of the Indian and Filipino accents are not exclusive to these two varieties. Rather, interviewees typically display negative feelings toward their own local and regional accents as well, mainly for the same reasons: that they are broken, imperfect, or do not conform to native models. Asserting this point, the following interviewee considered speaking with certain local accents a wrong usage of the English language. She indicated that, "it's too far from English", hence it cannot be understood.

P.AMN: if you speak English with your … accent, for example, or your teacher speaks in this accent, would you understand her?! Of course not. You feel it's too far from English, totally different and not understandable.

She also reported an unsuccessful experience of learning with a teacher who spoke with a local accent:

> **P.AMN:** if a teacher teaches you in her accent, everything is wrong then

According to another interviewee, being identified by a particular 'different' accent that marks the speaker's background is a rejected form of English usage. Aside from the local accents referred to in the previous quote, the following interviewee gave further examples of two other regional accents spoken by people in rural areas:

> **P.FAT**: for example, when people from ... speak English you feel their accent is obvious in English, or people from … you can easily identify them when they speak English, you can know where these people are from even when speaking English, it's so different.

In other words, some participants view Saudi or Arabic accents, terms that are used interchangeably, as unfavourable. They seem to adopt this standpoint due to the same reasons of viewing the native models as a standard and an indication of a good proficiency level. For example, the Arabic accent referred to in the following quote is described as being dissimilar to the English of native speakers:

> **S.TAH**: The Arab speaker when speaking English in his own way becomes boring; you feel he's not speaking English. So, it is good if someone can attain this.

> **P.AZZ:** it sounds like Arabic, not English. You have to fully produce every sound/letter, every letter should take its right in the pronunciation, for example the /l/ or /r/

> **P.RAD**: For example, Saudis usually pronounce/produce all the letters in a very obvious and clear way, unlike Britons or Americans in their way of eating letters, or changing some like the /t/ to /d/ in the case of Americans

> **S.ROM**: The English of Saudi is different, Saudi English, the pronunciation is very different. (laughter)

> **S.GHA**: There are English letters that cannot be said in Arabic. For example, the letter R; they pronounce it as the Arabic 'Ra'a', but it is wrong as it is different than English.

A 'different' accent, Saudi or Arabic in this case, leads to a negative perception about the speaker's language proficiency level, as indicated by the following interviewee:

> **IR:**   How do Saudis speak?
> **S.MAR**: In most cases, you know if the speaker is Arab or not; rarely, if the speaker has experience and knowledge about the language.

Yet, when Saudis speak like NSs, listeners perceive the accent positively, as indicated by the following interviewees:

> **S.MAT**: But I met some Saudis, I was wondering whether they were Saudis or not; their accent is like that of the foreigners; you cannot distinguish them from the natives.

> **S.GHA**: When Saudis live abroad for a long time, they come with a very good English that sounds like the native to a great extent. You rarely can find someone who speaks like them without living abroad; it'd be a miracle.

In the same line of thought, a learning experience with a British Sudanese teacher may have shaped some interviewees' positive attitudes towards the Sudanese accent. For example, this experience might have led an interviewee to generalise his judgment about the Sudanese accent to be the 'nearest' to native English. In other words, it is clear that the interviewees' positive attitudes towards Sudanese English has been shaped through their British Sudanese teacher: (Refer to **5.3.3.2** below.)

> **P.JAM**: I see Sudaneses are always the nearest to English

Again, these negative or positive attitudes cannot be stereotyped to include all Indians, Egyptians, or Saudis. As seen above, the Filipino accent was both favoured and not favoured at the same time by different participants. Additionally, the Egyptian accent, which some interviewees classified as more intelligible than the Indian accent, was described in a completely opposite way by the following interviewees:

> **P.WID**: the Egyptian, for example, it's difficult to follow his speech, his accent is so different, so interrupting and hindering..

> **P.MHM1**: the Egyptian, oh!! don't let me talk about it.

Similarly, some participants prefer the Saudi accent, claiming that it is clear and understandable. Again, other participants mentioned Indian English here—a variety of English that often serves as a comparison to other forms in the context of this study—as being the most unintelligible:

> **S.WAS:** Saudis, I do prefer them over the Indians. Their speaking is clear.

> **P.AZZ**: The most important thing that it's clear, I don't think anyone from any other environment wouldn't understand us.

Also other varieties of English spoken by Arabs can be understood and are favoured by some interviewees:

> **S.AIS:** I suggest that our teacher should be an Arab so we can understand the pronunciation. The Indians have a peculiarity in their speech, unlike the Arabs, their speech is clear.

> **S.ZAI**: Also, I feel I can understand Egyptians, Saudis, but Indians, never!

Generally, the interview results reveal that the participants understand and prefer Arab Englishes to a certain extent, at least in comparison to some other non-native English varieties:

> **P.JAM:** Some Indians, sometimes, you listen or understand nothing from them, unlike Egyptians or Syrians for example…

It can be concluded from the previous discussion that the broader the accent, the greater the probability that it will be perceived negatively, and vice versa. Therefore a variety of spoken English can be accepted or rejected according to the broadness of the speaker's local or regional accent. In a similar vein, the 'clearer' the English, that is, the less accented the spoken English is, the greater the likelihood that the interviewees will prefer it.

As this 'clear' accent referred to by the interviewees remains unidentified, the following subsection attempts to define the term through analysing certain responses expressed by the interviewees.

5.3.3.2 The 'Clear' Accent

The interviewees claim that conversing with individuals who speak with a national, local, or regional accent leads to poor clarity of communication or simply

miscommunication. The interviewees' reports indicate that the clarity of an accent is directly related to its conformity to a native model, namely BrE or AmE:

> **S.KHU**: When everyone speaks you know which nationality they are, but it is imperative to sound like the American or British.

Therefore, the interviewees favour speakers who speak (or attempt to speak) with a native accent. The nationalities that were mentioned by the interviewees as examples of people who could speak with a 'clear accent' included Filipino, Sudanese, and Saudi speakers. Again, all are favoured because they are 'clearer', i.e. nearer to native accents than other English varities. Also, some participants re-asserted the association between language proficiency and native accents in the following excerpts:

> **P.AMN:** For example, Filipinos, I wish I can speak like them, you feel they speak like British, because it's so *clear*. The Filipino teachers are 'top' in English. If you hear the Filipinos speak, you think they are British, they speak so fluently.
>
> **P.TAL**: Sudanese's language is clear, the Saudi's language is also clear. I think Sudaneses are good in English, they speak like the British.
>
> **P.ADN**: The Sudanese teacher was generally good, I mean he is near our accent in Saudi or that in Britain. I think most Saudis, when they speak, their accent sounds like that of the Americans or Europeans.
>
> **IR**:   When can I say the Indians' speaking is clear?
> **S.WAS:** When the letters are clear English, not changing.
>
> **IR:**   Why?
> **S.ROM**: The Filipinos' pronunciation is like the foreigners; like the Americans and British.

In a similar manner, one interviewee described the English pronunciation of a Saudi doctor as 'amazing', because she thought it sounded like a Canadian accent.

> **S.GHA:** A Saudi doctor taught us. He studied in Canada. His pronunciation is amazing; when he says 'heart' it's so wonderful.

Once more, the clearest accent is the one that sounds closest to a native speaker's accent, as indicated in the following quote:

> **P.TAL**: The best teacher was Mr. …, he was a British Sudanese, his language was so 'clear', the clearest language among the teachers.

It can be concluded that, wherever a speaker comes from, his or her accent can be favoured as long as the condition of a native accent is applied and achieved. Consequently, any speaker can also be rejected for the same reason. This can be established through the following excerpt, in which Indians, whom the interviewees considered the most unintelligible speakers, can be more easily understood if they come from British or American backgrounds:

> **P.JAM**: …there are Indians and Pakistanis who were born and raised in the UK or US so their accents are supposedly clear and good, those can be employed, but actually all who we have met, their English is weak.

Another interviewee clearly confirmed that point when she described the English spoken by her relative's children, who acquired their accents in India. She seemed to strongly favour the English spoken by these children, describing it as 'correct', 'clear', and 'understandable', like that of British people:

> **IR:**   How is the speaking of these children?
> **S.NOU**: It's English English, perfect and I feel it's correct like the British, clear and understandable, with no Hindi.

These interview results reveal a correlation between a positive attitude towards an accent and English nativeness. For the interview participants, nativeness stands as a significant criterion in accepting any non-native speaker as proficient in English. Due to the prominent role that native models play in shaping attitudes, it is imperative to analyse the participants' beliefs about these models. The extent of the respondents' preference for native models may help in examining whether these participants are influenced by globalisation, and the scope of this influence, if valid.

5.3.3.3 Attitudes Towards Native Models

The belief that native models are the standard according to which all other Englishes are evaluated, and that its speakers are legal owners of the language, seem to play a

significant role in the interviewees' attitudes and preferences. There appears to be a consensus among the interviewees that English native models, AmE and BrE in particular, should be followed by whomever wants to learn or use the language. They perceive the NSs and their countries to be the 'origin' and 'basis' of English, hence the resources of the 'correct' language in general, and pronunciation in particular:

> **P.ADN**: American and British Englishes are supposed to be the dominant Englishes because they are the *basis* of the language.

> **P.SAU:** Look, I think everyone who wants to speak English speaks like this, the English Language is supposed to be like this, the British and American pronunciation I mean.

The interviewees offered their perceptions of NSs as legal owners of the language, which involves English being 'their mother tongue' since their countries of origin are the source of the English language, as reasons for their strong preference for native models:

> **S.AIS**:…but of course I prefer those who have it as a mother tongue because it's *their* language

> **S.AIS**: because I prefer the place where I learn English to be of those who have the language as their *original* language.

> **S.GHA:** from the *origin* countries, from Britain, America.

> **S.WEA:** those who are the origin of the language, Britain, American.

> **S.MAR:** I prefer those whose *mother tongue* is English, I like it.

> **S.MAR:** English should be taken from its origin country.

> **S.KHU**: it is supposed that all people speak like native speakers; I mean whoever wants to learn

In contrast to the interviewees' references to non-native varieites as 'different', native models—with all the 'differences' of their pronunciations—were accepted and favoured, as indicated by the following interviewee:

> **S.AIS:** I visited many countries abroad and noticed pronunciation differences everywhere, but I loved them very much. The British is good, the New Zealander also, but the Indian is too different.

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In perceiving native models as the 'basis' that should be followed, some of the interviewees, consequently, aspired to speaking in a British accent:

> **P.MEZ:** I eagerly wish they hire people from Britain and like that. It's my wish and dream actually to speak fluently like British people.

> **P.JAM:** I always wish to be speaking like the British accent; it's the '*origin*' of English. In addition, when someone hears it, he feels it has 'weight' and 'heaviness.'

Once again, some participants perceived a native accent as an indication of a good or perfect proficiency level of the English language. Therefore, they aspired to speak in a native accent, instead of speaking with their national or regional accents:

> **S.HAN:** I wish I speak like someone who lives abroad, like the British. I wish my accent to be like the British, a good language.

> **IR:** From your viewpoint, is it important that someone's speaking be like the American or the British accent? or just to be clear?
> **S.TAH**: No, not to be just clear. I think it is better and important to be like them to a certain extent or the same style

> **S.MAR:** I want to speak English like the original English language of the nations who have it as a mother-tongue.

> **S.KHU:** Like the foreigners, the American, it's impossible though.

> **S.KHU:** I want it to be like them; the Americans; with no indication of a Saudi or any specific language.

> **S.MAT**: When I speak, I don't want it to be known that I am Saudi or Arab, I want my pronunciation to be like theirs.

By attempting to speak in a native accent, the participants think they are following the 'correct' pronunciation. As one interviewee put it, they "try to imitate the correct English."

In fact, the perception of BrE in particular as SE might have contributed to establishing the participants' perspectives. That is, in perceiving BrE as SE, almost all of the interviewees tended to emphasise this English model over all other Englishes, both native and non-native:

> **IR**:   What do you think is the most important accent for a medical student?
> **S.AIS**: My view it is the British, this is my perception
> **IR**:   Is it preferred or necessary?
> **S.AIS:** No, it is very necessary. I feel it is the standard as we have a standard and colloquial; the American is colloquial, the New Zealandian sounds like the British..

It becomes evident that interviewees consider native English models to be 'perfect', unlike the accents of other speakers who might be influenced by their own first languages:

> **S.NOU:** ..from the origin, Britain or America, that'll be so good. They'll give us perfect English. You know other teachers may lean on or drift to their own languages.

On the other hand, some interviewees viewed mimicking native speakers as extravagant behaviour. That is, those who try to mimic NSs want to brag that they are proficient speakers or try to reflect a modern, westernised personality to impress others, only to gain more acceptance and favourability. So again, a native model or accent is a reflection of a high proficiency level:

> **P.RAD:** ..some try to show that he has mastery of English 100% that he can even speak with the accent of America or Britain.

> **P.MHM1:** There was one of the good students, he wanted to 'philosophise' more, over-exaggerated, tried to speak like movies and so, was trying to seem like an American...'cool'.

> **P.TAL**: For me, I don't care or want to sound like natives, but some consider it as good, impressing, like that...maybe they think they would be more accepted by the listener.

Furthermore, one of the students, although she described correct English pronunciation as resembling that of NSs, she viewed imitating NSs in a very exact manner as a type of exaggeration and bragging:

> **S.FAU:** Sometimes, when someone exaggerates in his speaking, and speaks very quickly, with different /r/ and I don't know how, he becomes very 'over'.

Again, although she hinted that 'good pronunciation' was linked with native models, she thought that an exact emulation of them would be boastful behaviour:

> **IR:** Do you wish to be heard as a native speaker?
>
> **S.FAU:** Of course it's important to be distinguished among other speakers as someone whose pronunciation is good. But not as a native speaker and the over-exaggerated speaking, it's not necessary; but an English of someone who is not a native or is living with them, but to learn the language properly, not like those who exaggerate.

Since they suggested that all speakers follow these native accents, the interviewees' claims and opinions might need to be further interpreted by examining the extent to which native models are intelligible to them. In fact, their previous opinions and responses triggered my thoughts about the intelligibility of such accents so I kept this point in my mind while interviewing them. Consequently, I asked the participants whether the native accents were clear or not, and if yes, to what extent. (Refer to **5.3.6.6.1** for opinions about native and non-native teachers.)

5.3.3.3.1 Native Englishes and Issues of Intelligibility and Comprehensibility

Since the participants appear to prefer accents that are clear and intelligible, the accents that they identify as sounding like native English models, it seems plausible to investigate to what extent they are able to understand these native accents. It is interesting to note that most of the interviewees find native accents difficult to understand:

> **P.FAT**: Well, I think we must understand their accent, it's the 'base' and it's still difficult and we don't understand it
>
> **P.AMN**: I understand only some of the speaking of the American or British people, not all of it.
>
> **P.TAL**: The 'British' or American, we can say they can be somehow understood, not 100%, it requires a bit...

Some participants, who indicated that the British and American accents were unintelligible, referred once again to the same criterion of accepting any type of spoken English: clarity. They claimed that these native models were not 'clear':

> **S.BUR**: It depends, the British isn't clear though.

> **S.GHA**: It depends upon the British or American, he should clarify his speaking because not all people can understand him.

However, another interviewee claimed that she could understand NSs more easily than NNSs:

> **P.MEZ:** American and British people are the speakers whom I can understand the most, more than I do with Indians or Filipinos'.

At the same time, even though she thought that the British accent was difficult to understand, she still classified it as the 'best' accent, apparently in reference to its status as SE with correct pronunciation. She said, "it is a bit difficult, but the best accent." She also expressed her desire to learn from British teachers:

> **P.MEZ:** I like the British accent, if only!! I wish all teachers speak like them and we learn from them and through them

With her strong preference for the British accents and her wish to be taught by British teachers, it might be said that this participant's strong positive attitude towards British English drove her to claim that the British accent was intelligible, although she personally found it difficult to understand.

In fact, the interviewees who strongly favoured BrE claimed that it was clear, intelligible, and hence able to be understood. In other words, apparently for the same criterion of 'standardness' mentioned earlier, some participants evaluated BrE as the easiest to understand and most intelligible when compared to other English varieties:

> **IR:** Which is the most understood; the Arab, Saudi, or British, American?
> **S.AIS:** No of course I understand the British, because there are some Saudis who pronounce the accent I don't know how.
>
> **S.WAS:** British accent is clear and easy to understand. If the teachers are British that'd be much better.
>
> **IR:** To you, is the British understood?
> **S.HAN:** Yes of course!

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In line with the notion of 'standardness', interviewees generally claimed that native

English models were internationally intelligible, i.e. able to be understood by English

speakers around the world, unlike other non-native models, such as Indian English:

> **S.HAW**: First and foremost, why am I learning English? isn't it for speaking with foreigners or not.
> **IR**: But foreigners are from all over the world.
> **S.HAW**: That's right, but if I speak with an Indian like how natives do, they will understand me. It's not for speaking with only specific people. The native is understood by all people.

When comparing the most frequently mentioned native models, the majority of the

interviewees claimed that British English was more intelligible than American English.

According to them, the American manner of speaking is always abbreviated and

reduced:

> **S.ZAI**: I am for Britons because American, their pronunciation is abbreviated, so sometimes we don't understand, but the British is real pronunciation!

> **S.MAT**: Britons are better
> **IR**: Why do you think that?
> **S.MAT**: Because they don't swallow letters like how the Americans do.

Yet again, the interview results reveal that understanding NSs remains problematic for

most of the interviewees. Some of them indicated that they could not follow such

speakers' 'high fluency', and they could only understand if s/he spoke slowly. That is,

the speaking style of NSs is unintelligible and incomprehensible to most of the

respondents:

> **P.MHM2**: with a native speaker, maybe because he is too 'fluent', they have a high level of 'fluency' and that's why; he could hardly be followed

> **P.HUS**: you feel there is a speed in the British or American's speaking. Therefore, you cannot digest what they are saying, and you miss some sentences. Maybe if they speak a bit slowly we will understand.

Instead, these interviewees found NNSs to be easier to understand and communicate

with than NSs:

> **P.MHM2**: I find dealing with foreigners is easy, Indians, Filipinos, Saudis. In fact, I understand any foreigner when speaking English more than an American or British.

> **P.HUS:** Well, according to our work, we find dealing with Filipinos and Indians as easier.

5.3.3.3.2 The Correlation between Proficiency and Intelligibility or Comprehensibility Levels

In the light of the collected data, it can be argued that there is something like an adverse relationship between a listener's English proficiency level and an accent's comprehensibility. In other words, a non-native accent may not be problematic for listeners who have high English proficiency levels:

> **S.GHA:** Who has knowledge about English will be able to communicate in English with Indians.

Some students attributed their difficulty in understanding certain speakers to their low English proficiency levels. Although the following interviewee indicated that comprehensibility depends upon 'accent', i.e. intelligible accent, she explained that if she had a good proficiency level, then accent intelligibility would not be an issue, and similarly any English accent would be comprehensible:

> **S.ZAI:** Understanding depends upon the accent. But if I have a good command of English it won't be a problem. If someone has knowledge about English he'd understand any accent.

Through the following excerpts, it becomes clear that a high English proficiency level plays a key role in understanding both native and non-native accents. For example, the Indian and Filipino accents, which interviewees thought difficult to understand, are understandable to the following interviewee only due to her good proficiency level:

> **IR:** Did you encounter any challenges in communicating with Indians and Filipinos?
> **S.TAH:** No, I was good in English, I tried to improve my language before joining the college, so everything was clear and understandable to me.

In fact, I made a connection between the interviewees' higher levels of confidence about their own proficiency and their ability to understand Indian English. This relationship is

evident in the following interviewee's response. This interviewee blamed himself for not

understanding his Indian supervisor, rather than attributing his inability to understand to

the Indian accent:

> **P.HUS**: I do remember our Indian supervisor, we were able to understand sometimes, but because my knowledge and information were little and poor I couldn't understand him well, I only was able to understand what I had already known.

Furthermore, even native English accents could be incomprehensible if a listener has

limited knowledge of the language, as the following interviewee indicated:

> **S.MAT:** Sometimes I find difficulty in the Britons and Americans' speaking, maybe because I don't have broad knowledge of the language.

Focusing on the needs of workplace stakeholders, I tried to link this strong aspiration of

attaining a native accent to the needs of medical professionals in SA. Thus, sometimes I

directly asked the interviewees about the relevance of native models or the relevance of

attaining a native accent in their profession. Their views are analysed under the

following subheading.

5.3.3.3.3. Native English/es and the Medical Profession in SA

If we are to focus on the prevalence of native English models or accents in the targeted

workplaces, they appear to be irrelevant, according to the professional participants'

viewpoints. That is, the participants assert that, in medical circles, setting a goal to

develop a native accent is neither important nor reasonable:

> **P.AL: …** but being necessary, a useful and beneficial thing, I don't know, I don't think it is. As a doctor, I think it does not have any relevance or relation at all. It cannot have an importance.

> **P.MHM2:** I don't think that we should focus on the British or American accents. To be honest, it is not necessary to focus on, or to speak like them. For medicine, work and practice, there shouldn't be such a goal. But, it's neither required nor important at hospitals, or for a doctor, at all.

Likewise, the participating students did not emphasise following native models as

essential for achieving other more important purposes related to competency in basic

language skills and communication. These interviewees indicated that they just want to use the language correctly:

> **S.BUR:** No no, it doesn't matter to speak the American; I just want to get command over the language, *i.e.* not to get embarrassed when someone speaks to me.

> **S.SAW:** The most important thing is the student can understand; whether it is British or American it doesn't matter, the most important thing is my writing and speaking is correct.

> **S.MAR:** It doesn't matter that he imitates them. The most important thing is to pronounce the word with its correct pronunciation.

> **S.WIJ:** It's not a must to speak like an American or British; the most important thing is to be understood and clear.

I attempted to further investigate the relevance of having a goal of speaking with a native accent in the medical field by asking the respondents direct questions, as shown in the following quotes. Most of the participants acknowledged the irrelevance of these models as far as their professional context was concerned. What seemed to matter most was to speak clearly in order to be understood by all people and to be able to achieve effective communication:

> **IR:** Is it necessary for medicine?
> **S.WIJ:** What's necessary the most is to be able to deal with doctors; to be able to do my work, the most.
> **IR**: What about speaking like a particular speaker?
> **S.WIJ**: The most important thing is to speak correctly with a correct accent and people understand me; that's it. It's not necessary to speak like the American or British.

> **S.MARY:** The most important thing is that everybody can understand me; to speak clearly and be able to express my viewpoint and convey to others what I want to say, it doesn't matter like the American or British.

> **IR**: Is it a must for a doctor to speak like natives?
> **S.MARY**: No, it's supposed he knows the language, and the most important thing is to be able to communicate with everyone; America, British, or any other person of another nationality as well.

In a similar vein, following 'standard' English was sufficient for the following interviewee. She elaborated that students, or people in general, were not aware of the existence of other various NS accents, and therefore they could not distinguish between those accents.

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> **IR**: Is a native model important for the doctor?
> **S.GHA**: The SE is enough for him; just an understandable way, it's not necessary to have the accent.
>
> **S.GHA**: We don't acknowledge the existence of other accents of English; it's all the same for us. Who lives abroad may be able to know differences among the accents. Maybe we're following the standard more.

Two interviewees stated that speaking with a NS accent was a personal choice, i.e. a subjective need rather than an objective need:

> **S.MARY:** The matter of accent depends upon the individual; if he likes to have their accent.
>
> **S.HAN:** No no, of course not! The most important thing is understandable speaking that can be conveyed to doctors and 'patient'; but this is a personal thing to improve over himself because if he goes abroad to study and like that.

Although acknowledging the irrelevance of attaining a native accent, the following interviewee thought that emulating NSs' accents would add to the speaker's proficiency:

> **S.WID:** … but if he attempts to imitate them more it'd be better; so much better. But the most important is that his language to be clear.

To a certain extent, the issue of accents, whether native or non-native, could be completely irrelevant. Some interviewees have indicated that accent is not of major importance when compared to other purposes of learning or using the language. In other words, some interviewees thought that whatever the accent was, it could be intelligible and comprehensible if the receiver had good knowledge and proficiency level of English. (Refer to **5.3.3.2.1** for Native models and intelligibility and comprehensibility issues.)

Some medical professionals apparently adopted this opinion due to limited opportunities of working with NSs: (Refer to **5.3.3**)

> **P.JAM:** as we don't deal with them at hospitals
>
> **P.MHM1**: as we, in this region specifically, we rarely meet a British or an American among the staff we work with.
>
> **P.ADN:** as a doctor, no...we won't deal or work with Americans or British people

However, two interviewees indicated that they still need familiarity with native models, as they have to pass either the IELTS or TOEFL, since such tests are required for admission to universities abroad. Thus, for them, it is still important to follow and learn more about native models:

> **P.ADN**: ..because when we graduate as doctors who want to continue their studies, or as academic physicians, we need to pass tests such as TOEFL or IELTS, so it is important to have British or American English.

> **P.HAJ**: but I wish my level gets improved so I can do the TOEFL and such tests because I have bigger ambitions.

As is evident, some interviewees recognised the irrelevance of native accents to their careers. However, they added a condition that should be met by the practitioner. In their opinion, a doctor's spoken English should be 'clear': (Refer to **5.3.3.2**.)

> **P.KHA**:....but the most important thing is to speak clearly, their speaking should be 'clear'.

> **P.TAL:** from my viewpoint, the most important thing for a doctor is to clarify the point he is speaking about, rather than speaking in a specific way

Pertinent to medical purposes or not, 'nativeness' remains a major criterion for defining a 'good' English accent from the interviewees' viewpoint, consequently shaping their attitudes towards various Englishes, including the Saudi regional or local accents. That is, most participants think it is a requirement for speakers to use a clear accent, mostly native in this case, in order to be an acceptable speaker in the workplace. This, however, may contradict some interviewees' assertion of speaking with their 'own' accents, which might be generally termed as Saudi English.

5.3.3.4 The Accents that the Interviewees Prefer to Use

Speaking with a specific accent seems not to be an important issue to some interviewees. The desire to avoid emulating a specific accent might emerge when a purpose such as achieving communication is believed to be of foremost importance, as indicated by the

following interviewee: (Refer to **5.3.3.1.1.3** for Saudi English and to **5.3.3.3** for opinions about NS models)

> **P.MHM2:** I'm just 'myself' when I speak; the purpose is just the communication and understanding, to deliver the point. If the second party understands, that's it.

This interviewee asserted his identity by saying, "I'm just 'myself' when I speak." Indeed, other interviewees adopted this stance; they did not have a goal of emulating any specific accent, but rather wanted to retain their Saudi accent.

> **P.MHM2:** Accent is not a big deal to me, I don't care about speaking like a native or not, for me, it's so fine to speak with my Saudi accent, and I don't want to change the way I speak, nor do I have a goal like that

It seems that some interviewees wanted to speak in native accents, but they could not emulate or develop them, so they gave up. Instead, they decided to speak with their own local accents:

> **IR:**   Do you attempt to sound like any particular speaker?
> **S.TAH:** I speak with my own way but I try to be like 'native English' speakers; like both the British or American
>
> **P.SAU**: But what can we do, this the way we can speak, and this is the maximum we can produce.
>
> **P.FAT**: I used to mimic, but now I speak with my accent, when you first here me you know and feel I'm Saudi

Thus, with the participants' constant assertion of 'their' English accents and their rejection of emulating NSs, they might be referring to NSs' competency and fluency as their ideal and ultimate goal, rather than simply acquiring a native English accent:

> **P.AZZ:** Just I want to express myself the way they do, to get the command of the language with all its aspects, but not the accent, I want to speak as a Saudi but fluently.

However, it can be argued the notion of accent as a marker of identity seems not to be valid to the interviewees. Some interviewees asserted their desire to speak like native speakers, but wanted to be called Saudis at the same time. Some indicated that they did

not want to be called American, but elaborated with a wish to be able to speak exactly like them. Others felt discontent about the fact that Arabs' English accents were clear:

> **S.TAH**: I want from whoever hears me to say I am Saudi and Arab who was able to acquire a foreign language and mastered it; I can be like American, but to call me American no.

> **S.TAH:** If only I become like them, but Arabic must always be there, impossible! Arabs are known no matter what

> **S.NOU**: No, I want people to say I am Saudi, why to call me British; Saudi who master the English language, that's fine.

Since some of the interviewees wanted to assert their identities by refraining from emulating any specific accent, or by simply feeling content about their own accents, their opinions about the irrelevance of native models in a medical context may not be exclusive to these accents alone. In other words, this neutral standpoint can be applicable to any other non-native accent as well. To put it clearly, since some interviewees disapprove of using a 'specific' accent, the element of accent may not be important, especially when the importance of other purposes, such as achieving communication, surpasses such an issue.

5.3.4 Teaching WEs

Most of the interviewees did not consider 'different' accents to be a serious issue that might interrupt or hinder communication, with effective communication being the participants' most important objective in using and learning the language. Therefore, they did not recommend any pedagogic implications regarding this issue:

> **P.RAD:** I don't think students will face communication challenging due to this accents diversity

> **P.SAU:** Never, it never hinders the communication. The most important thing is to understand each other, she can understand me, and I understand her, that's it.

> **P.TAL:** I don't think accents differences may hinder communication.

> **P.AZZ:**   It's normal and ordinary, it doesn't cause any difficulties or communication problems

> **P.MHM1:** It couldn't be an obstacle at all, it's a normal thing.

Furthermore, one interviewee appeared not to be concerned with accents, since both native and non-native varieties represented one and the same language to him:

> **P.Mhm2:** I feel all are the same language.

Likewise, one interviewee thought the 'outcome' was the same, whatever the accent might be:

> **P.MHM2:** It doesn't hinder communication, at the end. The outcome is usually the same, and mostly we get the point.

Yet another participant also agreed with the previous interviewee on this latter point. However, he thought that the diversity of accents might cause problems in academic settings:

> **P.JAM**: at hospitals, there wouldn't be a problem, but maybe at the university..

Although he highlighted the possibility that students might face communication challenges as a result of dealing with various accents, he did not seem to support the idea of raising students' awareness about various accents and varieties of English in the classroom:

> **P.JAM:** It's not necessary to let the student know about different accents, you just teach him all the grammar rules, English and its requirements, then he will handle it in the medical field.

In a similar manner, another interviewee did not recommend introducing various accents to students. Instead, he emphasised the importance of improving learners' English proficiency levels in order to overcome any possible challenges relating to accents while communicating:

> **P.KHA:** It's not important to make students aware of accents differences because it's ordinary to be introduced to them at work environment, if he has a good level of English.

In light of **P.JAM**'s opinion above, which implies that various accents can be problematic mostly to students but not professionals, it can be argued that this interviewee holds this opinion due to his awareness about familiarity as a factor that

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yields intelligibility. That is, having gained familiarity with various accents, either in academic or professional settings, professionals would not have as many communication issues or challenges compared to freshmen or sophomore students. This point will be further analysed under the following subheading.

5.3.4.1 WEs and Familiarity

Supporting the previous analysis, another interviewee expressed his negative stance toward introducing different English accents, varieties, or models into classrooms, reckoning on familiarity as a vehicle that can promote intelligibility. That is, through extended exposure, individuals' ears become adjusted and accustomed to the different accents they regularly come across, which leads to understanding various speakers— greater intelligibility and comprehensibility:

> **P.MHM2**: It's not necessary to introduce students to accents, at the end they'll understand. It's not a big deal, if he wouldn't understand at the first time, he would at the second.

The previous quote indicates that this interviewee acknowledges familiarity as a major agent that leads to intelligibility. Although he indicated that dealing with different people, including Indian speakers, was not a serious issue to him, his attitude might have developed due to his familiarity with the various accents he referred to, and Indian English in particular:

> **P.MHM2:** I do remember when I first met Indians in the college; I felt it was very very challenging to deal with them

> **P.MHM2:** It is easy to deal with different people, I mean different nationalities, such as Indians or Filipinos and others

Furthermore, most of the interviewees, whatever their attitudes towards each different type of English, indicated that accents that were at one point very hard to understand had become intelligible due to constant exposure. Again, they referred to the Indian accent, which they considered the most unintelligible, as an example of this claim.

> **P.SAU:**… but that was in the college, after that, I mean now at work, my ears are now adjusted to listen to Indians, to their speech I mean.

P.JAM:	The first time I met Indians speaking English was in the hospital, in the clinical years, but after the graduation and after getting used to it, it has become somehow easier
P.AZZ:	I couldn't understand Indians properly when I first met them, it takes sometimes at the beginning, but then you become able to understand. We couldn't understand them at the beginning, it's challenging, but then few days later, you would be accustomed to their way and become aware of their way of pronouncing words.
P.AL:	I can, somehow, understand an Indian or Pakistani speaker, of course it is difficult at the beginning, especially the Indians, their accent is somehow difficult in the beginning I mean when you speak with them for the first time, but you can overcome this challenge after that when you practice with them and already worked with them more than one time, it will go through.

In fact, teaching WEs was an idea I had in mind while I was interviewing the participants, thinking that by doing so, students would overcome any challenges in communicating with a diversity of English speakers in their future careers. Some linguists, such as Matsuda (2003) and Modiano (1999), also advocate this idea in literature discussing WEs.

Since helping course planners and designers to develop courses that reflect and meet medical students' professional needs is one of the aims of this study, investigating the interviewees' opinions about their previous learning experiences provides useful insights. In fact, analysing the efficiency of previous or current courses serves as a gate through which other objectives of the study can be reached. I believe that the participants' needs, motivations, and attitudes towards English models and teachers can all be revealed through examining their own language learning experiences.

5.3.5 Language Learning Experiences
The participants' language learning experiences were at play, as interviewees repeatedly referred to them through their evaluations of the courses they either had attended or were currently attending. Reports about these experiences are presented below,

preceding the participants' direct suggestions and viewpoints that may, in their opinions, help reform English courses.

5.3.5.1 Formal Learning Experience

The participants evaluated all the language learning experiences that they deemed to be unsuccessful, which they acquired while attending formal classes in schools. According to them, six years of learning English in intermediate and high schools ended with unsatisfactory results:

> **P.MHM1:** I think the problem isn't in the university. It's bigger than that. It should be addressed at earlier previous levels.
>
> **P.HUS:** …the problem lies in the basics, what we studied in the intermediate and high schools was very simple.
>
> **P.SAU:**   I do remember that when we studied English at the intermediate and secondary levels we knew nothing about English, it was all in vain, we didn't get any benefit.

The participants thought that, if the process of teaching/learning English during formal education had been initiated in primary school, students would not face obstacles in subsequent educational levels:

> **P.TAL:** …but our major problem is in the bases, from the earlier years of intermediate and high schools. The stronger the basis, the better the situation will be. Teaching English should start early. Now I think the situation is getting better as they have introduced the language at the elementary schools.
>
> **P.SAU:**   Basically, and supposedly the student learns the basics of the language from an early age, at the elementary level, I do remember that we studied A,B,C at the age of 13 or 14. Now, I don't know, I feel the situations is getting better as English is introduced at the age of 10 or 9,
>
> **P.MHM1:** The problem is not in the courses, it's beggier than that, learning should start from an early age.

Due to their unsuccessful learning experiences at the stages preceding university, the participants thought that remedial language learning could not be accomplished by introducing intensive courses, which usually repeat the same content and teaching process at the university level:

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> **P.SAU:** At the university, everything was similar to that of the earlier education at schools, we were studying the same thing in the university. There were listening, and like that, but the level was not required, like a beginner.

Apart from the content of those English courses, one participant saw the teaching approach at the university level as the same old and traditional approach they had been taught since the intermediate and high school levels:

> **P.HAJ:** I feel it's the same like what we studied in the high school, but in one term or year. Unfortunately, the teaching was the same, so there wasn't any improvement. It's useless; the students' level didn't change in both stages.

The following interviewee indicated that even the outcomes of university-level English courses were usually similar to those produced by secondary schools, with the exception that the participants learnt the ML at the university level:

> **P.MEZ:** … secondary and intermediate are not counted, in vain. The same can be said about the university, but we at least learnt the medical there.

Although they learnt the ML at the university level, the interviewees' learning needs were still unsatisfied. The interviewees highlighted the lack of opportunities to practice or use English in academic settings as a major reason why their needs could not be satisfied. In other words, the interviewees defined a successful learning experience as one through which a learner can use and practice the language, i.e. to speak and communicate in English. Thus, they criticised their previous learning experiences:

> **P.AMN:** …that's because what we learned at the college didn't instruct us how to speak, interact or communicate. It's all about medical information, the body anatomy, diseases, symptoms, just that and medical terminology. Yes the first year was about grammar and general things, but wasn't successful, I even don't remember it. At year two we specialised and started to know about diseases and symptoms. They told us to go to hospitals if we wanted to speak English.

Consequently, learners in such a situation become indifferent to the English classes:

> **S.TAH**: …we don't pay attention, we keep chatting

> **S.NOU:** …but now, to be honest, most of us consider the English classes as breaks.

5.3.5.2 Informal Learning Experiences

As indicated in the last line of **P.AMN's** excerpt above, participants referred to hospitals

or medical workplaces (as compared to schools or universities) as environments where

professionals could learn English and acquire speaking skills more readily. Indeed,

almost all the professional interviewees viewed their experiences of using and learning

the language at hospitals as more successful than what they experienced at schools and

universities:

> **P.JAM:** … my current level is much better than it used to be before graduation because I have practiced the language and lived in the hospital; an environment where there is more opportunity to speak English.
>
> **P.MHM1**: because in my college there were no chances to practise the language, but now at the hospital, it has been improved again by communicating with foreigners, Filipinos and Indians.
>
> **P.HAJ: …**because in my college there were no chances to practice the language, but now at the hospital, it has been improved again by communicating with foreigners, Filipinos...
>
> **P.ADN:** I benefited from the period of training at the hospital as my speaking has comparatively been improved. The college courses all were just concerned about writing, listening, vocabulary, but speaking, it's after working at the hospital.

The interviewees' evaluations of their proficiency levels and learning experiences

seemed to be mainly focused on specific competencies. That is, when objectives of

communication and speaking skills can be achieved, whatever the extent of that

achievement might be, the learning experience can be considered successful and the

proficiency level satisfying. Apparently, whether through attending specific courses or

practicing at hospitals, the participants succeeded in developing the specific linguistic

skills required for their fields.

Compared to their specific proficiency levels of ME, the participants felt unconfident

about their communicative skills in general, or in casual conversations. Therefore, the

majority expressed a desire to develop skills in GE:

> **P.SAU:** It is my wish that I have English in a general way. From the bottom of my

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heart, I wish to speak general English

    P.MEZ: We don't use the medical outside, just in the workplace, while the general is what is used if you go out, travel, or meet people who don't speak Arabic. We had sufficient knowledge about the medical, but currently I need general.

This latter point of needing to improve communication and speaking skills, as expressed by the interviewees, will be referred to in the following sections in the form of suggestions that participants provided for courses planners, as well as needs that should be addressed in formal education classes, both at schools and universities.

5.3.6 Possible Adjustments in the English Courses that are thought to Better Prepare Learners for their Professional Context

This subsection builds upon interviewees' previous responses, which aim at providing recommendations for improving the current language courses that medical students take. By asking the interviewees about any suggestions they wanted to provide for courses planners, they suggested that the teaching/learning processes at university levels should be reformed to a higher standard. Additionally, the learning obstacles, challenges, and needs that they reported, which were addressed while conducting the study, can also be provided to educational authorities for the sake of reforming the educational process. Please note that the following represent the respondents' own ideas, which were expressed when asked about how the learning process could be improved. The areas that need to be improved include the following: the length of study, the types of English that learners are exposed to, teachers, learning styles, and classroom management. Besides the informal experiences presented above, some of the participants' opinions seem to de-emphasise the role of formal courses *per se,* simply indicating that language learning can be acquired if the individual is motivated to learn. Hence, the learning process becomes autonomous, through self-learning strategies and

English-speaking medical subjects. Thus, some of them suggested introducing non-compulsory courses.

5.3.6.1 Motivation and Autonomy

The participants realised the importance of having a personal interest in learning the language and becoming autonomous learners. The interviewees' reflections on the courses' efficiency and the reforms needed exhibited that the deficiency that affected the learning process might be related to the learners themselves, rather than the nature or features of the courses. That is, if learners were motivated and interested, they could learn autonomously and succeed in acquiring the language:

> **P.AL:** …the student should be a self-learner, to motivate him to learn by himself.
>
> **P.HUS:** It differs from a student to another. Some graduates are supposed to be excellent in English since all their study was in English, but unfortunately, a student at the intermediate or secondary school may be better than them. And I know someone who didn't rely on the courses at all, but improved himself through cassettes, videos and stuff like that; he worked hard and independently, and became very excellent. If there is a reason for my level being not good, it's not the course, it's I, myself.
>
> **P.KHA:** to me, courses were sufficient. It depends upon the student himself, if he is active and hard working, it will be enough.

Indeed, most of the interviewees tended to believe that their self-learning strategies were more advantageous than the courses they took. They largely associated the improvement that occurred in their linguistic abilities with their self-learning endeavours—for example, through watching American movies and listening to 'western' songs:

> **P.JAM:** It's my hard work and effort what improved my level, because the courses at the college were merely medical English courses, far away from the casual English outside.
>
> **P.FAT:** courses had no effect in my language learning, it's all my personal effort.
>
> **P.ADN:** maybe I can say the courses just improved my level to be between C and B levels.
>
> **P.TAL:** We tried, and by time and getting used to it, we got through it.
> **S.TAH**: Actually, what I've learned through headway here in the college maybe 40%. The remaining of the 100% is through watching American movies, listening to western songs, I learnt lots of vocabulary, many words, and

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> grammar in particular, more than the college to be honest. Now, the grammar is very easy to me.

The following interviewee asserted that her level of English proficiency would not have improved without her strong interest and desire to learn the language, regardless of attending either domestic or overseas courses:

> **IR:** Where do you think a student can go to improve his English?
> **S.AIS:** It doesn't matter where, but, first of all, he must have a desire to learn. For example, I also took a course in Jeddah and I benefited so much. Interest is the most important thing; I used to memorise new words every day.
>
> **S.AIS:** Not everyone can succeed abroad, but the one who has a desire in the first place, it's not the courses, it's the desire.

In relation to the interests and motivations of learning, the following subsection attempts to demonstrate the areas or content that proves most interesting to such learners.

5.3.6.2 The Content to Be Taught

5.3.6.2.1 ME or GE

Most of the student participants seemed to be interested in learning what they did not have a rich background in or what they found 'new'. That is, students who felt saturated from learning GE, due to studying it since the sixth elementary grade or intermediate school, preferred to learn more about MT or ME. On the other hand, those who felt satisfied about their MT or ME knowledge, such as professionals and senior students, revealed a desire to learn more about GE. (Refer to **5.3.5.2, 5.3.6.4,** and **5.3.6.5**.)

> **P.SAU:** It is my wish that I have English in a general way. From the bottom of my heart , I wish to speak general English

Thus, while identifying how significant English was to them, some students referred to MT or ME as being more important and relevant than GE. It is worthy to note that of the following interviewees, those who emphasise MT are all students.

> **S.MAR:** and the medical in particular is a very important thing, the most.

> **S.AMW:** Maybe because in the preparatory year they repeated everything we studied before in the high school, it's boring. For those who didn't learn properly before, these courses might be useful, but for me, as I knew everything earlier, they're boring.

> **S.AIS:** I feel Headway is important and useful. But it's very simple, basic, at least to me, this is how I feel. Everything is repeated and simple. We need more advanced levels of Headway.

> **S.MAR:** For me, as I've been interested in English since the intermediate school, the 'general' was easy because it's repeated.

> **S.MAR:** Because all what is in the Headway we studied it extensively before. But the medical is new to us, it's about our specialties, it includes all diseases and all what we'll come across in our specialties.……..For me, I don't see Headway can help us in the language or increase the terms at all. Maybe it's very good as a general English, things and grammar we all know about from the earlier years.

According to some participants, GE, 'headway', or 'grammar', as interchangeably used by the participants, are unneeded due to their irrelevance to their areas of specialty. That is, being unaware of certain specific linguistic 'details', such as some structural or punctuation rules, may not subtract from the learning process:

> **S.FAU:** Currently, I don't have a problem in the language with my subjects, but if I study the English of the first year, it's a complex. They teach and ask for details about the language that you never come across in your specialty. For example, the words in my specialty itself, if I know all the terms and acronyms of dentistry there will never be a problem with the verbs, tenses, lots of vocabulary, it's not important at all.

Some interviewees expressed the concern that concentrating on linguistic issues can hinder students' learning about their medical subjects. The following interviewee complained about the predominant role of English, as it sometimes exceeded the importance of the medical subject matter itself:

> **IR:** So you say focusing on the grammar may cause an obstacle?
> **S.FAU:** For example, when the Indian teachers who teach us other subjects mark the spelling, check for –ing or –ed, I did write the scientific definition correctly, and the core is correct, he is a dentist but because he's Indian he's very obsessed with English. He says how come you're a medical student and miss the –ing or –ed forms. This is wrong, I come to say I understand and know or not, not to get my English checked. I might have learnt English in the wrong way, but it's not the right time to teach me English or have it corrected.

In the same line of thought, like the professionals who felt saturated from studying MT, junior and senior students expressed a need for more GE courses:

> **S.WAS:** Both, but maybe the general more as we often use the medical in our study and the books of the other subjects themselves, we come across these terms, but what about outside?! I suggest they teach us more general English because they don't introduce general English in the second year, only medical, and no more courses after that.

Some participants became confident about their MT knowledge, which had been established through either specific MT courses or other scientific and medical courses:

> **S.BUR:** I need to master the language. The language we study and know about is the medical; we don't know the English language itself, just the language of medicine. So we aren't good in the English language, just in the language of medicine.

In other words, these interviewees apparently disregarded MT courses, justifying their views with the fact that they often came across these terms through studying other scientific or medical subjects:

> **S.NOU:** … maybe the medical course that we are studying now in the second year isn't necessary or required at all, we'll come across it in all our subjects, in our study…the terms we study are our specialty we take it on the go.
>
> **S.WIJ:** the medical course should be changed, without studying it, we basically study medical terms with every subject we study, and they are repeated so we don't need to study the Medical as a subject....

Therefore, many participants indicated that learning the language through medical or scientific subjects was helpful. Most of the professional participants in the study agreed with this opinion.

5.3.6.3 Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)

The notion of acquiring the language though specialty courses emerged as a recurrently highlighted theme in the interview results. Most interviewees revealed a confident stance in regard to medical language, due to frequent exposure to medical and scientific subjects.

> **P.RAD:** The first year, it was a very big book about medical terminology, with not even a rule of English, besides other subjects, six subjects of biology, physics for example, all were in English. It was not meant to teach us English, but we did it through studying medicine. We were the first group to study just medical terminology, and at the end all of us could speak the language, as we don't need General English.

> **P.AZZ:** …the main study itself, the subjects, is what helped us learning the language, when terms are related to medications, diseases and like that.

> **P.HAJ:** …maybe the courses in our specialty, as all were in English, were useful and helpful in learning English.

> **P.ADN**: The course was a medical terminology book, it was very very useful.

Likewise, the following interviewee intimated that learning English, MT in particular, can be achieved through reading medical texts.

> **S.MARY**: …the idea is that the text aims to show me medical information written in English, that's how.

5.3.6.4 Workplace English

Most of the interviewees stated that they had sufficient knowledge as far as MT was concerned. Therefore, what seemed to be most needed was further training in GE. In particular, they expressed their desire for more specific classes to be designed to improve communication and conversational skills. They wanted to learn how to use the acquired knowledge, whether it was MT or GE, in authentic situations:

> **P.AL:** They should improve the courses more by teaching students how to deal with people, how to do conversation outside workplace, that is general English, and not only about medical terminology.

> **P.ADN:** The college courses all were just concerned about writing, listening, vocabulary, but speaking, it's after working at the hospital.

> **P.MHM1:** We needed practice, more practice, to practise English in the college.

The following interviewee asserted that what was needed was the opportunity to acquire good communication skills through building knowledge about grammatical or structural rules. She made the point that developing speaking skills, which was a top priority for interviewees, was associated with good knowledge of grammar, in order to build confidence while communicating:

> **P.MEZ:** The curricular should focus on general English the most because we know the medical. I wish to improve my grammar so I can be confident if I want to speak. No grammar, no confidence. It's a mistake; they focused on medical more than general.

Some respondents indicated that students need exposure to the specific language and terminology that hospitals use. That is, developing the communicative skills required in future workplaces is more relevant than studying GE and/or MT, which some participants found insufficient or unsatisfying.

> **S.BUR:** I feel the medical is more important, but why don't they teach us the terms and the language that's used in the hospital; how can you speak in hospital. If we go now to hospital, how can we deal and communicate with nurses and doctors? Up until now, we still don't know.
>
> **S.NOU:** …but if they give us speaking, medical conversations, abbreviations at the hospitals, there are different abbreviations and terms at hospitals than what we study…but those at hospitals are different. There was a teacher who tried to introduce us to such terms used at hospitals, we all were interested and attentive to her, it's very good […] My cousin who is an intern now is suffering a lot; he is unable to cope with the hospitals abbreviations.
>
> **IR:** How do you wish the curriculum to be?
> **S.WID:** I feel to be as it is, terms, but if they give us more useful terms that will help us more, yes these terms are useful, but there are things in hospital they don't teach us about.
>
> **IR:** Did the courses reflect the hospital environment and the communication there?
> **S.MARY:** The courses taught me general more than the hospital or what's taking place there.

Similarly, the following excerpt shows that neither MT nor grammar is needed, but rather training in how to communicate and use the language effectively:

> **P.AZZ:** Two years of learning English, medical terms and grammar, yet without communication activities.

In line with the discussion of what is needed and what should be taught, the ensuing subsection continues by directly presenting the students' perspectives on deficiencies in educational outcomes and competencies.

5.3.6.5 The Current vs. Desired Competencies

The interview responses confirm that most participants want to be 'strategically' competent in order to activate the grammatical proficiency they have developed over a long period of studying English. Most of them acknowledge that they have relatively good grammatical competency, yet their knowledge about grammar may gradually decline, since they do not find opportunities for real-life implementation. It can also be argued that these respondents are, to a certain extent, competent in regards to receptive skills, whereas their major deficits are related to productive skills:

> **S.WIJ**: I wish there's more implementation of the language itself. We studied the grammar without practising it as speaking or conversions in order to became able to express ourselves in speaking or writing…….We didn't learn how to pronounce words, or to put our speaking into order, what to say and what not to say. We studied grammar but not how to use it, this is 'subject' to be placed here and this verb, that's it.

> **S.TAH**: We need to practice. Students aren't able to use grammar as speaking.

> **S.MARY:** The teaching method followed here, they give you lectures and that's it. I prefer they give us practical things that may help us not to forget. Yes I learned through lectures, but I forget everything…there's nothing that shows you the value/importance of the book. I realised that later when I tried and implement English in the hospital, when I communicated with people. But before that, I didn't know what's my role expected from the course at all.

A failure to transfer language knowledge into real-life situations, namely opportunities to practice speaking skills, leads to the language being 'neglected' and forgotten, especially if this knowledge is not related to the scientific field:

> **S.FAU**: These skills!! The problem is that we study English, pass courses with good marks, but we forget everything as we don't practice or use it. I studied these courses twice, here and in Riyadh, although the course there was much better than what they teach here, it's helpful, but at the end, when we study medical subjects, it's all forgotten, even if you study it right from the beginning, because we don't use it hence it's neglected.

From a student's perspective, teachers are often responsible for deficiencies or errors in the teaching/learning process. Thus, learners often provide long lists of qualities that their teachers should have, which will be presented in the following subsection.

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5.3.6.6 Teachers

Undoubtedly, teachers are an integral factor in the educational process. According to the interviewees' accounts, whether a learning experience is successful or unsuccessful mostly depends upon the teachers.

> **P.MEZ:** They must check on the teacher before hiring him. They should hire the best teachers. The teacher's knowledge will be reflected on the students, and from their performance you can judge him.

What kind of linguistic background a teacher should have, particularly labelling teachers as NSs or NNSs, figures prominently in the interviewees' opinions and beliefs. However, a teacher's level of expertise can intervene in determining whether a teacher is effective.

5.3.6.6.1 Native and Non-native Teachers

An unsurprising consequence of the participants' strong positive attitudes towards native English models and English-speaking countries is their strong belief in NSs as the best speakers who have the best command of the language. This belief translates into the assumption that NSs make the best teachers: (Refer to **5.3.3.3** for attitudes towards NS models)

> **P.MHM1:** I think it's better to have native speaker as teachers because it's *their* language, a native speaker is the best in the language command
>
> **P.AMN:** You know, if there is an American or British teacher we will benefit, they will teach better because they are the *origin* of the language.

NSs are favoured due to the perception that their accents and pronunciations are good, correct, and intelligible. That is, the element of pronunciation may stand as a factor behind the participants' preferences. The following interviewees emphasised pronunciation as a criterion for choosing teachers:

> **S.MAR:** It depends, according to the pronunciation.
>
> **S.SAW**: I wish something from those who bring teachers to first listen to teachers' speaking, whether it's understandable or not, will first year student understand or not, before they hire them.

> **S.GHA:** …they'll give you good English especially in pronunciation. As you know, some similar words, it depends on pronunciation.

In addition, one interviewee thought that, since NSs use the 'correct' pronunciation, students would be motivated to learn the language because of their pronunciation:

> **P.JAM:** A native teacher will have more benefits for the students. First of all, if I were a student, I'd hear his pronunciation. Even if pronunciation isn't enough, it'd motivate me more. Secondly, I'd listen to the 'correct' English, unlike the Indian or Pakistani, I'd listen to the 'correct' English hence I'd have an ambition to be like him.

Similarly, many interviewees thought that the better and proper way to acquire the English language is by learning from 'good' speakers of native models:

> **S.WAS:** …, with *good* speakers it could be acquired properly.
>
> **S.WIG:** From anywhere, but the best is from Britain or America if we to acquire the language from them.

Learning from native teachers helps students acquire a strong foundation in the English language. To the following interviewee, this 'strong'[6] English can aid in communicating with people from different countries around the world. That is, native English models serve as the standard for international communication:

> **P.JAM:** To me, I prefer a teacher from Britain or America or like that, and I see the university should try to employ such teachers, even if we will not deal with them in the hospital, but I will deal with doctors and nurses from different countries and I need my English to be strong. Unfortunately, all those we have met, their English is poor.

In line with the notion of standardness, native Englishes are considered intelligible to all English speakers around the world, unlike other non-native Englishes, such as the Indian accent.

> **S.HAW:** First and foremost, why am I learning English? isn't for speaking with foreigners or not.
>
> **IR:** But foreigners are from all over the world.
>
> **S.HAW:** That's right, but if I speak with an Indian like how natives do, he'll understand me. It's not for speaking with only specific people. The native is understood by all people.

---

[6] In the context of the study, a "strong" grasp of a language means well-established, correct, or mostly perfect.

Another interviewee associates native accents and pronunciation with high proficiency in the language, thus NETs are required. Accordingly, she does not favour teachers with national, local, or regional accents, believing that such teachers do not have a good command of English:

> **P.AMN**: Well, first of all, the teacher should be a teacher who pronounces English, that is to have a good command of English, our teacher was Saudi, that's fine, but she doesn't pronounce English, she should be a master in English, not to speak with her rural accent.

In line with these attitudes, some interviewees thought that learning the language with a teacher whose English is 'not English', such as Indian English, is useless:

> **S.FAU**: I don't think my English will get improved with Indians, because their accent is not English at all.

> **S.HAW**: We have Indian doctors and profs whose English is awful. They brought Indians so we are enforced to use English with them, but what they speak isn't English, so no difference, in vain!

In general, the 'nativeness' criterion influences the participants' preferences. Therefore, where a teacher comes from is not of crucial significance if s/he has the native competency and/or accent:

> **IR:** From where do you think we should bring teachers?
> **S.KHU:** Foreigners, Britain, Amercia..and anyone who can attain the language like them, if an Indian speaks like how they do, it's ok.

> **S.HAW:** My problem isn't with the nationality. If an Arab is mastering the accent and the competency like the English people speak that's fine then. But I don't want him to teach me wrong, if he cannot pronounce correctly then he shouldn't teach me wrong, like the 'water-bath', 'water-bass'.

Interviewees who adhere to the idea of 'nativeness' mostly defended their views with the claim that native accents are intelligible, hence comprehensible or able to be understood. Moreover, as mentioned above, some participants think that native models are universally or internationally intelligible. However, some interviewees, sometimes responding to my prompts, elaborate that the speaking style of NSs can be difficult to follow and understand. The respondents' elaborations, however, do not deny their strong

preference for NSs and native models, as they revealed in their interview responses:

(Refer to **5.3.3.3.1** for Comprehensibility and Native Models)

> **IR:** With whom do you think communication is more difficult, native or non-native speakers?
> **S.MARY:** I feel it's easier with Americans and whose first language is English.
> **IR:** Do you see their speaking as understandable?
> **S.MARY:** Honestly, not much. Sometimes I feel others' speaking is clearer. I prefer to learn through others; people who have English as a second language, not the mother tongue. They speak clearly. It doesn't matter that English should be their native language.
>
> **S.GHA**: You cannot follow them. Someone who speaks his own language speaks it very quickly. The difficulty is in the speed, the same as we do it quickly in our language and anyone from abroad cannot understand us, especially with our local accent.
>
> **S.FAU**: Sometimes they bring people from America and nobody understands with him because his English requires a master or PhD to be understood.
> **S.SAW**: If the teacher speaks very quickly it's difficult for us, we're still in the first year.

Similarly, some interviewees think that students, especially freshmen, usually cannot follow or comprehend a NET due to her/his high competency and fluency alone:

> **P.TAL:** An American or British teacher is good, but that will be difficult for students, especially freshmen
>
> **P.MHM1:** …it would be difficult for the students to have such teachers

However, it seems that when there are other more important objectives at hand, 'nativeness' may become a less defining or significant issue. The excerpts quoted below show an example of a respondent who seemed to have other priorities in learning English; hence, 'nativeness' was not significant to her. Yet, elsewhere, she revealed preferences for NSs and refers to their countries as the origins of English.

> **S.FAU**: The teacher isn't about where he comes from, as much as he has learnt the language properly. If he loves the language and interested in it, and wants you to understand as he does, it doesn't matter from which origin in the world he is from, whatever it might be.
>
> **S.FAU**: A good teacher is who makes you understand so you keep knowledge with you forever, not who teaches me the native English or something like that. Some people focus on the way people speak; if you want to learn English go to the people who own it, you go and at the end you get nothing.

It can be concluded from the previous excerpts that the teacher's command of the English language, teaching style, and knowledge about the language can overcome the criterion of being a NET or NNET, as will be further asserted in the following subsection. The learning experiences of another interviewee, who was taught by both types of teachers, can support this argument. Through this experience, this interviewee concluded that learning could be better with a NNET than with a NET. She attributed this to the NET's fluency and proficiency being too far above the learner's level, besides the difficulty of understanding the teacher's British accent. At the same time, sharing the students' L1, in the case of the interviewee's NNET seemed to play a crucial role in her opinion: (Refer to **5.3.6.6.2** below.)

P.SAU: Believe it or not, I felt that British teacher is not like the Saudi teacher, the Saudi teacher was better, I mean the Saudi was stricter, she was strict with us in teaching grammar, listening, in conversation and like that, she forced us to study, she was testing us regularly. But the British teacher taught us indifferently, because she couldn't understand us and at the same time we were unable to understand her, we couldn't understand each other. But with her some student could hardly push themselves to communicate with her, but still was considered as a very weak English.

IR: Are you saying that the reason was she didn't speak Arabic?

P.SAU: Yes. Hhh it's not because of her not speaking Arabic, it's us not speaking English.

IR: Was the Saudi teacher speaking English all the time?

P.SAU: Yes, but when she had to use Arabic she did, I mean when someone couldn't understand by all means she was using Arabic.

IR: Are you saying that you understood with the Saudi teacher more than you did with the British teacher?

P.SAU: Yes, of course the Saudi.

P.MHM1: Of course I understood with the Saudi teacher. You know how British people speak, it's very different, the British English you know how it sounds, but the Saudi English we understand it. Maybe because the British speak very quickly.

Apart from the labels of being a NET or a NNET, some interviewees recommend a teacher who speaks Arabic, so s/he can facilitate learning by using the students' L1, with their low English proficiency levels in mind. This opinion will be further discussed below:

P.TAL: A native is good, but I prefer someone who can understand the students

5.3.6.6.2 Arab and Non-Arab Teachers

While identifying the obstacles that might hinder their learning, some students highlighted the effectiveness and usefulness of being involved in a completely English-speaking environment. Due to their strong belief in the importance of using the language or implementing it in real-life situations, most of the respondents mentioned the relevance of having non-Arabic-speaking teachers to achieve such an aim:

> **S.TAH**: I like that all of them speak English and know nothing about Arabic. This way I'm forced; I tried to use my memory to practice what I learnt.
>
> **S.MARY**: If we learn with Arabic we won't get anything out of learning. I want to communicate with someone in English. Even if I don't understand him now, I will later; with constant dealing and contact with him perhaps.
>
> **S.SAW**: Of course I prefer foreigners, not Arabs. That's good when you're involved with them so you've to speak with them. You're forced to learn how to speak English when there's no Arabic.
>
> **S.NOU**: I wish they exclude those who speak Arabic and bring people who speak English so the student is enforced to speak English.
>
> **S.NOU**: But, because a Sudanese taught us in the second term, she's speaking Arabic, I felt all what I knew had evaporated. When it's all the time English, I'll get used to it. Thus, a foreign teacher is better at teaching the language.
>
> **S.MARY**: From anywhere, but anyone whom I deal with him is in English only in English, from India, Pakistan...

According to the following interviewee, when a teacher speaks Arabic, the English learning process may be interrupted and corrupted. She elaborated that translating knowledge into Arabic impeded learning and acquiring the English language. Therefore, a teacher who knows or speaks Arabic should avoid using the students' L1 and should follow strategies other than translating materials to teach students:

> **P.SAU**: Actually, Arabic can be the thing that ruins the process of learning English, when the teacher starts speaking and teaching in English then he translates everything into Arabic. If the teacher lets the students search for the meaning by himself that would be better.

Furthermore, some participants complained about some foreign teachers who had interest in learning Arabic. Thus, they emphasise their preference for non-Arab teachers:

> **S.BUR**: I feel my level was worse than it used to be in the first year, and now it's even worse.
>
> **IR**: Why?
>
> **S.BUR**: I don't know, maybe because the doctors now don't speak with us that much in English. For example, Indians ruin your English language as they learn Arabic from you, they benefit more, they learn and use Arabic, and we don't learn English.
>
> **S.WID:** ….even the Indian doctors now use Arabic with us, so there's no practice for English.
>
> **S.ROM**: I wish they bring teachers from Britain because the Indians know Arabic and that makes you forget English.

On the other hand, other interviewees tended to prefer teachers who speak their first language, in order for the teaching and information to be more easily facilitated:

> **S.ZAI**: I feel I understand more with Egyptians. They can deliver the information to us. They teach us in English, then explain again with little Arabic. We need Arabic to understand, but with Indians, it's all English.

Another reason for the participants' preference for an Arabic-speaking English teacher is their belief that these teachers' speaking and pronunciation is 'clear' and intelligible:

> **S.AIS**: I suggest that our teacher should be an Arab so we can understand the pronunciation.

For respondents, Arab teachers may inhabit a middle ground between the participants' strongly desired NETs and the other non-favoured NNETs. Yet, in the following interviewee's words, Arab teachers should have been trained in a native-English-speaking country to ensure that they have NSs' accents and attitudes:

> **S.FAU**: We have teachers with either very poor or fluent English that we cannot follow. It should be something between so we can take and give with. I think an Arab who studied abroad who could take their way of thinking so he can transfer it to us, and we might understand. As a second language, the message can be conveyed, but with a foreigner there's no other mean than that with which he speaks.

These interview responses make it obvious that accent plays a role in determining the participants' preferences for teachers. Yet, in other places, they revealed further criteria for defining their preferred type of teacher. This will be clarified through the two ensuing subsections.

5.3.6.6.3 'Nativeness' vs. Expertise

At a certain point, the participants appeared to regard the teacher's expertise as of

greater importance than his/her accent or background:

> **P.MHM2:** The skills' of teaching is an individual field, even 'native speaker' wouldn't be able to teach if he doesn't have these skills.

> **IR:** How do you consider a teacher to be good?
> **S.AIS:** Through his teaching, dealing with students, and discussion. I think discussion is essential in classes.
> **IR:** What about his accent?
> **S.AIS:** His teaching method and expertise are more important than the accent.

Therefore, some participants tended to emphasise the teacher's professionalism and

knowledge more than the criterion of being a native or non-native speaker:

> **P.ADN:** It doesn't have to be a condition; to speak in a British or American accent, but he must have an expertise.

> **P.JAM:** .. the importance of the teaching styles overrun accent

> **P.SAU:** The teacher's expertise of course

Nevertheless, interviewees indicated that they prefer teachers who are both native

speakers and highly qualified for their position:

> **P.ADN:** The most important thing is to have a good teaching method and experience, and if he is a native that would be better.

> **P.MHM1:** To be a native speaker and able to teach the language, both are equally important.

On the other hand, if a NET is not equipped with teaching skills, students may consider

the teacher under-qualified:

> **P.RAD:** I am against having native teachers without teaching experience. I think there are many natives who don't know the grammar or how to teach the language so their teaching wouldn't be good. They may benefit the students to a certain extent, but not at giving good knowledge about the language

Likewise, another interviewee thinks that NSs who are not qualified as teachers could be

useful and helpful only at certain activities:

> **P.MHM2:** It's ok to get their assistance at certain 'activities', but not in teaching.

The following interviewee's experience contradicts the belief in NSs as always the best teachers. It reveals that NNETs can outperform NETs since teaching knowledge is the most important criterion, rather than merely 'nativeness': (Refer to **5.3.6.6.1**.)

> **S.FAU**: I've seen contradicting diversities here; sometimes there's a very good teacher who can explain better than a native. It is The teacher's character what matters, whether he is able to explain or not.

Also the following interviewee's positive experience of learning the language from a skilled and well-trained Bengali NNET supports the above argument:

> **S.WID**: The teacher who taught us in the first year was from Bangladesh, she's very excellent. Yes she had some problems in pronunciation, but her speaking was still understood. I learned much and loved English with her.

Furthermore, some students even accept non-favoured teachers if they meet the condition of having an 'interactive' and 'good' teaching style. Yet, the condition of having a 'clear' accent is at play:

> **S.WEJ**: I don't mind to be taught by an Indian teacher if his teaching is good, interactive and his speaking is clear.

Besides identifying good teachers according to their nationalities, backgrounds, or teaching expertise, some participants highlighted the importance of teachers' knowledge about the scientific subject matter being taught, namely MT in this case—a criterion that ESP teachers should have. This point is presented below, from the participants' viewpoints.

5.3.6.6.4 'Non-Specialist' ESP or Content Teachers

Another complaint posited by some interviewees was that their ESP teachers lacked knowledge about MT. According to them, a non-specialist teacher cannot teach what s/he has no knowledge about. Apparently, this issue was not a concern for the medical

professional participants, since they generally had greater confidence in their own knowledge about MT:

> **S.WIJ**: Now we study medical terms, it's not the teachers' specialty so we do not understand. Their major is English, how can they teach us medical? They just read the term and sometimes their pronunciation is wrong, as the terms are Latin.

> **S.WID**: The most important thing is still changing the teachers. Actually, the teacher tries to explain but she didn't study the medical terms, how can a teacher who didn't study medicine or medical terms teach these terms, such a teacher should teach headway. A doctor, or at least with a scientific major, but an English teacher, it's even difficult for her, how can she give something which is not her major.

> **S.AIS**: I think the Medical shouldn't be taught by a teacher whose major is English, maybe Biology the nearest specialty, as it talks about the body parts and medical stuff that has no relation to English.

> **S.GHA**: No one can be creative in a specialty other than his. However, there's an English teacher who made us interested in the medical terms. The most important thing is to know the specialty, whether being a specialist or not.

It becomes clear that the interviewees' suggestions are not concerned with what is taught or who teaches it alone. Some interviewees place extra emphasis upon how the language or its content is taught.

5.3.6.7 Current vs. Desired Teaching Methods and Styles

Most participants strongly recommended changing the currently followed teaching methods. The interview responses reveal this tendency when the participants identify good teachers as those who have the most expertise in teaching. According to these participants, quality should exceed quantity when it comes to education and teaching. They value teachers who create opportunities for them to practice the language and feel autonomous.

> **P.MHM2:** How long is the period isn't important. The most important thing is the teaching methods. For example, like the methods followed in the private institutions; the self-learning and practice. The teaching style isn't proper for the language teaching. They should focus on the teaching method.

The current teaching methods or styles seem not to involve and engage non-native

English learners in the learning/teaching process, nor in certain interactive activities.

Therefore, interviewees perceived these types of methods to be 'passive' and 'boring':

> **S.AMW**: The teaching method is passive, boring style. The teacher comes to read and that's it.
>
> **S.ROM**: The teaching method, it shouldn't be boring and with the same routine, we're bored. It should depend upon the receiver more; he should speak and participate more.

In other words, some participants suggested adopting learner-centred approaches

through organising learning workshops, which can help to engage learners through

practicing the knowledge that they have received:

> **S.GHA**: To be like a lecture is not working. If it's workshops, they are useful and better in delivering the information, when they give us an exercise and we cooperate in solving it in groups that will be perfect. We should practice what grammar they are teaching us, not merely to tell us the rules and we do the exercises, this way isn't working.

Generally, the majority of interviewees seemed to be disappointed in the teaching

methods they had been exposed to. The following interviewee indicated that, even when

the teaching materials reflected the desired methods, teachers never followed the

instructions in order to implement these materials properly:

> **S.HAW**: Since I started to learn English in the intermediate school, the teachers weren't good; they're sometimes at some of the students' level. They teach you what they only know, even if the books are changed, they choose what they know from the book and teach it in their own method, they don't give you all the methods and details in the book. They must adapt themselves with the new methods and books in order to teach the students.

Most of the respondents described the teaching materials as good in themselves, due to

the methods according to which these materials were designed, yet they regretted the

fact that teachers presented the materials using methods that do not fit the curriculum

design:

> **S.HAW**: They gave us Headway, it's a foreign book but the teacher was a Jordanian so she was teaching with the same manner of that at the secondary or intermediate schools, speaking in both Arabic and English. This book has certain teaching methods to follow, but they keep reading it, explain the grammar rules, is and are...
>
> **S.GHA**: The course might be helpful, but who introduces it doesn't do it in the right way.
>
> **S.WID**: The books we studied were called Headway, these books instruct you about all the basic skills, but they didn't focus on the listening skill, conversation; as I said I wish I can attain, they never taught us how or to implement it right. So, the error is in their methods not the book. The book is good and very helpful, but a better teaching method is required.

By emphasising the acquisition of speaking and listening skills, conducting conversations, and implementing the language in practical situations, students have indicated that the most common teaching method is the grammar-translation method, but the desired method is the communicative method.

The following quotes illustrate that teaching methods are reflected in students' learning styles and routines. Or, in other words, the students have been influenced by the teaching methods adopted by their instructors. The interviewees indicated that students concentrated the most on grammar. They memorised exercises and grammatical rules without understanding them:

> **S.TAH**: The error in Headway is in the exercises books in particular. The students memorise them by heart without knowing why this is here, or why we used this word in this place, why 'are' why 'ed', because they have the exercises in the books. But if we understand the grammar, even if there are sentences in the exam aren't from the book we'll be able to do them.
>
> **S.WIJ**: We learned to memorise compositions, write like them in the exam… During this long period, we memorise grammar structures by heart, but are unable to implement them, we don't know how. Since the intermediate school our study of English isn't good, we just memorise words without knowing how to use them. The same in the college, we study grammar without knowing how to implement the rules.

Whether teachers focused on vocabulary or grammar, the students emphasised their need for interactive and authentic communicative activities, such as role-play, problem solving, and workshops. They tended to believe that such teaching approaches could

alleviate the boredom resulting from lecturing and help them speak the language and communicate.

> **P.MHM1:** We needed practice, more practice, to practise English in the college. We mostly were using Arabic, in all classes and communications with Teachers.
>
> **P.AL:** There must be discussions; not just to lecture the students.
>
> **S.HAW**: The English we study isn't useful at all, it's just vocabulary. I feel in English there must be conversations, most of it should be conversations that introduce you to real situation, as if you're in a foreign country. But as grammar 'is' or 'are' before or after, it isn't working like that.
>
> **S.ROM**: The teaching methods are all about doing written exercises without speaking, no role-play or discussion.
>
> **S.WIJ:** The grammar, it's what we study at the lectures most of the time, and it's the same rules, repeated from the beginning of the year to the end, the same, they change the books but the grammar is the same and it's what they focus on.

Even classroom organisation can reflect lecture-style teaching. Thus, some participants suggested preparing an environment suitable for communicative teaching styles. To do so, the large numbers of students in language classes should be reduced to facilitate interactive learning:

> **P.AL:** The number of the group members in the class should be between five to six, to interact with each other and with the teacher.
>
> **P.ADN**: I wish they follow the strategies followed abroad, group discussions usually of six or seven students speaking with a native speaker, native English teacher.

In fact, large class sizes can eliminate the blame usually put on teachers, whom students view as responsible for following undesired teaching methods or styles. Since classes are organised in such a way to accommodate large numbers of the students, the unwanted teaching methods and approaches appear to go in line with the organisation of these classes. Participants describe these classrooms as teacher-led, where instructors adopt the grammar-translation method:

> **S.WID**: I feel such a book with a large number of students, over 70 or 50 in the class, makes it difficult for the teacher to pay attention to teaching these

skills to every student.

S.AMW: How we can learn with this crowd in the class and labs, there're always students at the back benches who never hear or understand.

S.SAW: A good teacher should check on all the students, if those who sit in the front are always happy and can understand, the back-benchers are mostly not.

S.FAU: Teachers are always good, but they have to stick to policy imposed by the school or university. Maybe some teachers want to teach us speaking English but she can't find neither time nor place.

The previous analysis stresses the importance of improving the quality of instruction. Furthermore, some participants advocated condensing the quantity of teaching input by extending the levels of studying the language in order to enhance the learners' proficiency levels, as presented below.

5.3.6.8 Longer Periods for Language Learning

Some interviewees revealed that students might need more courses to attend. They thought that the period of learning English at the university levels should be extended by continuing to teach English after the second or third academic years at the university or to making the courses more intensive:

P.AL: The English course should be intensive, and there should be courses during the first three years. The courses number should be increased. A period of one year or two isn't enough. Or there should be a whole semester of intensive English at the first year.

P.MHM1: I think there should be more classes.

Similarly, some students, for whom English courses were no longer available, expressed their need for more courses to attend:

S.ZAI: The first thing we do in holidays is joining English courses. This means we aren't happy with our current level. So, we need more English intensive courses.

S.MARY: They give us English at only the preparatory level. I wish they give a light English subject to be studied over the all years

> **S.GHA:** We need intensive courses

Yet, many students may not agree with such an opinion, bearing in mind the excessive amount of stress they suffer as a result of their usually busy schedules. The interview responses reveal how students pay much more attention to medical or scientific courses than they do to language courses. This can easily diminish the learning benefits that should be acquired through the language courses, since students' main objective is just to pass them.

5.3.6.9 Non-Credit courses

Learning the language through compulsory courses appears to yield unsuccessful learning experiences and results, especially for extremely stressed medical students. This leads students to be preoccupied with passing exams and courses, rather than focusing on learning the language itself:

> **P.AL:** The coursers weren't useful because, apart from the period, we as students join the English course not to learn and benefit, but to pass the course, to get the pass score, to move to the next phase, so we become concerned about the exams and how to pass it, not to learn the language…If we attended such language courses to learn the language without being worried about passing the course we might have benefited more, but to be focusing on the exams and scores to pass, we wouldn't learn. English should be excluded and should not to affect the total score.

The stress resulting from busy schedules and too many assignments could contribute to students' preoccupation with passing courses, and therefore not properly digesting the knowledge:

> **S.AMW:** We need time to study and realise the information for ourselves, not to learn only for exams. Our studying is not that good, it's just for the exams, and this could be a disaster.

> **S.GHA:** Unfortunately, when we finish exams we throw the book and what it contains.

Some of the interviewees indicated that their main focus in GE courses was just to pass exams, instead of learning the language itself:

> **S.TAH:** The error in Headway is in the exercises books in particular. The students memorise them by heart without knowing why this is here, or why we used this word in this place, why 'are' why 'ed', because they have the exercises in the books. But if we understand the grammar, even if there sentences in the exam aren't from the book we'll be able to do them. We need to practice. Students aren't able to use grammar as speaking.

> **S.HAW:** The 'Frindat', I mean friends, are only obsessed with exams. Now we have a very good teacher who is interested in teaching us with videos, and teaches us the sounds, but the girls want a certain book and grammar to memorise so if they tell us tomorrow there is an exam they memorise everything in the book, copy and paste, they don't want creative teaching and learning. They give no chance. They always ask the dean to change this teacher.

In other words, focusing too much on exams and marks may hinder the process of learning:

> **S.FAU:** There's a Saudi teacher who taught me in my first year in Riyadh. She's very excellent and perfect, her English was wonderful, and her teaching was excellent. But she didn't care about marks or exams, hence her teaching was a bit over the students' level, she cared about everything in the language. so, she used to give bad marks to students. But here, the teacher cares about the students' marks in the first place. Thus, the book is much reduced, revisions sheets and like that. So nothing remains in your head from the subject, at the end you get a good mark, but over the expense of your benefit.

Some interviewees suggested changing the courses from being core or compulsory to being optional, non-credit courses, so both the stress and the emphasis on marks and exams might be reduced. Additionally, teachers would have more flexibility, which could lead to creativity in teaching, as the following interviewee suggests:

> **S.HAW:** Actually, some students complain and suggest making English courses non-credit, but the administration refused. I think there'll be more freedom, originality and improvement because basically the students are concerned about their credits hence focussing on the book.

Apparently, medical students do not have the time to study English, so it loses its status compared with other more important subjects. However, because English is also being used in other courses, this could contribute to students' loss of interest in studying English as a subject in specific courses:

> **S.AMW:** As I grow up, I lose the interest with the stress of the study, English hasn't become my first interest as it used to be, maybe also because all the subjects are in English.

S.WID: I don't want to continue studying English, that's enough. If they give us Headway and Medical now, with the pressure of the workload from other subjects, it won't work.

5.3.7 Summary

The thematic analysis reported on here was built around the interviews conducted with Saudi medical professionals and students. It outlines the interviewees' attitudes towards English and some of its 'different' and numerous varieties, perceptions about the reality of professional environments in the country of Saudi Arabia, and certain needs that are related to both the academic and professional settings. The data from each group was first analysed into two separate sections, assuming that data from each group would be different from the other. However, the two sets of data have yielded comparatively similar and sometimes identical themes, responses, and perceptions. Accordingly, presenting it separately in two sections or chapters was deemed potentially repetitious and redundant. Thus, data from the two groups was combined, as the two sets smoothly accommodated each other into one chapter.

The next section of this chapter (Chapter 5) will display the survey results obtained from the two groups of targeted participants. All questionnaire results in this research were analysed and generated using the SPSS.

5.4 Survey Findings

Data presented in this section is roughly similar to that in the previous qualitative

section, in terms of the investigated constructs and themes, but presented as follows:

   I. Participants' motivation for learning and using the language

   II. Attitudes towards the general themes of the study

       a. Relevant emergent themes

       b. Specific questions about needs in the medical work environments

   III. Suggestions to improve teaching/learning process in specific targeted context/
       domain

A showcase of the participants' demographics will precede the presentation of findings.

5.4.1 Participants' Demographics:

5.4.1.1 Professionals

Gender sampling was split almost equally, with the majority of participants in the 24 to

30 age group, with the majority indicating a comparatively short experience period.

Gender		Age		Working Years	
Females	54	24-30	86	Less than 5	81
Males	48	31-40	15	Less than 10	16
Total	102	40$^+$	2	10 or More	5

Table 5.0 Professionals' Sampling Background

Many of these participants studied at either Jazan University (36) or King Saud

University in Riyadh (32), followed by participants from King Abdul-Aziz University in

Jeddah (22), specialising in various medical majors, although some were academicians

at the same time.

Speciality	Participants
Medical Interns	35
Residents	8
General Practitioners	10
Senior Registrar	1
Teaching Assistant	1
Surgical Consultant	1
Haematology Instructor	1
Dentistry Specialist	6
Nursing Participants	20
Radiographers	11
Others	8

Table 5.0.1 Professionals' selected Specialities

Through the survey, a great number of the professionals revealed a moderate level of satisfaction about their language proficiency levels. However, agreeing with the interviewees, the survey respondents' proficiency levels seemed to have been improved during the six-year period of their undergraduate studies, which included their last practical year at hospitals.

Survey Item		Yes	To a certain extent	No
No	Description:			
	Are you satisfied with your current English level?	33	46	23
1		28.7%	40.0%	20.0%

Table 5.1 Professionals' Self-assessed Proficiency

In details, 27 participants rated their levels as poor, 15 very poor, and 35 satisfactory[7], before joining the university.

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7 The term satisfactory bears negative connotations in Arabic; it is usually linked with low level of achievement.

No	Survey Item / Description:	Excellent	Very good	satisfactory	poor	Very Poor
1	How would you evaluate your knowledge of English before you began college?	6 5.9%	19 17.8%	35 34.7%	27 26.7%	15 14.9%

Table 5.2 Professionals' Self-assessed Proficiency before Joining the University

As compared to their levels before joining colleges, the professionals' levels seemed to have been comparatively good towards the end of their undergraduate studies. Therefore, 30 participants considered their levels as having been satisfactory, and 63 as either excellent (15) or very good (48). Only 9 out of them evaluated their level as being poor.

No	Survey Item / Description:	Excellent	Very good	Satisfactory	Poor	Very Poor
1	How would you evaluate your knowledge of English after you graduated from college?	15 14.9%	48 46.5%	30 29.7%	9 8.9%	-

Table 5.3 Professionals' Self-assessed Proficiency when Graduating from the University

5.4.1.2 Students

As with the students, the response rate of the female participants was higher than that of the males, i.e. 108 vs. 50. (Total of 158 students)
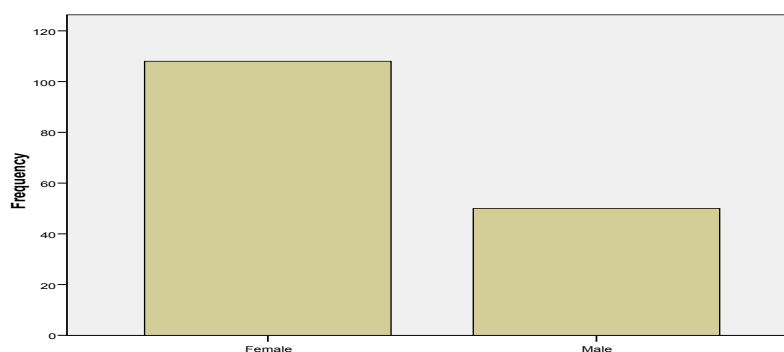
Figure 5.3 Distributions of the Student Participants According to Gender

Most of the responses were obtained from students who were attending the fifth (43) and the seventh or higher levels of their undergraduate studies (67). The freshmen were excluded assuming that they had not fully been exposed to the experience of learning the language at the university, or adapted yet to the culture of the 'new' academic atmosphere and, hence, might be unable to evaluate the courses properly.
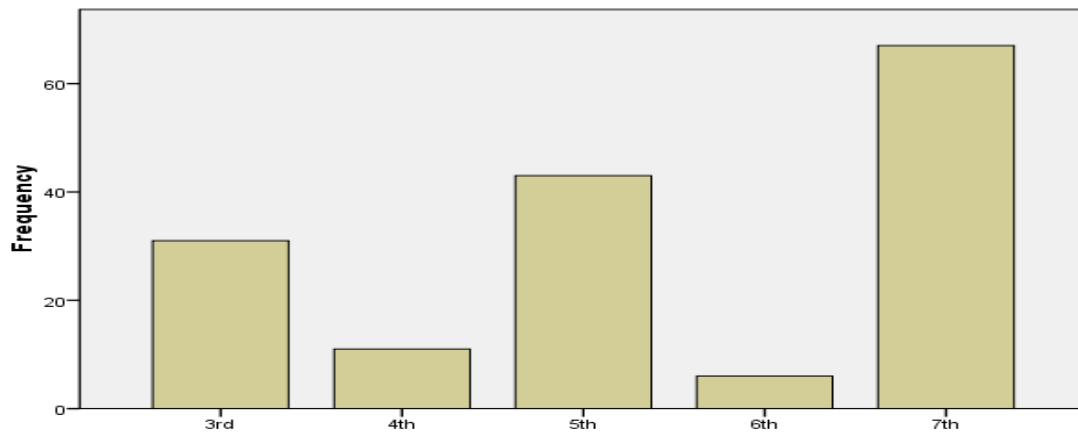
Figure 5.4 Distributions of the Student Participants According to Academic Level

The majority of the participating students came from the faculty of Medicine (76), followed by students of the Dentistry School (53).
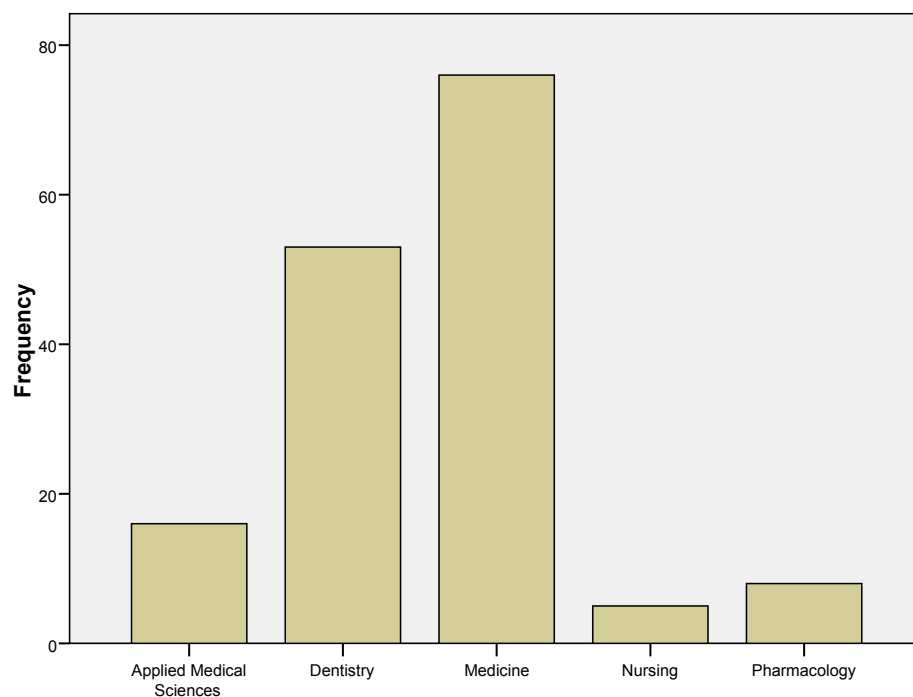
Figure 5.5 Distributions of the Student Participants According to Specialities

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Similar to their professional counterparts, about half of the surveyed students (82) revealed a complete dissatisfaction about their language levels, followed by 65 who viewed their levels to be, 'to a certain extent,' satisfying.

Survey Item		Yes	To a certain extent	No
No	Description:			
	Are you satisfied with your current English level?	11	65	82
1		7.0%	41.1%	51.9%

Table 5.4 Students' Self-assessed Proficiency

5.4.2. The Participants' Instrumental, Integrative, and 'International Posture' Motivations

The survey data confirms that English affects participants' social, professional, and academic lives, yet to certain degrees. Responding to Gradner's (1985) IAMTB, participants generally assigned English a prominent position in achieving various professional and academic tasks (instrumental motivation), including communication with both native and non-native speakers at workplace. Besides, they indicated that English was equally important to access the international community and to meet and converse with various people (international posture). As for 'integrative motivation,' respondents reported a less coherent attitude towards this type of motivation, in the light of their responses to a number of direct and indirect attitudes measures. In other words, the responses indicated less importance to this type of motivations than previous ones, from the participants' side. The first three items in both tables below measured the surveyed participants' instrumental motivation, while the second three were for measuring integrative motivation. The last three items were adapted to represent Yashima's (2002) 'international posture'.

No	Survey Item Description	V. Important %	Important %	Not sure %	Unimportant %	V. Unimportant %
1	Because it is important for my career	71.3	19.8	4.0	3.0	1.0
2	To talk to non-native English speakers in work situations	54.5	34.7	8.9	0	1.0
3	To talk to native English speakers in work situations	63.4	26.7	8.9	0	1.0
4	Preference of countries where English is spoken as a mother-tongue	23.8	21.8	30.7	10.9	9.9
5	To think and behave as native speakers.	26.7	22.8	13.9	20.8	14.9
6	To better understand and appreciate the English way of life.	22.8	28.7	20.8	0	16.8
7	To meet and converse with more and varied people.	43.6	36.6	16.8	0	2.0
8	To access the international community	63.4	28.7	5.0	0	1.0
9	To talk to foreigners in Saudi Arabia	36.6	42.6	15.8	0	4.0

Table 5.5 Survey Results of Professionals' Motivations

Participants of Survey 1 (S1 hereafter), the professionals, assigned English a very high importance in relation to their career. Out of the 102 participants, 98% stated that English was either *very important* or *important* in relation to their career. Only 4% of them thought it was either *unimportant* or *very unimportant*, with 4% who revealed a neutral response. As with their integrative motivation, nearly half of them (49.5%) thought it was either *important* or *very important* to think and behave like an NS. That is, only 35.7% thought it was either *unimportant* or *very unimportant*, and 13.9% were neutral toward this statement. Also 30.7% of them were not sure about their feelings towards native countries and speakers, and 20.8% found such a reason for learning the language as either *unimportant* or *very unimportant*. In fact, meeting and conversing with a more varied group of people and accessing the international community seemed to be more important to participants. The majority of them (80.2% and 92.1%) thought that such reasons for using the language were either *important* or *very important*, respectively.

Survey Item		V. Important %	Important %	Not sure %	Unimportant %	V. Unimportant %
No	Description					
1	Important to interact with medical textbooks, seminars and lectures	78.5	13.3	7.6	0.6	0.0
2	To talk to non-native English speakers in work situations	55.7	27.8	13.9	1.9	0.6
3	To talk to native English speakers in work situations	69.6	21.5	4.4	1.9	1.9
4	Preference of countries where English is spoken as a mother-tongue	19.0	19.0	25.9	19.6	16.5
5	To think and behave as native speakers.	27.2	13.9	27.8	13.9	17.1
6	To better understand and appreciate the English way of life.	22.8	21.5	29.7	15.8	10.1
7	To meet and converse with more and varied people.	50.6	32.3	10.1	5.7	1.3
8	To access the international community	50.6	32.3	10.1	5.7	1.3
9	To talk to foreigners in Saudi Arabia	55.1	31.0	10.1	2.5	1.3

Table 5.6.Survey Results of Students' Motivations

Similarly, results of the first item in the students' survey (S2 hereafter) revealed a broad level of agreement on the importance of English to students' study. Out of the 158 participants, 78.5% and 13.3% thought that English was either *very important* or *important* for their academic study, whereas 7.6% of them responded neutrally to this survey item. However, only 0.6% of the students indicated that English was *unimportant* for their study.

Regarding their integrative motivation, only 38% out of them appreciated NSs and their countries; hence, these can be their important reasons for learning English. Also only 41.1% emphasised the importance of thinking and behaving like NSs, as reasons for learning the language. Like the professionals, students tended to assign reasons that belong to the status of EIL a high degree of importance, since 82.9% of them indicated that they were learning the language to meet a diverse population.

In short, a cursory look at the results in the two previous tables can conclude that both groups of participants revealed comparatively similar levels to each motivation type.

Both groups tended to be strongly motivated to use and learn English for instrumental purposes relating to their subject field and career. They also seemed to be strongly motivated to use English as *lingua franca* in this globalised world, to communicate with people from various and different backgrounds. Yet, their desire to be integrated into the target language community and to become a member of their groups was feeble, compared to their desires to achieve other purposes, which created their desire to learn and use the language. For example, only 22.8% in both surveys indicated understanding and appreciating the English culture as a very important purpose of their learning English, whereas 36.6% and 55.1% in the two surveys, respectively, considered talking to foreigners in their country, who might be NSs or NNSs[8], as a very important purpose for learning and using the language.

5.4.3 The Participants' Attitudes towards NS and NNS Models

I will present items in this section to identify participants' perceptions, preferences, and beliefs about NS models and NNS Englishes.

5.4.3.1 Attitudes towards NS Models

A great number of participants tended to believe in English native models as the standards that should be followed by NNSs, since 28.7% and 21.8% of professionals, besides 24.1% and 26.6% of the students, either *strongly agre*e or *agree,* respectively, with statement 1 in both tables, 5.7 and 5.8. Also, most of them, with different levels though, revealed an agreement with the opinion that any usage of the language is to be wrong, if it is not typical and identical to the native models, the AmE and BrE in this case. In both surveys, 13.9% and 18.8% in S1, with 10.8% and 14.6% in S2, chose to *strongly agree* and *agree* with this opinion. Besides, 23.8% in S1 and 17.1% in S2

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[8] Based on the data and previous studies, foreigners in SA are mostly NNS.

indicated they *agree slightly* with this opinion. If the percentages are to be summed up, both groups seem to agree with this item, with students (57.6%) showing higher agreement level than professionals (43.6%).

No	Description	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
	Survey Item						
1	The non-native English speakers should speak into Standard English	6.9	6.9	9.9	24.8	21.8	28.7
2	If English is used differently from British or American English, it must be wrong	10.9	15.8	16.8	23.8	18.8	13.9
3	English belongs to the UK/USA	22.8	21.8	13.9	24.8	7.9	8.9
4	Imitating how native speakers use English is very important in learning English.	14.9	13.9	21.8	19.8	14.9	14.9
5	Any English accent that sounds like the British accent is considered as a clear accent	7.9	9.9	13.9	37.6	16.8	13.9
6	Any English accent that sounds like the American accent is considered as a clear accent	4.0	2.0	14.9	35.6	23.8	19.8
7	Native speakers should be hired as teachers if the English courses are to be successful	3.0	3.0	5.9	10.9	12.9	63.4

Table 5.7 Professionals' Attitudes Towards NS Models

No	Description	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
	Survey Item						
1	The non-native English speakers should speak into Standard English	3.8	8.9	15.2	21.5	26.6	24.1
2	If English is used differently from British or American English, it must be wrong	13.3	25.3	19.0	17.1	14.6	10.8
3	English belongs to the UK/USA	38.6	18.4	15.2	12.7	11.4	3.8
4	Imitating how native speakers use English is very important in learning English.	6.3	9.5	13.9	19.6	26.6	24.1
5	Any English accent that sounds like the British accent is considered as a clear accent	5.7	7.6	13.3	19.6	27.8	25.9
6	Any English accent that sounds like the American accent is considered as a clear accent	3.8	13.3	16.5	22.2	29.1	15.2
7	Native speakers should be hired as teachers if the English courses to be successful	1.3	3.8	4.4	13.9	20.9	55.7

Table 5.8 The Students' Attitudes Towards NS Models

The data, however, seem to contradict the assumption of English ownership as a factor that may influence shaping attitudes toward WEs. Apparently, the participants, who cling to native models in this study, do not necessarily believe that English is a property of people from English-speaking or inner-circle countries, yet with slight differences between the two participating groups. That is, the students revealed a relatively stronger level of disagreement with this theory (72.2% disagreement level), as 38.6% of them *strongly disagree*, compared to 22.8% out of professionals who also *strongly disagree* with the same opinion (total of 58.4% disagreement). At the same time, professionals revealed a slight agreement of 24.8% percentage out of the total. (See item 3 in tables 5.7 and 5.8.)

As with emulating NS models, results of statement 4 in S1 seemed to be equally distributed under each choice of the scale, with hesitated stance of disagreement (21.8%) and agreement (19.8%). If the percentages of disagreement are calculated, half of the professionals (49.5%) are considered as disagreeing with the statement. However, participants in S2 revealed stronger levels of agreement, since 24.1% and 26.6% of them chose either *strongly agree* or *agree* (total of 70.3% agreement) with the same statement.

Like the interviewees who justified their preference of native accents with 'clarity' and intelligibility assigned to such accents, the questionnaire participants also agreed with this justification, yet with slight differences between the two groups of the surveyed participants, relating to the 'clarity' degree of BrE and AmE. It seems that S1 participants agree with interviewees in the opinion that both NS models, BrE and AmE, are 'to a certain extent' clear, as 37.6% and 35.6% *slightly agree* to statements 5 and 6.

BrE appeared to be clearer than the AmE to the students, as 25.9% and 27.8% of them chose to *strongly agree* or *agree* with statements 5, and 15.2% and 29.1% revealed the same about the AmE.

Although there are slight differences between the two groups in terms of the degrees of their beliefs and opinions about NS models, they generally seem to value native speakers and models. Also it can be said that they considered the NS as the best teacher, since only 12.0% and 9.5% of the two groups disagreed with the last item in both tables. Furthermore, participants' positive attitude toward NS models was confirmed once again by 52.5% and 50.0% rate of positive responses in each survey, asserting their belief in the NS as the best teacher, as presented in table 5.9.

Survey Item		NET %	NNET %	It doesn't matter if it's a native or non-native teacher but on the teacher's expertise, knowledge and professionalism %	Other: (Arab teacher) %	Other: (Saudi teacher) %
Survey	Description: Always with (a/an).....teacher					
S1	What do you think is the best way to learn English?	52.5	_	45.5	1.0	1.0
S2		50.0	1.9	48.1	_	_

Table 5.9 The Participants' Opinions about the Best Teachers

However, this table also shows considerable percentages of participants, namely 45.5% and 48.1%, who seem to disregard criterion of 'nativeness' as to teachers. Besides, two of the professionals chose Arab and Saudi teachers as their best teacher.

A more detailed analysis of participants' attitudes towards English non-native varieties and speakers is presented under the next subheading.

5.4.3.2 Attitudes towards some NNS Varieties or WEs

No	Survey Item Description	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
1	The English spoken by Indian people is not authentic English.	9.9	9.9	18.8	19.8	13.9	26.7
2	English belongs to anyone who attempts to speak it	6.9	10.9	12.9	21.8	22.8	23.8
3	Like Philippine and Indian Englishes, Saudi Arabia should have its own accent of English: "Saudi English"	48.5	17.8	8.9	12.9	5.9	5.0
4	Accent does not matter in teaching and learning English	25.7	20.8	17.8	14.9	9.9	10.9

Table 5.10 Professionals' Attitudes Towards WEs

No	Survey Item Description	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
1	The English spoken by Indian people is not authentic English.	5.7	11.4	12.0	20.9	17.1	32.9
2	English belongs to anyone who attempts to speak it	6.3	7.0	7.6	20.9	28.5	29.7
3	Like Philippine and Indian Englishes, Saudi Arabia should have its own accent of English: "Saudi English"	62.0	13.9	9.5	5.7	3.8	5.1
4	Accent does not matter in teaching and learning English	34.2	20.9	13.3	14.6	10.8	6.3

Table 5.11 Students' Attitudes Towards WEs

The results in these tables to a certain extent corroborate those presented in the previous tables (5.7, 5.8, and 5.9). That is, the native models appear to be the dominant models since other non-native Englishes are less favoured by participants. For example, Indian English was negatively rated by great numbers of participants in both surveys, more underestimated by students, as 32.9% and 17.1% of them chose to *strongly agree* and *agree* with the first statement in the table (total of 70.9% agreement). Besides, 26.7%, 13.9%, and 19.8% out of the professionals revealed their agreement with the same statement as well.

The issue of accent, i.e. a 'correct' native accent, is apparently important to participants. Most of them disagreed with the last sentence in both tables, 20.8% and 20.9% in both surveys, and 25.7% and 34.2% further indicated their *strong disagreement* in each group.

However, asserting the point I referred to earlier in **5.4.3.1**, language ownership seems not to play a role in determining participants' attitudes or preferences. Most of them, 69.0% and 79.1% from each group, with all the levels of agreement, agree that English can be owned by any speaker who attempts to use it. In other words, although strongly associating the language to the UK and US, the majority of participants think that English belongs to anyone who speaks or uses it, and disagree with the belief that it is a property of the UK and US.

Like their attitude towards Indian English, participants seemingly do not favour the Philippines English and do not agree with the idea of establishing or developing Saudi English. In both surveys, 48.5% and 62.0% of participants *strongly disagreed* with statement 3 in the previous tables.

Although participants seemed to underestimate their 'own' variety of speaking English, their goal of speaking appeared to contradict this standpoint. The majority of them (62.0% and 66.5%) chose a competent speaker, even if with a Saudi accent, as their goal speaker. Other participants, however, indicated the British or American speaker as their goal speakers.

Survey	Survey Item Description: To speak like....	Educated British %	Educated American %	Competent speaker with a Saudi accent %	Other native speakers %	Educated British or American %
S1	The goal of the professionals when speaking English	7.0	13.0	62.0	_	18.0
S2	The goal of students when speaking English.	7.6	5.1	66.5	3.2	17.7

Table 5.12 Participants' Goal of Speaking

'Clarity' of accents can be indicated as the reason given by interviewees for their preferences of certain accents. As well as questionnaire participants, regardless of their dismissing for 'Saudi English', agreed that what might be called Saudi English variety is clear. The item that indicates this point below was responded to with various levels of agreement, 77.2% and 87.3% in S1 and S2, respectively.

No	Survey Item Description	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
1	When Saudis speak English, their speaking is clear.	3.0%	6.9%	12.9%	26.7%	24.8%	25.7%

Table 5.13 Professionals' Opinions about the Saudi English

No	Survey Item Description	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
1	When Saudis speak English, their speaking is clear.	_	4.4%	8.2%	29.1%	33.5%	24.7%

Table 5.14 Students' Opinions about the Saudi English

Arab or/and Saudi teachers were mentioned extensively while conducting interviews. Throughout the surveys, however, participants took a hesitant position as regards this opinion. In S1, 25.7% revealed their *slight disagreement* with the statement in table 5.15, whereas 22.8% in S2 showed a *slight agreement* with the same statement in table 5.16. The S2 participants, however, seemed to support this opinion more than participants of S1, i.e. 30.4% of students in comparison with 23.8% of professionals who either *strongly agreed* or *agreed*. This might result from their lower proficiency

levels, compared to professionals, or to any challenges they might face at understanding

non-Arab teachers.

	Survey Item	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
No	Description						
1	Students need a teacher who can understand them, i.e. speaking Arabic	14.9%	17.8%	25.7%	17.8%	13.9%	9.9%

Table 5.15 Professionals' Views about Teacher Sharing their L1

	Survey Item	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
No	Description						
1	Students need a teacher who can understand them, i.e. speaking Arabic	19.6%	16.5%	10.8%	22.8%	13.3%	17.1%

Table 5.16 Students' Views about Teacher Sharing their L1

5.4.4 English Status at the Medical Workplace: With a Special Reference to Native models, from the Professionals' Viewpoint

Supporting interview findings, responses of surveyed professional participants assert

that medical settings in the country can be described as multinational, multilingual, and

multicultural, in which English acts as a *lingua franca*. Results shown in the following

table can also confirm that English is not used as a communicative means between

Arabs, and it is rather only and mostly used with NNSs who do not speak Arabic, apart

from its main role as a language for specific occupational purposes.

	Survey Item	Arabs and Saudis	Native English Speakers	Non-native English speakers
No	Description			
1	With whom do you often use English at your work?	13 11.3%	7 6.1%	82 71.3%

Table 5.17 English as a lingua franca in the Medical Settings

The following items, developed from interviews, attempt to draw a picture about the

status of English in the medical workplaces in SA, including elements such as

proficiency level required, and how the language is used by involved practitioners or

personnel.

No	Survey Item Description	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
1	A doctor can be successful and distinguished in his/her career with an intermediate/satisfactory level of general English	5.0	11.9	14.9	33.7	20.8	13.9
2	I can easily do a conversation related to medical purposes at my workplace	1.0	3.0	13.9	14.9	30.7	36.6
3	I can understand any English speaker as far as what is being discussed related to Medicine	5.9	6.9	9.9	20.8	31.7	24.8
4	I find communicating in English with people outside my workplace difficult because of language barriers	20.8	14.9	18.8	22.8	12.9	7.9
5	The way English native speakers use and speak English is important and required in order to communicate with people at my work	6.9	4.0	9.9	27.7	25.7	25.7
6	A doctor must have an English native-like proficiency if he is to be successful	15.8	10.9	17.8	22.8	21.8	10.9

Table 5.18 Aspects from the Medical Workplace

As revealed by interviewees, usage of English at hospitals in SA seems to be primarily linked to professional purposes. This is confirmed by participants of surveys as well. Over two thirds (68.4%) of surveyed professionals tended to agree with the first statement in previous table. This indicates that lack of certain linguistic issues about English does not impede medical profession in SA. Instead, a simple or basic level of English can be sufficient to make an acceptably successful doctor. However, 33.7% out of total number of participants revealed an uncertain agreement with the statement. In other words, although some participants (43.6%) indicated they might face difficulties regarding (GE), i.e. outside their workplaces, as 12.9% *agreed* and 22.8% *slightly agreed* with statement 4 in Table 5.18, all of them, at the same time, felt they had the linguistic competence required for performing their duties at their workplaces. For example, 82.2% of participants revealed an agreement with statement 2, i.e. 36.6% *agreed strongly*, 30.7% *agreed* and 14.9% *agreed slightly*. This could assert that they can easily achieve communication that what is being communicated is related to their field. Also, it can be indicated that a native-like proficiency is not needed in the medical

workplaces in context of this study. Yet, some participants apparently still think that this level of proficiency is required from practitioners if they are to become successful. In detail, a great number of them tended to agree with this assumption, as 10.9% of them *strongly agreed*, 21.8% *agreed*, and 22.8% agreed slightly with the last sentence in the previous table. Furthermore, this can be confirmed by their responses to statement 5, through which 79.2% of them indicated that the natives' ways of using and speaking the language are important to achieve communication in medical workplaces.

In fact, as indicated through interviews, when it comes to participants' subject field and profession, they consider themselves as competent users/learners as shown in the following tables, at least to a certain extent, if not perfectly. In more details, nearly all professional participants (99.7%) seemed to be confident about their language competency as far as their career was concerned; as 62.4% of them responded positively to the question below, besides 33.7% who appeared to be somewhat confident. As with students, although if summed up together, 94.3% of students can be considered as having competency that can enable them to cope with courses, they however still can be looked at as less confident when compared to professionals. The majority of them (57%) revealed a comparative level of confidence about their linguistic abilities, with only 37.3% who reported an absolute confidence about their levels.

Survey Item		Yes %	No %	To some extent %
No.	Description			
1	Do you have the sufficient linguistic abilities to interact and cope up with your occupation?	62.4%	4%	33.7%

Table 5.19 Professionals' Proficiency Self-assessment in terms of their Career

Survey Item		Yes %	No %	To some extent %
No.	Description			
1	Do you have the sufficient linguistic abilities to interact and cope up with the current scientific and medical courses you are attending?	37.3%	5.7%	57.0%

Table 5.20 Students' Proficiency Self-assessment in terms of their Study

5.4.5 The Participants' Needs

The following question is introduced in an attempt to spot the gaps that should be filled

to satisfy participants' needs. This is thought to be helpful in matching their *wants* and

lacks to their *necessities*, so what actually is needed can be identified.

No.	Survey Item Description: Needs	Strongly Prefer %	Prefer %
1	General English, i.e. grammar, listening, speaking, writing and reading skills	66.3	19.8
2	Medical terminology, i.e. body anatomy, diseases, medications	37.6	21.8
3	How to communicate with people at the workplace	56.4	26.7
4	How to communicate with people outside the workplace	57.4	20.8

Table 5.21 Professionals' Current Linguistics Needs

No.	Survey Item Description: Needs	Strongly Prefer %	Prefer %
1	General English, i.e. grammar, listening, speaking, writing and reading skills	57.6	22.8
2	Medical terminology, i.e. body anatomy, diseases, medications	62.0	24.1
3	How to communicate with people at the workplace.	84.2	14.6
4	How to communicate with people outside the workplace.	80.4	15.2

Table 5.22 Students' Current Linguistics Needs

The results obtained from professionals showed that participants needed GE the most

(90.6%), and ME or (MT) the least (63.8%). After the need of GE came the need for

communication within the workplace confines (87.5%), and outside it (81.4%). As for

the students, communicative needs, whether at the workplace or away from its confines,

were slightly stronger than both the professionals' communicative needs, and their own

needs for either GE or ME, 80.4% and 86.1%, respectively. In general, both

participating groups revealed high levels of need for all the proposed linguistic areas,

except the need for MT by the professionals.

Whether the participants' needs developed due to inefficiency and/or inadequacy of the

courses or not, this will be revealed through the analysis of items included in the

following tables.

5.4.5.1 The Participants' Views about the Courses

In fact, a great number of the students (66.5%) expressed their dissatisfaction about either previous or current courses.

	Survey Item		Yes %	No %	To some extent %
No.	Description				
1	Are you satisfied with the teaching methods, textbooks and other materials followed and used in your school?		10.1%	66.5 %	23.4%

Table 5.23 Students' Evaluation of the University Language Courses

As with the professionals, the figures showed that almost half the respondents found the courses partially useful, in comparison with 31 who were even more satisfied, and 23 who were not. The distribution of results shows a normal bell curve, which is slightly biased towards positive responses.

	Survey Item	V. Useful %	Useful %	Somehow useful %	Useless	V. Useless
No.	Description					
1	How useful were the general English language courses provided by the language unit at the university you attended?	10.9%	19.8%	45.5%	17.8%	5.0%

Table 5.24 Professionals' Evaluation of the University Language Courses

To obtain more details about course efficiency, the participants in both surveys were asked about the usefulness of courses in developing basic and necessary skills, as shown in the following tables.

No	Survey Item Description: The extent to which intensive English language courses provided by the university helped in the following task.	A lot %	Somehow %	A little %	Did not help at all %
1	Speak about medical related topics in English	35.0%	37.0%	20%	8%
2	Write about medical related topics in English	27.0%	34.0%	30%	9%
3	Read medical related books, articles, and magazines	37.0%	29.0%	22%	12%
4	Understand medical related instructions, lectures, and homework	43.0%	31.0%	19%	7%
5	Discuss medical topics with colleagues	29.0%	36.0%	22%	13%

Table 5.25 How Courses helped Professionals Developing Specific Skills

No	Survey Item Description: The extent to which intensive English language courses provided by the university can help in the following task.	A lot %	Somehow %	A little %	Cannot help at all %
1	Speak about medical related topics in English	24.1%	44.3%	22.8%	8.9%
2	Write about medical related topics in English	15.2%	29.1%	41.1%	14.6%
3	Read medical related books, articles, and magazines	15.2%	36.7%	30.4%	17.7%
4	Understand medical related instructions, lectures, and homework	28.5%	47.5%	20.3%	3.8%
5	Discuss medical topics with colleagues	18.5%	43.3%	25.5%	12.7%

Table 5.26 How Courses helped Students Developing Specific Skills

The items in the previous tables attempted to measure the courses usefulness in improving participant competencies, in terms of their subject field requirements. They show a tendency between both groups, as far as the effect of language courses on speaking and writing in medical prose is concerned. Both groups agreed on the principles that their university courses better prepared their speaking rather than writing, but students seemed more negative. However, the percentage of approval varies significantly as professionals always seem the most satisfied.

Similarly, reading and writing were viewed more favourably by the professionals as compared to about half of the respective figures when students responded to the same items in the questionnaire.

Understanding medical instructions and discussions in medical topics were both assigned a higher level of satisfaction among professionals.

To summarise, professionals seemed to be much more satisfied (either a lot or partially) than their student counterparts, possibly because they had completed the required language courses and managed to relate what they learned to real life situations.

No	Survey Item Description: The Professionals' Experiences of Learning English	Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly Agree %
1	My English level has been improved through attending intensive English courses at the university	18.8%	22.8%	20%	21.8%	17.8%	9.9%
2	The hospital is a good place where a medical student can learn English	1.0%	7.9%	17.8%	34.7%	24.8%	13.9%
3	If my English level has been improved it is all due to my own effort and hard work only	2.0%	2.0%	8.9%	24.8%	31.7%	30.7%

Table 5.27 Professionals' Experiences of Learning English

However, Table 5.27 can assert that attending intensive courses, or courses *per se*, is not a major key of a successful learning experience. Over half the professionals, after spending long periods of studying English, did not consider courses as the factor that helped their levels to improve, if any improvement had been achieved. In details, the results of the first statement in the table, which show that 18.8% of the participants *strongly disagree,* compared to 9.9% who *strongly agree,* and 22.8% who *disagree*

compared to 17.8% who *agree*, besides 20.0% to 21.8% who *slightly disagree* and

agree, reveal that the disagreement levels with the statement outweigh those of the

agreement among the participants. Like the professional interviewees, the majority in S1

(73.3%) viewed practicing and using the language at hospitals as a useful experience of

acquiring the language. Furthermore, they seemed to highly value their own individual

efforts and endeavours to learn the language autonomously as an efficiency factor that

helped improving their proficiency levels. Results show that 30.7% of them *strongly*

agree, and 31.7% *agree* with this last point in the table. Indeed, most of the

interviewees' opinions, especially about improving the courses and the teaching/learning

process, which were developed through their learning experiences, were introduced to

S1 participants as well. The following table shall present the results obtained from the

survey concerning such opinions.

5.4.6 Helpful Suggestions for Improving the Teaching/Learning Process

Since the study pays special attention to medical workplace environments, the opinions

of stakeholders involved in such context are thought to be important, assuming that such

stakeholders have witnessed the learning experience of the language, and practicing it in

authentic situations where it is used. It is worthy to note that most of the included items

in the next table, from 1 to 6, were developed in light of interviews, i.e. mainly proposed

by professional interviewees.

Survey Item		Strongly disagree %	Disagree %	Slightly disagree %	Slightly agree %	Agree %	Strongly agree %
No	Description						
1	Medical students can learn English through medical lectures and textbooks.	7.1	12.1	16.2	35.4	15.2	14.1
2	English should be introduced at several levels, not only for freshmen or sophomores	7.1	7.1	7.1	13.1	15.2	50.5

3	English is better learnt through other medical and scientific subjects rather than specific courses for either general or medical English	14.9	17.8	16.8	17.8	18.8	13.9
4	English should be taught through non-credit and non-compulsory courses	38.0	12.0	16.0	12.0	9.0	13.0
5	Students should be motivated to learn English and to be self-learners	5.0	7.0	16.0	-	22.0	50.0
6	Teaching grammar to medical students is not necessary	43.6	24.8	19.8	5.9	1.0	5.0
7	Policy and courses planners should focus on the Medical language more than the general English	6.0	9.0	32.0	28.0	8.0	17.0
8	Policy and courses planners should focus on the general English more than the Medical language	5.0	2.0	26.0	27.0	19.0	21.0
9	Policy and courses planners should equally focus on both medical and general English	1.0	4.0	9.9	11.9	19.8	53.5

Table 5.28 Recommendations through The Professionals' Learning Experiences

Results of the first item indicates that the majority of professionals (15.2%) *agree,* with 14.1% and 35.4% who *strongly* and *slightly agree*, apparently supporting the opinion that English can be learned while studying medicine through medical and scientific textbooks and lectures, i.e. through a content-based approach, rather than specific courses for teaching the language. Results from item 3 supports this finding as well, since nearly half the respondents tended to *agree* with the statement, revealing different levels of agreement. Yet, the results can be seen as quite evenly distributed under each of the scale items between the two extremes.

As with suggestion that MT/ME or GE should be the content that is taught, results show a reluctant stance toward which is to be focused on more than the other. As indicated in items 7 and 8, the highest percentages of responses go under either the *slightly agree* or *slightly disagree* choices. In fact, as revealed through the last item in the table, the participants seem to advocate teaching and learning both GE and ME/MT, as over half of them strongly agree with the statement. It has been indicated through results from interviews and questionnaires that the specific linguistic knowledge of professionals, i.e.

in terms of their specialty, is higher than their GE proficiency levels, hence, they mainly reveal needs for GE courses. At the same time, due to their beliefs that MT or ML is what needed mostly in the field, they seem to emphasise its importance and relevance. Thus, their responses were quite evenly distributed between whether GE or ME. Participants also acknowledges the need for grammar, as most of them relegate an approach that underestimates the grammar role in learning the language, as revealed by results of item 6. A tendency to acknowledge all the proposed needs can similarly be reflected through the participants' responses to item 2, where a great number of them *agree with* introducing more English courses, with 50.5% of them *strongly* supporting this opinion. This comes in accordance with the indicated needs they reveal for more GE. Consequently, the comparatively opposite opinion (making learning the language optional), as indicated by item 3, is likely to be rejected. However, this rejection might have resulted from the recognition that students are usually de-motivated, hence, there is a little chance they can join non-core or non-obligatory courses. This can be spotted from the results of item 5, since half the respondents *strongly agree*, besides 22.0% who *agree* with the opinion of motivating the learners first, so they help themselves learn the language autonomously.

5.4.7 Reflexivity: Mixed-methods Paradigm

The QUAL➔quant mixed-methods design has had its influence on me at both analysing and discussing the data. The in-depth interviews I conducted have established a firm understanding about participants, which has resulted in making judgments that were mainly and primarily built on interviews data, rather than surveys. Thus, although I acknowledge the contradictions that can be revealed through comparing these two sets of data, I find myself leaning toward the interview findings. As with the questionnaires,

although piloted and re-piloted, as indicated in Chapter 4, I think, in case this cannot be considered as a natural or normal issue, the items that contradict the interviewees' responses may still need to be modified and adapted, with participants explaining how they have understood these items. Furthermore, sometimes contradictions appeared within a single individual interview. However, this can be acknowledged as a drawback of the interview method, due to the instances when an interviewee acts according to what s/he thinks the interviewer wants to hear, or to the complex nature of the human being itself at the same time.

To sum up, the complexity of human nature unfolds through interviewee contradicting responses, and sometimes through comparisons between interviews and questionnaires analyses. This might result from questionnaire limitation that customarily it cannot reveal participant thoughts, and also due to the interview merit of revealing what cannot be stated through questionnaires, and demerit of possibility that interviewees may respond to the interviewer in a way that is thought to please him/her.

5.4.8 Summary

Following the research design, this chapter (5) has presented qualitative then quantitative data collected from medical and health-related practitioners and students, by using interview and questionnaire methods.

The symmetry between the two participating groups is obvious, namely in relation to their attitudes, motivations, and needs.

Since this research pays special attention to *needs*, I attempt here to summarise my understanding about the participants' needs in light of the findings.

Approximately, all participants appeared to recognise the importance and relevance of all proposed linguistic needs and skills. In more specific words, they generally seemed to support teaching and learning general and specific English, in terms of structures and contents. Almost all of them seemed predominantly to *lack* productive skills, namely *Speaking* and *Communicative*, hence, eagerly *wanted* to have these skills developed and improved.

That said, the project at hand focuses more on the participants' *necessities* or *objective needs*, i.e. what they need as should be informed and reflected from workplace reality. In relation to their context-specific competencies, professional participants exposed a high level of confidence at performing their jobs, regardless of the language proficiency in terms of General English (GE). Regarding the students, it seems that most of them had such specific knowledge, i.e. the terms or language of their subject field, except those who seemed to have recently joined the university. That is, the longer and more learners attend scientific and medical courses, the more likely they are to acquire the required specific linguistic knowledge. Such individual differences can be applicable to participants' expressed needs in general. That is, there cannot be an absolute and generalised judgment about their needs, since every individual seems to need what s/he is not satisfied about it yet. In other words, if GE is required from the participants' viewpoints, this can be due to their saturation from and satisfaction about the specific English, namely MT or ME, and *vice versa.* Further discussion about the participants' needs, alongside discussions of findings relevant to the research questions, shall be presented in the following chapter.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

A general overview of the linguistic scene in Saudi Arabia, including its medical spheres, indicates that English is mostly used with and between NNSs, (e.g. Refer to Khan, 2009; Al-Eiessa, 2008; Al-Harby, 2005.) This observation is thus the spur for conducting the current study. Initial investigations and related observations were carried out in 2010 on the targeted academic context by the researcher as a former insider. These efforts established that occasions when NSs might be met were not frequent, compared to the more frequent occasions or instances of meeting and communicating with NNSs. Still, native speakers and models were mostly preferred by both educators and learners.

Not surprisingly, the current research confirmed this observation. Clearly indicated by the study participants, the majority of speakers usually available at medical workplaces or academic institutions are mostly Asians and Arabs, i.e. NNSs. Saudi students in this same context are mostly taught by NNS teachers in almost all of their subjects, including English. That said, the medical professional contemporary contexts are *de facto* multilingual, and multinational settings and mostly populated by NNSs (See Table 5.17.)

This study initially hypothesised that in a global and internationalised age, a 'nativespeakerist' aspect may be indeed irrelevant for ELT due to the fact that the language is being used by NNSs, whose numbers far outnumber those of its NSs, and the current international character of English (Jenkins, 2006; Björkman, 2011). To examine this theory and its assumption, the study approached the medical professional context as a positive and typical representation of the contemporary situation and the

phenomenon of 'international' English by taking into account the changing nature of contexts where English is used and "the possible discourse communities with which learners might engage" through ongoing globalisation (Cawford, 2005:80). Kirkpatrick (2002) suggests approaching these contexts and discourse communities as the learner targets for English by focusing on an Asian context in which English is mainly used for communication with NNSs, both locally and internationally. Kirkpatrick suggests that local varieties and relevant pragmatic norms should be endorsed in syllabi rather than to exclusively focus on the standards of the NSs. Similarly, Matsuda (2003) suggests that when there is a probability that learners will use language with various speakers other than NSs, exposing those learners to other varieties of English communication does become crucial.

This assumption above reflects the initial and essential purpose of the study at hand, which originally presupposed that students in the targeted contexts of the study are going to be engaged in multinational and multilingual workplaces, and hence the hegemony of native speakers and models can be minimised in ELT in general and ESP/EAP in particular. Once achieved, the educational situation will tolerate NNETs and NNS varieties and yield more positive consequences of language learning. Learners will accept their own realities and also the realities and needs of others as legitimate NNS users of English.

Once more, needs, attitudes, and motivations represent the main framework of this data analysis and the study in general.

Since the 1970s and 1980s, when NA became popular, both the "situations where students will need the language and the knowledge and [those] gaps students have when

starting the course" have become the main focus of NA studies (Ruiz-Garrido and Fortanet-Gómez, 2009). Therefore, a current analysis of both of these situations is presented here.

Stakeholders' attitudes are also of paramount importance for the decisions about what to be taught and the current teaching/learning situation. Further, by exploring the needs and attitudes regarding English and other Englishes, it is plausible to identify why participants do learn and use English, i.e. identify their motivations. Consequently, the findings on the elements of needs, attitudes, and motivations are offered and discussed here as well as a presentation of the gathered data.

More clearly, this chapter focuses on the objectives and research questions of the study, starting with a summary of the findings on participants' attitudes and motivations and then identifying their needs, as they relate to the broader aim of tackling the NS-NNS debate, and the research questions in particular.

6.2 Summary of the Findings

The main incentive of this study has been to identify the implications related to language models and the variations currently used in medical workplaces and have them reflected pedagogically in future education efforts in terms of being less important or perhaps more crucial compared to current learning priorities. The findings from the workplace analysis *per se* do suggest that English can be minimally used and only when needed for job-related, i.e. medical professional, purposes. Further, the findings of this study clearly indicate that this specific use of English relates heavily to the medical terms used within the main medium of communication, namely Arabic, the official first language in the

actual targeted contexts of the study. These significant and compelling findings are further detailed and discussed throughout this chapter.

This chapter, however, begins by discussing the results that pertain to the first research question. It tackles the participants' perceptions about English in general and their attitudes towards particular Englishes, along with their motivations for learning and using English.

6.2.1 Attitudes And Motivations (Q1)

6.2.1.1 The Participants' Attitude Towards English, and their Instrumental Motivation

Acknowledging the key role of English in the contemporary world, especially in specific domains worldwide, investigating the extent to which this language influences people in a specific context and the shape of that influence is indeed relevant. Thus, medical participants' academic and professional lives were investigated in this study. According to DeMarco (2011), the current language international status that dominates specific fields has produced instrumentally motivated learners whose focus is to develop English as a means to an end for acquiring vocational training and/or professional expertise. Not surprisingly, English is very significant to these individuals as "the language of medicine," the medium of instruction in medical institutions, and the means of communication in the workplace, due to its current well-recognised global status. English is required and needed because medicine is taught in English and nearly all references and textbooks are written in English, and the language is used internationally in meetings, conferences, and symposiums. This is a commonplace attitude in most of the expanding-circle countries, e.g. in China (Yang, 2010), in SA (Ghobain, 2010) and (Al-Harby, 2005), and in Indonesia (Zacharias, 2003). The participants support Rubio and Lirola's (2010) argument, as they -the participants- recognise English is an

important social tool for communicative purposes, based on both meaning and context during the learning process.

The exclusive importance assigned to English in medicine by the participants has evolved from their awareness of the language as it functions to achieve specific purposes. The participants in Ghobain's (2010) study similarly revealed their strong motivation to be able to communicate with a variety of people in their future workplaces, a motivation evolving from their awareness of English as a global language. The highlighted 'instrumentality' of this language for the participants in the current study was affirmed through both qualitative and quantitative data analysis. By analysing their needs, it appears that English is linked only to either occupational purposes or academic purposes. Thus, the *de facto* universal status of English in specific domains, medicine herein, as extensively discussed in the literature is recognised in SA, (refer to **1.2**. and **2.2.**) Thus, the country is homogeneous to other countries, either in outer or expanding circles, impacted by globalisation and internationalisation in specific fields and academia. Generally, the presupposition that the participants' have strong instrumental motivations is asserted by several studies, following the work of the pioneering scholars, Gardner and Lambert (1959). For example, Al-Ansari (1993), Gibb (1999), Norris-Holt (2001), DeMarco (2011), Ghobain (2010), Al-Jurf (1994), and Al-Huqbani (2005) found a strong correlation between instrumental motivation and ESP. The last three of these studies were conducted in the context of SA. Besides, Al-Seghayer (2012a) and Al-Shehri (2009) found Saudi learners to be instrumentally motivated in general, i.e. yet without focusing on ESP as a factor.

Makrami's (2010) study, however, contradicted this theory and revealed that ESP learners were less instrumentally motivated than those learners who attended EGP courses. This finding might suggest that the impacts of globalisation on the internationality of English in general have indicated there are no considerable differences currently present between learners in these contexts in terms of motivation categories. Indeed, learners or users in expanding-circle countries mostly have a stronger instrumental motivation for learning or using English, as seen in several studies, including Al-Shumaimeri (1999) in SA, Dwaik and Shehadeh (2010) in Palestine, and Chiba *et al.* (1995) in Japan. Littlewood (1984) further argues that when learning EIL, this particular instrumental orientation can be expected.

How the global and international status of English influenced the participants can be further seen in the results obtained from IAMTB, which reveals that, as in Guerra (2005) and Friedrich's (2000) studies, the participants in the current study exhibited a very strong 'international posture', which further asserts the relationship between the internationality of English and its specific domains and its worldwide dominance in those domains. Such instrumental motivation and 'international posture' are indeed interrelated, while the motivation construct referenced by several researchers remains yet very complex, especially in the current globalised era (e.g., Lamb, 2004; Ushioda, 2006; Kormos and Csizér, 2008)

The participants in this study, as defined by Kormos and Csizér (2008), are learners or users of a second or additional language in a foreign language setting. They learned and used that language in order to communicate with NNSs in an international milieu. The

NS is not involved in that situation. These findings clearly show that the participants mostly use English with non-Arab foreigners who are largely NNSs.

Yet, the attitudes in expanding-circle countries, including those revealed by the participants in the current study, are usually incompatible and not in line with the realities that necessitate and impose legitimatising and accepting other models or varieties than only those of native speakers for communication. The participants' attitudes toward NS 'standards' and WEs are important to depict and identify the current realities in both academic and professional contexts. It is especially important to appraise these attitudes in light of both the *objective* and the *subjective* needs of Saudi medical students and practitioners. These attitudes are summarised below as they relate to the reviewed studies on the expanding-circle countries.

6.2.1.2 Native Models and Integrative Motivation

Almost all the participants in this study hold the common belief that native models, primarily and exclusively the BrE and AmE, are the best and the only 'correct' models, since they are the 'bases' of the English language, and where these models come from are the 'origins'. These models generally represent the 'standards' to almost all the participants, supporting Widdowson (1994), Kachru (1996), Thorne (1997) and Matsuda's (2003) references to the authority of native models as taking the position of the SE. Several studies found this claim to be valid, such as Jenkins (2007), Atechi (2007), and Ghobain (2010). Accordingly, NSs are favoured because English is their mother tongue. These common beliefs, it can be said, are held not only by the participants of the study and educators, but by people in general. The studies referred to above validate Schmied's (1985:264) argument, which claims that educationists, teachers, and even politicians mostly cling to the representatives of correctness, who are the "educated native speakers of a language."

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This study is similar to almost all the studies reviewed by Jenkins (2007), in which native models, generally the BrE ad AmE, are positively perceived by NNSs, (See **2.3.3.2** and Appendix 7.)

The analysis of the participants' integrative motivation is relevant to the discussion, since it indicates the learner's "willingness to identify with the other language community" (Gardner, 2001:9). In fact, as shown by the studies conducted by Lai (2008) in Taiwan and Al-Shehri (2008) in SA, despite the participants' strong positive perceptions about native speakers and models, and in comparison to their instrumental motivation, they tend to be less integratively motivated. This is similar to the findings of Guerra's (2005) study, which indicate that ESP students usually have stronger instrumental motivation than integrative motivation. Guerra concludes that instrumental motivation is quite relevant in countries where English is considered to be a foreign language, such as China, Portugal and Taiwan, including SA, which are all classified as expanding-circle countries in Kachrus's model. For example, the Chinese learners in Yang's (2010) study revealed primarily instrumental, not integrative, motivation for learning English. Also, according to Lai (2008), most of the motivations surveys conducted in Taiwan, including his study, reported the Taiwanese learners as not having integrative motivation.

Dörnyei (2001) concludes that students generally and more frequently select instrumental, rather than integrative, reasons for learning the language. However, according to Gardner (2001), learners' motivations cannot be dichotomous as either instrumental or integrative, due to the complex nature of humans. Yet, the results of the participants' integrative motivation, especially when compared to the results of their

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other motivations, can support the argument that the current emphasis on native speakers and standards is unsuitable.

Nevertheless, the participants' attitude toward native speakers and models is still evident, since it is ostensibly influencing their attitude toward other NNSs and the varieties they speak, as shall be presented in the following discussion.

6.2.1.3 WEs and 'International Posture'

As indicated in the findings chapter, Englishes discussed in this study are those with which the participants are familiar or frequently encounter in their vicinities. Although varied, the participants' attitudes towards these 'different' Englishes, can be said to be generally negative. Apparently, such Englishes have negative connotations because of their distinguishable accents. The studies reviewed, e.g. Shims (2002) and Ghobain (2010), in which participants strongly preferred native models, revealed similar negative attitudes to NNS varieties. Negative attitudes encroach even the participants' 'own' varieties of speaking English, due to the fact that such varieties of English sound 'different', 'broken', and do not conform to English native accents. In this case, the participants are similar to those in Beinhoff's (2009) study, who are also NNSs, as they similarly favour a southern British accent over their own Greek and German native varieties.

However, some studies in other expanding-circle countries revealed positive attitudes of participants towards their own 'nativised' English. For example, the participants in Yang's (2010) study in China revealed a positive attitude towards China English, considering 'nativisation' of English in China as a manifestation of the Chinese culture. Likewise, in Chiba's *et al.* (1995), the participants reveal positive attitudes toward their

own Japanese English. In a similar vein, in Kim's (2007b) study, although the participants preferred the American model, their positive attitude toward the AmE did not influence their perceptions about other NNS varieties. That is, the participants positively perceived NNS varieties, besides the AmE. Yang (2010), Chiba *et al*. (1995), and Kim's (2007b) findings, to a great extent, represent what I argue for, *i.e.* a situation that demonstrates equality and recognition in terms of English non-native varieties as being inferior to native 'standards', including the participants' own varieties. This supposedly would entail rightful equitable opportunities for NNETs, and compatibility with the demands of the contemporary world at the same time.

However, the participants' attitudes can be seen as not consistent with their speaking preferences. That is, the strongly desired models are not necessarily the models of how the participants want to speak, and *vice versa*, as will be discussed below.

6.2.1.4 The Ideal 'Goal' Speaker

The majority of the participants list their priorities of learning the language as the ability to communicate ideas, and to speak clearly with a 'correct' accent and pronunciation. One might argue that, since the native models are the only correct models according to the participants, there is still a demand to use the language in conformance with the rules of these native models, i.e. accents. Accordingly, it can be said that natives' command of the language with competency and fluency, which are strongly desired by the participants, result in natives being the participants' ideal speakers. What further supports this is the participants' analysed negative attitude toward other Englishes, simply because they sound different, which indicates their clinging to NSs' pronunciations or ways of speaking.

However, despite the participants' evident strong positive attitude towards NS models, their opinions seem to be different when it comes to the variety they want to use. In detail, they think that a meticulous imitation and mimicking of NS models, i.e. in terms of their accents, has an aspect of exaggeration. Thus, through the surveys, the majority of the participants identified a component speaker with a Saudi accent as representing their goal of speaking, rather than choosing British or American speakers. Also, the interviewees indicated that they wanted to be called Saudi while speaking English, although they strongly aspired to attain the NS competencies and fluency. With their positive attitudes in mind, it might be said that, this study, like Dalton-Puffer *et al*. (1995), is another assertion of the opinion that, although NNSs may somehow be aware of the low odds of attaining native performance, they still favour a native model.

Related to this, taking into account the participants' preferences in terms of speaking, their positive attitudes towards native speakers and standards might be interpreted as a desire to develop the natives' competencies, rather than merely their accents, as they indicated. Thus, it can be argued that, these participants aim at a 'correct', 'clear', 'near-native' way of speaking, rather than an accent that can be identical to the natives' one. Smith and Nelson's (2006) study can assert this explanation, as it concludes that to be fluent in English is a factor that can be very important in determining attitudes, more than just sounding like a native can be. To a certain extent, the participants' attitude supports Crystal's (1995:24) argument about the 'prestigious' SE, which is "chiefly matters of grammar, vocabulary and orthography," rather than merely a matter of pronunciation.

The priorities the participants identify, their goals for speaking, as well as the apparently realistic and actual needs of their *status* quo, (as will be discussed below), escalate the discussion of whether or not emphasis upon a specific model of the language is an important issue that should be considered by educational authorities. Although it can be observed that there are certain preferred models by some participants, namely the NS models, these preferences soon appear to be unjustifiable by these very participants when they recognise and outline their priorities.

Furthermore, the stance of the preferred way of speaking, can contribute to the resistance of the dominance of NSs and their models, especially when acknowledging that neither the NSs' ways of speaking nor their communicative competences may be helpful or necessary for communication in international settings. To put it differently, this standpoint from the participants' side may be taken as an element that can contribute to challenge the dominance of NSs and 'their' models.

The previous discussions attempted chiefly to present the participants' attitudes towards various varieties of English in comparison to the native models. However, owing to the complexity of the attitude construct, these attitudes cannot be comprehensively analysed or illustrated without understanding other related issues or elements, which I outline below.

6.2.2 Issues Relating to the Fields of WEs, EIL, and ELF
This section includes emerging findings that can contribute to the field of WEs and the related areas of EIL and ELF. It outlines certain themes that are integral to the participants' attitudes towards the discussed Englishes. It also reveals some discrepancies occurring within the discussion of each notion, which I noticed and

reflected upon while analysing and interpreting both the interviews and the data from the questionnaires. Without highlighting these discrepancies, the findings and discussions in question might appear misleading at certain points. However, these issues can be considered natural outcomes of the complex human nature, as frequently acknowledged in most of the qualitative studies, and/or a typical consequence of adopting mixed-methods research.

6.2.2.1 How Each English/Variety Is Defined

Almost all the participants appeared to recognise any variety of English and defined it by its accent/s and the pronunciation of its speakers. The idea that different Englishes have different characteristics (such as different structures) is not valid, according to the participants of this study. Yet, when participants referred to native models, which were also recognised by accents, the majority of those who wished to conform to such models mostly expressed a desire not to develop the NS accents, but rather the fluency and competencies discussed earlier.

6.2.2.2 Attitudes Regarding Issues of Intelligibility and Familiarity

Some of the participants tended to believe that for representing the standard, NS models could internationally foster mutual intelligibility. Viewing these NS models as models that can easily foster mutual intelligibility since they represent the standards clearly reflects Kirkpatrick's (2007) account of how and why these models are preferred in such contexts. The participants apparently concurred with Quirk (1990) and Chevillet (1993) and their beliefs in English as a monolith that should not be changed. These scholars rejected any other NNS varieties to be used officially and internationally in communication. They believe that mutual intelligibility globally can only be fostered by maintaining global standards, i.e. NS models.

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Apparently, the participants' preferences, which were evidently based on their beliefs that the NS models are 'good', 'strong' and well-established Englishes, with good accents and pronunciations, might have led certain participants to claim that these models were intelligible and/or sometimes even the most intelligible of all the other models perhaps because in other venues, the same participants indicated that these very models were difficult to follow and not easily understood.

In more detail, when specifically and directly asked about the extent to which these models were viewed as intelligible, most of the participants indicated that native speakers and models were often unintelligible. Indeed, NSs in Smith and Nelson's (2006) study "were *not* found to be the most easily understood." Also, Kirkpatrick (2007) argues that these preferred native models are not always as easily understood in international communication as many might suppose them to be.

More specifically, when NS accents were compared to NNS accents, some participants indicated that NNS accents were more intelligible and understandable. A similar opinion was learned by Guerra (2005) and Ghobain (2010), as some participants, although strongly preferring NSs, did assert that NSs should facilitate communication while communicating with NNSs and should adapt to the communicative competences of NNSs's, both by speaking slowly and by avoiding heavy accents and slang. Several studies have found that sometimes NNSs better understand each other than when they are communicating with NSs, e.g. Smith (1992), Smith and Rafiqzad (1979), Major *et al.* (2002). Further, Bent and Bradlow (2003) concluded that NNSs find the accents of other NNSs, either from the same or different native languages, as intelligible, a process referred to by scholars as "interlanguage speech [delivering] intelligibility benefit." This

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interesting phenomenon has been acknowledged in many similar studies, e.g. Munro *et al.* (2006) and Major *et al.* (2002).

The complexity of such constructs, particularly as they relate to attitudes, makes it difficult to decide they are original factors for determining participants' attitudes or are not. Although some interviewees indicated that the strongly non-favoured and unintelligible Indian English had been and could be intelligible and understood, since they were familiar with it, they still disliked this particular kind of English. This finding contradicts what Chiba *et al.* (1995) found in Japan, where familiarity played a precise role in shaping participants positive attitudes towards certain varieties of English. However, it might also be noted that, the participants prefer Englishes that were actually considered intelligible to them from the very first encounter, rather than after their development of familiarity.

In a similar vein, NS models, which were strongly favoured, were reported to be unintelligible and even the most difficult to follow at time, especially when compared to other non-native varieties. Thus, it can be said, intelligibility and familiarity cannot easily be considered as the most prevailing factors for shaping participant attitudes toward a certain language or its varieties. Furthermore, the participants' comparatively negative attitudes toward their own 'Saudi English', which was reported to be absolutely intelligible and understood by the majority, suggests that intelligibility is not the exclusive factor for favouring or non-favouring a variety of English. Both the questionnaires and interview results clearly demonstrate that these Saudi participants do understand English when it is used or spoken by Saudis in particular and sometimes by Arabs in general; yet, such Englishes are still 'not perfect', and consequently

underestimated. Put briefly, the participants did not favour Englishes that they reported they were familiar and hence intelligible to them, and *vice versa*.

One might then argue that the negative attitudes of some participants towards certain Englishes may well fit Richards *et al.* (1992:199) and Fasold's (1984) arguments that attitudes toward a language are attitudes toward the speakers of that language, but also suggesting that at the same time, these participants have a negative or bad self-image. That said, although Saudi English and its other local or regional varieties are negatively perceived, most of the participants prefer to speak using such accent/s, rather than emulating NS accents.

Theoretically speaking, and owing to the contradiction occurred in the relationship between attitudes and intelligibility, it can be said that, regardless of intelligibility, NS models are preferred due to reasons explained by the theories developed by Giles *et al.* (1974a), which are 'inherent value' and 'imposed norm', as discussed in the literature review, (see **2.6.1.**) According to the 'inherent value' theory, other 'different' Englishes are negatively perceived due to the 'superior prestige' and 'aesthetic quality' of native 'standards'. As with the 'imposed norm' theory, native standards are preferred being the language of modernised first world countries which have high educational standards. However, in the light of both theories, the participants can be seen as holding negative self-image and identity as suggested by their attitudes toward their 'own' Englishes.

Finally, it might also be worthy to mention that individual proficiency level was referred to by participants as a factor that usually correlated with issues of intelligibility and comprehensibility. This finding indeed confirms Smith and Nelson's (2006) argument

that actual proficiency of language is a significant factor for determining the level of intelligibility, comprehensibility, and interpretability. They concluded that, proficiency is a very important element of comprehensibility, more so than intelligibility and interpretability. Smith and Nelson's (2006) study thus emphasises the importance of interpretability and comprehensibility among NNSs, rather than only intelligibility, as factors for shaping language attitudes.

6.2.2.3 Language Ownership

Some linguists argue that languages cannot be owned. That is, they deny that language can be treated as a tangible object, the place of which can be located and relocated as it is used in different environments (Speas *in press*). Therefore, issues of cultural ownership become subtler and more urgent than simply treating the language as a concrete piece of art or other object of culture (*ibid.*).

The technical term 'language ownership', which represents the language as something that can be owned by certain speakers, seems not to be fully understood or comprehensively absorbed by the participants in this study. Although they recurrently refer to English as a language of its NSs, they cannot articulate how other NNSs cannot own it. On the face of it, identifying where a language comes from can better be associated with attitudes towards languages than identifying whom the language belongs to, at least for the participants of the upcoming study.

Apparently, the participants' interpretations of the term 'ownership' vary, resulting in inconsistent explanations about their attitudes towards languages. For example, when this term is associated with the participants' attitudes, both NSs and NNSs, including the participants themselves, are regarded as legitimate owners of the language by the

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participants. This attitude persists regardless of participants' strong preference for NS models, which is a natural result of thinking that the language is an exclusive property of its NSs. This raises the question: why do the participants strongly favour NSs over their NNS counterparts for the reason of ownership, although they state that both groups can equally claim that they own the language, including themselves? Through this contradiction, it has become clear to me that the way the language is viewed by the participants renders different realisations from their side, as opposed to how ownership is represented in the literature of AL. More clearly, the interviews reveal that, being a legitimate owner of the language as its NS is strongly correlated with a strong preference for native models. At the same time, the interviewees, when asked directly about the notion of English as able to be owned by any speaker, they thought the question was strange, as if it is ordinary to be an owner of any language if the individual is able to use or speak it. Thus, through the questionnaires, the majority of them agree that English belongs to anyone who speaks or uses it, and disagree with the claim that it is an exclusive property of people from the UK and US, although strongly associating the language to speakers from these two countries.

6.2.2.4 Varieties or Accents as Identity Markers

According to Spolsky (1999:181), language is a central feature of human identity and a powerful symbol of national and ethnic identity. The discussion of language as an inextricable feature of national origin and ethnic/cultural identity emerges in the sociolinguistic literature (Gibson, 2004). However, confusion occurs when a hearer has a different perception of the speaker's background than the one the speaker identifies with (*ibid.*) For example, Schmidt (2008) argues that conflicts in the linguistic scene in Europe show that the reality is different than the traditional image of homogenous speakers' identities, since every ethnic and regional minority wants to be recognised. He

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elaborates that language is not the only marker of ethnicity, and there are other identity markers that can preserve the cultural recognition of a minority group.

The previous discussion paves the way for the argument that sometimes language or its varieties may not stand as identity markers, or may not be properly grasped and perceived as identity markers, as is the case for some participants in this study. In other words, the previous discussion is an attempt to highlight the complexity of such a construct of identity and the relationship between language and ethnic/regional identities.

In the current study, participants' strong positive attitudes towards native models do not necessarily conform to the models some participants tend to use. Some tend to purposefully abstain from emulating NSs, lest hearers assume they are showing off, whereas others acknowledge emulation as the highest level of proficiency when speaking or using the language.

However, the interviews do not reveal whether participants base this stance on an intention or inclination to protect their national identities as Saudis. Possibly, the idea of a spoken accent or the way someone uses a language as an identity marker is not valid in this study. Beinhoff's (2009) study supported this finding, since her participants' accents did not reflect their cultural identities. Instead, participants considered other aspects, such as status and prestige, to be more important than achieving solidarity with their own group of speakers.

The concept of a language or an accent as an identity marker seems to be only vaguely understood even by those who strongly aspire to emulate native models. To put it clearly, most of the participants who want to develop native-like competency in English assert that they want to be identified as Saudi while heard using the English language. However, since their claims of wanting to be identified as Saudi were disclosed through direct questioning, this contradiction could be explained in one of two ways. Either the interviewees were responding in a way they thought the researcher needed, or they did not necessarily say what they actually believed or desired.

However, since some interviewees expressed a resolution to refrain from following native models when they speak and asserted a desire to be 'themselves' while speaking English, the relationship between language and identity and how participants perceive it remains complex.

In conclusion, like the previous discussion of language ownership, the participants' strong belief in native models seems to conflict with the notion of users' identities as a factor that plays a role in shaping attitudes. They assert that language learners should follow speakers of the countries that represent the 'origins' of that language, but they themselves reject being classified by anything but their own national or ethnic identities. Evidently, some participants believe in the importance of following the correct usage of the language as NSs do, but not necessarily in conforming to their accents.

6.2.2.5 'Nativeness Paradigm' and International Proficiency Tests

International proficiency tests, such as IELTS and TOEFL, which some participants need to pass, can be seen as factors influencing some of the participants' attitudes and motivations to follow NS models. As these tests are chiefly standardised according to

the native English models, subsequently, there is a need to stick to the rules of these models. (See findings under **5.3.3.3.3.**)

In fact, such inner-circle based tests have received sharp criticism by some linguists, such as Davidson (1994), Jenkins (2006), and Davies *et al.* (2003). Davidson (1994) calls it the "imperialism of major international tests," such tests, he argues, are prejudiced against proficient users or speakers of EIL, but not as in tune with NS models. According to Khan (2009), the admission criterion of passing TOEFL that is set by the MOHE in SA causes bias against the test takers; hence it should be reassessed if such bias is to be eliminated. Thus, any attempt to acknowledge other models than those of NSs should consider issues about such tests. It seems unreasonable to attempt to legitimatise non-native features and varieties in order to be taught, and neglect how proficiency tests should be adapted according to what is needed and being taught. Brown (1995) and Modiano (1999) call for accrediting and legitimising non-native features and varieties into the classrooms, and as alternative models in international proficiency tests henceforth. As Khan (2009:203) puts it, if EIL to be promoted, "English language tests should cater to international speakers and societies, and should aim to foster communication amongst linguistically diverse groups of people." (For a similar discussion, refer to Elder and Harding, 2008).

Having discussed the participants' attitudes towards English, their motivations in learning it, and their attitudes toward certain native and non-native English models, along with other pertinent factors, I now attempt to demonstrate the third element in the framework of analysing the data: needs analysis. As indicated in the literature review chapter (**2.3.2.**)*, Deficiency NA* is employed in linguistic study by approaching both the

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present and target situations, namely the academic and professional scenes, medical

contexts in this study. Presenting current challenges and offering suggestions by the

participants to overcome them can represent the needs in the academic situation.

Whereas the analysis of the professional situation attempts to show what is taking place

in the medical workplace from a linguistic point of view, as reported by stakeholders

from this context, i.e. when, how, and why English is usually used in such an

environment.

When needs in the academic situation, which usually represents hurdles in learning the

language, are identified and matched to the requirements of a professional context,

possible implications emerge.

6.2.3 Present Situation Analysis (Q3)

Mostly, all the suggestions that reflect the participants' needs generally resulted from

their learning experiences, and mainly represented obstacles that hampered any possible

success that could have been achieved. The following will summarise and discuss

findings about some *educational factors*, e.g. required and desired teachers'

qualifications and characteristics, and issues relating to *individual factors* in relation to

the nature of the courses. According to DeMarco (2011), evaluating such areas is

pertinent with the communicative movement in teaching languages, which is the desired

approach as shown in the following.

6.2.3.1 Teaching Methods and Styles

Most of the provided suggestions can be categorised as *educational factors*, including

the promotion of interest, motivations, and autonomy among the learners, which can be

considered as *individual factors* at the same time, (refer to **5.3.6**.) According to Rubio

and Lirola (2010) educational factors such as classroom methodology, teachers' training and the quantity and quality of instruction are claimed by many to be very important factors that can promote foreign language learning and achieve learning success, especially the mostly desired communicative skills (refer to findings in **5.3.6.5**, **5.3.6.7**, and **5.4.6.**) Although Rubio and Lirola's study focuses on the European context, whose members are linguistically, socially and culturally different than the participants of the current study, comparing the results of their investigations across different European expanding-circle countries with the results of the project at hand shows the two contexts to be very similar. Both studies share similar findings in terms of learning languages rules, namely English, in the light of the above mentioned educational and individual factors.

The participants' reference to the significance of developing learners' motivations and autonomy indicates their rejection to a teacher-led classroom and their support for a learner-centred approach instead. In other words, the teachers' teaching styles seem not to be in consistence with the methods according to which the materials are designed. The participants apparently acknowledge the usefulness of the materials and courses offered, yet blame teachers who deliver the content of these materials. Consequently, the teacher's teaching style and the method s/he follows is the most important feature of a good teacher. The methods that were and have been adopted by the majority of the teachers seem to reflect a traditional old lecturing style or the grammar-translation method in teacher-centred classrooms, which is believed by the participants to be completely inappropriate to teaching languages, (refer to findings in **5.3.6.7**, **5.4.5.1**, and Table 5.9.) Grami (2012) reports the situation of classroom in a similar manner as has been found by the current study, i.e. to follow traditional methods in teacher-led

classrooms. Indeed, such instruction can be the reason of the students' boredom, low motivation, and poor participation (Sysoyev, 2000).

6.2.3.2 Who can best Teach Medical Students?

The discussion of who can best teach the language to medical students reveals certain set of criteria that sometimes cannot all be achieved together by an individual teacher. The list mainly includes, native and non-native 'speakership', accent and pronunciation, professionalism and expertise, knowledge about and familiarity with the subject matter of medicine, besides speaking the students' L1, (Refer to **5.3.6.6**, and Tables 5.9, 5.15 and 5.16)

In line with their attitudes, a great number of the participants hold positive attitudes towards NETs or NSs as teachers, sometimes due to their belief in them as the most proficient speakers, and the best at the language command, or due to their belief that English is 'their' language, compared to other NNETs. To the majority of the participants, the NETs can fulfil criteria such as good command of the language, pronunciation, and accent. The participants then participate in the stereotypical picture that represents NETs as the best persons at teaching 'their' language (Merino, 1997). In fact, even a less qualified NET or non-qualified NS can also be preferred by the participants, at least they can be helpful in certain activities that attempt to promote communicative abilities, in the participants' viewpoint. As Walelign (1986:41) puts it, a NS has long been preferred even if marginally qualified. As with 'their' accents being the reason of their preference, Kachru (1992:27) indicates that, teachers are usually evaluated according to their accents, i.e. the proximity of their accents to 'standard' accents. Also, Moyer (2007) indicates that the pronunciation element is salient as a

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gauge of speech in attitudinal studies with focus on accents. That is, speech is usually judged according to accents.

On the other hand, the NNETs can fulfil the criterion of using L1. The participants think that, due to learners' low proficiency levels, such teachers can be of a great help; a good resolution that can aid learning the language. Indeed, sharing the same L1 with the students is referred to as a merit of NNETs by many researchers, such as Cook (2001b), Phillipson (1992b), Gnutzmann (1999), and Seidlhofer (1999:238).

That said, NS and NNS teachers alike can be both seen as having been approved by the participants, yet conditionally. Like in Al-Omrani's (2008) study, the participants acknowledge that each of the two groups of speakers has its advantages and disadvantages. As Berns (2006:726) discusses, this is a situation that represents what Kachru (1992:66) calls poly-model approach. Thus, both ends can be generally accepted, if there is a probability that the prioritised goals can be achieved, namely the ability to achieve communication and to develop speaking skills.

Additionally, there are other neutral criteria that have nothing to do with nativeness, such as the criterion of a teacher having additional knowledge about his/her students' specific subject matter. This condition for an ESP teacher, as advocated by the participants, is consistent with the consensus in the literature that such a teacher usually requires training prior to teaching ESP students. Language teachers typically teach EGP (Strevens, 1988), thus teaching ESP enlarges the list of tasks they have to achieve (Schleppegrell, 1991).

The most important criterion that can eliminate the labelling of NS and NNS is teacher's professionalism and expertise. According to the participants, it can surpass other characteristics a teacher may or should have, (refer to Table 5.9.) Thus, the labelling of NS and NNS appears to be insignificant, as far as teachers' professional identities and expertise are concerned (Ishihara and Maeda, 2005). Being a skilled and professional teacher is a criterion that outweighs the characteristic of being a NET or NNET, or where teachers do come from, as the participants put it. This finding supports that of Prodromou's (1992), which indicates that the teacher's skills and experience are usually what matters most to students.

6.2.3.3 Hurdles in Learning the Language at the Academic Setting, through ESP and EGP Courses: (ME and GE)

A major dilemma in this situation is that the English language as a subject constitutes a pointless 'burden' to the students for several reasons. First of all, although they strongly recognise the benefit and importance of the language to them, students are reluctant to join English courses that aim to elevate their basic level of linguistic skill. In detail, although they reveal highly different levels of motivations through the motivation test battery, i.e. IAMTB, the qualitative data shows that they do not pay the provided courses any attention, due to reasons mainly relating to their lack of motivation in both EGP and ESP courses, besides other distraction factors as displayed in (**5.3.5.1** and **5.3.6**) These courses are reported to usually repeat what was extensively introduced during previous educational levels, thus offering nothing new to them, which leads to hampering their motivation. They are fed up with studying grammar and vocabulary that are delivered through traditional teaching methods, which mostly curbed their learning experiences. As indicated above in (**6.2.3.1**), even if syllabuses and materials are changed, teachers' practices mostly do not accord with them.

This situation somehow reflects McKay (1992), Syed (2003), Al-Shammari (1989), Khan (2011), and Rahman's (2011) discussions about the failure of ELT in SA, despite the government and educational ministries' tremendous efforts to elevate the teaching/learning standards, (Refer to **3.2.2**)

Thus it can be said, the unsuccessful learning experiences inherited from previous educational levels tend to influence the learners' motivation. Furthermore, students pay more attention to their scientific and disciplinary subjects, which decrease their interest in learning something they have already been considerably exposed to i.e. English, (See findings in **5.3.6.2.1.**) Learners in such situations are usually very busy and often distracted by problems related to their disciplines subjects, which are customarily more important than English as a subject, which stands as a major challenge to the success of language courses (Johnson as quoted by Robinson 1991, in Aniroh, 2009). The description of such medical or ESP students as being stressed and concerned with their specialities in the first place has also been discussed by Telmesani *et al.* (2011), highlighting challenges Saudi medical students come across, (Refer to **3.3.1**)

Harrabi's (2010) study in Tunisia found a similar attitude, resulting from the same reasons, from its participants' side, who share many characteristics with the current study's participants. Similar to Harrabi's participants, the participants in this study are busy in preparing a wide range of other 'more important' and mostly 'more interesting' scientific subjects, thus maintaining a motivation in English as a subject becomes difficult to them. Likewise, Aniroh's (2009) participants in Indonesia were reported as being less serious in taking English courses, since they regarded English as a non-major subject, hence it is unimportant. (See **5.3.5.1.**) Together with Aniroh (2009) and Harrabi (2010), Francomacaro (2011) found that the disciplinary subject is of paramount

importance at university level, which makes English as a subject lose its status, especially when it is actually used as a "medium of communicating messages during the instruction" (*ibid.*).

English courses are presumably designed to aid learners coping with their disciplinary subjects, i.e. enhance their knowledge about English, hence enabling them to go through subjects delivered in English. However, these courses' failures to create a bond with the disciplinary subjects, as indicated by the participants, increases the indifference assigned to them. The participants could not see a link between such language courses and what they are concerned about, i.e. their scientific subjects. Similarly, Chang's (2010) Taiwanese participants revealed a similar stance to GE due to the courses irrelevance to their learning in the EMI subject courses and ineffectiveness in satisfying their academic needs.

In terms of what might be termed as ESP courses, which presumably should provide learners' with what they consider 'new' and motivating content to them, are mostly or solely focusing on terminology of specific medical specialities. However, most of the students indicated that such courses were deemed uninteresting since all the introduced terms were frequently and extensively encountered in the specialities courses. Moreover, the students indicated that sometimes they revealed more knowledge about such terms than their 'non-specialist' ESP teacher. Aniroh's (2009:174) study showed similar findings, as he concluded that "the teaching of ESP at non English departments is considered so much less interesting." He also concluded from his personal experience that in certain situations in ESP courses, especially when ESP teachers lack knowledge about their students content, teachers "will benefit students little and the students will easily get bored."

Thus, the participants' suggestion and demands to receive support that could enable them to learn the language autonomously, and to offer non-obligatory or non-credit bearing courses, can be seen as being resultant of their disinterest in either EGP or ESP courses, or both.

Through presenting and discussing issues in relation to the academic situation, namely educational and individual factors, besides some teachers' characteristics the participants think their teachers should fulfil, I attempted to draw a picture about the present situation through the available data and findings, which can belong to *Present Situation Analysis* (PSA). Having done so, I will now move to present elements found about the learners' target situation, mainly through the professionals' reports, which can be considered as *Target Situation Analysis* (TSA).

To put it differently, the previous outline of educational aspects attempted to present what is currently taking place in the academic situation at the context of the study. While this analysis can present the start of the addressed route, the following will present the end, i.e. a setting where the learning journey of medical or health-allied pursuers will end.

6.2.4 Target Situation Analysis (Q2)

6.2.4.1 How and Why English is Used in the Medical Workplaces

It was clearly indicated by the professional participants that English was mainly used to achieve specific job-related tasks in the medical workplace, when diagnosing cases, performing procedures and operations, prescribing medications and discussing treatment plans, and during daily morning rounds and meetings, especially in front of patients.

Students' perceptions about how and when the language would be used in their future professions precisely matched the instances of the language use identified by the professionals. That is, being the language of medicine, English is primarily used for medicine-related purposes; certain specific terms – whether English, Latin, or Greek – are frequently and even sometimes exclusively used. (Refer to interview findings under **5.3.2.1** and **5.3.2.2**.)

Besides, English is the only medium of communication with foreigners who do not share the participants' L1. According to the participants, almost all the expatriates they meet are NNSs, mostly individuals from India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and the Philippines (Refer to **5.3.3.1**.)

In addition, there are some venues, such as symposiums and conferences, where it is more likely to meet NSs. As I indicated earlier in the introduction of this chapter, English in this way can play a *lingua franca* role, mainly by allowing NNSs to communicate with each other in multinational and multilingual medical settings in SA, as mentioned by Al-Harby (2005) and Al-Eissa (2008).

Building upon the participants' reports, the following discussion attempts to describe the type or nature of English used in the workplace. Participants reported that the most commonly used speaking pattern in medical settings, apart from Arabic code-mixed with MT as will be discussed in the following paragraphs, is a neutral form of English intended to achieve mutual intelligibility among the stakeholders, regardless of following any structural rules while using the language. Such a form or usage of the language corresponds with what Jenkins (2009), building on Selinker's (1972) theory of

fossilisation, calls fossilised interlanguage (IL), which speakers usually consider inaccurate, since it is not typical of or identical to native models. The participants in this study tend to consider this fossilised form of English as an incorrect usage of the language. This explains their desire to develop a 'correct', 'native-like' competency. (Refer to Gass and Selinker (2001) for further discussion of the point)

It can be said that, the extent to which English as *lingua franca* is needed or the frequency of its occurrence in the context of the study may differ from other relevant studies. This is due to the fact that foreigners usually learn Arabic, which simplifies and assists in communicating between them and Saudis even further. That is, each side— Saudis and non-Arab foreigners—can use a simplified version of either Arabic or English.

The interview results reveal that medical professionals have noticed an inconsistency in the extent to which they need to use English to communicate with foreigners. Participants typically associated the prevalence of English usage with the nature of each specific workplace. Most of the participants highlight the workplace as a variable that determines how important English is going to be in terms of communication. That is, the use of English depends upon the presence of NNSs who do not speak Arabic or have not learnt it yet. Thus, ELF in medical spheres in SA can be valid in a relative, temporary, or limited sense. In other words, even when ELF exists, its existence can be ephemeral when non-Arabs endeavour to learn the dominating language in that context, which is Arabic. This situation is an example of Harrabi's (2010) indication that, despite its predominant and vital role in the Middle East in general, English, as a communicative

language, still finds limited usage in the Middle Eastern countries when compared with other either outer- or expanding-circle countries.

This may explain why some participants think that physicians do not need a high level of English language proficiency to be able to participate and communicate efficiently in their workplaces. It may also contribute to why the majority of the participants in this study think that having a goal of achieving native-like competency is inconsequential in relation to the medical field. Instead, participants may have a personal desire to learn English that is unrelated to practicing or learning medicine.

6.2.4.2 Arabic in the Workplace

Indeed, besides the foreigners who learn how to use Arabic, the L1 of this study context, the influx of Saudi personnel and professionals may further diminish the role of English as a major language of communication in medical workplaces. Thousands of Saudi medical professionals graduate annually from medical schools situated either in SA or abroad, aside from the large numbers of Arab expatriates who come from neighbouring Middle Eastern countries.

In most cases, participants in medical workplaces, currently representing the largest population in such contexts, reduce their English usage to terms that are often code-mixed with their L1, Arabic. Based on interviewees' accounts, code switching apparently occurs between MT and Arabic, i.e. speakers mix single 'English' words or terms with their first language as the main medium of conversation. Bolton (2004) explains that code switching or code mixing become natural practices in outer- and expanding-circles countries, as complex patterns of contact linguistics result from the

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'nativisation' of English (also known as 'Englishisation'), which is apparently taking place in this targeted context.

In the light of the participants' interviews, switching to MT occurs because these 'universal' terms are better understood and internationally recognised when used in their 'Greco-Latino' or untranslated English forms; otherwise, the terms are not understood. The interviewees noted that although all the speakers share the Arabic language, using the terms in their untranslated forms helps facilitate communication. Zare-ee and Gholami's (2013) participants reported similar findings, confirming that when scientific language is translated, the meaning is lost.

With the increasing number of Arabic-speaking professionals, the representation of Arabs in the Saudi medical spheres, and of Saudis in particular, generally differs from how Arab or Saudi medical professionals are portrayed in Al-Harby (2005) and Al-Eissa's (2008) studies. In these two studies, primarily non-Arabic-speaking professionals populated medical workplaces in SA. Thus, the situation has been changing, and the country's 'Saudisation' plans seem to have succeeded since 2008. According to the MOH's Annual Statistical Booklet (2011), aside from Saudi physicians, who formed only 23% of the medical workforce, Saudi pharmacists, nurses, and allied health personnel formed 82.4%, 51.9%, and 87.25%, respectively. Also, the case of King Fahd Medical City, in which Saudis constituted the majority of the workforce in 2010, provides a valid example of 'Saudisation.' (Appendix 6)

This may explain why some participants first thought of communication with nurses as an instance of using English, then quickly elaborated that the situation had changed.

That is, they seemed to acknowledge the current prevalence of Saudi nurses in hospitals, a prevalence that somehow reduces or overrules the role of English as a means of communication, since currently almost all the interlocutors share the same L1. Indeed, most of the participants confirmed their realisation of this changing scene, and the majority of respondents elaborated with a similar explanation every time they highlighted the importance of English for communication.

Thus, as I explained above under the previous sub-heading, it can be said that, the use of English may be inhibited and restrained in multilingual contexts where the majority of stakeholders share an L1. Consequently, nativisation of English in such contexts may be restricted to include only professional or technical terms code-mixed with a dominating L1.

In the light of both the PSA and TSA summarised and discussed above, I will attempt to discuss some points that realistically draw possible implications of this study.

6.2.5 Envisaging Possible Implications (Q3)

Grounded on the current international role of English, this study has basically evolved from an incentive to challenge the hegemony of NSs and their 'standards', as an attempt to legitimately donate a space for other speakers or users, especially teachers, who speak or use other 'non-native' Englishes.

The study has grounded itself on a realistic rationale that is created by the current role of English as a global and international language largely communicated by NNSs, especially in specific domains; a situation wherein NSs do not constitute a major part.

However, the study concluded that issues of the 'nativeness paradigm' are minor to participants of specific needs and priorities relating to specific disciplines and professions.

Consequently, no specific English model or variety is to be particularly chosen as the most appropriate model, hence, to be exclusively taught. From an *objective* viewpoint, according to the situation in the professional context as reported by the professional participants, NS models are not necessary to be emphasised upon. Furthermore, lacking satisfactory levels of basic linguistic needs has overwhelmed the situation, margining such an issue in the area of needs.

It could be said, this issue might be more decisive for participants who learn the language for purposes other than those usually targeted by ESP/EAP methods, since disciplinary subjects are mostly ESP participants' priorities. Besides, the issue of 'nativeness' could be more appealing to participants with high or advanced proficiency levels, which is not the case of the subjects involved in the current study.

The findings have indicated that, despite the general negative attitude towards either EGP or ESP/EAP courses, or both, the participants reveal needs in all the linguistic areas proposed, i.e. to either type of courses, or both. For example, the participants who have already acquired specific knowledge about 'Greco-Latino' terminology, and their specific discipline in general, tend to express needs for EGP. Apparently, by expressing such needs, they are superficially affected by the broader and wider norms and issues of the language current status, as an international and global language that can benefit them

in their social every-day life, and help ameliorate their statuses as medical learners, professionals, or researchers.

That said, generally most of the participants revealed a confidence stance about their 'specific' linguistic levels in terms of their specialties, which were mainly developed through attending disciplinary courses extensively, and training or working at the workplaces, i.e. through practicing or using the language in authentic situations. Consequently, participants' learning experiences can prove that, instead of attending language courses, learning the language through the content of the disciplinary subjects courses and using the acquired knowledge in authentic situations can be helpful. That is, such learning can equip the learners with skills required for coping with their courses and then professions, especially when recognising that English in professional settings is merely and mainly represented by terms.

As a result of participants' lack of interest in English courses, mainly due to its irrelevant contents, besides saturation from disinteresting detailed structural knowledge (grammar), and the busy schedules of medical students, and in light of suggestions that can be concluded from their learning experiences, a totally different approach of learning the language may be helpful, beneficial, and cost-effective, for both students who have busy schedules and the university's financial plans.

Focusing on the language at professional contexts as a main premise of ESP courses (Robinson, 1991; Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987), or as the currently demanded content for language instruction courses (Aniroh, 2009; Björkman, 2011; DeMarco, 2011; Tarnopolsky, 2013), the instrumentally motivated

students in context of the study at hand should be supported to be able to relate language instruction to uses they will make of the language, i.e. in their future medical professional settings (Dudley-Evans and St. John, 1998; Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; DeMarco, 2011). This indeed echoes an essential assumption of LSP or ESP, which makes a strong association between focusing on the relative actual language use and the improvement in learners' attitude, motivation, and performance (DeMarco, 2011).

That being so, the research findings, especially the TSA, shows that English in medical workplaces simply and chiefly represent MTs used within the stream of the stakeholders' L1, i.e. Arabic. As indicated earlier, increasing numbers of Arabic-speaking professionals, besides Arabic users, apparently decrease or have decreased the use of English as a dominant language in this specific sphere, despite the validity of its multilingualism. Evidently, the scene of this specific domain in SA is changing, thus the current study is not in line with other previous studies such as Al-Harby (2005), which found that English is the dominant language in the medical circles.

In light of this situation, and taking into account the PSA results as shown above, the academic setting, which is an EMI context, can be taken for granted. Research has proven that language can better be developed and acquired in such a context, i.e. when being the medium through which the content, which is usually the most important, is delivered.

Furthermore, acknowledging its use in the workplace, besides considering learners' proficiency level, L1 is better to be allowed a certain space in academic context, to guarantee learner comprehension of content, and to facilitate acquiring the knowledge at

the same time. Xhemaili's (2013) study has proven that using L1 in ESP classes yields less tensed, 'less lost', more courageous, comfortable, and willing to learn students, as a result of valuing them and taking their preferences into consideration.

In fact, EMI in itself can be a hurdle, since learners need to acquire high levels of English; and that is why it is being recurrently researched or challenged nowadays. Kagwesage (2013) found that code switching and translating are two significant and successful strategies and practices that can help learners achieve and mediate "cognitively demanding academic tasks." For other studies as examples, refer to Somer (2001), Arkin (2013) and Dearden (2014).

However, if adopting a supported by code-switching EMI is expected to sacrifice ill-equipped learners' disciplinary knowledge as Tarnopolsky (2013) suggests, a traditional ESP course might be a more adequate resolution, at least in preparatory or foundation levels. Yet, in light of context of the current study, based on both TSA and PSA, EAP can better respond to learners' needs than ESP, due to the limited role of English in the workplace, which can easily be acquired when joining hospitals.

As discussed earlier, ESP courses in context of the study are mainly about terminology alone, which in fact, despite its inappropriateness, seems to be a common practice of ESP courses. Such courses are reported too often rely on specific vocabulary of a certain discipline, as content learners of that discipline should acquire and consolidate; which is only one among many other professional and academic needs (Francomacaro, 2011). If educational authorities insist on running ESP courses, content should reflect actual uses of the language in workplaces, although they might be limited.

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As to why not recommend implementation of CLIL as another beneficial content-based approach, a simple response is, once more, the anticipated low linguistic proficiency levels, which may not be suitable for such an approach, (refer to Tarnopolsky, 2013). Besides, taking into account participants' low level of interest or motivation in learning the language, CLIL, in which language learning is to be involved by one way or another, might not be helpful. Besides, as discussed earlier, focus in such situation is on specific content knowledge more than language learning, whereas CLIL has a dual focus on both.

One might critically argue that, if the main reason of learning the language is primarily relating to its status being the language of instruction and academia, why not raise voices against this role the language plays at the expense of local languages, i.e. as a 'killer language.' Indisputably, with such a practice we are shrinking opportunities of helping learners to become involved and participate in the globalising contemporary world, hence, creating an isolated context and secluded participants, which is totally not in line with globalisation or internationalisation objectives and aims of promoting advancement in knowledge in this particular context. In other words, it is against the HE institution aims of being part of the world, to share scientific and technological achievements (Zare-ee and Gholami 2013). Furthermore, some believe that if scientific content is translated into another language, there is likely risk of meaning loss (*ibid.*), which in fact is referred to by participants as the reason why MTs are used in their untranslated forms. Thus, maintaining English as a medium of instruction is viewed to be rewarding.

It is indeed a boon to have a language that can fuse different people in different realms, which has been achieved by English. As Phillipson (2006) puts it, sometimes, it is true that most of us, to a certain extent, become forced to accept certain controversial beliefs, as a result of the uncritical adoption of Anglo-Saxon paradigms (in González Ardeo, 2013). However, by allowing and endorsing translation, L1, or code switching in EMI classrooms, both internationalisation and 'glocalisation' agendas can be satisfied.

As with advocating the rights of NNETs, however, such a practice would privilege teachers who speak the learners' L1, or at least have basic knowledge of it. Besides, since content knowledge is of supreme importance, selection of teachers whose speaking varieties of English are intelligible to students is essential, so as not to jeopardise the learning process, particularly in preparation or foundation levels.

In addition, upon adopting the proposed strategy, i.e. EMI with L1 or code switching, the study can be seen as supporting the country's plans for 'Saudisation'. Besides the merit of sharing L1 with their learners, Saudi teachers were reported by the participants to be intelligible when using English, and they topped a list that included other NNSs, including both Arab and non-Arab teachers.

That said, these practices may raise concerns about language teachers' welfare, i.e. the practices may affect their careers in HE. One response to this issue is that, HE institutions can provide voluntary non-credit courses, which are indeed needed by learners as suggested by the participants. Also, language teachers can provide linguistic assistance to both other content teachers and learners, as needed. Indeed, this suggestion

has recently been provided by Dearden (2014) as she indicates that language centres can be supportive to content teachers in EMI contexts.

6.2.6 Summary

This chapter synthesises and discusses the most prominent findings of the research. It attempts to answer the research questions and relate the findings to relevant literature, including previous studies that were similar in kind. After discussing the participants' attitudes towards English in general and NS and NNS varieties in particular, as well as their motivations for learning and using English, the chapter highlights the need expressed by the participants for both the present and target situations. These two analyses explain what is taking place in both circumstances in light of both the research questions and the objectives of the study. The discussion that follows these analyses attempted to pave the way for advantageous, effective, and feasible implications, based on the realities of the two situations that were studied.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

The main aim of the study was to identify the relevance of NS models to the medical students in the light of the medical workplaces in Saudi Arabia, due to the repercussions the domination of NS models might entail, especially to NNETs. The study applied both qualitative and quantitative measures to have the participants' needs analysed, and to investigate constructs such as attitudes and motivations, expectantly covering the topic as thoroughly as possible. Scrutinising the participants' needs, their suggestions and complaints that have been inferred through their learning experiences, the issue of a specific English model, variety or accent, appears to be a minor issue as compared to other purposes of learning and using the language. Therefore, their views about language teachers tend to undermine the 'nativeness paradigm' in favour of expertise, qualifications, and professionalism. To a limited extent, the participants' perceptions about NETs and NNETs can be seen as unprejudiced, as each group of teachers has its merits, according to some participants' viewpoints. Apparently, the participants' priorities in learning the language could explain their attitudes to the other, less emphasised issues. Generally, they strongly desire to develop communicative skills, more than any other skill, so this is the most important issue.

The extensive English courses that focus mainly on developing the *structural competence,* neglecting the learners' needs and interests, are reported to constitute a burden to the students. The learners apparently have an aptitude for learning, and realise the significance of English in their speciality, career, and social life. Yet they become demotivated due to factors related to the nature of the language courses provided, apart from the burden resulting from the tasks and duties assigned to them through other disciplinary scientific subjects, which constitute the major part of their degrees.

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That said, apart from the nature of the interrelated world today and the role of English in this world in general, based on the learners' needs at the target occupational or professional situation alone, the weight dedicated to English exclusively seems to be deemed unjustifiable. Moreover, the same can be said of embracing particularly the native models and standards of this ruling language in academia or language courses. It can be said that language is taught in HE only and mainly to help preparing learners' linguistic abilities so that they do not fail learning the content knowledge. It is not concerned about workplace or disciplinary needs. It seems that course planners think that, by teaching this 'general' language content, they are putting learners' on a lever suitable for their disciplinary linguistic requirements.

This case study attempted to outline the needs of specific participants, in a specific milieu, and in a single expanding-circle country. Besides, the participants' attitude towards English in general, and 'different' Englishes in particular, their motivations, and usages of the language, all have been identified by the study. Through the journey of developing this case study, several pedagogic factors and issues related to the teaching/learning process have concurrently emerged.

Generally, the findings of this study, and how useful they might be, shall expectantly be reflected through outlining its contributions, implications, and recommendations below:

7.1 Contributions

1- This project can be of great use for researchers interested in researching EFL in relation to ESP and/or EAP because it targets an institution where English is supposedly taught for specific purposes and whose learners are learning the language for specific needs. Particularly, the findings of this study can contribute to the current controversial

arguments about the suitability, applicability, and effectiveness of ESP courses in HE. In other words, the study can contribute to the controversy over the shift from ESP, namely from the 'traditional' ESP method, to other approaches with proven efficiency in preparing learners' required linguistic skills, such as CBI or one of its varieties. Similarly, the study concluded that language programmes are running in HE as the last attempt or cure, or as a lifebelt to help learners endure their disciplinary subjects, thereby acknowledging that they are poor products of previous educational levels. This in itself suggests that, if learners are well instructed and prepared during previous educational levels, language courses in HE will be restricted.

2- A major significance of this study can be its inquiry into the medical workplace through the participants' reports and perceptions. In other words, the study can contribute to the field by researching the medical contexts from a linguistic point of view. As is evident, very few studies managed to approach medical professionals in the context of this study. The current study has attempted to identify the extent to which English is significant to medical professionals, how they use it, when and why.

3- The NA, both PSA and TSA, shows how perceptions about language needs may sometimes be misleading. In other words, findings can prove how needs can vary from one context to another, even if certain defining criteria are shared; i.e. needs can never be generalised. It can easily be expected that, in this globalised world, English is frequently used as main medium of communication in specific spheres. However, in medical settings targeted in this research, Arabic seems to be medium of communication, since Arabs nowadays constitute the majority in such settings. The role of English, consequently, is narrowing to become utterly linked to specific situations, in

which this English is further minimised to MTs inevitably mixed within Arabic conversation.

This NA, therefore, and at the same time, can represent Benesch's (1996; 2001) critical and pragmatic NA, which considers the target situation as a station of reform due to its constantly changing nature.

4- This study contributes to the field of multilingualism, as it concludes that the nativisation of English in specific domains is limited to learning and using specific technical terms related to a specific domain, whenever the majority of the interlocutors share a native language or the same L1. Furthermore, the density of speakers sharing an L1 in a specific setting or situation can and perhaps will dominate that situation, thus imposing that language on other speakers with different L1s, i.e. by forcing them to learn the language of the majority.

5- The highlighted need for English, due to its role of being the language of instruction, and international language of specific disciplines, has led to study participation in the area of researching the current phenomenon of English as the language of academia. It is the language of communication in HE, where NNSs are communicating with each other through English. By endorsing the role of L1 in learning the language, to be used side-by-side with English, i.e. by code switching in English-medium lectures, the study can attract and please researchers who call for 'glocalisation', namely, the rights of L1s or local languages against the domination of English. Yet the current study does not consider English role in academia as a 'bane' of 'foe', but a boon that can help promote

language learning, and to keep peace with the internationalisation agenda in HE at the same time.

6- Adopting Kachru's (1985) 'concentric-circle' model in classifying the country wherein the study has been conducted, the study contributes in defining expanding-circle countries. It contributes in identifying the status of English, how English operates, and what role it plays in this expanding-circle, middle-eastern, Arab, GCC country, and how it is perceived by the stakeholders. Providing an example of an expanding-circle country can contribute into conducting cross-studies comparisons among countries that fall under this category, so the identifying criteria of such countries may be validated or invalidated. At the same time, it can also be used in conducting a critical approach of this model. Apparently, the study adds to research into attitudes towards native and non-native speakers, teachers, models and varieties, alongside needs and motivations. Also it partly contributes to research of interests in the issues and concepts that are related to attitudes, which have emerged through the data, such as *intelligibility, familiarity, and comprehensibility,* and their correlations with language proficiency levels. Generally, it contributes to the field of EIL and WEs. This study can also validate other previous studies that assumed the situation at medical workplaces to be a *lingua franca* setting.

7- The study could identify the grounds on which teachers and educational authorities can build their future decisions. Presenting and describing the products of either current or previous courses should enlighten educators' vision, as it spotlights the shortcomings and weaknesses in the teaching and/or learning process. In other words, from a *subjective* point of view, for the decisions makers to be better informed about what

should be undertaken, suggestions withdrawn from participants' learning experiences that stand as factors affecting the learning process, besides their attitudes and motivations, should be taken into account. Also as the study could partially portray how language functions in the students' perspective workplace environment, thus, they can also be informed with the knowledge about what is needed in reality.

8- Pertinent to the inquiry of the study is the discussion of who can best teach the language. The data included criteria a successful and helpful language teacher should fulfil, from the participants' viewpoint. Therefore, the study can also contribute to the area of researching language teachers, ESP teachers in particular.

9- By reflecting on the discrepancies between quantitative and qualitative data, this study can add to the discussion of mixed-methods research, designs, values and drawbacks. Besides, the study can provide examples of research into 'reflexivity' and subjectivity in terms of interviews particularly; by referring to the contradictions that have occurred in the interviews, and the reference to how I feel as influencing the analysis and discussing data and reflecting upon my understanding about it.

7.2 A Summary of the Implications and Recommendations

7.2.1 Implications for General ELT Practices in The Context of the Study

In most of the educational institutions in the region or country, ELT in general seems to suffer from old, traditional, 'unwanted' practices. As inferred from the data, the highly recommended suggestion provided by the participants is that educators should concentrate on equipping the learners with the most required communicative skills,

which are mostly referred to as 'speaking' and/or 'practice', i.e. practicing the language through speaking. This call for attention that should be paid to the speaking skills comes as an expected consequence of the currently followed traditional 'passive' teaching methods. Berns (1992: 10) indicates that, communicative competence is ordinarily desired by learners. Rubio and Lirola (2010) elaborates that, for certain reasons, the development of speaking skills is usually neglected by teachers, which makes the teachers' choices of proper methodology crucial in language learning. The context of this study seems to comply with Alvarez's (2003) conclusion about some Mediterranean countries, which shows such countries as being less pragmatic and more conceptually oriented (in Rubio and Lirola, 2010). In short, *communicative language teaching* (CLT) stands as what is mostly needed and desired at the same time. That is, not only to adopt communicative materials, but also to employ teachers who are trained to implement such a method. Similarly, an alternative learner-centred instruction is highly underscored and advocated in the literature of ELT, and ESP in particular (Nunan, 1988). Furthermore, according to Sysoyev (2000), a learner-centred approach is to be emphasised when students need to be prepared for professional communication.

The following summarises several reforms that should be considered by educational authorities in order to achieve the above-mentioned goal. If learners were well prepared and instructed at the levels prior to the university, efforts to equip them with linguistic repertoire would be minimal:

-Changing the nature of the classrooms to be learner-centred rather than teacher-led classrooms.
-Reducing the classroom density, i.e. the learners' numbers, as much as possible.
-Training teachers to help them adopt communicative teaching methods.

-Rebalancing the disproportionate emphasis put on teaching structures and grammar in these apparently audio-lingual or grammar-translation classrooms.
-Promoting and fostering learner autonomy and motivation.
-Shifting the learners' concentration on exams, to learning the language for the sake of developing and acquiring it. A possible solution that is worthy to experiment is, to offer non-credit or optional courses as suggested by some participants.

7.2.2 Implications for the Specific Context of the Study

The study concluded that content-based approaches can be the most appropriate for learners of ESP or specific disciplines taught in English, since they are in line with these learners' attention that is usually paid to meaning rather than form; hence they are useful in promoting learners' interests and motivation. Medical students, in this case, who are stressed over busy schedules, can find learning the language through such an approach meaningful and relevant to their main scientific courses, i.e. their interests. The study recommends taking EMI, which is adopted in almost all HE institutions, for granted; as a variety of CBI that would better serve medical students, especially if other scaffolding strategies are authorised, namely code switching between English and Arabic, i.e. by translating and using the learners' L1. Recommending such strategies are not arbitrary, but suggested by the reality of the target workplace situation, hence in accordance with learners' future professional context. Besides, they have been approved by other studies as tools that can enhance learners' both specific content knowledge and language knowledge or learning. It is indicated in the literature of AL that using L1 in language learning or lectures in general can promote learners' effectiveness and participation in classrooms.

Again, discipline courses that are delivered through English should be systematically planned according the learners' linguistic proficiency levels. This entails training or

instructing content teachers to organise their classes in a way that guarantee that content can be absorbed by learners. Since code switching has proven to achieve this, non-Arab teachers, whether English native or non-native, should be trained in Arabic, their learners' language. As found by Francomacaro (2011), other strategies content teachers should follow may include simplification of the language though using short sentences and plain words in a direct style.

7.2.3 Implications for the Fields of WEs, EIL, and ELF

The participants' negative attitudes toward the varieties of English discussed, including their own speaking varieties, should be improved. What they consider an 'error' should be recognised as simply a 'variation' of English. Similarly, identities, especially those of the professional participants' defined as 'users' rather than 'learners', should be more endorsed. Promoting the acceptance of what is considered 'good English', rather than simply 'correct English', is a necessary practice that will help these participants better accept themselves as legitimate 'users' of English, rather than merely having to remain permanent 'learners'.

Educators should be made aware of the current reality of English as an international language, and the pedagogical implications that result from this status, a view advocated by many other researchers. It is also a situation wherein NS and their models can be seen as becoming irrelevant.

ELT should adapt and adjust, so the language learners can accept their and others' current realities, and their attitudes can be promoted and directed toward currently 'legitimate' varieties of the language. When learners become aware of what is required, i.e. what communicative skills are required in international professional contexts, and the status each variety should have, then their attitudes towards NNSs and their varieties

may change and be further promoted. In brief, if learners are told that all people are viewed as having equal rights for possessing language, the current situation may change in positive ways.

7.3 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Since the limitations of this current study ought to be covered by future research, I will present the limitations and directions for further studies together in this section, i.e. in a concurrent way.

1- An issue with which the study could have been more rigid or empowered with rigor, and which stands as limitation of it, is the infeasibility of recording interactions or communication at a medical setting or workplace. As is evident, gatekeeping at medical settings, especially when there are purposes of collecting recordings as data, usually obstructs researchers' research journey, applied linguists in this case. Recording how professionals are communicating with each other, how the language is used at such a setting, when and why, would have added substantial and rigorous data to the project. Studies with concerns about issues related to communications in the fields of WEs and ELF/EIL usually use recordings as its main data. Also, this type of data can be useful to conduct register and discourse analysis, which is very important when to teach English for special purposes.

The findings of the study at hand show that MTs are frequently mixed with Arabic in the medical workplaces. English is reported to be used while communicating with non-Arab professionals at these settings. That being so, further research ought to analyse recorded code-switching instances, how and when it occurs.

In addition, although the participants' reports do not highlight communication with patients as an instance of using English, investigating this area would provide a more comprehensive view about the situation in medical settings.

2- Classroom observation would be supportive to the data collected from the academic setting in this study. Observations would help validating the study's both quantitative and qualitative data. For example, observing what is taking place in the classroom might be helpful at determining the most important criteria a language teacher should fulfil in this context. It could also be helpful in identifying the teaching methods and the learners' performances in classrooms.

Obtaining consent to conduct a field work for a PhD usually requires the candidate to go through a process of formalities and correspondences between sponsoring authority and authority of the institution where the data is to be collected, which usually takes a minimum of three months, besides the required arrangements with the academic institution and immigration authorities in the country where s/he studies. Accordingly, it was not feasible for me to return to the field. Also due to reasons related to medical students and professionals' busy schedules, and for the just mentioned issues of access, no follow-up interviews or e-mails were conducted.

3- Interviewing male students could provide a more balanced and comprehensive view about the data obtained from students. Unfortunately, due to certain social and cultural issues and sensitivities, I could not interview male students.

Nevertheless, the percentage of the male students as questionnaire respondents may cover this point.

4- The study targeted only one university in a specific frontier region, which can be considered as having a unique and specific culture and living styles. Accents of people in this region are usually and generally considered heavy and different by people from other Saudi regions and cities. This in fact can affect the validity of generalisation of this study. Furthermore, even though the professional participants identified several universities located at different regions as the places where they studied, no association tests were carried out to determine whether participants from other regions might have different attitudes than their counterparts. This is due to the fact that the number of these students was disproportionately small in comparison, and because items in the questionnaire itself were not designed to test such hypothesis. Thus, in order to provide a comprehensive picture about the situation in the country as a whole, the study should be replicated or similar studies ought to be conducted in several regions of the country, and at most of the existing medical and medical-related specialties schools.

5- The interviewees were randomly chosen. It was hard for me to control assigning them into specific groups. Choosing certain professionals or students intentionally, i.e. according to their professions or specialties as variables was not basically a concern of mine before or while conducting the study, as I was aware of the difficulty of researching medical professionals or students due to their busy schedules as I mentioned earlier. Therefore, I seized every opportunity

to interview whoever was available. As it was not a concern of the study to investigate the differences between different groups of professionals, neither was it feasible for me to group the participants into one homogeneous group in terms of specialty, further research may cover this gap in the future. That is, to research whether different groups of different specialties have different needs, attitudes and motivations, and to examine the levels of the language significance in relation to profession and specialty variables.

6- The history of ELT or ESP in the targeted context shows a constant change in terms of teaching syllabi, materials and courses. Therefore, students of different levels at the university, besides the professionals, apparently attended different courses, and learned the language through different syllabuses and materials. For example, the interviewees at certain points were talking about different formal learning experience, what somehow may result in heterogeneity among the participants, even if other criteria can prove their homogeneity. This may explain why some interviewees referred differently to the specific English of medicine with different labels, such as ML, MT or ME, depending on the type of the syllabus and materials they studied.

7- Some emergent issues might not have been explored in that depth, as they did not initially constitute major concerns of the study. Such issues included, for example, *intelligibility*, *familiarity*, and *comprehensibility*, and their correlations with proficiency levels. Also, the participants' references to their understanding of a certain English or variety were not made clear, i.e. whether that English, variety or accent, was either intelligible or comprehensible to them. Therefore,

the distinction between the two was not identified. In a similar line, and due to the discrepancies resulted from the data, the extent to which *intelligibility*, *familiarity* and *comprehensibility* could be considered as factors of shaping the participants' attitudes is still cloudy. The same can be said about attitudes and 'ownership'. Therefore more studies ought to fill this gap in the future.

8- EMI as a critical contemporary phenomenon that renders English to be *lingua franca* in academia was not a predefined theme or objective of this research. Study initially aimed at investigating specific needs at present and target situations, with target situation being dedicated more weight and emphasis. Yet the findings revealed that EMI constituted a major role and part among the objectives and reasons for learning English. Thus, future studies and data about this increasingly rising phenomenon would be valuable. Future research could be about attitudes toward EMI in this particular context, its repercussions or benefits, scaffolding strategies that can go side by side with it, content knowledge in EMI, or how it entails English to be a *lingua franca* in academia and the shape of this *lingua franca* if valid, as well as many other interesting areas.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Interviews

1-Professionals' Interviews Questions:

- Is English required and needed in your career ?
- Is English important for your work ?
- How often do you use English in your work?
- Are you satisfied with your English level?
- How important is it to have a high level of English proficiency to perform your job effectively?
- Do you have the sufficient language ability for coping with your current occupation ?
- Do your co-workers include people who communicate in English only? Why ?
- If the answer is yes, where do they come from ? and how often does your job require you to communicate with them?
- In your opinion, what does a doctor need in terms of English proficiency so he can communicate and perform well in his occupation?
- Do you find communicating with people at your work easy ?
- Do you face any difficulties in communicating with them ?
- If yes, can you name these difficulties?
- Can you understand the English speaking of all people around you ?
- Do you notice any differences in their pronunciation?
- How would you describe your co-workers' pronunciation?
- Is it easy to understand them ?
- If no, what do they need in order to be more understandable ? how can they be understandable?
- Is it the first time you encounter various pronunciations of English ?
- How can you describe the English you speak ? your pronunciation ?
- Are you satisfied with it, or you are trying to achieve certain goals regarding your speaking skill ?
- If yes, why ?
- How would you describe your knowledge of English before you began college?
- How useful were the English language courses provided by the language unit at the university of … ?
  How were the English language courses during your college study relevant to your medical needs?
- Did they fully prepare you for your profession ?
- Who did teach you ? where do they come from ?
- Were you happy with them ?
- What did they teach you ?
- How useful were the courses ?
- Were you introduced to various pronunciations at the university ?
- If yes, how ? is it through your teachers' way of speaking or the teaching materials ?
- How would you rate your knowledge of English after you graduated from college?
- What did you wish the university change in order to meet your wants and needs ?
- Give your suggestions for the university authorities regarding the English courses they are offering.
- The University of … medical shools are emphasizing Amerian and/or British English. In addition, the manger and authorities at the … university language centre are doing their best to hire English native speakers. Do you think the American and British models are what really needed, and the best in order to prepare medical students for your current position ? why?
- Is it necessary to maintain their plan of hiring native speakers? (even if not qualified as English teachers) ? why ?
-

2-Students interview questions:

A- Students' perceptions of English current status, role in the World:
- What do you think about learning English ?
- Who do you think of when you hear the term 'English Speaker' ?
- Whose language do you think English is ?
- In the questionnaire, you agree/disagree with the statement *I want to learn American English rather than Philippine English*. Would you explain why?
- If you are staying in India, do you think your English level will be higher? Why?

B- Purposes for learning English:
- Would you explain why you are learning English now?
- How do you think you will be using English in the future? With whom ?
- what is your goal of learning English ? how do you wish to be in English ? why?
- Do you wish to be identified as native speaker when you speak English, or it does not matter how you speak as far as your language is understood and intelligible ?

C- English education at the medical colleges :
- Are you satisfied with the current English teaching policy/course at your college ? for example with the teaching methods, teachers, materials ..etc?
- Are you satisfied with your English language proficiency?
- Is there anything that can be considered as challenge for you, affecting your learning process , hindering your achievement and improvement of your English level ?
- Do you have in difficulty with studying English grammar or pronunciation ?
- Do you think if you try to speak without being worried about grammar or pronunciation your speaking skill will be improved ?
- Is there anything you wish you can change so your level of English will get improved?
- Are you happy with your English teachers ? why ?
- where do you think the college should get more English from ? why ?
-

D- Attitudes toward Native and Non-native Varieties:
- where do you think the college should get more English from ? why ?
- How do you define a good English teacher? Do you prefer a native speaker of English to nonnative speaker?
- Who are the teachers with whom you can better understand English ? why ?
- Do you think a native speaker variety is important for both your current study and future career ? why?

Appendix 2: Questionnaires

Consent Form:

عزيزي/ عزيزتي المشارك/المشاركة في تعبئة هذا الاستبيان تحية طيبة وبعد .....

أفيدكم علما بأني أقوم بإعداد بحث بعنوان (الانجليزية كلغة عالمية والانجليزية لأغراض خاصة في الأوساط الطبية: دراسة تهتم بكل من واقع طلاب الطب الحالي و واقع الأطباء في المستشفيات السعودية, كما تهتم بتصورات شاغلي و شاغلات هذه ن الواقعين عن اللغة الانجليزية ومتحدثيها) . يعد هذا البحث متطلب أساسي للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه التي أحضر لها حاليا في جامعة وريك بالمملكة المتحدة. كذلك أفيدكم علما بأن جامعة وريك تدعم حقوق المشاركين في الأبحاث وحمايتهم ومن أجل ذلك فإنني أزودكم ببعض المعلومات عن طبيعة البحث ليكون لكم القرار قبل المشاركة بالموافقة من عدمها, ولكم كامل الحق في عدم المشاركة أو الانسحاب في أي وقت.. وفي حال انسحابكم قبل اتمام تعبئة الاستبيان فلن يترتب علي انسحابكم أي تبعات أو التزامات.

عزيزي/ عزيزتي المشارك/المشاركة:

وَنْ الْوقِ نِأْلَا علماْ ليتَّد زِتَدْ اويناْلجْثَه لَمِيتَدْ مَنْوفهَماْولسلة الَ ليْفقُوان يُسحِلْأَ شخص غير الباحث للوصول لهذه المعلومات من دون الحصول على موافقة منك.

مشاركتك في هذا الاستبيان لن تستغرق أكثر من 5 أو 10 دقائق

للتواصل في حالة تواجد استفسارات او توضيحات اضافية فضلا قم/قومي بارسال بريد الكتروني على الحساب التالي

Elham1gh@gmail.com

اجابتك على فقرات هذا الاستبيان تعني اقرارك بأنك قمت/قمتي بقراءة هذه المقدمة وبأنك توافق/توافقين على المشاركة في البحث.

شاكرة تعاونكم جزيل الشكر

إلهام عبدالله غبين

طالبة دكتوراه / جامعة وريك

Dear participant,

I inform you that I am doing research that is titled "English as an International Language and English for Specific Purposes at the Medical Fields in Saudi Arabia". This study is interested in both the medical students' current situation and the professionals' situation in hospitals. The study is also interested in these stakeholders' attitudes towards and perceptions about English and its speakers.

This questionnaire is part of my data collection plan to gather required information for the PhD project I am doing at the University of Warwick in the United Kingdom. I also inform you that the University of Warwick supports the practice of protection for the

human subjects participating in research.

The information has been provided for you to decide whether you wish to participate in this study. You should be aware that even if you agree to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time. If you do withdraw from this study, it will not affect your relationship with this unit, the services it may provide to you, or … University.

Please be assured that all the information you provide here will be used only for the purpose of my study and no third party will be allowed to have access to your information without your prior written consent.

Please, when responding to multiple choice items questions, simply tick the most appropriate answer, and read all the options before you choose an answer.

In the case of questions that require writing a text (all optional), there will be a space provided immediately where you can write your answers. Shall you need to write a text longer than available spaces, use the textbox at the end of the questionnaire.

If you have further questions and/or need clarification, please feel free to contact me on:

Elham1gh@gmail.com

Elham Abdullah Ghobain, University of Warwick, PhD Candidate.

Professionals' Questionnaires

        a- Personal Information:

1- Age: 25-30   31-40   40+

2- Job title:

3- Specialty:

4- Name of the University you graduated from:

5- Gender: F / M

6- Years of working experience: -5 , 5+ , 10+

7- Are you satisfied with your current English level?

A-Yes   B-No   C- To a certain extent

8- Do you have the sufficient language ability for coping with your current occupation?
    A-Yes   B-No   C- to a certain extent

9- Did you attend any English course other than those compulsory English courses at the intermediate, secondary and University levels?
   A-Yes   B-No

10- If your answer for the previous questions is 'yes', please identify how many courses you did, and whether they were in Saudi Arabia or abroad ?

11- If there will be English courses provided for you at your workplace, do you prefer the courses to be about:

	1	2	3	4
General English, i.e. grammar, listening, speaking, writing and reading skills				
Medical terminology, i.e. body anatomy, diseases, medications....				
How to communicate with people at your workplace.				
How to communicate with people outside your workplace.				

12- How would you rate your knowledge of English before you began college? Please circle one answer
        Excellent Very good   B- Satisfactory   C- Poor   D- Very poor

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13- How useful were the general English language courses provided by the language unit at the university you attended?

       A-Very useful   B-Useful   C-Very useless   D- useless

14- How were the English language courses during your college study related to the needs of your medical profession?

        A lot   somewhat   A little   Not relevant at all

15- How would you rate your knowledge of English after you graduated from college?

Excellent   Very good   Satisfactory Poor   Very poor

16- How did the intensive English language courses that you studied at the college level help you in the following tasks? Please look at the scale below and circle the appropriate number accordingly.

      1= a lot   2 = somewhat   3 = a little   4 = did not help all

	1	2	3	4
Speak about medical related topics in English				
Write about medical related topics in English				
Read medical related books, articles, and magazines				
Understand medical related instructions, lectures, and homework				
Communicate with people outside the workplace and do casual conversations				

17- With whom do you often use English at your work? Please choose one option:
A-Non-native English speakers (From India, Pakistan, the Philippine…)
B-Native English Speakers (From America, Britain, Canada…)
C-Arabs and Saudis

18- When you often speak English, what is the main purpose of your conversation?
       A- Casual conversation   B- Formal and scientific/medical discussion
         C- both

B- **Participants ' Motivation:**

19- What are your purposes and reasons for using English?
Please show how important the reasons are. Tick a box for each one.
1= very important   2=important   3= neither important nor unimportant 4= unimportant
5=very unimportant

	1	2	3	4	5
a-To write professional reports and letters					
b- To access the international community					
c- To read professional textbooks, reports and articles					
d-Because I like the countries where English is spoken as the mother tongue.					
e-To talk to people all over the world					
f-To talk to non-native English speakers in work situations					
g- To meet and converse with more and varied people					
h- To think and behave as native speakers do					
i- Because it is important for my career.					
J-To better understand foreign cultures.					
k- To better understand and appreciate the English way of life.					
l-To talk to foreigners in Saudi Arabia					
m-To talk to native speakers in English-speaking countries					
n-To talk to native English speakers in work situations					

C: Attitudes

In this section, please read each of the following statements carefully; and then **write the number in front of the statement** that best represents the level of your agreement to the statement.

Level of agreement
1=Strongly Disagree (SD)
2= Disagree (D)
3= Slightly Disagree (SLD)
4= Slightly Agree (SLA)
5= Agree (A)
6=Strongly Agree (SA)

20- The non-native English speakers should speak into Standard English (Here, Standard English refers to English spoken in the English-speaking countries, like U.S.A. or U.K.)

21- If English is used differently from British or American English, it must be wrong.

22- English belongs to the UK/USA

23- Imitating how native speakers use English is most important in learning English.

24- The English spoken by Indian people is not authentic English.

25- English belongs to anyone who attempts to speak it.

26- Like "Philippine English" and "Indian English" Saudi Arabia should have its own accent of English: "Saudi English"

27- When Saudis speak English, their speaking is clear.

28- All Saudi people should speak English in the same way.

29- When I speak English, I attempt to sound like a native speaker.

30- Any English accent that sounds like the British accent is considered as a clear accent.

31- Any English accent that sounds like the American accent is considered as a clear accent

C- Graduates' Perceptions of their Present Needs:

32- Medical Terms is what doctors need the most.

33- A doctor can be successful and distinguished in his/her career with an intermediate/satisfactory level of general English.

34- I can easily do a conversation related to medical purposes at my workplace.

35- The way English native speakers use and speak English is important and required in order to communicate with people at my work.

36- I find communicating in English with people outside my workplace difficult because of language barriers.

37- A doctor must have an English native-like proficiency if he is to be successful.

38- I can understand any English speaker as far as what is being discussed related to Medicine.

D- Graduates Suggestions for the policy makers of the language unit at the university:

39- Policy and courses planners should focus on the general English more than the Medical Terminology.

40- Policy and courses planners should focus on the Medical language more than the general English.

41- English is better learnt through other medical and scientific subjects rather than specific courses for either general or medical English.

42- Policy and courses planners should equally focus on both medical and general English.

43- English should be introduced at several levels, not only for freshmen or sophomores.

44- Native speakers should be hired as teachers if the English courses to be successful.

45- Medical students can learn English through medical lectures and textbooks.

46- Students need a teacher who can understand them, i.e. speaking Arabic.

47- If my English level has been improved it is all due to my own effort and hard work only.

48- The hospital is a place where a medical student can learn English.

49- Various non-native English accents should be introduced to students.

50- My English level has been improved through attending intensive English courses at the university.

51- Teaching grammar to medical students is not necessary.

52- Accent does not matter in teaching and learning English.

53- English should be taught through non-credit and non-compulsory courses.

54- Students should be motivated to learn English and to be self-learners.

Section F:

55- **What is your goal in speaking English? Please choose one only.**

a. To speak like the educated British
b. To speak like the educated American
c. To speak like the educated British or American
d. To speak like other native speakers (e. g. Australians, Canadians)
e. To be a competent speaker, that is, to be able to express myself well and clearly, and it's OK to have a Saudi accent as long as I'm understood
f. Other.

56- **What do you think is the best way to learn English?.**

a. Always with a native teacher (British, American, Canadian)
b. Always with a non-native teacher (Filipino, Indian, Pakistani)
c. Always with an Arab teacher.
d. Always with a Saudi teacher
e. It doesn't matter if it's a native or non-native teacher (it depends on the teaching methods, styles and expertise)

57- **and why? (optional)**

58- **Are you familiar with some accents of English? You can choose more than one.**
a I'm familiar with British E
b I'm familiar with American E

c I'm familiar with other native accents (Australian E, Canadian E, New Zealand E)
d I'm familiar with other accents (Indian E, Philippine E, Saudi E)
e. Other:

Comprehensibility and Intelligibility:

59-Identify the extent to which you understand English when it is spoken by the following speakers:
(The least)1……..5(the most)

	1	2	3	4	5
English					
American					
Saudi					
Egyptian					
Sudanese					
Indian					
Filipino					
other:…………………..					

The Questionnaire link to the on-line version

https://docs.google.com/spreadsheet/viewform?formkey=dFE4NC1sVVlZZVZhRHNJRy01NE9Renc6MQ#gid=0

Students' Questionnaire:

A-Personal Information:
Name: (optional)
1-level:
Third
Fourth
Fifth
Sixth
Seventh +

2-Gender: Male / Female

3-speciality:
 Medicine and Surgery
 Dentistry
 Pharmacology
 Applied Medical Sciences
 Nursing

4- Are you satisfied with the level of your English?
A-Yes   B-No   C-somehow

5- Do you think you have the linguistic ability required to be able to interact and cope with the scientific and medical courses you are attending?

A- Yes   B- No   C- to some extent

6- Are you satisfied with the current English courses and its curriculums?

A- Yes   B- No   C- to some extent

7-If no, can you explain why? (optional)
……………………………………………………………………………………

8- which of the following areas you wish the English courses to be about?
                    1=strongly prefer…4=don't prefer at all

	1	2	3	4
General English, i.e. grammar, listening, speaking, writing and reading skills				
Medical terminology, i.e. body anatomy, diseases, medications....				
How to communicate with people at your workplace.				

How to communicate with people outside your workplace.				

9- How did the intensive English language courses that you studied or are currently studying help/helping you in the following tasks? Please look at the scale below and circle the appropriate number accordingly.

1= a lot   2 = somewhat   3 = a little   4 = did not help all

	1	2	3	4
Speak about medical related topics in English				
Write about medical related topics in English				
Read medical related books, articles, and magazines				
Understand medical related instructions, lectures, and homework				
Communicate with people outside the workplace and do casual conversations				

B: Students' Motivation:

10- What are your reasons for learning English?

Please show how important the reasons are . Tick a box for each one

1= very important   2=important   3= neither important nor unimportant 4= unimportant

5=very unimportant

	1	2	3	4	5
A-Because I like the people who are native speakers					
B -Studying English is important because it will allow me to meet and converse with more and varied people					
C- I learn English to be able to interact with medical textbooks, to attend and interact with seminars and lectures.					
D-Because it will help me think and behave as native speakers do					
E-To access the international community					
F-To talk to non-native English speakers in work situations					
G-Studying English is important because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate the English way of life.					
H-to talk to foreigners from all over the world in Saudi Arabia					
I-To talk to native English speakers in work situations					

C: Attitudes

Level of agreement
1=Strongly Disagree (SD)
2= Disagree (D)
3= Slightly Disagree (SLD)
4= Slightly Agree (SLA)
5= Agree (A)
6=Strongly Agree (SA)

11-The non-native English speakers should speak into Standard English (Here, Standard English refers to English spoken in the English-speaking countries, like The U.S.A. or U.K.)

12-If English is used differently from British or American English, it must be wrong.

13-English belongs to the UK/USA

14-Imitating how native speakers use English is very important in learning English.

15-The English spoken by Indian people is not authentic English.

16-Like "Philippine English" and "Indian English" Saudi Arabia should have its own variety of English: "Saudi English"

D :Learners' Needs, Preferences and Speaking Goals:

17-When I speak English, I attempt to sound like a native speaker.

18-Any English accent that sounds like the British accent is considered as a clear accent.

19-Any English accent that sounds like the American accent is considered as a clear accent.

20-When Saudis speak English, their speaking is clear.

E:The Participants' Perceptions about their Present Needs, Wants and Lacks
21- Medical Terms is what doctors need the most.

22- Medical students need the General English more than Medical English

23- Policy and courses planners should equally focus on both medical and general English.

24-English is better learnt through other medical and scientific subjects rather than specific courses for either general or medical English.

25- Students need a teacher who can understand them, i.e. speaking Arabic.

26- English should be introduced at several levels, not only for freshmen or sophomores.

27-Native speakers should be hired as teachers if the English courses to be successful.

28-Teaching grammar to medical students is not necessary.

29-English should be taught through non-credit and non-compulsory courses.

30-Students should be motivated to learn English and to be self-learners.

31-Accent does not matter in teaching and learning English.

32-**What is your goal in speaking English? Please choose one only.**
a-To speak like the educated British
b-To speak like the educated American
c-To speak like the educated British or American
d- To be a competent speaker, that is, it's OK to have a Saudi accent
and make some grammatical mistakes as long as I'm understood
e. To speak like other native speakers (such as Canadians and Australians)
f. Other:

33-**What do you think is the best way to learn English? Please choose one only.**
a. Always with a native teacher
b. Always with a nonnative teacher
c. It doesn't matter if it's a native or non-native teacher
d. With native and nonnative teachers (it depends on the teaching professionalism)

34 -and why?

35-**Are you familiar with some varieties of English? You can choose more than one.**
a I'm familiar with British E
b I'm familiar with American E
c I'm familiar with other native varieties (Australian E, Canadian E, New Zealand E)
d I'm familiar with other vafieties (e.g. Indian E, Philippine E, Chinese E, Singaporean E….)
e. Other:

E: Familiarity and Intelligibility:

36-Identify the extent to which you understand English when it is spoken by the following speakers:
(The least)1…….5(the most)

	1	2	3	4	5
a)English					
b)American					
c)Saudi					
d)Egyptian					

e)Sudanese					
f)Indian					
g)Filipino					
other:………………..					

The webpage of the online questionnaire:

https://docs.google.com/spreadsheet/viewform?formkey=dEJPc2N3OElVbUEwSE1Vek
NHRnF0RXc6MQ#gid=0

Appendix 3
ELC At the Targeted University: Vision, Mission, and Aims.
Vision:
The Center's views that English Language being a lingua franca, as well as the language of international trade, transactions and agreement, has been acknowledged as the most established and effective means of instructions in sciences, education and culture.
Mission:
Acquiring the various English language skills is indeed very vital to every individual student in … University as in other universities in the Kingdom, as well as in some Arab universities on par with international universities which are known for their standard and prestige. Thus being so crucial for a university student to attain such international academic and linguistic level, English has rightly been declared as the language of instruction in all colleges of … University, colleges like Medicine, Engineering, Computer Sciences, Applied Medical Sciences, Sciences and community College. The English language Center, also, has the commitment to teach programs like TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) for male and female teaching assistants, as well as, to the university employees, and to various other community sectors. The E.L.C therefore has made a commitment to improve its teaching programs in co-operation with the beneficiary colleges that value such programs as highly relevant, commendable and worthwhile. The Concerned programs run as follows:
• General English language
• Intensive English program for special purposes
 • English language for specific skills
The Aims
• Presenting invaluable services to the university students through planning, arranging and carrying the intensive language programs (to all colleges) into effect
• Presenting good services i.e. common courses in English and specialized courses in cooperation with the Deanship of Community Service to present English courses for both sectors (government and private), while offering advisory services in the area of learning this language.
• Preparing curricula suiting each specialization existing in every college belonging to … University, taking into consideration the cultural and social dimensions for each scientific subject
• The English Language Center in fact aims at preparing excellent cadres of teaching staff, specialized in this language and its branches, so that they could contribute towards teaching in the university colleges with the following specializations recommended: - English   Language - English   Literature - Linguistics - Applied Linguistics - English Language for Special Purposes - Translation As far as teachers' recruitment is concerned, it is worth mentioning that the number of non-Saudi teachers of English (male and female) in the academic year 1430/1431 H, has been 177, all of them coming from various nationalities, as shown in the Diagram.
• Making contacts with some cultural centers such as the British Council, the American Cultural Center, the Canadian Cultural Center, the Australian Cultural Center, as well as, the New Zealand Cultural Center, so that our extraordinary and well selected students could guarantee the best of services to the community and the country while preparing their TOEFL or IELTS (as prerequisites for admission in universities of these aforementioned countries), or when exchanging bilateral research and scientific experiences at these universities.

Appendix 4:
ELC : Sample of Courses Objectives, Attendance and Assessment Policies:
The period of 2008-2011 course objectives:
Objectives (*The main modules' outcomes*):
At the end of the module the students enrolled should be able to:

- ➢ Master Latin and Greek roots, prefixes, and suffixes in order to understand both general university level and medical vocabulary.
- ➢ Learn medical terminologies and their definitions.
- ➢ Recognize the meaning of a core vocabulary obtained from medical texts.
- ➢ Figure out the meaning of words from given contexts.
- ➢ Develop a tolerance for unknown words which do not affect comprehension of particular texts.
- ➢ Meaningfully communicate ideas on topics related to medicine in simple, compound, and complex sentences.
- ➢ Develop necessary skills needed to write cohesive paragraphs using rhetorical patterns.
- ➢ Extract main ideas and specific details from relatively short medical or scientific texts.
- ➢ Distinguish between main points and supporting points and detail in a given context. Read and understand medical texts.
- ➢ Demonstrate adequate control of Grammar, Vocabulary, and Style.
- ➢ Understand the meaning and usage of a core vocabulary introduced in a variety of reading texts.
- ➢ Work out meanings of new words from given contexts.
- ➢ Demonstrate the ability to express themselves using different tenses and verb forms.
- ➢ Make a short oral presentation of a medical text.
- ➢ Show the ability to understand medical texts, as well as the ability to get a point across.
- ➢ Write correct English sentences using appropriate tense and verb form.
  Ellis objectives

1- The main objective of this computer based language program is to enhance the communication skills of the students.
2- To help the students comprehend the native accent in a better manner.
3- Help the students to understand and use the frequently used idioms, phrases and different words.
4- Remove the hesitation of the students in speaking English in their day to day life or in public places.
5- Encourage the students to actively participate in the social gatherings using English as their medium of conversation.

The period of 2008-2011Assessment Policy:

Assessment of Module Outcomes:
      1. *Methods of Students' Assessment:*
      2. 1 1st semester – 25% of Final Mark
Quiz I: 5%

All material covered within the first 6 weeks should be tested at this stage.
Quiz 2: 5%
All material covered in weeks 1 – 10 will be tested at this stage.
Mid-Year Exam: 15%
All material studied in weeks 1 – 15 should be tested at this stage.
       5.2   2nd Semester: 75% of Final Mark
Quiz 3: 5%
This quiz will be given at the end of the 5th week of the term. All material thus far covered should be included in this Quiz
Mid-Semester Exam: 10%
This quiz is given at the end of the 8th week.
Finals: 60%
(A) Lab Test: 10%
This test concerns material covered by ELLIS. It aims at measuring students' achievement with regard to listening, vocabulary, and grammar.
(B) Final Examination: 50%
All the year's work should be tested at this stage.

The period of 2008-2011 course objectives:

-Course Objectives
At the end of the module the students enrolled should be able to:
1. analyse the genre-specific lexis and understand the morphological rules of the medical terms
2. write personal details such as daily routine and filling forms, as well as be able to write letters or make short notes on familiar matters
3. read general and scientific texts effectively employing reading strategies
4. communicate and interact effectively
The period of 2008-2011 course objectives Teaching Methods:
Level 1:
Teachers can use different techniques which cater to multiple learning styles to help students retain information and strengthen understanding. A variety of strategies and methods are used to ensure that all students have equal opportunities to learn. Lecturing, questioning, explaining, modelling and demonstrating are used for presentation stages. However, practice can be carried out in terms of pair work or group discussions. Production can take the form of oral presentations or written assignments.

Teaching
Level 2:
Classes will combine lectures, group discussions, lab sessions, chain drills, etc. Teachers can use different techniques that cater to multiple learning styles to help students retain information and strengthen understanding. A variety of strategies and methods are used to ensure that all students have equal opportunities to learn. Lecturing, questioning, explaining, modelling and demonstrating are used for presentation stages. However, practice can be carried out in terms of pair work or group discussions.

The period of 2008-2011 course assessment policy:
Schedule of assessment tasks for students during the semester

Assessment type	Proportion	Assessment task	Proportion
Continuous assessment	40%	Quiz 1 (written)	15%
		Quiz 2 (written)	15%
		Homework	10%
Summative assessment	60%	Written examination	60%

The University Attendance Policy:

Student Attendance Policy:

- Attendance of students is mandatory for all sessions of the module. An unexcused absence is considered a breach of professional responsibility and conduct. The student's absence affects not only himself but also the others in his group whom rely on each other to generate ideas, share knowledge, and participate in problem solving.
- It is understood that unforeseen circumstances can arise. Therefore, a student will be allowed to sit for the end-module exam if his total attendance is 75% or more (with unexcused absence), or 50% or more (with excused absence).
- If the total percentage of the student's attendance (with unexcused absence) during any given module is less than 75%, he is considered failed in that module and he has the right to attend the resit exam. Therefore, if his total attendance is less than 50%, he is considered failed and he has to repeat the whole module (study and exams).
- For any accepted emergency excuse that interferes with the student sitting for the end-module exam (*or part of it*), an alternative exam will be provided to him within the same academic year to attend.

Appendix 5

The process of Obtaining Formal Permission To Conduct the Study at the Targeted University:

To Whom It May Concern

Dear Sir/Madam,

The letter is to inform that Miss Ghobain, Elham Abdullah, currently studying towards a PhD degree in Applied Linguistics at the University of Warwick, is required to carry out primary research for a dissertation, and to request your cooperation in this activity.

The area of the study chosen is to explore the suitability of teaching International English to the Medical School students at the Jazan University in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia for their future profession needs. In order for the study to be relevant of academic merit and of use to the host university and the medical profession in the Kingdom, it will be necessary for research to be carried out within the host university and the local hospitals, including survey work and interviews with students, teachers, university and hospital administrative staff and doctors.

The value of analysis is clearly dependent on the validity and quality of the information gathered. We would, therefore, ask that you provide permission for the above mentioned student with appropriate access and authority to enable the completion of this aspect of the research.

Yours Sincerely,

Dr Mukul Saxena
PhD Dissertation Supervisor

Centre for Applied Linguistics
The University of Warwick
Coventry CV4 7AL United Kingdom
Tel: 024-765 23200
Fax: 024-765 24318
Email: appling@warwick.ac.uk

THE UNIVERSITY OF
WARWICK

www.warwick.ac.uk

The following table is taken from my profile at the Saudi Students Portal. It shows the process of initiating a request for permission to conduct a study at any institution in SA.

الإدارة	الوظيفة	الإجراء	التاريخ	ملاحظات
طالب	تم إنشاء الطلب	الطلب تحت الدراسة	27-09-2011	
الملحقية الثقافية	تفويض معاملة	الطلب تحت الدراسة	28-09-2011	
الملحقية الثقافية	المشرف الدراسي	الطلب تحت الدراسة	28-09-2011	
الملحقية الثقافية	رئيس القسم	الطلب تحت الدراسة	01-10-2011	
الملحقية الثقافية	الملحق الثقافي	الطلب تحت الدراسة	03-10-2011	
إدارة البعثات والعلاقات الثقافيه	جامعة جازان	الطلب تحت الدراسة	10-10-2011	
إدارة البعثات والعلاقات الثقافيه	جامعة جازان	قبول	05-12-2011	الموافقة على القيام برحلة علمية

إغلاق

The last response in the previous table indicates the acceptance of the data collection trip request.

Warwick Ethical Approval was obtained before initiating the request to conduct the study from the Saudi authorities

Appendix 6
A Table of Workforce in King Fahad Medical City:

Total	Technicians	Doctors	Nurses	Administrators	Nationality
270	51	30	183	6	Jordanian
9	1	6	1	1	Irish
8	2	4	2		Australian
14		2	12		Albanian
2		2			Geman
51	11	26	2	12	American
1			1		Indonesian
2		1		1	Ugandan
120	9	73	34	4	Pakistani
3		2	1		Bahraini
27	5	14	6	2	British
23		19	4		Bangladeshi
1			1		Tanzanian
2		1		1	Turkish
3		2	1		Czech
3	2		1		Tunisian
1		1			Algerian
167	7	1	158	1	South African
1	1				Ethiopian
2	1	1			Danish
1		1			Russian
1	1				Romanian
1	1				Zimbabwean
2263	463	413	257	1131	Saudi
69	13	45	3	8	Sudani
38	6	31	1		Syrian
2		2			Swedish
1		1			Sri Lankan
1	1				Somali
11	1	1	9		Chinese
2		1		1	Iraqi
4		4			French
1788	336		1263	189	Filipino
25	9	11	2	3	Palestinian
24	6	11	4	3	Canadian
6	1		4	1	South Korean
2			354		Serbian
10	3	5	2		Lebanese
1	1				Maltese
17	5	1	11		Malaysian

91	8	55	6	22	Egyptian
2	1			1	Moroccan
4		3	1		Nigerian
4	1	2	1		New Zealander
925	25	54	841	5	Indian
35	6	27	1	1	Yemini
6038	978	853	2815	1392	Total

Appendix 7

Summary about Attitudinal Studies reviewed by Jenkin's (2006), excluding Kim (2007b), mainly adapted from Yang (2010)

Study	Methods	Results
Matsuda (2000) investigated Japanese high school students' attitudes toward the English language.	Questionnaire Interview Classroom-observation	The students revealed negative attitudes toward the Japanese variety of English while they had positive attitudes toward American English. They believed English was owned by NS.
Scales *et al.* (2006) conducted a study to analyse ESOL learners and American students' accent perceptions of four English accents: American, British, Chinese, and Mexican.	Participants listened to the 4 accents through a one-minute passage. They attempted to identify the accents, and stated their preferences.	More than half (62%) of the learners expressed desire to have a native accent. An interesting finding showed that with this strong preference only 29% of the learners were able to identify the native accent correctly. The researchers suggested learners might have an idealization of native speech, and their preference was linked to ease of understanding.
Friedrich (2000) examined the attitudes of adult Brazilian learners toward the English language.	Survey	All the participants recognised only two varieties of English, American and British English. At the same time, the participants were not aware of the existence of other varieties of English. However, they revealed a desire to be immersed in the international community where English was used as the *lingua franca*, *i.e.* a main communication tool. In other words, participants showed an awareness of the status of English as an international language.
Timmis' (2002) study examined the attitudes of almost 600 participants (both teachers and students) toward the English language. These participants came from different backgrounds,	Questionnaires	All the participants showed an overall tendency to conform to NS norms. Yet, the students appeared to be more attached to these native norms. Participants had an idealised notion of the NS norms. This may explain their uncertainty about the kind of norms belonged to NNS.

from over 45 countries.		
Shim's (2002) study measure Korean learners attitudes toward English, and English varieties,namely, US, Canadian, Australian, Pakistani, and Korean, to examine their preferences.	Survey included verbal-guise test, learners listened to 5 recordings representing the 5 accents.	US and Canadian speakers were chosen by one hundred percent of the participants, forty-nine percent of them chose the Australian speaker, whereas none voted for Pakistani and Korean speakers.
Butler's (2007) study to investigate 312 Korean elementary students' attitudes toward teachers with American/ Korean-accented Englishes.	Questionnaire and matched-guise technique, with recorded texts in both American and Korean accented Englishes by a Korean American	The results indicated no difference in their performance on listening comprehension of American-accented English and Korean-accented English. However, revealed from the attitudinal questionnaires that the students showed strong preference for American-accented English teachers.

	teacher.	
Kim (2007b) examined 43 Korean adults' attitudes towards native and non-native varieties of English.	Questionnaire and a verbal-guise test including 6 varieties; American, British, Hong Kong, Indian, Korean, and Taiwanese Englishes.	Participants preferred American English as a model of instruction and showed no discrimination to both native and non-native varieties. They also recognised the status of English as international language, and showed positive attitudes towards non-native English varieties. However, they were not well aware of English varieties.

Appendix 8

A Piloted and backward translated questionnaire by an expert in the field:

Age
Gender
Job Title
Major
University of Graduation
Years of Experience
Are you satisfied with your level in English?
Have you got the required linguistic proficiency to cope with your job requirements?
Have you joined any special English courses other than ones based on the school/university curriculum?
If yes, how many and where?
If your employer decides to offer special courses in English, which of the following areas would like to be offered?
General English (grammar, skills, listening ….
Medical Terms (Anatomy …
Communication skills with the people of medicine
Communication skills with people outside the profession
How do you evaluate you English BEFORE you enrolled the Uni/College?
How helpful were the English courses offered by language unit in your uni?
How relevant were the language courses? Do they reflect your medical needs?
(May be this should be split into two and you should use 'profession' instead of 'needs')
How do you evaluate your English AFTER graduation?
How did attending language courses help you perform the following tasks:
Speaking about medicine-related topics in English
Writing …
Reading medical materials
Understanding instructions and assignments related to medicine (hmmmm)
Discussing medical topics with colleagues

With which of the following categories do you usually use English in your workplace?
When you speak Eng, what is usually your main purpose?
Casual
Forma
Both
What are the purposes/reasons of using English
Writing scientific or specialised reports
Communicate with global society (?)
Reading materials in my major
I like Eng speaking countries
Speaking with different ppl around the world
Speaking with natives in workplace
…. With non-natives
Speaking with the largest number of people from different backgrounds
Behaving like natives
English is important in my profession
Understanding foreign cultures
Appreciating and understanding Eng lifestyle
Speaking with foreigners in SA
Speaking with natives in their home countries
Speaking with natives in workplace

Non-native speakers should adhere to the native models
If used differently than by natives, it is definitely wrong
English is an owned property and belongs to Brits and Yanks

Imitation of native speakers is the most important aspect of language learning

Indian English is fake

English ownership is for everyone who speaks it

As long as there are Indian and Fillipino Engs, there should also be a Saudi version

Saudis speaking Eng clearly

All Saudis should have an identical accent (?)

I would like to sound native when I speak Eng

Any American-like accent is clear (?)

Medical terms are what most practitioners need

A practitioner can be successful even if English levels in other areas are average/acceptable

I can have a conversation about a subject related to my work easily

The way/accent spoken by natives is important to communicate with people in the workplace

Communication with people out of my workplace is difficult (? Difficult because of social failure or language barriers?)

To be a successful practitioner, you must speak like natives

As long as the subject is related to medicine, I can understand the speaker regardless of accent (repeated)

Officials and planners should focus on General English more than medical English (repeated?)

…. The opposite

English should be taught via medical courses

Official should pay equal attention to general and medical English

Eng should be taught in various levels not only for freshmen and sophomores

For courses to be successful, only native teachers should be hired

Medic students can learn from medic books and courses

Students need an Arab teachers who understands them

If my language develops, it is because of my own endeavours

The hospital is the best place a student can learn Eng

Different accents should be offered to students

(Typo error

My level has improved as result of attending special courses offered by the uni

Grammar is unnecessary and a waste of time for Medic students

Accent is not important in teaching and learning English

Eng courses should be optional and not included in the GPA

Students should be motivated in order to become autonomous learners

What is your goal of speaking (leaning?) Eng

What is the best way of learning Eng (Who teaches Eng best)

Which of the following accents are you familiar with

To which extent can you understand speakers from the following countries

In each of the two following statements (I see four?) which one is closest to your perception about native speakers

Appendix 9

A Brief Historical Preview about the Nature of English Courses for Medical Students
 - From 2002 to 2006

English courses started with 23 hours per week during first six weeks of 1st semester. Then, from week seven up to the end of first semester, they were reduced to 18 hours per week. Intensive general English courses were given during first six weeks alongside with ESP. The materials of ESP included Chabner's (2001) book, *The Language of Medicine*). The teaching or credit hours were equally distributed between EGP and ESP.

During second semester, however, English courses were assigned 8 ESP hours in the immersion programme, where other subjects like biology, physics and chemistry had more weight.

- From 2006 to 2008 (The Faculty of Medicine)
In this period, the ELC, in cooperation with the administration of the medical colleges, decided not to provide EGP courses. The instruction of the language was mainly delivered through textbooks of the medical language, namely:

Materials	Methods of Instruction	Hours of Instruction	
Chabner, D. E. (2001). The Language of Medicine, 7th edition, Saunders.	Lecture	**First Semester**	**Second Semester**
		23 hours a week; from week 1 to week 6	15 hour a week (Total of 460 hours of instruction)
		18 hours per week; from week 7 to week 10	

3.4 Medical Schools Syllabus, from 2006 to 2008

After spending two years learning the language through solely the above-mentioned textbook, the policy-makers realised that the outcomes of the courses had deficiencies regarding the language's four basic skills, *i.e.* in GE. The courses organisers received feedback from the authorities and the teachers of the medical subjects that their students' proficiency levels were far below their expectations. Therefore, new plans of integrating GE to the courses have been considered and undertaken by the ELC. It can be said, an approach of emphasizing GE over ME has been adopted since then.

- From 2008 to 2011

Students receive English intakes over 15 weeks of each semester, 15 hours of instruction a week, the total of 450 hours a year/ 225 per term:

General English	
Textbooks	**ELLIS**
- Headway from Elementary to advanced levels. Soars, J & Soars, L. (2007), Headway Plus (Elementary, Pre-Intermediate). Oxford University Press. Methods of Instruction: Lecture, pair work, small group discussion Contact hours: 8 hours per week	English language Learning and Instruction System (Lab-based syllabus) Methods of Instruction: Computer-based learning Contact hours: 4 hours p/w

3.5 Medical Schools Syllabus, General English, from 2008 to 2011

Medical English - The Language for Medicine: Basic Word Structure, Terms pertaining to the body as a whole, Suffixes, Prefixes, Body Systems Terminologies		
Materials	**Methods of Instruction**	**Contact hours**
-Understanding and Using Medical Terms (2005) 1st edition, Suleiman Saleem Mazyad (Elementary Level) -Understanding and Using Medical Terms (2005) 1st edition, Suleiman Saleem Mazyad (Elementary Level- Workbook) -English for Health Sciences (2007) 3rd edition, Suleiman Saleem Mazyad, (From Elementary to Intermediate Levels) -Academic Listening for Health Professions (2007) 2nd edition, Suleiman Saleem Mazyad (From Elementary to Intermediate Levels)	Lecture, pair work, small group discussion	8 hours per week

3.6 Medical Schools Syllabus, Medical English, from 2008 to 2011

- From 2011 to 2012:

College(s): Medicine, Dentistry, Pharmacy, and Applied Medical Sciences.

Textbooks	
Level 1	**Level 2**
1. Interactions Access Reading & Writing from McGraw-Hill 2. Interactions Access Listening & Speaking from McGraw-Hill 3. Basic English Grammar (2006, 3rd Edition) by Betty S. Azar and Stacy A. Hagen 4. Tell Me More (Online learning platform) 5. Medical Terminology: A Short Course by Davi-Ellen Chabner (2008) 5th Edition	1. Making Connections (Intermediate) by Jo McEntire & Jessica Williams. Cambridge University Press. (2009) 1st Edition 2. Writers at Work (The ESSAY) by Dorothy Zemach & Lynn Stafford - Yilmaz. Cambridge University Press. (2008) 1st Edition 3. Medical Terminology: A Short Course by Davi-Ellen Chabner (2008) 5th Edition 4. Basic English Grammar (2006 3rd Edition) by Betty S. Azar and Stacy A. Hagen
Teaching Methods: Lectures, Group discussions, Lab sessions.	

3.7 Medical Schools Syllabus, General and Medical English, from 2011 to 2012

- ELC Teaching Staff and Recruitment Policy

As indicated in the ELC directory of its agenda of teaching English, the centre aims at preparing excellent cadres of teaching staff, specialised in English and its branches, so that they could contribute towards teaching in the university colleges with the following specializations recommended: English Language, English Literature, Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, English Language for Special Purposes, Translation, etc. As far as teachers' recruitment is concerned, it is worth mentioning that the number of non-Saudi teachers of English (male and female) in the academic year 1430/1431 AH, has been 177, coming from several different countries, the majority of them are Indians, Bengalis, and Pakistanis (ELC Website, Last retrieved08/02/2012[9]). Only two native speakers, who are not qualified as teachers, appear in the list, next to a ninety-nine NNET, sixteen of them are Arabs, from Sudan, Egypt, and Jordan. Besides, there is an American Sudanese teacher, who hold the American green card hence classified as American and treated as a NET. In fact, it is the same case of the other two native speakers, as none of them is originally American or Canadian, but with Arab origins instead, namely Egypt and Sudan, except being born in the two mentioned English-speaking countries. As a matter of fact, hiring NSs or NETs, is one

[9] As a member of the ELC, I can say that more expatriate teachers have joined the centre, mostly from India, Bangladesh, and Pakistan

of the ELC implicit objectives, but there are reasons that usually hinder achieving such a goal. For example, the cost of a NETs or NSs usually affects the ELC annual financial budget, a cost with which they can hire 3 or 4 NNET. (See 3.2.5)

- Employment: **Policy and Administration**

The ELC has a clearly defined staffing and employment policies. The policies include a desired staffing profile and other matters including employment and promotion policies and procedures, workloads, performance evaluations, professional development, delegations of responsibilities and procedures for reporting on performance in relation to these matters. A desired staffing profile appropriate to the mission and nature of the institution is approved by the governing body. The profile includes matters such as age structure, classification levels, qualifications, cultural mix and educational background, and objectives for *Saudization.* A comparison of current teaching and other staff provision with the desired staffing profile is maintained and progress towards the objective is to be monitored on a continuing basis.
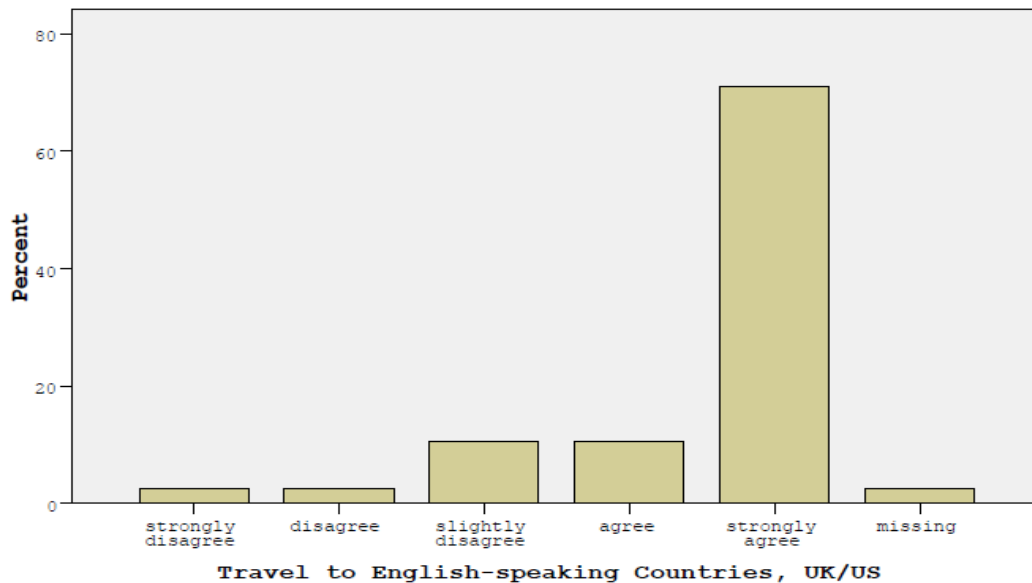
Appendix 10

The Results of the first Students' Questionnaire Pilot-test:

=============================

1- Students' Attitudes Toward Native and Non-native Speakers (Varieties)

Most of the students reveal a strong desire to travel to an English-speaking County, such as UK/US.

Travel to English-speaking Countries, UK/US

Likewise, most of the students strongly desire to study in a non-native country, such as India or Malaysia

Travel to English-speaking Countries, India, Malysia
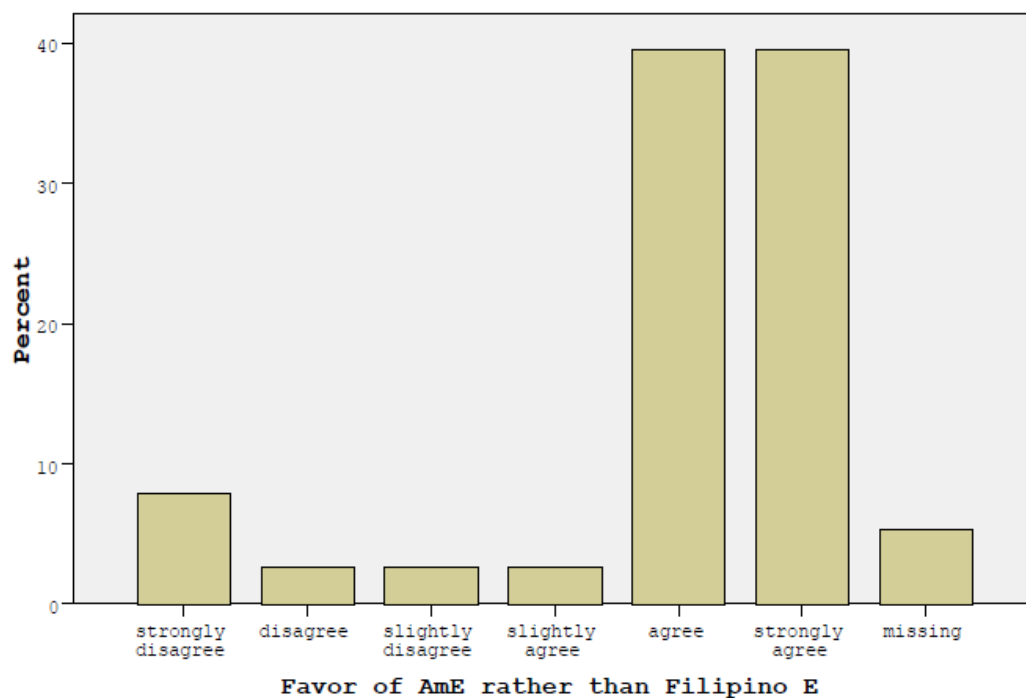

Travel to English-speaking Countries, India, Malysia
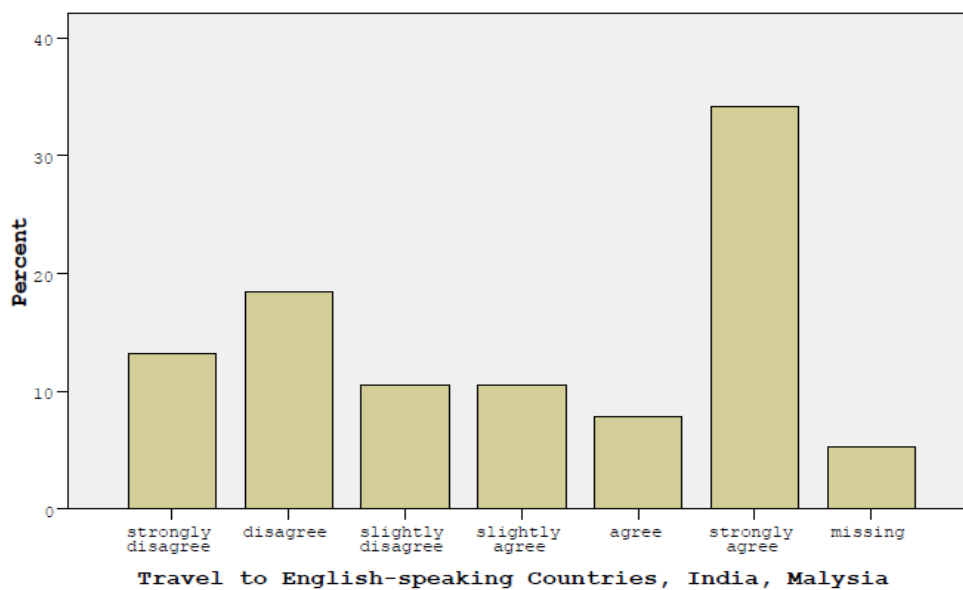
The majority of the students believe that NNS should follow the 'Standard' English, i.e. AmE or BrE

NNS should speak standard E
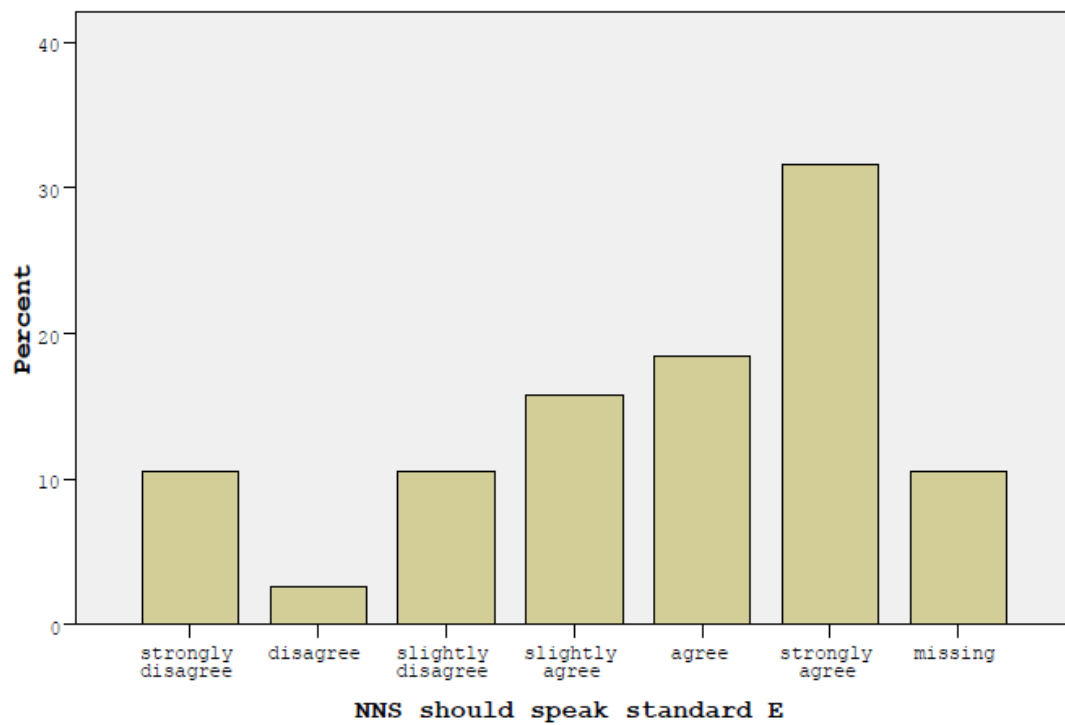
This can be indicated through their preference of the AmE over the Filipino English.

Favor of AmE rather than Filipino E
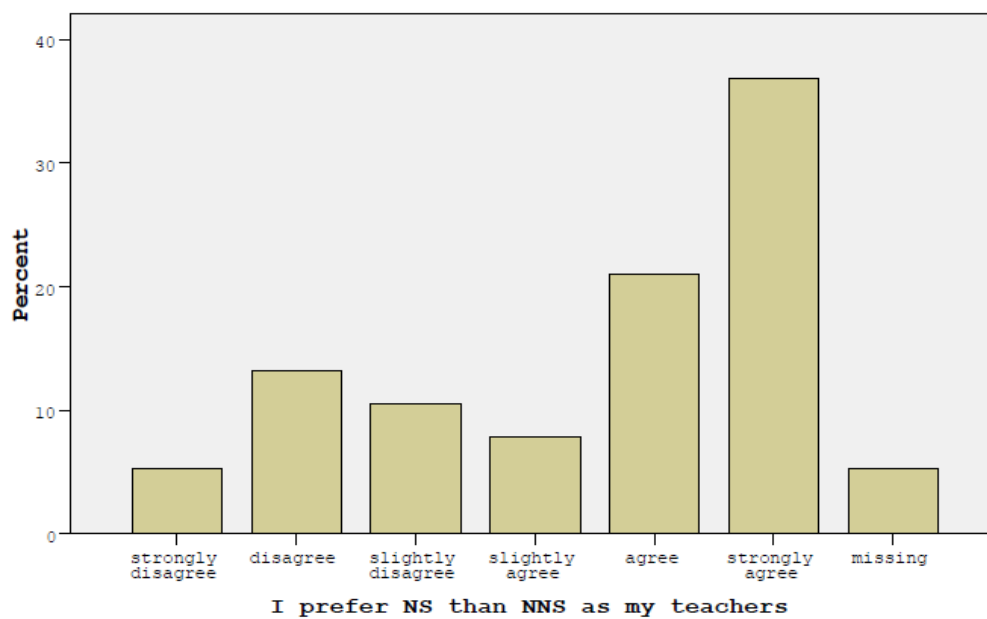
Moreover, they view the AmE as the best variety and model that should be followed in their college.

AmE is the best model for the students at the college
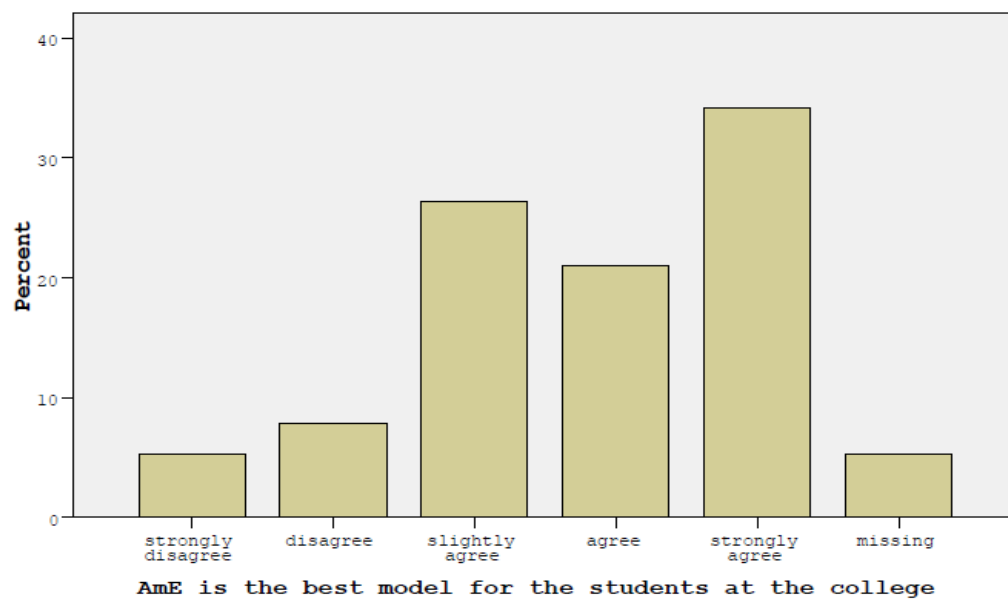
Likewise, their opinion is the same regarding the BrE.

BrE is the best model for the students at the college
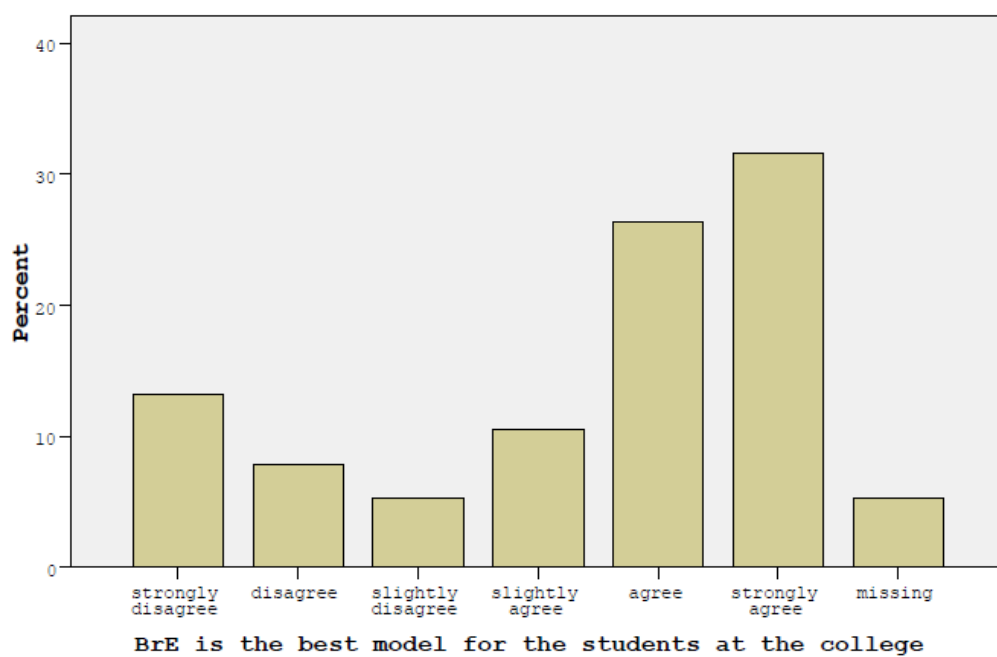
Furthermore, they prefer to be taught by a NS rather a non-native teacher:

I prefer NS than NNS as my teachers
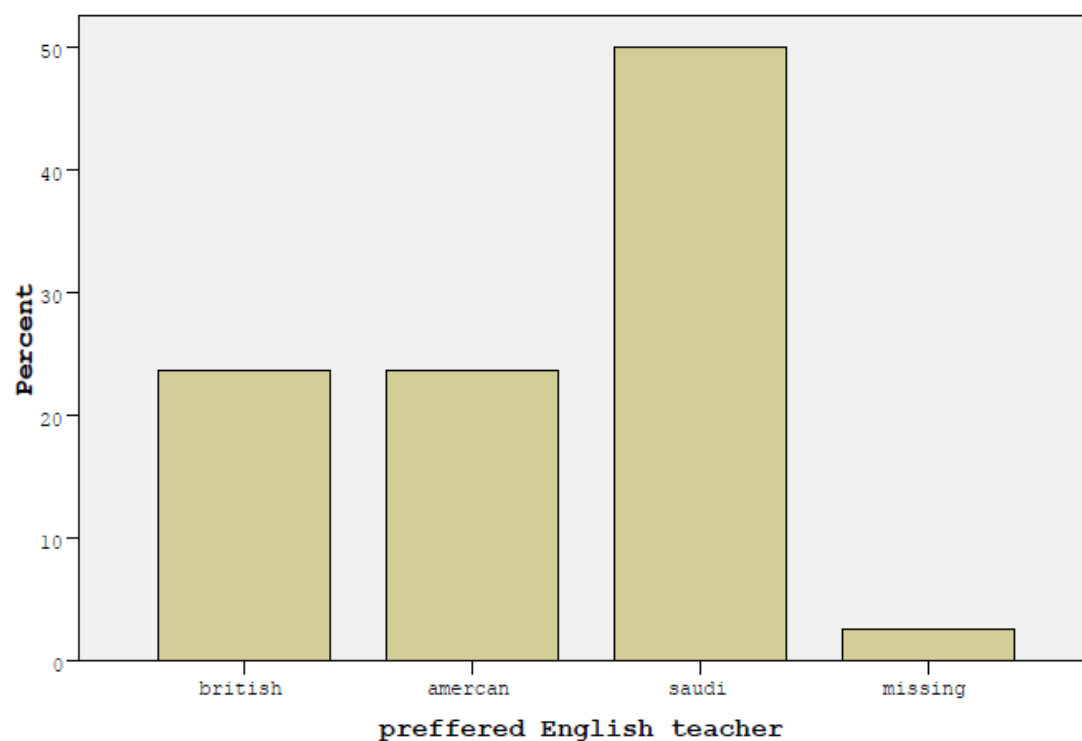
The students appear to believe that BrE and AmE are the majors and only correct varieties and models of English as the following graphs indicate:


BrE and AmE are the only correct varieties

BrE and AmE are the only major varieties
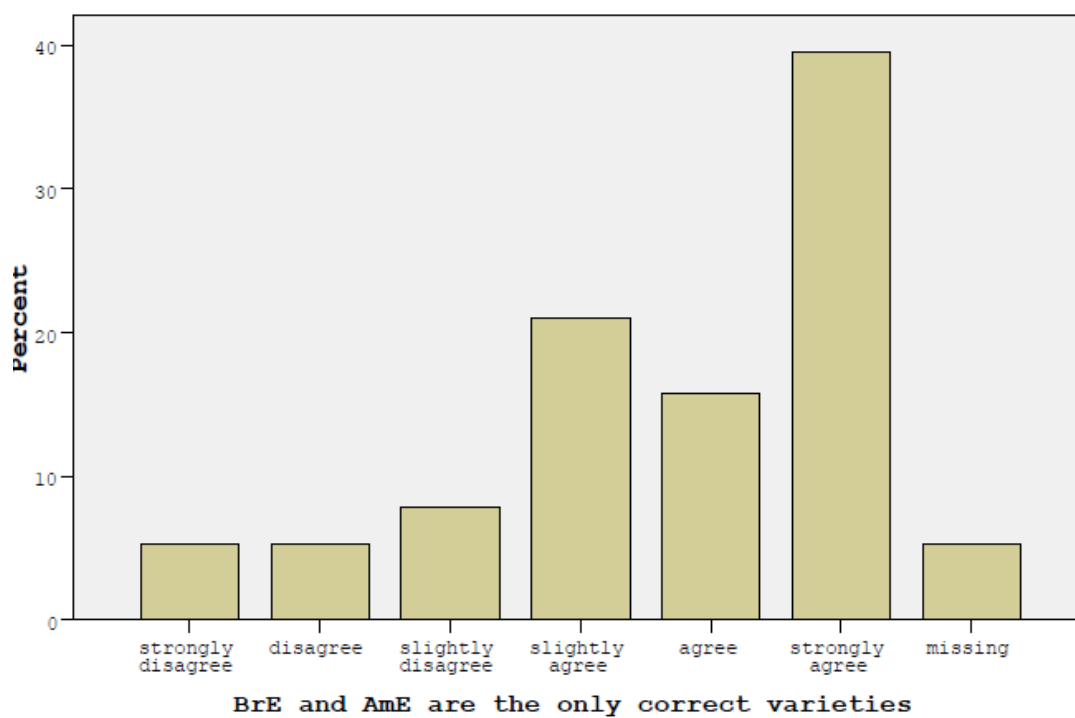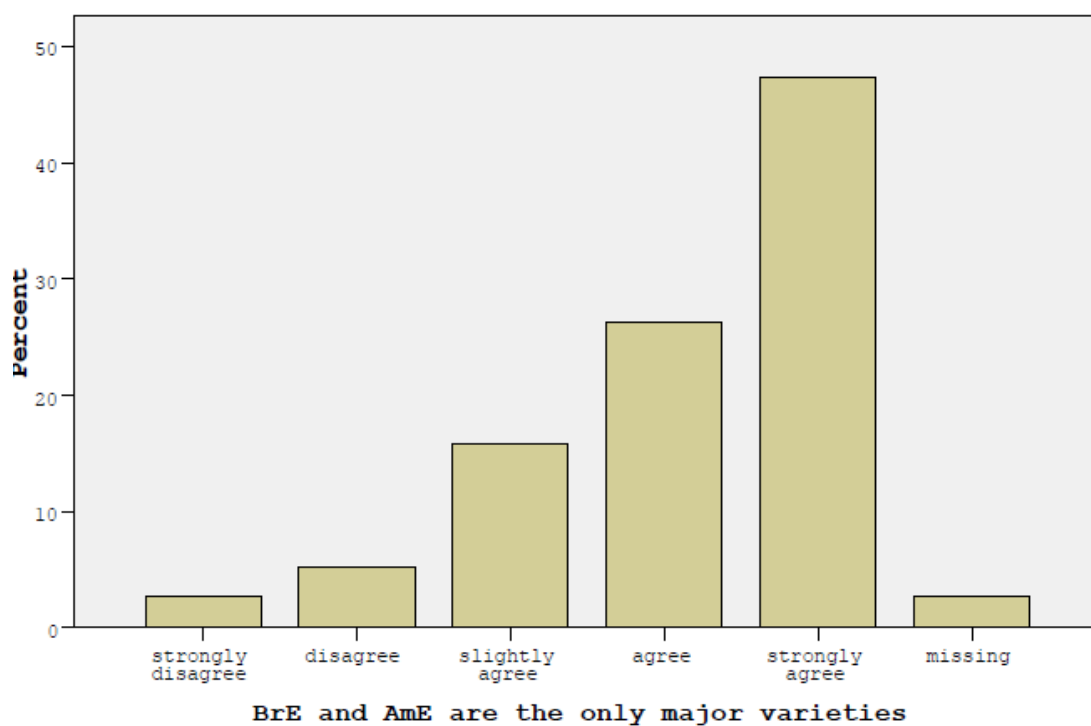
However, when the 'Saudi' teacher is introduced as an option, most of them chose to be taught by this teacher.

preffered English teacher

A compromise is revealed through choosing to be taught by any teacher, whether a native or non-native, assigning a great importance to his/her expertise.

the best way to learn English NS or NNS teacher
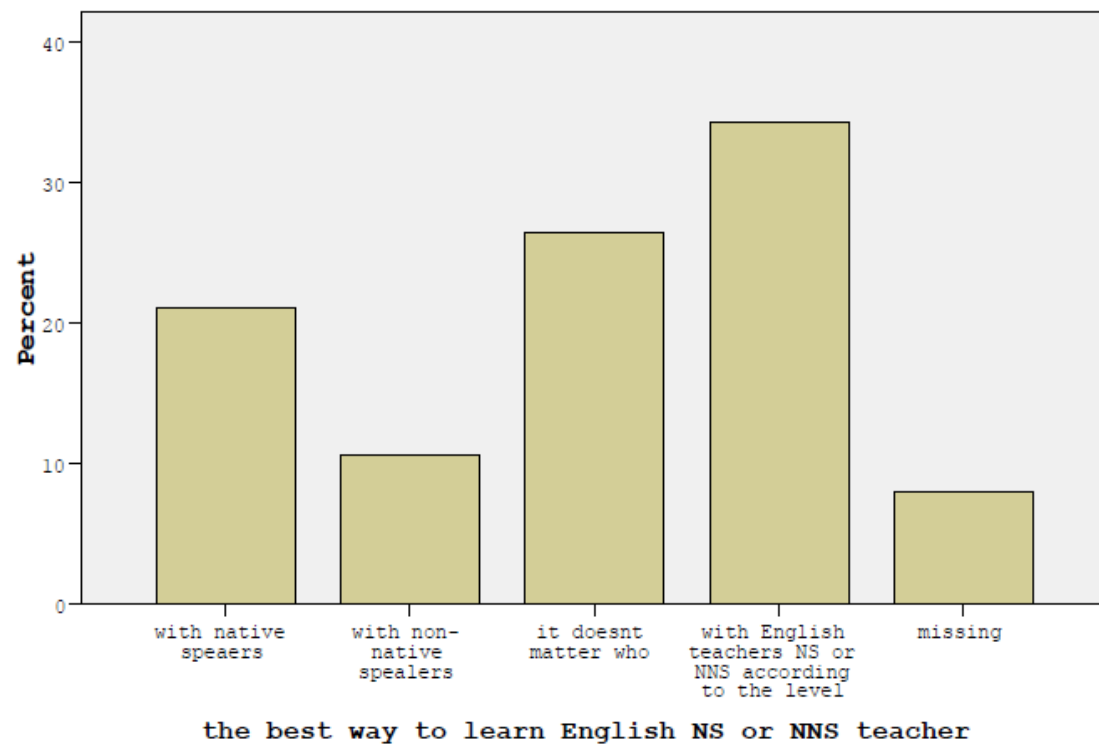
Their compromising attitude can be indicated through their responses to the statements that investigate their belief of English Ownership. Comparatively, their responses are equally distributed between native speakers and whoever speaks the language as English owners.

English ownership1

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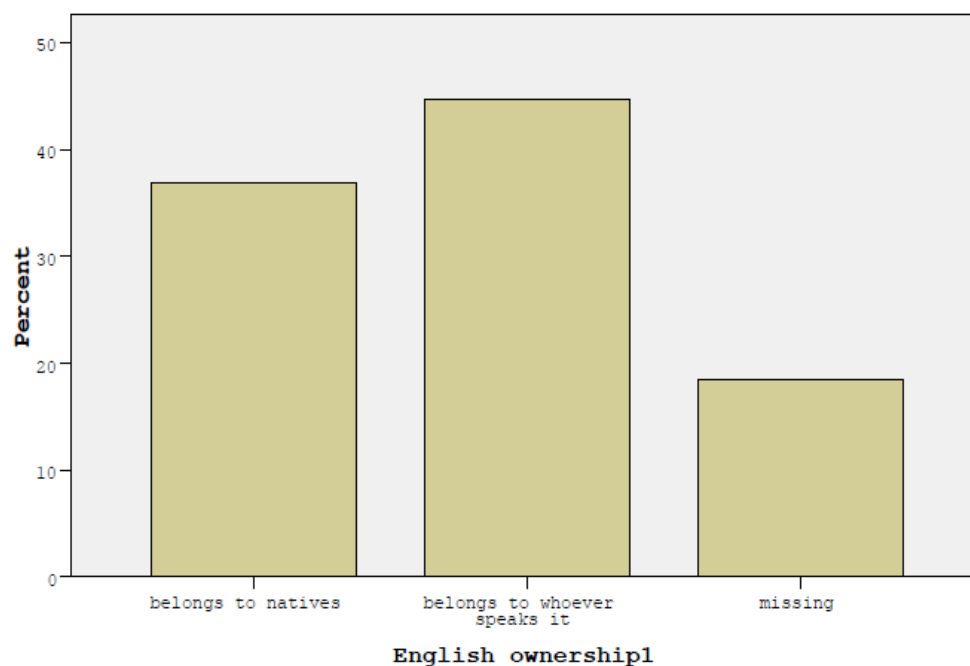
However, the belief in the language as a belonging to all its speakers is emphasised through their responses presented in the following graph, where they view English as an international language:

English ownership 2
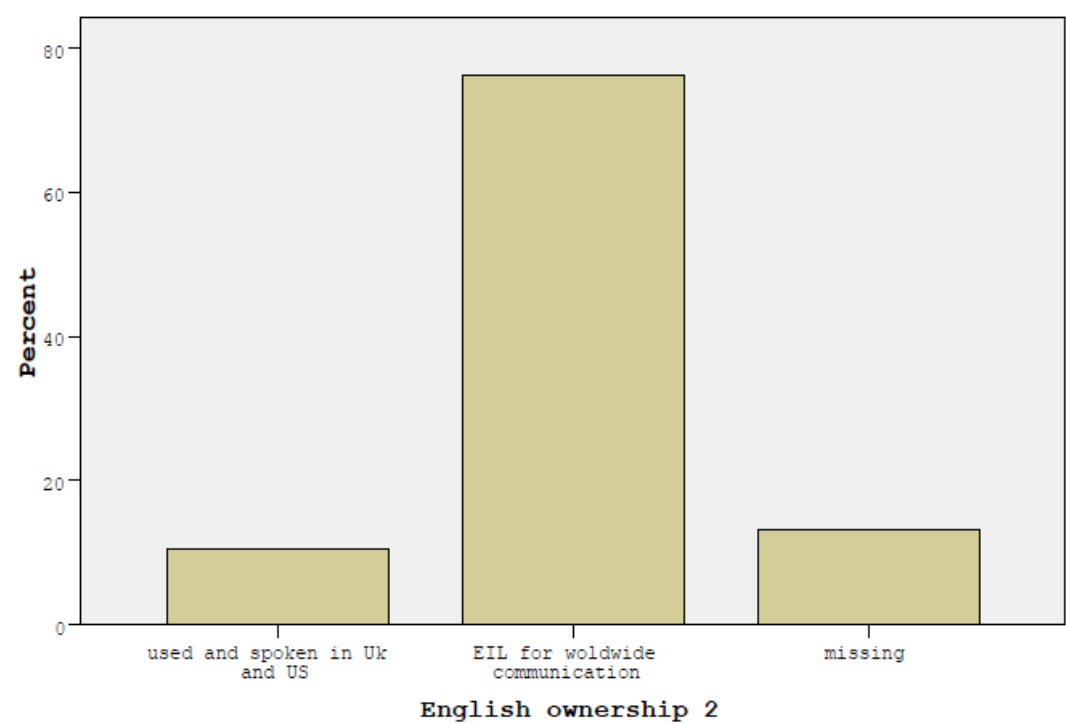
Also, the latter issue is further emphasised through their responses to another item, where they reveal a strong agreement with the "English is an International Language" statement.

English is an international language
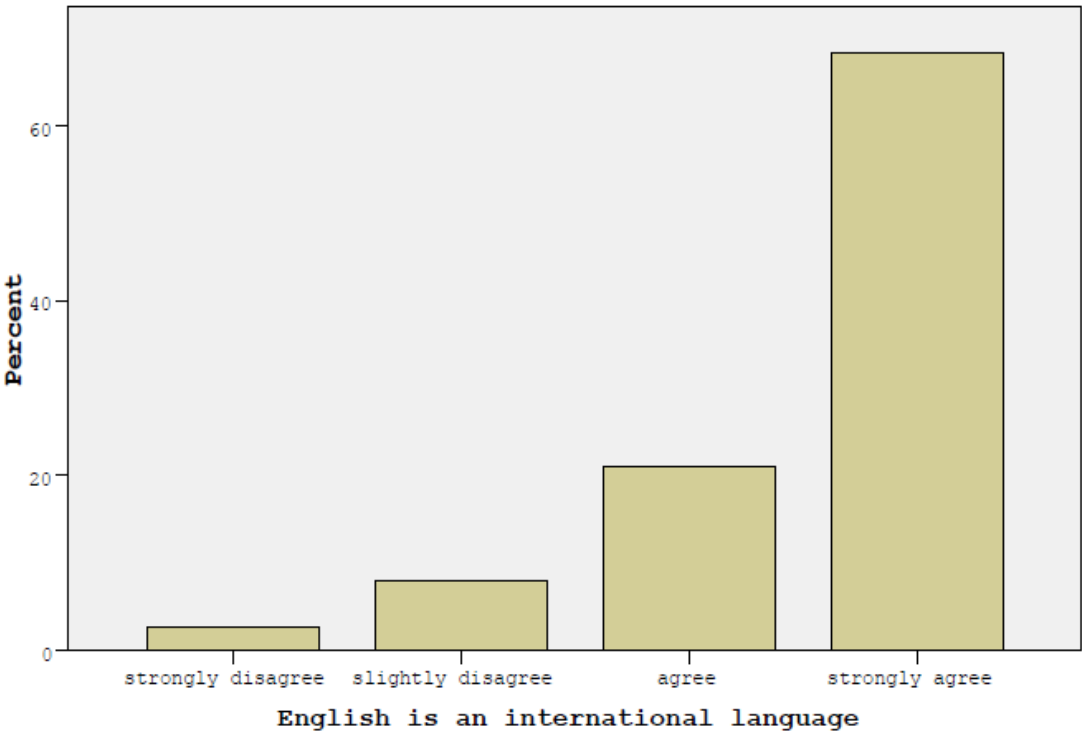
However, they may mean the following by the previous statement

E is the language most widely used

2- The students' awareness and attitudes towards World Englishes.

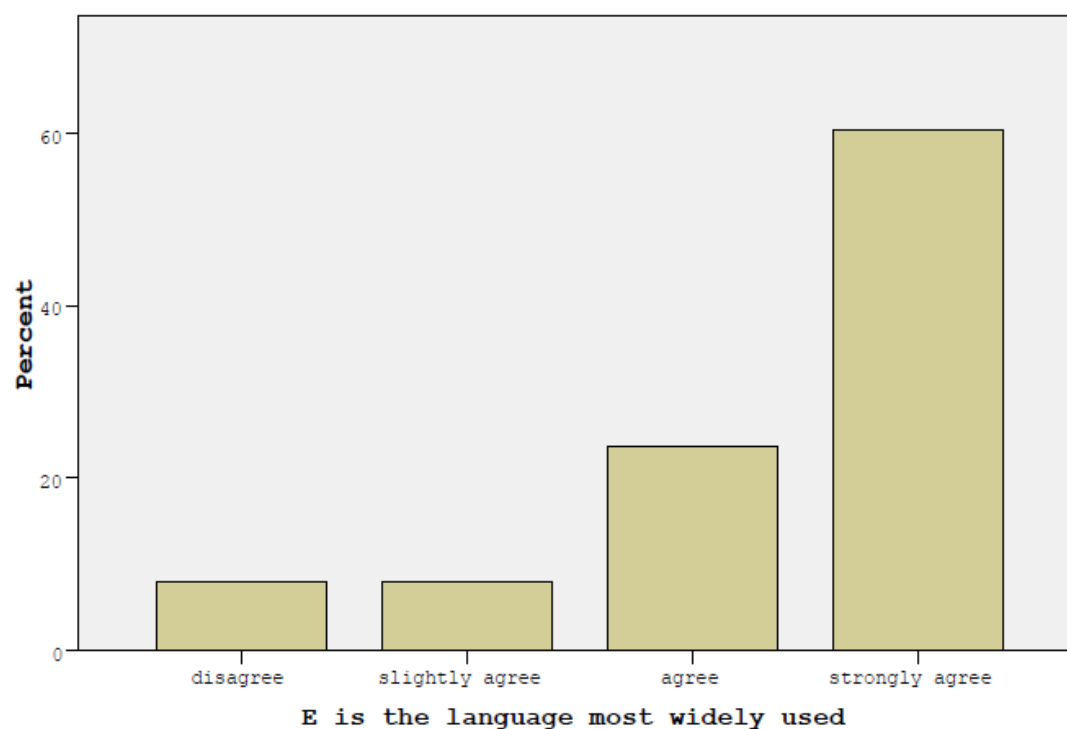Most of the students agree with the following statement:

Many Varieties exist in the world

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	disagree	4	10.5	10.5	10.5
	slightly disagree	3	7.9	7.9	18.4
	slightly agree	8	21.1	21.1	39.5
	agree	16	42.1	42.1	81.6
	strongly agree	6	15.8	15.8	97.4
	missing	1	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	38	100.0	100.0	

However, although they agree that there are many varieties of English, they indicate that they have not heard about the term World Englishes before:

I heard about WEs before

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	6	15.8	15.8	15.8
	disagree	18	47.4	47.4	63.2
	slightly disagree	2	5.3	5.3	68.4
	slightly agree	6	15.8	15.8	84.2
	agree	4	10.5	10.5	94.7
	strongly agree	1	2.6	2.6	97.4
	missing	1	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	38	100.0	100.0	

Furthermore, most of them indicate that they have not heard about the "Saudi English" variety

I heard about "Saudi English" before

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	9	23.7	23.7	23.7
	disagree	16	42.1	42.1	65.8
	slightly disagree	2	5.3	5.3	71.1
	slightly agree	2	5.3	5.3	76.3
	agree	4	10.5	10.5	86.8
	strongly agree	4	10.5	10.5	97.4
	missing	1	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	38	100.0	100.0	

Like indian and Filipino E, SA should have "Saudi English"

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	8	21.1	21.1	21.1
	disagree	9	23.7	23.7	44.7
	slightly agree	2	5.3	5.3	50.0
	agree	6	15.8	15.8	65.8
	strongly agree	12	31.6	31.6	97.4
	missing	1	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	38	100.0	100.0	

Like their opinion regarding the "Saudi English" variety, they also consider the Indian English as being not authentic:

Indian E is not authentic

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	strongly disagree	2	5.3	5.3	5.3
	disagree	4	10.5	10.5	15.8
	slightly disagree	6	15.8	15.8	31.6
	slightly agree	4	10.5	10.5	42.1
	agree	8	21.1	21.1	63.2
	strongly agree	13	34.2	34.2	97.4
	missing	1	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	38	100.0	100.0	

3- Needs Analysis and Motivations:

I don't need NS variety in order to achieve well in my course

I need NS variety in order to achieve well in my course

I need to be exposed to many varieties in order to achieve
well in my courses

I need to be exposed to NS varieties in order to improve my
E level

I need to be exposed to many NNS varieties in order to
improve my E level

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