

MOTIVATIONAL FACTORS AND THE LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY OF  
LEARNERS OF ARABIC IN SELECTED AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES

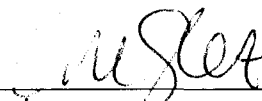

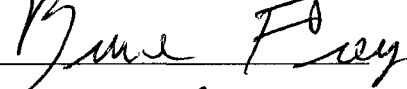
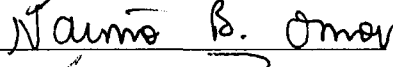
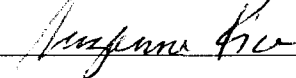
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## ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationships between motivational factors and language proficiency of learners of Arabic in selected American universities. Selected language learner variables influence Arabic language learning motivation and language proficiency. Participants were 266 students who were spread out across the United States. The questionnaire was divided into three parts: (a) demographic, (b) motivation factors which developed from previous study (Ryu Yang 2001), and (c) language proficiency adapted from the Sung Language Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SLSAQ), a self-report questionnaire which is used to measure students' proficiency in four language areas: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

In this study, the researcher found from the participants report that not only were intrinsic motivation (IM) factors more motivating than extrinsic motivation (EM) factors, but also that there were relationships between language proficiency and both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors. In addition, this study reported that the strongest skills were speaking and reading while listening and writing were the weakest.

Moreover, the researcher found that there was no correlation between extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation and gender. However, there was a negative

weak significant correlation between EM and educational level. There was no significant correlation between IM and educational level. Also, there was a significant weak correlation between extrinsic and intrinsic motivations and language proficiency.

The researcher discovered that the three variables; gender, educational level, and language proficiency influence learners' EM and IM. The researcher concluded that gender had no significant effect on either EM or IM. Furthermore, language proficiency had no significant effect on either EM or IM. Additionally, the educational level had a significant effect on EM but no significant effect on IM

Finally, the researcher encourages the teachers to utilize the motivational factors to reach the objectives of the students. Also, the researcher found opportunity for improvement; therefore, the researcher proposed some approaches to enhance teaching the four skills in the Arabic language.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### **Background of the Study**

Arabic is the first language of about 300 million people in more than twenty different countries in the Middle East and Africa (Aljlayl, 2001). It is also an ancient and prominent language practiced by over one billion people around the world in their religious rituals as Muslims, which adds flavorful experiences due to the numerous cultural representations embedded within the language. Beeston (1970) added that the importance of Arabic came from its prominent role and contribution to the advancement of knowledge and cultures. In addition, Katbi (2000) said that foreign scholars have been interested in learning the Arabic language ever since the twelfth century. In the middle ages English scholars began to visit the Arab universities of Spain and Sicily, seeking knowledge from Arabs. The first and greatest of these scholars was the Englishman, Adealard of Bath, who visited Arab lands and translated many Arabic books into Latin for use by his Christian contemporaries (Lewis, 1941). In 1973, the United Nations issued a resolution declaring Arabic as its sixth official language, together with English, French, Spanish, Russian and Chinese. Faisal (1982) argued that, after the resolution, there was an increase in both interest in Arabic and in the use of Arabic in the various organizations of the UN.

According to Holes (1995), Arabic is the first language of more than three million people in the United States and Canada. It has also captured the increasing interest of many learners. Al-batal (1995) mentioned that many universities and colleges in the



many learners. Al-batal (1995) mentioned that many universities and colleges in the U.S., such as the University of California at Santa Barbara and the University of Florida, have full-fledged Arabic programs in their curricula. This increasing interest in learning Arabic should be supported by good presentation, modern pedagogical methods, a good and supportive curriculum and an assessment and evaluation program.

According to the Foreign Language Registration Survey released in 1999 by the Modern Language Association (MLA) and Ryu-Yang (2001), since 1995 there has been an increasing enrollment in Arabic language courses in the United States' higher education institutions. This study contributes to the literature by determining what factors relate to the demand for learning Arabic by American students. Moreover, the topic of this study is remarkably absent in the literature: hence, this study should provide preliminary information about American students' motivating factors, language proficiency, and perceptions of learning Arabic and, thus, contribute to the knowledge base in this area.

### **Purpose of the study**

The study is descriptive in nature and aims to explore the motivational factors and their effect on the language proficiency of learners of Arabic in university settings in the United States. It is anchored to the research on motivational orientation to learn Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTL). A recent study by Ryu-Yang (2001), which examined the relationships among language learning motivation and

language proficiency of East Asian language learners, suggested further research on identifying reasons for learning other LCTL in the United States. Therefore, the current study is based on this and similar studies that attempt to examine and identify certain motivational factors in learning a foreign language. It also builds on available literature on the role of motivation as it relates to learning and teaching.

Woolfolk (1998) stated that there are behavioral, humanistic, cognitive, and social approaches to exploring motivations. Driscoll's (2000) study is concerned with a theory of motivation that emphasizes individuals' explanation, justifications and excuses that influence their motivation and behavior. It is Driscoll's study that will serve as the theoretical umbrella for the current study. This study is an attempt to identify the personal and environmental factors, as well as the EM (based on external factors) and the IM (based on self motivated factors) to the activity Sansone and Harakiewicz (2000) related to learning Arabic as a foreign language in the U.S.

### **Questions of the study**

In order to identify the motivational factors related to learning Arabic as a foreign language in the U.S., the following research questions were addressed to guide the study's design and the process for collecting data:

1. Is there a significant relationship between EM and self-reported language proficiency?
2. Is there a significant relationship between IM and self-reported language proficiency?

3. What levels of proficiency do American learners of the Arabic language in American universities attain?
4. What is the relation between the learners' EM and their gender and educational level?
5. What is the relation between the learners' IM and their gender and educational level?
6. Are American learners of Arabic language more motivated by Extrinsic or Intrinsic Factors?

### **Hypotheses**

Based on review of the related literature, the following hypotheses were formed:

1. There is a significant positive relationship between EM and self-reported language proficiency.
2. There is a significant positive relationship between IM and self-reported language proficiency.
3. There is a positive relationship between the learners' EM and their gender, and educational level.
4. There is a positive relationship between the learners' IM and their gender and educational level.

## **Data collection procedure:**

### ***A. Instrument***

In order to collect needed data for this study, a survey was used. Depending on feasibility, a personally administered questionnaire was distributed to participants to maximize the effectiveness of this tool. In addition, the researcher contacted Arabic language instructors in some universities via mail, requesting help with the administration of the questionnaire to their students.

A questionnaire, constructed and developed by the researcher was tailored to serve the purpose of the study and answer its questions. It was divided into three sections. Section One covered participants' demographic and background information. Section Two consisted of 20 questions related to participants' motivation, i.e., their reasons for enrolling in courses in Arabic as a foreign language. Section Three consisted of 28 questions, related to participants' language proficiency. The type of questions used in this instrument was mainly closed or forced-choice statement questions.

### ***B. Sample***

The population of the study was students taking Arabic language courses in university settings in the United States. However, the sample of the study was obtained through purposive sampling (non-random process, also known as judgment sampling) because the population number is unknown, inaccessible, and spread out

over a wide geographic area. Accordingly, 17 universities in the United States were selected for the study based on:

1. Reputation of the institute in teaching Arabic as a foreign language.
2. High proportion of students taking Arabic courses at the institution.
3. High diversity of students' ethnic backgrounds in the institution's courses of Arabic as a foreign language.

### **Data analysis**

The study used three main statistical techniques. First, descriptive statistics, means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentage distribution of the points in a Likert scale of the responses to the questionnaire items, were computed. Second, a Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (PPMCC) was used to determine the correlation between the motivational factors for learning Arabic and language proficiency. Third, a paired sample t-test was computed to determine which motivation type was stronger.

### **Importance of the study**

Upon the researcher's review of the literature, it became evident that the area of motivation in relation to the language proficiency of learners of Arabic has not been investigated, whereas LCTL such as Japanese, Chinese, and Korean, have had a high rate of study. Furthermore, the researcher anticipated that the study would have a positive impact on the teaching of Arabic as a foreign or minority language in American institutions of higher education by exploring the importance of the Arabic language and the motivating factors for studying Arabic in the U.S. This study would provide Arabic teachers with the most motivating factors for educating learners of Arabic in the U.S. In addition, it would help Arabic teachers to develop methods of teaching and classroom activities to reach what students are looking for.

**Definition of Terms:**

***Modern Standard Arabic (MSA):*** The form of Arabic language that is used for all news broadcasts, political speeches, and official announcements (Holes, 1995).

***Colloquial Arabic (AC):*** The form of Arabic language that represents the varieties of all native speakers of Arabic and is used in informal speech and daily life.

***Foreign Language Learning (FLL):*** Learning the target language academically, whether in schools or institutions, without interacting with the target language community.

***Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTL):*** Non-Indo-European languages among the modern languages that are taught in the United States with lower enrollments.

***Extrinsic Motivation (EM):*** External factors to the activity, interest, or the person, such as getting a reward or avoiding punishment. It does not imply a lack of self-determination in the behaviors performed.

***Intrinsic Motivation (IM):*** Self-motivation based on individuals' desire to experience interests or unparticular goals related to those interests, in various contexts.

***Language Proficiency (LP):*** What the learner needs to know in terms of grammar, vocabulary, socio-linguistic appropriateness, conventions of discourse, and cultural understanding.

## **Summary**

This chapter has summarized the major tenets of the present study. It discussed the background, the purpose, and the research questions of the study. It also provided data collection procedures, which include the instrument, the sample type, and the data analysis of the study. Finally, it provided an explanation of the importance of the study and definition of terms. The next chapter will review the previous literature.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

Motivation is a simple word with a variety of implications in the field of language learning. For that reason, the researcher narrowed the meaning of motivational factors to the reasons behind taking Arabic courses in the U.S. universities. It is difficult to cover all the related issues and areas of motivation in this study. Hence, this chapter is divided into two sections. The first covers motivational factors and theory, foreign and second language, and the relationship between motivation and language proficiency. The second covers the history of Arabic in the U.S., its position among Less Commonly Taught Languages (LCTLs) in the U.S. and enrollment, Arabic language proficiency and theories of second language learning, and language proficiency of the four language skills from the perspective of the American Council for the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) guidelines. Elements and factors normally motivate people to learn a second language. Based on motivation factors, researchers were able to categorize multiple types of motivation. The next section describes some of motivation factors and types.

#### **Motivation factors**

Needs, wants, wishes, and desires are some of the words used to explain why people behave the way they do, according to Whitehead (1976). Brown (1994) defines

motivation as the reflection of an internal drive, impulse, feeling, or desire that moves one to particular action. Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Gardner (1985, 1996) present a traditional meaning of motivation as applied to research concerning second language learning: (1) a desire to achieve a goal, (2) an effort expended toward the task and (3) pleasure associated with the task.

Gardner, (1985) cited two kinds of motivational orientation (MO). The first is integrative MO, which means that motivational orientation in which language learners emphasize either meeting or conversing with a more diverse group of people, or as a mean of better understanding other people and their way of life. The second is instrumental MO, which means that motivational orientation in which language learners emphasize job or educational opportunities. Moreover, Sansone and Harakiewicz (2000) stated that there are two types of motivation, extrinsic motivation (EM) and intrinsic motivation (IM). EM is based on external factors to the activity, interest, or the person, such as getting a reward or avoiding punishment. IM, on the other hand, is self motivated based on individuals' desire to experience interests or not-particular goals related to those interests in various contexts, to which language is no stranger Moreover, EM does not necessarily imply a lack of self-determination in the behaviors performed. IM is founded upon innate needs for competence and self determination (Dornyei & Cumming, 2003). Based on the available factors, researchers like Gardner and Tremblay were able to create a theory behind motivation that can be used as basis for some research.

## **Motivational theory**

The motivational theory developed by Gardner and Lambert (1972), MacIntyer (1991), Lalonde and Moorcroft (1985), and Tremblay (1994a, 1994b) is based on social and psychological factors. It maintains that successful second language learners must be psychologically ready to feel and experience the various aspects of behavior of the other linguistic culture group.

Gardner and Lambert (1972) reported that in a study of high school students studying French as a second language linguistic aptitude and motivational factors were related to second language achievement. Gardner, Lalonde, and Moorcroft (1985) found that motivation and aptitude were important because they influenced the rate at which second language material was learned and that individuals with more positive affective predispositions worked harder to achieve a good level of competence in the second language.

Gardner (1985) refers to the mixture of effort plus desire to reach the goal of learning the language plus positive attitudes toward learning the language. With this definition in mind, motivation consisted of two kinds based on effort and attitude: interactively orientated if students emphasized meeting or conversing with more and varied people of the second language as means of better understanding their way of life; and instrumentally orientated if they emphasized that they were native speakers of the second language to help them obtain a job or make them better educated. In short, the importance of integrative and instrumental orientations is their

representation of the ultimate goals for achieving the more immediate goals of learning the second language.

Oxford (1996, 1999) stated that Gardner's theory consists of five main hypotheses: (1) integrative motive hypothesis: integrative motivation is positively associated with second language achievement; (2) culture belief hypothesis: culture beliefs influence the development of the integrative motive and the degree to which integrativeness and achievement are related; (3) active learner hypothesis: interactively motivated learners are successful because they are active learners; (4) causality hypothesis: integratiivly motivation is a cause; second language achievement, the effect; and (5) two-process hypotheses: Aptitude and integrative motivation are independent factors in second language learning. (p.13).

Au's (1988) assessment of Gardner's theory reveals that the integrative motive hypothesis was not generalizable because the notion was not sustained by empirical evidence. In addition, there is no clear evidence or description of what constitutes a culture belief. Furthermore, the active learner hypothesis had a serious methodological disadvantage because the level of L2 proficiency was not restricted. Finally, he claims that outcomes of the linear structural analysis were debatable and could not entirely support the causality hypothesis, neither could the conflicting evidence relate to the two-process hypothesis.

Gardner and MacIntyre (1991) discovered that both integrative motivation and instrumental motivation could influence second language learning. However, this did

not entail that integrative and instrumental orientation would essentially influence learning; motivation was the main factor, not orientation, because the orientation did not truly foretell achievement, while motivation undoubtedly did so.

Available research shows that researchers like Dornyei (1990, 1994a, 1994b, and 1996) Oxford (1994), Oxford and Shearin (1994, 1996), Crookes and Schmidt (1991), and Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1994) strove to open the motivation agenda, suggesting modifications to Gardner and his associates' social psychological theory, and to enlarge the area of motivational research. While Oxford (1994) agreed with some of these points, Dornyei (1994a, 1994b) raised questions related to topics such as: instrumental orientation and other kinds of orientation identified in the literature, or components like self-confidence, requirements for achievement, parental support and so on, which resulted in improved and broader components of foreign language learning motivation as in Dornyei 1994 (see Table 1.)

**Table 1**

Components of foreign language learning motivation

LANGUAGE LEVEL	Integrative Motivational subsystem Instrumental Motivational subsystem
LEARNER LEVEL	Need for achievement Self- confidence: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Language use anxiety</li> <li>• Perceived L2 competence</li> <li>• Causal attribution</li> <li>• Self-Efficacy</li> </ul>
LEARNING SITUATION LEVEL <i>Course- specific motivational components</i>  <i>Teacher specific motivational components</i>  <i>Group specific motivational components</i>	Interest Relevance Expectancy Satisfaction  Affiliative drive Authority type Direct socialization of motivation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Modeling</li> <li>• Task presentation</li> <li>• Feedback</li> </ul> Goal- orientedness Norm & reward system Group cohesion Classroom goal structure

In response to the critics, Gardner and Tremblay (1994a, 1994b) clarified that they observed motivation as a complex and dynamic process with room for several interfering variables. They assert that their theory was never fixed or accomplished, but rather a work in development. In fact, Gardner and Tremblay (1994a, 1994b) established a new model, which contained more factors related to Gardner’s socio-

educational model. They explored the relation of a number of new measures of motivation, such as persistence, attention, goal specificity, and causal attributions to each other, to existing measures of attitudes and motivation, and to indices of achievement.

Furthermore, Gardner and Tremblay (1994a, 1994b) presented the differences between motivational behaviors and motivational antecedents: motivational behaviors referred to the characteristics of an individual that can be distinguished by an observer, for instance, effort, persistence, and attention, while motivational antecedents were described as factors that could not be readily distinguished by an external observer but still affect motivational behavior through their cognitive or affective influence: expectancy and self-efficacy, causal attribution, and goal setting.

Nakanishi, (2002) stated that it is not always easy to differentiate between integrative and instrumental motivation. A second problem he discussed is whether the integrative/instrumental conceptualization contained the full spectrum of student motivation. It may be that, for a given population of second language students, there are reasons for language learning that are unconnected to either of the two motivational orientations. Nakanishi agreed with Ely (1988) that it is not always easy to tell one from the other. For example, there are learners who do not like to study, but they have to, because of strong demands from their parents, teachers, peers, etc. This is a type of motivation that can not belong to either of the motivational orientations. It might be that there is not a big difference between the two types of

motivation but it seems that integrative motivation is broader than instrumental motivation. In other words, instrumental motivation might be a type of integrative motivation.

In summary, Ryu-Yang (2001) explained that the debate about integrative orientation and instrumental orientation has been the controversial issue in the study of language learning motivation in the 1990s. Due to the simplicity of the hypothesis, it has been commonly used in motivational research. However, in many studies, other types of orientation have been identified through the factor analysis of data. Sometimes, similar items are classified into different orientation subcategories. For instance, items about travel orientation were included in integrative orientation in the study of Gardner and Lambert (1972) and Gardner (1985), but in other cases, travel orientation was included in instrumental orientation (Clement & Kruidenier, 1983). Meanwhile, many researchers thought that the desire to travel was neither integrative nor instrumental. For that reason integrative and instrumental MO are of no concern in this study. Instead intrinsic and extrinsic motivation orientations are the focus of this study. Since it is evident that the area of motivation in relation to language proficiency of Arabic learners has not been deeply researched, the researcher found that it was important to explore the motivational factors and their effect on language proficiency. In general, motivation plays the main role in learning a new language in different environments like foreign and second language.



## **Foreign language and second language**

The basic difference between second and foreign language learning has to do with the environment in which the language is taught. If the learner acquires the language while in the target culture, then it is a second language, but if it is not acquired in the target culture, then it is a foreign language. According to Gebhard (1996), in a second language environment, the language is not only spoken at classes but also learners need it to communicate in their daily life. For example, students coming to the U.S to learn English are immersed in a second language learning environment, whereas their previous contact and learning of English in many of their countries is a foreign one. Second language environments may be more favorable to language acquisition; however learning a second language in a foreign language environment can be equal, given that a good and instructed learning environment is provided and the students are highly motivated to learn the language. Stern (1973), claims that foreign language learning can be much more effective if students are exposed to sufficient linguistic input. With motivation, foreign and second language learners can reach proficiency if they create a balance in all language skills.

## **Relationship between motivation and language proficiency**

In 2001, Hadley defined proficiency as the individual learner's abilities to learn all languages skills: speaking, listening, writing, and reading comprehension. Chomsky (1965) distinguished two main aspects of language acquisition. First, he argued that language learners know much more than they can express using their

language. Second, he differentiated between language competence (i.e. what the learner knows) and language performance (i.e. the learner's ability to express such knowledge). So, when the word "proficient" is used it describes the individual learner's ability to use the language with facility and to show correctness and appropriateness in using it. Therefore, researchers conducted multiple studies to discover the relationship between motivations and language proficiency in learning a foreign language. Results varied between strong, to moderate, to weak links.

Park (1995) studied Japanese and Korean learners at the University of Minnesota to examine the nature of motivation in learning a foreign language (FL). The outcomes confirmed that current contact with the target language was significantly correlated to proficiency. Past contact and motivation were significantly related to language proficiency only for intermediate students. Park investigated the diaries of Korean language learners and discovered that motivational orientation appeared in their diaries.

Strong (1984) investigated the correlation between integrative motivations and acquired second language proficiency among a group of Spanish-speaking kindergarteners in an American classroom. Strong discovered that the faster learners were capable of improving without an explicit desire to identify with their Anglo classmates and showed no distinguishable tendency toward refusal of their own culture. The children who were more inclined to play with and befriend Anglo classmates did not show any measurable language learning advantage from the orientation. Strong extracted from this that integrative motivation did not play the

same role in second language learning of young children as it might have done for adults.

In 1995, Kim studied the importance of attitudinal and motivational characteristics of military personnel learning Korean at the Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center (DLIFLC) and their language proficiency. Attitude, motivation, and orientation affected Korean language acquisition. High motivation, instrumentalness, integrativeness, and integrative motivation produced a higher-than-average mean achievement.

Oxford, Park-Oh, Ito, and Surrall (1993) investigated 107 high school students who were learning Japanese through satellite television. They used a motivation survey (MS) designed by Rainey to measure motivation. They found four factors: (a) integrative motivation, (b) instrumental motivation, (c) parental influence on motivation and general attitude toward the Japanese people, and (d) attitude toward the school that students attended. Oxford, et al. (1993) found the motivation was the single best interpreter of language learning achievement.

Gardner and Lysynchuk (1990) examined the orientation of second language skills of 128 ninth-grade high-school students after a nine month absence of instruction in French as a second language. Achievement at the end of acquisition was dependent upon motivation. Motivation influenced achievement through its effect on language use during the incubation period. The effects of integrativeness and attitude toward the learning situation were due to their effects on motivation. Also, Gardner et al. (1997) examined the role of numerous individual difference variables, both

cognitive and affective, in the second language acquisition of French by anglophone Canadian students and evaluated the variables' respective contributions to the causal model. The structural model that resulted was the basis of their conclusion that "Language Attitudes is seen to affect Motivation, Motivation affects both Self-Confidence and Language Learning Strategies, and Motivation, Language Aptitude, and Language Learning Strategies affects Language Achievement" (p. 353).

Sison (1991) studied the relationship of attitudes, motivation, and anxiety to second language achievement in a total of 178 American university students enrolled in Spanish. Sison found that motivation directly and indirectly caused achievement. Motivation was a determinant of achievement.

Yang (2001) investigated the relationship between motivational orientation and language proficiency in a total of 341 students who enrolled in Chinese, Japanese and Korean language classes in seven Midwestern colleges and universities in the United States. Yang concluded that there was a relationship between language proficiency and motivation orientation.

In 2002, Cortes insisted on the importance of motivation to achievement. In addition, her study indicated the importance of research to fully understand the impact of attitudes, motivation, and anxiety factors on ESL achievement. Also, she found that motivation index is identified as a positive influence on Puerto Rican students' achievement. On the other hand, some researchers found a weak relationship between attitudes or motivation and language proficiency. Svanes (1987), for instance, found a weak positive correlation between integrative motivation and language

proficiency in a study, which addressed the role of integrative and instrumental motivation in predicting the course grade of 167 college students studying abroad in Norway.

Van Trieste (1985), in his study of Puerto Rican university students' attitudes toward speakers of American English and their achievement in English as a second language found that there was little relationship between students' achievement and attitudinal and motivational factors. Also, Perez-Birmingham (1992) got the same result from his study of Puerto Rican college students' educational and social attitudes toward English as a second language.

In a study that addressed motivation, communicative anxiety and proficiency in learning English as a second language, Lau (1995) found that motivational factors and the level of communicative anxiety did not correlate significantly with proficiency.

From previous research, it can safely be said that there is a relationship between motivation and language proficiency. However, it may differ in its strength and weakness from one language situation to another. However, these researchers concluded that, despite those studies that show weak or no relationship between motivation and language proficiency, the majority of the studies affirm a strong relationship between the two.

Since motivational factors varied, this study investigates some of the reasons that might motivate learners to pursue learning Arabic as a foreign or second language. Before we mention them, however a brief introduction to the Arabic language is found in the next section.

### **Arabic language**

According to Khoja (1999), the Arabic language is the representative language of more than twenty Middle Eastern and African countries. In addition, it is the spiritual language of more than a billion Muslims, whatever their origins. Moreover, the United Nations considers Arabic as one of six official languages. Arabic is also the mother tongue of about 300 million people.

Arabic varies from indo-European languages syntactically, morphologically and semantically. It is a Semitic language, with the distinct characteristic feature that most of the words are built up from roots, following certain fixed patterns of addition of infixes, prefixes and suffixes. It is an ancient language, identified as classical Arabic or standardized more than fourteen centuries ago. Its orientation of writing is from right to left, and its alphabet consists of 28 letters.

The modern form of Arabic is called Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and it is unchanged in the vital language rules, but very much altered, and still altering, in vocabulary and phraseology. Holes (1995) reports that MSA became a different form of Classical Arabic, which uses a high-level vocabulary with deep poetic meaning and complicated forms. MSA is used in all news broadcasts, political speeches official

announcements, and in publications in Arabic speaking countries. However, there is also Colloquial Arabic (CA), which represents the varieties of all the native speakers of Arabic, which they use in informal speech. In other words, Arabic today has “diglossia,” which means it exists in two varieties, MSA and CA, side-by-side in speech, each variety having a specialized function, as explained by Alish (1997). MSA has been taught in the U.S. since the 17<sup>th</sup> century. The next section describes the four-stage Arabic language development in the U.S.

### **The history of Arabic teaching in America**

The teaching of the Arabic language began in the United States a long time ago and can be divided into four stages. The first stage began in 1640, a century before the U.S. Declaration of Independence, when Arabic was taught at Harvard, the first American college to initiate Semitic languages such as Hebrew, Chaldaic, and Syriac (McCarus 1987). Arabic was added during the presidency of Charles Chauncey, between 1654 and 1672. This became a typical pattern, instituting first Hebrew and cognate languages such as Arabic soon after. Yale offered Arabic in 1700, while the University of Pennsylvania offered it in 1788, Andover in 1807, and the theological seminary at Princeton in 1822 (McCarus, 1987). Finally, by the end of the nineteenth century, sixteen major departments of Semitic and many colleges and seminaries in the U.S. and Canada were offering Arabic as part of their curricula.

The second stage began in the first quarter of the twentieth century with the increased interest in archeological field work in the Near East. This brought an

interest in Arabic dialect for practical and linguistic purposes. Hence, a scholar like Worrell, professor of Arabic at the University of Michigan from 1925 to 1948, was quite knowledgeable about Egyptian Arabic dialects as well as the Coptic language. Furthermore, World War II brought about a revolution in Arabic studies, especially with the immediate need of training combat infantrymen and intelligence personnel to function in and do research on, the Arab world. Acting upon this need, the federal government, with the help of the American Council of Learned Societies (ACLS), mobilized “scientific linguists” to prepare textbooks for dozens of exotic languages and dialects and to set up the Army Specialized Training program (ASTP) and other crash language programs for the intensive training of military personnel, from combat troops to military government offices to intelligence personnel. McCarus, (1987) states:

In 1947 Ferguson set up an eighteen-month program in Beirut, Lebanon to provide intensive training in Arabic for two Foreign Service officers. He returned to Beirut during 1953-55 to set up there the Foreign Service Institute (FSI) Field School of Arabic Language and Area Studies for Department of State personnel. It remained there until local political conditions obliged it to move to Tunis, Tunisia, where is located today. In the meantime, Arabic, both Modern Standard (MSA) and dialects were taught at the FSI School of languages in the Washington, D.C. area as of the fifties, and they continue to be taught there today. The FSI has had a perceptible impact on the teaching of Arabic in this country. (p. 15)

The third stage of teaching Arabic in the U.S. began in 1967 with the birth of the Center for Arabic Study Abroad (CASA), established by several universities: University of California at Berkeley, University of California at Los Angeles,



University of Chicago, Harvard University, University of Michigan, and Portland State University and among others. CASA's history has reflected the growth of Arabic Studies. In 1967 there were seats for 15 full year and 18-20 summer-only fellows. However, by 1971-72, the number of summer and full year awards reached 60 out of 110 applicants, an all-time high. The CASA staff has also produced instructional materials for both Egyptian and Modern Standard Arabic in addition to other teaching experimentation, some of which proved unsuccessful, while others proved very successful. McCarus (1987) also stated that there are many factors for CASA great success over the years: high caliber, motivated students; competent and devoted instructors; devoted directors on both sides of the ocean; and great support from the host institutions and from the U.S. Department of education.

The fourth stage was a landmark in the history of the Arabic teaching profession and it took place in the 1980s. The growth of interest in the study of the Arabic language and related aspects of Arab culture manifested itself. (a) There was increasing enrollment in elementary Arabic language classes and courses related to the modern Arab world at various U.S. institutions of higher education. (b) A number of universities and colleges expanded or added full-fledged Arabic programs to their curriculum (University of California at Santa Barbara, University of Florida, Emory University, and the University of Virginia, etc). (c) Several universities established new summer programs in the Arab world to provide American students with the opportunity to study Arabic in its genuine culture setting such as the Virginia/Yarmouk and Florida/Ain Shams programs. (d) In 1988, Arabic was

introduced to a small number of high schools in some of the largest U.S. cities. This was a result of activities by the Critical Languages and Area Studies Consortium (CLASC), which included the establishment of an intensive Arabic language and culture institute for high school students from across the U.S. to study both in the U.S. and in Egypt in collaboration with the CASA (Al-Batal, 1995).

Furthermore, the developments that were taking place during the 1980s in the field of foreign language education influenced the Arabic teaching profession. Among these developments was an increased interest in the communicative approach and the emergence of the proficiency movement. A number of teachers of Arabic began to address the issue of incorporating communicative competence into the Arabic curriculum and paying greater attention to the teaching of speaking. *Al-Arabiyya*, journal of the American Association of Teachers of Arabic (AATA), devoted an entire section of its 1985 volume to the issue. Also, the 1980s witnessed unprecedented expansion in incorporating technology in the teaching of Arabic, both inside and outside the classroom. A number of computer programs were also developed to supplement classroom instruction in drilling, and the use of video materials was on the rise as well. Likewise, the application of new philosophies and approaches to the teaching of Arabic, coupled with the development of new textbooks and teaching that are currently in use at American universities are becoming more common (see appendix A). The Arabic language also gained a respectable position among the LCTL), and attracted more students than in its early stages.

As a result, it can be concluded that the field of Arabic studies developed slowly at the beginning, but continued to grow at a faster pace, especially since its second stage. Furthermore, after the events of September 11/2001 and the invasion of Iraq, the beginning of a fifth stage may will be predicted, bigger than any past stage, especially with the increased international attention on the events and turmoil that are taking place in the Middle East, which is mostly populated with native speakers of Arabic.

### **The position of Arabic among LCTLs in the U.S.**

According to Walton (1991), LCTLs consist of three subgroups: (a) less commonly taught European languages such as Russian, Italian, and Portuguese; (b) higher-enrollment non-Indo-European languages such as, Chinese, Japanese and Arabic; and (c) lower-enrollment non-Indo-European languages, such as Burmese, Indonesian, and Swahili. The Arabic language has taken part of the second group LCTLs in the U.S. However, Janus (2000) reports that the more enrollment in Arabic has increased from 541 students in 1960, to 4,444 in 1995. Brod and Huber (1997) inform us that the registration in Arabic in 1995 is approximately 40% higher than in 1990. In addition, the Modern Language Association (MLA) foreign language registration survey in 1999 declares an increasing enrollment in Arabic language courses in the U.S. The National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) also pointed out that the U.S Government currently considers Arabic a critical language and as a result

of this situation, many scholarships are available. According to NFLC (1998), 5,500 people are studying Arabic at American colleges and universities.

Morrison (2003) stated that the enrollment of Arabic and Middle Eastern studies has increased at universities across the nation. The department in Middle Eastern and Asian Languages and Cultures has become one of the fastest growing departments at Columbia University in New York. Also, Beam (2003) reports that at Brown University, in Providence, RI, a number of classes focusing on Middle Eastern language and cultures had to be canceled not because students were not interested, but because of a shortage of teachers to meet the demand. In the fall of 2002, the department of Arabic Language, Literature, and Linguistics at Georgetown University, in Washington, D.C., increased its beginning Arabic language offerings from two classes to five.

Moreover, Amoah-Ntim (nd) asserts that the study of Arabic provides a better understanding of the culture, religions, and politics of the Arab-speaking world. This increased awareness, together with a growing number of Muslims immigrating to the U.S., has seen progressive growth in Arabic language instruction at the post-secondary and K-12 levels. Today, Arabic is taught in over 125 universities and colleges, as well as in the many Islamic schools that are being established throughout the country.

Furthermore, Johnson (2002) states that Arabic has been taught in 37 schools in the U.S., 15 of which are public schools and 22 are private schools. In addition, these schools are spread out in twelve states. Michigan has 11 programs. New York

has five programs, California has four programs, and Virginia, Maryland and New Jersey each have three programs. There are also programs in Minnesota, Texas, Illinois, Florida, Arizona and Washington. This makes apparent how fast the studying of Arabic is growing in the U.S., not just in higher education but also in the public and private schools. The expanding success of the studying of Arabic language in the U.S. reflects students' motivation in learning this foreign or second language.

The next section explains the theories behind learning a second language.

### **Arabic language proficiency/ theories of learning second language**

Before discussing language proficiency, the theories that talk about the processes of second language learning and acquisition and link them to motivation should be considered. McLaughlin and Brown, (1987, 1994) offered evidence in their Attention Processing Model that two types of operations occur in learning L2: controlled "capacity limited and temporary," and automatic "relatively permanent" information processing through experience and practice, which steadily become automatic. Learning to them is more related to with the limited capacity and temporary features of processing information, while acquisition involves relatively permanent processes.

In the acquisition-model, Krashen (1995) posited five hypotheses to distinguish SLA from Second Language Learning (SLL). In the first, the acquisition-learning hypothesis, Krashen, asserted that adults have two distinct ways of developing competence in second languages. The first way is via language acquisition

by using language for real communication. Language acquisition is the natural way to develop linguistic ability, and is a subconscious process. (p.26). On the other hand, Krashen claimed that SLL is a conscious process and involves knowing about language. Learning refers to “explicit” knowledge of rules, being aware of them and being able to talk about them. Learning has only one function, which is to make changes in the form of an utterance after it has been “produced” by the acquired system. (p.10).

As other theorists (especially McLaughlin) disputed, Krashen presented a rather dubious distinction between acquisition and learning. McLaughlin (1978) noted that the Acquisition-Learning Model “assumes that it is possible to differentiate what is conscious from what is unconscious” (in Brown, 1994, p. 281). Further, as McLaughlin noted, “there is no long term learning of new material without [consciousness] awareness” (Brown, 1994, p 281).

In the second hypothesis of the Acquisition-Learning Model, the Natural Order Hypothesis, it is asserted that grammatical structures in a target language are acquired (not necessarily learned) in a predictable order (Krashen & Terrell, 1987, p. 28). The third hypothesis in the Acquisition-Learning Model is the Monitor Hypothesis, which according to Krashen (1995) actually interferes with acquiring the target language. The monitor is strictly related to learning in that it places emphasis on grammatical forms. This hypothesis states that conscious learning has an extremely limited function in adult second language performance; it can only be used as a “monitor,” or an “editor,” to repair or correct grammatically incorrect forms

(Krashen & Terrell, 1987, p. 30). Formal knowledge of a language “has the function of checking and making repairs on the output of the acquired system” (Krashen & Terrell, 1987, p. 30).

The fourth hypothesis is the Input Hypothesis, which says that comprehensible input is required in order for acquisition to occur. Krashen (1995) argued here that “[learners] acquire (not learn) by understanding input that is a little beyond [their] current level of acquired competence” (p. 32). The input hypothesis is similar to the interactional model. In the interactional model, second language learning theorists posit that the development of non-native language learning occurs as the result of interactions between the learner and second language environment (Lightbown and Spada, 1996). Interactionist claimed that a crucial element in the language acquisition process is modified input that learners are exposed to and the way in which native speakers interact in conversations with second language learners (Lightbown & Spada, 1996). Long (1995) argued that the interactional modifications which take place in conversations between native speakers and non-native speakers (is) the necessary mechanism for [acquisition] to take place (p. 378).

The Affective Filter Hypothesis is the last hypothesis in the acquisition-learning model. Affective refers to any number of factors, from learner anxiety, self-esteem and motivation, to attitudes toward the target language and its speakers and in the instructor. This hypothesis associates affective variables with the second language acquisition (subconscious) process. Krashen (1995) assumed that:

Those whose attitudes are not optimal for second language acquisition will not only tend to seek less input, but they will also have a high or strong Affective Filter—even if they understand the message, the input will not reach that part of the brain responsible for language acquisition. Those with attitudes more conducive to second language acquisition will not only seek and obtain more input; they will also have lower weaker filter. They will be more open to the input. A low affective filter allows the available (comprehensible) input to be acquired. (p.31)

McLaughlin (1978) argued that the acquisition-learning model presented second language aptitude and affective factors as statistically independent. Aptitude was related to learning and conscious use of the monitor. Attitude was related to acquisition and “monitor-free” performance. However, a myriad of data showed that attitudes played a role in conscious learning and, in some instances, were thought to be a predictor of successful learning (Powell, 1984; Bretscher, 1989; Auzmendi, 1991).

In second language context, learning the target language can serve a “functional purpose.” The processes involved in second language development are open for debate. However, irrespective of the second language processing approach, the second language context is likely to be more target-language rich than the foreign language context would be, because it presents a setting where there are large populations of native speakers of the target language. Language-rich context makes the second language more readily available to learners who are motivated to interact with target language speakers.



From the above-mentioned theories, it is clear how the link between second language acquisition and motivation is established. The more motivated are the learners, the higher is their level of second language acquisition. This view is shared by Gardner and his associates (Gardner, 1980, 1985, 1991), who assert that language acquisition plays a major role in achieving language proficiency.

### **Language proficiency**

The literature clearly shows the disagreement among theorists about second language acquisition. However, according to McLaughlin, aptitude and attitude are related to language acquisition and play a major role in gaining language proficiency. In addition, many researchers pointed out that there is a strong relationship between attitude and language learning, as mentioned earlier in this chapter. Also, there are many examples of learners who are so highly motivated to learn and acquire a target language that they reach a level of proficiency in that language higher than that in their native language. Desire and motivation play a great role in successfully acquiring and learning Arabic as a second and foreign language by non-natives who study Arabic in and outside of Arabic countries.

Parkinson (1985), Allen and Heath (1990), and Alish (1997) did not speak of Arabic proficiency itself, but rather spoke about improving Arabic proficiency through statements about instructions used in Arabic teaching. There is a conflict in the curricula between teaching Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and Colloquial Arabic (CA). The bottom line is what should be taught to the learners of Arabic as a

second or foreign language. It may be that MSA should be taught in order to gain an Arabic proficiency that enables the learner to listen, speak, read, and write in Arabic with little difficulty in understanding the native colloquialism of the people of the country in which Arabic is studied. However; it is not a bad idea that Arabic programs offer some courses in common dialects to help learners communicate with the native people, especially those who are illiterate in the Modern Standard Arabic.

Furthermore, in order to reach proficiency in Arabic, or in any language, it is important to have some kind of proficiency guidelines such as those of the American Council for the Teaching Foreign Languages (ACTFL). Their guidelines provide detailed descriptions of the kinds of communication functions, range of vocabulary, degree of accuracy and flexibility that learners of a language are able to control at different levels in each of the four major language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). These descriptions can be helpful in setting language learning goals, in planning learning activities, and in evaluating proficiency in all levels of each skill.

All four skills, according to ACTFL guidelines, share the following levels: (1) Novice-Low; (2) Novice-Mid; (3) Novice-High; (4) Intermediate-Low; (5) Intermediate-Mid; (6) Intermediate-High; (7) Advanced; (8) Advanced Plus; and (9) Superior. Listening and reading have an additional level, (10) Distinguished. Each of these levels has its own detailed description. See appendices (B, C, D and E) for full descriptions.

To conclude, language proficiency refers to the students' acquired language skills, including those skills that may not necessarily have been achieved inside the

classroom. Students' Arabic language proficiency in the four language skills (listening comprehension, speaking, reading comprehension, and writing) will be measured by the Sung Language Self-Assessment Questionnaire (SLSAQ) in this study. Although it does not seem accurate to let students assess themselves, the SLSAQ might be the only alternative since there are no commercial standardized tests available in the Arabic language. In addition, the SLSAQ is a good choice because it has been used in other studies of the same nature as the one in hand. Finally, language proficiency results from one's desire and motivation to learn a second language.

### **Motivation to study Arabic**

In 1997, Diab spoke to the idea of teaching Arabic for Specific Purposes in America (ASP), compared with teaching conventional Arabic, and whether ASP would motivate the learners and enhance their performance. Her study assumed five categories: (1) Arabic for Business Purpose-ABP; (2) Arabic for Culture Purpose-ACP; (3) Arabic for Diplomatic Purpose-ADP; (4) Arabic for Occupational Purpose-AOP; and (5) Arabic for Religious Purpose-ARP. She applied her study to two groups of twelve students, each known as the treatment groups, and compared pre-test and post-test results with two other groups of twelve students, each known as the control groups, who were taught Arabic using the conventional method. Test results indicated that the treatment groups' scores were significantly higher than those of the control groups. Her study focuses on course development and how instructors should teach the Arabic language, whereas the current study emphasizes the motivations in

learning Arabic, and gaining language proficiency. Another major difference is that her study was conducted in one educational institute with only 48 students, while the current study covered 13 universities, with average of 20 students each.

Belnap's (1987) study that attempted to learn about students who take Arabic at institutes of higher education and the reasons why they want to learn Arabic. Twenty-four universities throughout the United States and Canada that offered Arabic language programs supported Belnap's study by responding to a survey designed to fulfill students' needs. As a result of the survey, Belnap was able to compile the reasons behind students enrolling in Arabic courses. Some of the reasons that motivated students to learn Arabic in the U.S. are learning the literature and culture, traveling to Arab countries, talking to native speakers of Arabic, their passion for learning languages, religious purposes and more. Other researchers like Katbi (2000) added scientific, professional, political, and social reasons. Generally, these seem to be the typical motivating reasons to learn or acquire any other language. There are a few similarities between the current study and Belnap's study in terms of the reasons why students desire to learn Arabic. However, there are also some differences between the two studies in areas like linguistic performance, where Belnap's study did not mention the types of motivations to learn Arabic. This study may have a positive impact on teaching Arabic as a foreign language in American higher education institutions. It may also provide Arabic teachers with the most motivating factors for teaching Arabic in the USA, and improve their techniques of teaching, conveying the concepts, and increasing student participation.

## Summary

In accordance with the foregoing literature review, the following points can be extrapolated:

- There are many reasons to promote students learning foreign languages. Most reasons behind learning Arabic in the U.S. are political, religious, cultural, work-related, and travel-related, etc.
- Most researchers have found a positive relationship between motivation and language proficiency.
- The Arabic language has been taught in the U.S. for a long time. It has been studied linguistically since 1644 at Harvard University.
- Recently, the Arabic language acquired a good place among foreign languages in America, especially among the less commonly taught languages.
- The enrollment in Arabic courses in American universities has increased, especially in past four years.
- The teaching of the Arabic language takes place, even in public and private schools in the U.S., not just in institutes of higher education.
- The Arabic language has a number of problems faced by non-speakers of Arabic, such as the instructions used in teaching it to foreigners who are in the improvement phase. Other problems include the issue of diglossia in Arabic, which forces learners to learn the different types of the language, i.e., the standard, classic and colloquial Arabic, etc.

- There is a lack of standardized tests in the Arabic language, which makes it hard to assess its learners' levels of proficiency in an empirical way.
- There is a great need for proficiency guidelines similar to those provided by the ACTFL, which would also have a positive effect on improving the methods of teaching Arabic as a second, foreign, and even as a first language to reach the desired levels in Arabic proficiency.
- Finally, the importance of the study may have a positive impact on teaching Arabic as a foreign language in American higher education institutions. It may also provide Arabic teachers with the most motivating factors for teaching Arabic in the USA, and improve their techniques of teaching, conveying the concepts, and increasing student participation.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

This study used a survey designed to investigate the relationships between motivation factors and language proficiency of Arabic learners in selected universities in the United States. Since this study was exploratory in nature, questions related to the study's purpose were formulated to guide the design and process for collecting data.

The following research questions were addressed:

1. Is there a significant relationship between EM and self-reported language proficiency?
2. Is there a significant relationship between IM and self-reported language proficiency?
3. What levels of proficiency do American learners of the Arabic language in American universities attain?
4. What is the relation between the learners' EM and their gender and educational level?
5. What is the relation between the learners' IM and their gender and educational level?
6. Are American learners of Arabic language more motivated by Extrinsic or Intrinsic Factors?

## **Hypotheses**

Based on review of the related literature, the following hypotheses were formed:

1. There is a significant positive relationship between EM and self-reported language proficiency.
2. There is a significant positive relationship between IM and self-reported language proficiency.
3. There is a positive relationship between the learners' EM and their gender and educational level.
4. There is a positive relationship between the learners' IM and their gender and educational level.

## **Data collection procedure**

### ***A. Instrument***

In order to collect the data needed for this study, a descriptive survey was applied. Depending on feasibility, a personally administrated questionnaire was distributed to participants to maximize the effectiveness of this tool. In addition, the researcher used the mail to contact instructors in various universities asking that they administer the questionnaire to their students. The data collection also entailed travel to some universities in the U.S.



The questionnaire instrument developed by the researcher was tailored to the study's purpose and questions. It was divided into three sections. The first section asked participants about demographic and background information to be used for measuring selected independent variables for the study. The second section dealt with motivational factors, adapted from Ryu-Yang (2001). She prepared 46 items on motivational orientation for two pilot tests, dropping one item later through out the testing process. As a result, 45 items were included in the final questionnaire for motivational orientation survey (MOS). She adapted 37 items; 10 items from AMTB (Gardner, 1985), 11 items from Padilla and Sung (1997), 9 items from Jordan and Lambert (1992), 4 items from Ely (1986a, 1986b), and 1 item each from Dornyei (1990), Clement et al. (1994), and Ramage (1990). Through discussions with professionals, teachers, and students, Yang developed 8 additional questions for a grand total of 45 items. The MOS utilized a 7-point Likert scale to measure students' degree of agreement.

Yang concluded the MOS questionnaire development by performing two pilot tests to verify the validity and reliability of the items. Using SPSS to analyze the data collected from the second pilot test, and computing the Cronbach's alpha to measure the reliability coefficient of the MOS items, Yang was able to prove the validity and reliability of the questionnaire items. The researcher has selected 20 items out of the 45 and made some small changes to be equivalent to Arabic language learners (see appendix F). Items: 5, 6, 9, 10, 13, 16, 17, 18 and 19 were statements that measured EM factors. These statements were classified to measure the EM based on external

factors to the activity, interest, or the person, such as getting a reward or avoiding punishment, EM did not necessarily imply a lack of self-determination in the behaviors performed (Dornyei & Cumming 2003).

Items 1,2,3,4, 7, 8, 11, 12, 14, 15 and 20 were statements that measured IM factors. These statements were chosen to measure the IM based on the following definition of IM, which is self-motivated and based on individuals' desires to experience interests or unparticular goals related to those interests in various contexts, to which language is no stranger. Generally, IM refers to motivation to participate in an activity because it is satisfying and pleasurable. According to Deci and Ryan (1985), IM is founded upon innate needs for competence and self-determination. The researcher supported his classification by contacting four professors at the School of Education to review the motivation table and to categorize each item as EM or IM. The researcher compared his categorization to that of each professor and was able to categorize each item based on three votes or more out of five per item. However, even though the professors were able to place items into one category or the other, some of them were uncomfortable with the categorization. The importance in dividing the motivation into two types is to support Arabic language curriculum designers and instructional methods to create satisfactory programs for their audience. While it is debatable to divide motivation, it is important to attract students to the program in general. For example, extrinsic motivated students may not require the detailed and in-depth learning that intrinsic motivated students do. As an example, two universities in Saudi Arabia offer two different programs; one prepares students

academically (IM), while the other is targeted to diplomats for general communication (EM).

The researcher asked participants to use a 5-point Likert scale to rate the degree of agreement with motivation factors (or reasons) for enrolling in a course in Arabic as a foreign language. The scale was rated as following: 1 (*Disagree*), 2 (*moderately disagree*), 3 (*neutral*), 4 (*moderately agree*), and 5 (*agree*).

The third section was language proficiency, which was adapted from the SLSAQ (1997), which consisted of 40 items. Each skill (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) had 10 items to collect information about students' proficiency achievement in the language they are studying. A 5-point Likert scale: 1(*I can not do it at all*); 2(*I can do it but with great difficulty*); 3(*I can do it but with some difficulty*); 4(*I can do it fairly well but with occasional difficulty*); and 5(*I can do it comfortably*); was used. This scale distinguished the levels of comfort students had in using the target language in a given situation. The researcher selected 7 items out of 10 which he thought equivalent for Arabic language learners for each skill. The total number was 28 items. The questions used in this instrument were mainly closed or forced-choice questions.

### ***B. Participants***

Five hundred and fifty questionnaires were distributed to 17 universities between April and November 2003; however, responses were only received from 13. From these 13 universities, a total of 290 responses were received of which 266 were

valid for the analysis purpose. These universities were located in different regions throughout the country. The researcher traveled to 7 of these universities to meet the instructors of the Arabic language courses; however, the remaining universities received the questionnaires via mail.

The target population of this study was students who were taking Arabic language courses in selected universities in the U.S. The researcher received permission to conduct this research from the University of Kansas Center for Research. See appendix G.

Participants in this study were selected through purposive sampling (also called judgment sampling). The reasons for selecting this non-random sample included: (1) the number of the population was unknown and inaccessible; (2) the population was spread out over a wide geographic area. Accordingly, 17 universities in the United States were selected for the study. Based on researcher experience and prior knowledge, logical criteria for inclusion included:

1. Reputation of the university in teaching foreign language.
2. High proportions of students taking Arabic courses.
3. High diversity of students' backgrounds.

Therefore, the sampling unit used was a class or a group of students, who were taking an Arabic language course as a foreign language at universities. Due to the difficulty of accessing the target population and geographic separation, only 266 learners participated in the study.

The questionnaires were distributed to 17 universities but only 13 responded, which were the University of Kansas, Michigan State University, Georgetown University, the Ohio State University, University of Texas at Austin, Harvard University, University of California at Los Angeles, Pennsylvania State University, University of Oregon, Brigham Young University, Portland State University, University of Florida, and University of California at San Diego.

### **Data Analysis**

Three main statistical techniques applied in this study were descriptive statistics, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, and paired sample t-test.

#### ***A. Descriptive statistics***

A descriptive analysis of the students' background information was used to develop a profile of the participants in the study. The profile described students in terms of gender and educational level. Means, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentage distribution points were computed on the Likert-scales to summarize the responses to the motivational factors and EM and IM questionnaires. Means, standard deviations, and frequencies were computed on the SLSAQ to summarize language proficiency level in Arabic Language.

### ***B. Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient***

Pearson product moment correlation was computed between the scores on the two motivational factors' subscales (IM, EM) and language proficiency scores on the SLSAQ, in order to determine the relationship between different motivational factors and speaking proficiency in the Arabic Language.

### ***C. Paired Sample T-Test***

The paired sample t-test was computed to measure which types of motivation is stronger than the other. The researcher utilized the t-test to confirm the results of the means calculations of extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation.

### **Limitations of the study**

The study had some limitations. The instrument used to measure students' motivational factors and language proficiency was based on a retrospective self-report method. Research using a self-report questionnaire may exhibit certain weaknesses: (1) students may not have responded honestly; (2) students may have been affected by physical or psychological factors such as fatigue, (3) only the more motivated students may have participated in the survey, and (4) the lack of total agreement in the categorization of the items into extrinsic motivation or intrinsic motivation presents a limitation of the study. Some items might be interpreted as extrinsic motivation or intrinsic motivation depending on the context. For example, the item "I

want to travel to the Arabic world” is unclear whether the traveler is going for pleasure or a job. Another example is the item that states “I want to study abroad in the country in which Arabic is spoken.” This is possibly vague about whether the learner desires the Arabic culture or preparing for a future career. The sample of this study was not representative of all Arabic learners in the U.S. Hence, it is not suitable to generalize from it; however, the result can possibly be applied to other less commonly taught language (LCTL) learners.

## **Summary**

This chapter described the method and procedure employed in the present investigation. The chapter presented the research design, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis, and limitation of the study. Chapter 4 summarizes the results of the investigation of the relationship between motivation factors and language proficiency scores, and strength of motivation and learner variables of Arabic language students in selected American universities.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS

This chapter will present the results of investigating the relationship between motivational factors and language proficiency of learners of Arabic in selected American universities. The purposes of this study were to discover: 1) if there are significant relationships between Extrinsic Motivation (EM) and self-reported language proficiency; 2) if there are significant relationships between Intrinsic Motivation (IM) and self-reported language proficiency; 3) the levels of proficiency attained by American learners of the Arabic language in American universities; 4) the relationship between the learners' EM and their gender and educational level; 5) the relationship between the learners' IM and their gender and educational level; 6) whether American learners of the Arabic language are more motivated by Extrinsic or Intrinsic Factors.

This chapter is divided into six sections: 1) descriptive analysis of the demographic information of the participants; 2) descriptive analysis of the motivation questionnaire; 3) descriptive analysis of self-report of language proficiency; 4) correlations between EM and language proficiency, educational level, and gender; 5) correlations between IM and language proficiency, educational level, and gender; 6) whether American students are more motivated by Extrinsic or Intrinsic Factors when learning the Arabic language.

An Alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical tests. Also, the Bonferroni correction procedure was applied to control type one error with the multiple comparisons.

**Descriptive analysis of the demographic information of the participants**

The number of participants in this study was 266; 123 (46%) of them were males and 143 (54%) were females. Also, 203 (76%) of the sample were undergraduate students, while 63 (24%) were graduate students, as displayed in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistic Part 1

<b>Gender</b>	<b>Undergraduate</b>	<b>Graduate</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Female</b>	107----- 74.8%	36 ---- 25.2%	143---- 54%
<b>Male</b>	96 ----- 78%	27--- 22%	123----- 46%
<b>Total</b>	203 ----- 76 %	63 ----- 24 %	266

**Descriptive analysis of the motivation questionnaire**

Descriptive analyses (means, standard deviation, and percentage distribution by points on the Likert scale) were used to summarize participants’ responses on the Motivational Factors (MF), which are the reasons behind taking Arabic classes. To discover the intensity of motivational reasons (factors), means of items were assigned as one of two levels --high and low-- to find the strongest and weakest reasons for

taking Arabic classes. The means of the 20 items on the MF ranged from 1.97 to 4.69. The high mean was above 2.5, and the low mean was below 2.49.

### **Extrinsic motivation (EM)**

The results, which are displayed in Table 3 below, indicated that the EM mean was (M= 2.90). Some participants in this study reported that they were highly motivated “to travel to the Arabic world” (#11, M=4.45). They also reported that they were highly motivated “to learn Arabic because they would need it for future careers” (#5 M=3.97). On the other hand, others reported that the reason for taking the Arabic classes was “to get an easy grade” (#19 M=1.97), and that the reason for taking an Arabic class was “because my friend decided to take it”. Items # 16, 17, and 18 categorized the strongest factors, since they were above 2.50; items # 10, 9, 13, and 19 respectively were the weakest factors in EM, since they were below 2.49.

### **Intrinsic motivation (IM)**

The results, which are displayed in Table 3 below, indicated that the IM mean (M= 3.84), was higher than the EM mean. The students in this study reported that item #7, “Arabic is a part of my heritage,” was the weakest motivational factor in IM. Also, they reported that items #3, 4, 20, 14, 15, 1, 12, 8, and 6 were the strongest motivational factors in IM, respectively.

Table 3 – Descriptive Statistics for Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation

*Extrinsic Motivation (N = 266)*

<b>Extrinsic Motivation</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
<b>A5</b> I will need the language for my future career	3.97	1.22
<b>A6</b> I will get respect from others if I know a foreign language	3.23	1.20
<b>A9</b> I have friends who decided to study Arabic	2.09	1.46
<b>A10</b> My parents encouraged me to study Arabic	2.37	1.49
<b>A11</b> I want to travel to Arabic world	4.45	.95
<b>A13</b> I want to teach English in the country in which Arabic is spoken	2.26	1.28
<b>A16</b> I chose Arabic class because the program has a good reputation	3.09	1.16
<b>A17</b> I heard Arabic language teachers were good	3.09	1.16
<b>A18</b> I need it to fulfill my major requirement	2.89	1.67
<b>A19</b> I think I will get an easy grade due to my previous learning experiences	1.97	1.19

*Intrinsic Motivation (N = 266)*

<b>Intrinsic Motivation</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>
<b>A1</b> I will be able to participate in cultural activities of the language group	3.86	1.10
<b>A2</b> I will be able to better understand and appreciate the art and literature of Arabic world culture	4.15	.95
<b>A3</b> I feel Arabic language is an important world language	4.69	.61
<b>A4</b> I think foreign language study is part of a well-rounded education	4.52	.81
<b>A7</b> Arabic is a part of my heritage	2.24	1.69
<b>A8</b> I want to communicate with my friends in Arabic	3.11	1.50
<b>A12</b> I want to study abroad in the country in which Arabic is spoken	3.70	1.46
<b>A14</b> I want to satisfy my general intellectual curiosity	4.21	.93
<b>A15</b> I feel learning Arabic is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise	4.18	1.03
<b>A20</b> I want to understand written and audio materials in Arabic.	4.43	.91

**Descriptive analysis of self-report of language proficiency**

Descriptive analysis of participants' responses to the self-report language proficiency of the four skills was computed to examine the level of the participants.

It was measured by a Likert scale, ranging from 1 (I cannot do it at all) to 5 (I can do it comfortably). For each item, the high level of means was above 2.5 in Language Proficiency (LP), whereas the low level of means was below 2.49 in LP. One hundred seventy-five out of 266 participants (65.79 %) were categorized as students with a high level in the LP, based on their self-report, while 91 of them (34.21 %) were labeled as students with a low level in the LP.

The combined mean of the self-report for the four skills was 2.82, with a standard deviation of .73. The means of the subscales were 2.96 in speaking skills, which is the highest mean, 2.91 in reading, which is the second highest mean, 2.76 in listening and 2.67 in writing skills, which are the two lowest means, as displayed in Table 4 below. The self-report consisted of four language skills: (a) Listening, (b) Speaking, (c) Reading, and (d) Writing, and the language skill subscale was composed of seven items for each skill. The descriptive statistics for all skills is displayed in Table 4 below.

**Table 4**

*Descriptive Statistics for All Skills*

Descriptive Statistics (N=266)

	M	SD
Speaking	2.9613	.8628
Listening	2.7567	.8293
Reading	2.9162	.7662
Writing	2.6745	.8455

**Listening**

The listening mean was 2.76 (SD = 0.83). The two highest items were “understanding general questions and about themselves” (L1, M = 3.8) and “understanding teacher’s direction in class” (L2, M = 3.71). On the contrary, “watching and understanding TV programs” (L6, M = 1.84), and “understanding a lecture by a native speaker” (L7, M = 1.66) are the two lowest items as displayed in Table 5.

**Table 5**

*Descriptives: Means of Listening items*  
Descriptive Statistics (N=266)

	M	SD
1. I can understand general questions about myself and my family.	3.80	1.03
2. I can understand teacher's directions in class.	3.71	.92
3. I can understand directions to my friend's house.	2.65	1.28
4. I can understand a short message in answering machine.	2.65	1.18
5. I can understand the story that the teacher reads to us in class.	2.99	1.08
6. I can watch and understand a TV program.	1.84	.98
7. I can understand a lecture given by a native speaker on a topic that interests me.	1.66	.98

### **Speaking**

The speaking mean was 2.96 (SD = 0.86). The two highest items were “self introduction” (S1, M = 4.41), and “answering general questions about the family” (S2, M = 3.88). On the contrary, “telling about a TV program” (S4, M = 2.16), and “conversing with a native speaker” (S7, M = 1.97) are the two lowest items as seen in Table 6.

**Table 6**

*Descriptive: Means of Speaking Items*

Descriptive Statistics (N=266)

	M	SD
1. I can introduce myself to other people.	4.41	.86
2. I can answer general questions about my family.	3.88	1.08
3. I can give someone directions to my house.	2.53	1.23
4. I can tell a friend about a TV program I recently saw.	2.16	1.11
5. I can leave a message on an answering machine. (e.g. name, phone number, time, date, reason for calling).	2.80	1.25
6. I can describe objects in Arabic.	2.98	1.15
7. I can converse with a native speaker on a general topic using Arabic.	1.97	1.11

**Reading**

The reading mean was 2.91 (SD = 0.766). The two highest items were “reading simple objects’ names” (R1, M = 4.35), and “reading simple sentences in a text book” (R2, M = 4.29). On the contrary, “reading a magazine with minimal use of a dictionary” (R6, M = 1.82), and “reading a book in Arabic” (R7, M = 1.54) are the two lowest items as displayed in Table 7.



**Table 7**

*Descriptive: Means Of reading Items*

Descriptive Statistics (N=266)

	M	SD
1. I can read the names of simple objects.	4.35	.89
2. I can read simple sentences in the textbook.	4.29	.96
3. I can read a short children's story.	3.42	1.20
4. I can read a letter from a pen-pal.	2.83	1.17
5. I can read a newspaper.	2.16	.99
6. I can read magazines with minimal use of a dictionary.	1.82	.97
7. I can read an interesting book in Arabic.	1.54	.90

**Writing**

The writing mean was 2.67 (SD = 0.84). The two highest items were “listing things in a school bag” (W1, M = 3.82), and “writing a note” (W2, M = 3.22). On the contrary, “writing a review on a movie/book” (W5, M = 1.92), and “writing an essay expressing thoughts” (W7, M = 1.84) are the two lowest items as shown in Table 8.

**Table 8**

*Descriptive: Means of Writing Items*

Descriptive Statistics (N=266)

	M	SD
1. I can list the things in my school bag.	3.82	1.12
2. I can write a note to a friend.	3.22	1.14
3. I can write a description of objects in Arabic.	3.14	1.13
4. I can write a letter to a pen-pal.	2.58	1.08
5. I can write a review on my favorite movie/book	1.92	.99
6. I can write about my future plan and the reasons for them.	2.20	1.16
7. I can write an essay expressing my thoughts on a particular topic.	1.84	1.05

### **Correlations between Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation and language proficiency, education level and gender.**

The researcher computed a Pearson Correlation Coefficient to investigate the relationship between Language Proficiency (LP) and EM. The results, displayed in Table 10 below, indicated that there is a significant relationship between LP and EM ( $r = .31$ ,  $p \leq .001$ ,  $N = 266$ ). Therefore, the first hypothesis, which is “that there is a significant positive relationship between EM and self-reported language proficiency”, was supported. Also the researcher conducted a correlation coefficient to investigate relationships between EM and educational level. The results indicated that there is a significant relationship between EM and educational level ( $r = -.21$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $N = 266$ ). The third hypothesis, which is “that there are positive relationships between the learners’ EM and educational level”, was also supported. In addition, a correlation coefficient was used to investigate the relationship between EM and gender and the results indicated that there is no significant relationship between EM and gender ( $r = .04$ ,  $p = .507$ ,  $N = 266$ ). Therefore, the third hypothesis, which is “that there is a positive relationship between the learners’ EM and gender”, was rejected.

**Table 10***Correlations between Extrinsic Motivation and Language Proficiency, Education Level and Gender***Correlation between Extrinsic Motivation and Language Proficiency**

		MEANLG	MEANEM
<b>Language Proficiency</b>	<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	<b>1.000</b>	<b>.307</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>		<b>.000</b>
	<b>N</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>266</b>
<b>Extrinsic Motivation</b>	<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	<b>.307</b>	<b>1.000</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	<b>.000</b>	
	<b>N</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>266</b>

**Correlation between Extrinsic Motivation and Education Level**

		EDLEVEL	MEANEM
<b>Educational Level</b>	<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	<b>1.000</b>	<b>-.210</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>		<b>.001</b>
	<b>N</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>266</b>
<b>Extrinsic Motivation</b>	<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	<b>-.210</b>	<b>1.000</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	<b>.001</b>	
	<b>N</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>266</b>

**Correlation between Extrinsic Motivation and Gender**

		GENDER	MEANEM
<b>GENDER</b>	<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	<b>1.000</b>	<b>.041</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>		<b>.507</b>
	<b>N</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>266</b>
<b>Extrinsic Motivation</b>	<b>Pearson Correlation</b>	<b>.041</b>	<b>1.000</b>
	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>	<b>.507</b>	
	<b>N</b>	<b>266</b>	<b>266</b>

Moreover, the correlation coefficient was conducted to investigate the relationship between IM and LP, educational level, and gender. The results, displayed in Table 11 below, indicated that there is a significant relationship between IM and LP ( $r=.20$ ,  $p=.001$ ,  $N=266$ ), but it seems to be a weak relationship. Thus, the second hypothesis, which is that there is a significant positive relationship between IM and self-reported language proficiency, was supported. Also, the result indicated that

there is no significant relationship between IM and educational level ( $r = .08$ ,  $p = .187$ ,  $N = 266$ ). Thus, the fourth hypothesis, which is that there is a positive relationship between the learners' IM and educational level, was rejected. The results also indicated that there is no relationship between IM and gender ( $r = .13$ ,  $p = .29$ ,  $N = 266$ ). Therefore the fourth hypothesis, which is that there is a positive relationship between the intrinsic learners' motivation and gender, was rejected.

**Table 11**

*Correlations between Intrinsic Motivation and Language Proficiency, Education Level and Gender*

**Correlation between IM and LP**

		MEANLG	MEANIM
Language Proficiency	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.198
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	266	266
Intrinsic Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.198	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	266	266

**Correlation between IM and Education Level**

		EDLEVEL	MEANIM
Educational Level	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-.081
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.187
	N	266	266
Intrinsic Motivation	Pearson Correlation	-.081	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.187	
	N	266	266

**Correlation between IM and Gender**

		GENDER	MEANIM
GENDER	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.134
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.029
	N	266	266
Intrinsic Motivation	Pearson Correlation	.134	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.029	
	N	266	266

The descriptive statistics for all variables are shown in Table 12 below.

**Table 12**

*Descriptive statistics of the selected learner independent variables*

		N	M	SD
Extrinsic Motivation	male	123	2.8799	.6282
	female	143	2.9347	.7056
	Total	266	2.9094	.6702
Intrinsic Motivation	male	123	3.7657	.5717
	female	143	3.9154	.5421
	Total	266	3.8462	.5599
Extrinsic Motivation	low proficiency	91	2.6838	.6175
	high proficiency	175	3.0267	.6682
	Total	266	2.9094	.6702
Intrinsic Motivation	low proficiency	91	3.7652	.5222
	high proficiency	175	3.8883	.5755
	Total	266	3.8462	.5599
Intrinsic Motivation	undergraduate	203	3.8665	.5491
	graduate	63	3.7807	.5934
	Total	266	3.8462	.5599
Extrinsic Motivation	undergraduate	203	2.9819	.6349
	graduate	63	2.6755	.7306
	Total	266	2.9094	.6702

**Are American learners of Arabic language more motivated by Extrinsic or Intrinsic Factors?**

The researcher computed a paired samples statistics T-Test to investigate which motivation was stronger. The result indicated that the participants in this study were more motivated intrinsically than extrinsically, because the mean of intrinsic motivation (Mean of IM = 3.85, and SD = .56) was higher than the mean of extrinsic motivation (Mean of EM = 2.9, and SD = .67). This result was supported by T-Test = 27.87, df = 265, and p=.000. Table 13 illustrates the results.

**Table 13**

*Paired Samples Statistics*

		<b>Mean</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>
<b>Pair 1</b>	<b>Intrinsic Motivation</b>	3.8462	266	.5599	3.433E-02
	<b>Extrinsic Motivation</b>	2.9094	266	.6702	4.109E-02

*Paired Samples Test*

<b>t</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Sig. (2-tailed)</b>
27.866	265	.000

## CHAPTER FIVE

### DISCUSSIONS OF THE RESULTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study, discussion of results and recommendations for future study and instructional implementations for foreign language instructors.

**Research Question 1:** Is there a significant relationship between EM and self-report of language proficiency (LP)?

The results of this study showed that there is a significant relationship ( $r = .31$ ,  $p \leq .001$ ,  $N = 266$ ) between the EM factors and language proficiency. This correlation was higher than the correlation between the IM factors and LP.

**Research Question 2:** Is there a significant relationship between IM and self-reported LP?

The results of this study showed that there is a significant relationship ( $r = .20$ ,  $p = .001$ ,  $N = 266$ ) between the IM factors and LP. However, it seems to be a weaker relationship than that found between EM and LP.

This result was compatible with the results of previous studies (Strong, 1984; Gardner & Lysynchuk, 1990; Oxford et al., 1993; Kim, 1995; Park, 1995; Gardener et al. 1997; Yang, 2001; and Cortes, 2002). On the other hand, this result was different than Lau's (1995), who, in her study on motivation, communicative anxiety, and proficiency in learning English as a second language, found that motivational factors



and level of communicative anxiety did not correlate significantly with language proficiency.

**Research Question 3:** What levels of proficiency do American learners of the Arabic language in American universities attain based on their self-report?

The level of language proficiency of Arabic language learners in this study can be interpreted as above average proficiency ( $M=2.83$ ,  $SD=.73$ ). Students' proficiency was measured by the SLSAQ, a self-report questionnaire. Each participant rated SLSAQ items using a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (I can not do it at all) to 5 (I can do it comfortably). In general, a high level of language proficiency was considered to be greater than 2.5. In this study, the researcher found that the highest mean among the four language skills was speaking ( $M=2.96$ ) and the second highest mean was reading ( $M=2.91$ ). The lowest mean was writing ( $M=2.67$ ); the second lowest mean was listening ( $M=2.76$ ).

Speaking had the highest mean out of the four skills. One item in the speaking subscale, which was "introducing themselves", was the highest (S1  $M=4.41$ ). The second highest item was "answering general questions about their family" (S2  $M=3.88$ ). However, the lowest item was "conversing with a native speaker on any general topic using the appropriate language forms" (S7  $M=1.97$ ). It seems that the results indicate that the students reach the highest means with the first and second items, which fall between novice-low and novice-mid according to the ACTFL guidelines. Since the first and second items are easy, and taught at the early stages, students comfortably adapt to them. However, the last item has the lowest mean

possible because of the learners' anxiety and hesitation, difficulty of being understood due to improper pronunciation, and a weak level of comprehending native-speakers. To improve the speaking skill, the researcher proposes Joint Productive Activity, in which established frequent interactions in a group-like setup between multiple groups of students and the instructor apply frequent quizzes on previous topics, and encourage students to write a report after speaking with a native speaker.

Reading had the second highest mean. Two items in the reading subscale, which were "reading simple objects and simple sentences in a textbook", were the highest (R1, 2 M=4.35, 4.29). The two lowest items were "reading magazines" and "reading an interesting book in Arabic" (R6.7, M= 1.82, 1.54). There are many possibilities that may explain these results. Participants put more emphasis on reading than listening and writing to be able to read the Quran, which was one of the strong reasons for learning the language. Also, the Arabic language is an easy language to read since there aren't many words pronounced differently than they appear. Arabic is a phonetic and syllabic language in contrast to the English language.

From the results, and according to ACTFL, students are ranked novice-low when reaching first and second means of the reading skill. Due to the simplicity of the first and second items, and being the first things students get exposed to, they reached the highest rank in the reading skill. The two items with the lowest means may be because the level of comprehension is not advanced enough. In an attempt to improve the reading skill, the researcher suggests using simple artistic images, which

might develop the learner's comprehension, and, in the long term, might support the learner to draw mental objects to ease the understanding.

Writing had the lowest mean of the four skills. The highest item in the writing subscale was "listing the things in my school bag"(W1 M=3.82). The lowest items were "writing a review of my favorite movie or book" and "writing an essay expressing my thoughts on a particular topic" (W5, 7 M=1.92, 1.84). There is one possible explanation when interpreting the low results, which is that the learners' need for writing is lower than their need for reading in the beginning. It is apparent that students reaching the first item in the writing skill fall under novice-mid according to ACTFL criteria. Since students have a tendency to list the most used items on a daily basis, this contributed to having item one be the first under the writing skill. On the other hand, the reasons behind the two lowest items possibly are because of students' lack of grammatical skills, sentence structure, and vocabulary. As one possible approach to improve the writing skill, the researcher suggests that students should begin strengthening their vocabulary and grammatical skills, and they should be given topics they are interested in to write about. Last but not least, they should practice writing with singular, dual, and plural formats.

Listening had the second lowest mean. The first and second items in the listening subscale, which were "understood general questions about themselves" and "understanding teachers' directions in class," (L1, 2 M=3.80, 3.71) are the highest items in listening. The lowest items were "watching, understanding a TV program", and "understanding a lecture given by a native speaker" (L6, 7, M=1.84, 1.66). One

possibility to explain these low results is that learners' may have difficulty understanding a native speaker's dialect. Apparently, students who reach first and second items of the listening skill fall between novice-mid and novice-high, according to the ACTFL guidelines. What possibly put the first two items in their positions are that they are taught at early stages, being repeated inside and outside of the class room, as well as the fact that students are obligated to understand the teacher for solving homework and preparing for exams. However, the last item gained its position possibly because of the speed of the commentators and news broadcasters, unfamiliarity with the topic, and being in a non-collaborative aural and visual scenario. The researcher suggests that teachers should possibly focus on materials that are familiar to the students, and relevant to students' interests. Another suggestion is to train students to associate difficult words with a word in one's own language, and generate a visual image that will lead to the meaning of the word.

To conclude, participants reported that speaking and reading skills are stronger than those of listening and writing. This result is supported by Yang's (2001) study, which addressed motivation orientation, language proficiency, and selected language learner variables of East Asian language (Chinese, Japanese, and Korean, which are among the LCTL) learners in the United States. She concluded that the combined mean level of proficiency of the four skills was 2.93 out of 7, and SD is 0.86. In addition, she found that the highest skills were speaking ( $M = 3.21$ ) and listening ( $M = 3.1$ ), while the lowest were reading ( $M = 2.87$ ) and writing ( $M = 2.55$ ). This study is compatible with Yang's study on speaking and writing; however, it differs from her

study with listening and reading. The reasons behind the differences between Yang's study and this study are possibly because the Arabic language is linguistically structured differently than Japanese, Chinese, and Korean. Also, it could be because the Arabic language is a grammatical-oriented language, while East Asian languages are more character-oriented.

**Research Question 4:** What is the relation between the learners' EM and their gender and educational level?

The results indicated that there is no significant relationship between EM and gender ( $r=.041$ ,  $p=.51$ ,  $N=266$ ). Based on this study, the percentages of female and male are very close. It is possible to accept the statistical analysis results, which reflect that there is no relationship between EM and gender because males and females have equal job opportunities in the U.S. The results also indicated that there is a significant weak relationship between EM and educational level ( $r= -.210$ ,  $p=001$ ,  $N= 266$ ). This means that when the educational level becomes higher, the EM factors for taking Arabic classes become lower.

**Research Question 5:** What is the relation between the learners' IM and their gender and educational level?

The results indicated that there is no relationship between IM and gender ( $r=.134$ ,  $p= .3$ ,  $N=266$ ). Based on this study, the percentages of female and male are very close. It is possible to accept the statistical analysis results, which reflect the

study output, because males and females share job positions. The results also indicated that there is no significant relationship between IM and educational level ( $r = .081$ ,  $p = .187$ ,  $N = 266$ ).

This result differed from that of Padilla and Sung (1997). In their study, female students in a Korean program were significantly more motivated than male students. Also, Kaylani (1996) concluded that, in Jordan, male students were more integratively oriented than female students when students were under pressure to pass English courses. Kaylani found that females were instrumentally oriented. The differences can be possibly clarified by cultural and environmental differences where, unlike in the U.S., opportunities between males and females vary.

### **Learner variables that influenced language learning motivation: EM, IM and Gender**

The result of the correlation indicated that there was no significant effect of gender on the EM,  $F(1, 264) = 16.59$ ,  $p \leq .001$ ; also, it had no significant effect on the IM,  $F(1, 264) = 2.914$ ,  $p = .09$ . That means there is no influence of gender either male or female, on either EM or IM factors.

### **Language proficiency**

The result of the correlation indicated that there was a significant effect of language proficiency on the EM,  $F(1, 264) = .44$ ,  $p = .51$ . However, there was no significant effect of language proficiency on the IM,  $F(1, 264) = 4.79$ ,  $p = .03$ . A

possible explanation is that language proficiency may be hindered in the EM learner, because the EM learner may not be linguistic-oriented.

### **Educational level**

The result of the correlation indicated that there was a significant effect of the educational level on the EM,  $F(1, 264) = 10.41, p = .001$ , while there was no significant effect of the educational level on the IM,  $F(1, 264) = 1.13, p = .29$ . To explain the effect of educational level on EM, the motivational factors may differ from one person to another. Extrinsic-motivated students, into which category some of the undergraduate students fall, take the Arabic language to fulfill their requirements, while intrinsic-motivated students, into which category some of the undergraduate students and graduate students fall, take the Arabic language because they have an interest in learning the language to fulfill personal desires.

**Research Question 6:** Are American learners of Arabic language more motivated by Extrinsic or Intrinsic Factors?

The result indicated that the participants in this study were more motivated intrinsically than extrinsically to learn the Arabic language in America. This result supported the idea of dividing the motivation factors into intrinsic and extrinsic. Also, students' responses to the questionnaire and statistical analysis supported the result. A possible interpretation of this result is that the strongest items in the questionnaire fell under intrinsic motivation, while the weakest items fell under extrinsic motivation. Additionally, most of the participants in this study had an interest in studying Arabic based on internal desires



## **Recommendations**

In this study, the researcher examined motivational factors and language proficiency of Arabic learners in selected universities in the U.S. in order to provide helpful information, ideas for further research, and possible implementations for instructors and administrators involved in both Arabic teaching and generally in foreign language education.

In this study, the researcher did not divide the language in terms of motivation for the two types of Arabic, Language-Modern Standard Arabic and Colloquial Arabic. The researcher inquired about the Arabic language in general. For this reason further research is highly recommended.

The participants reported that they are more motivated intrinsically rather than extrinsically. Instrumental motivation orientation and integrative motivation orientation are close in definition to extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation. However, motivation factors can not be easily classified underneath instrumental motivation and integrative motivation, and some items could indicate that instrumental motivation is part of integrative motivation. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation might be clearer in concept, and it might be much easier to classify items under each one of them. Also, once an average person comprehends the definitions, extrinsic motivation and intrinsic motivation become clear, while instrumental motivation and integrative motivation might not be easily understood.

That means that Arabic program designers should consider this in their curriculum and methods of teaching by focusing on specific objectives that focus more on intrinsic needs of the learners, as well as providing basic skills to improve students' language proficiency. This study was supported by Yang (2001) who found that students were more motivated by integrative motivation than by instrumental motivation. In addition, other studies (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Spolsky, 1969) indicated that integrative motivation significantly influenced language proficiency more than instrumental motivation.

#### **Final remarks which are not directly related to the findings of this study**

The establishment of a standard test for Arabic learners as a foreign or second language becomes very important in order to measure the language proficiency of learners, rather than the self-report which is not very accurate in determining the appropriate level that the student should attain.

After reviewing the literature, the researcher found most Arabic studies in the U.S. focused on linguistics more than on teaching and instructional method. For that reason, it would be good for a future study to explore the important issues like instructional teaching, the use of technology, as well as exploring the problems and difficulties of the current programs in teaching Arabic as a foreign language compared with other foreign languages in America.

Students reported higher proficiency in speaking and reading than in listening and writing. Hence, administrators and teachers should consider these results when they develop curriculum and teaching methods. This requires improving the strategies of teaching the four skills within the foreign language. Although the researcher mentioned some recommendations earlier, further recommendations are to improve the four skills via cooperating with peers, and cooperating with proficient users. Cooperating with peers requires learners to work together on activities toward a common goal using things like games, simulations, and cards. Cooperating with proficient users requires the learner to ask frequent questions for clarification, verification, and correction, as well as asking the proficient user to slow down, and repeat, as Oxford (1990) recommends. In addition, consulting the following books is highly recommended; *Teaching Language in Context* by Hadley, 2000; *Making Communication Language Teaching Happen* by Lee and Vanpatten, 1995; and *Language Learning Strategies* by Oxford, 1991

Further, the relationship between instructors and students is extremely important in the process of teaching a foreign language. The instructor should maintain a pleasant classroom atmosphere. Also, the instructor should present the process of teaching Arabic in a most interesting manner, although students should be enthusiastic and interested enough by themselves in learning Arabic as a foreign language.

Since the Arabic language is gaining a high rank at some U.S. universities, and as it continues development, researchers are being attracted to conduct studies

such as this one. As mentioned in chapter two about the conflict between modern standard Arabic (MSA), and Colloquial Arabic (CA), the researcher recommends that universities and institutions should concentrate on offering MSA instead of CA, because most text books, newspapers, and broadcasts are in MSA. Additionally, MSA speakers are understood by most native Arabic speakers.

In addition, there are some self-education computer programs, which were designed to help learners improve their linguistic skills. The researcher suggests that Arabic language instructors provide these in a lab environment. Also, the researcher recommends that students be evaluated in terms of motivation prior to enrolling, in order to place them in a suitable level for best results. The researcher stresses the importance of assessing learners' motivational factors so that Arabic language course designers can develop the appropriate programs. Finally, the researcher recommends that instructors of Arabic for non-Arabic speaking students in U.S., in the Middle East and through out the world develop an annual convention to exchange thoughts and ideas and try to build a standardized assessment test.

## APPENDIX A

### **Common Textbooks in Teaching Arabic as a Second or Foreign language in American Universities**

- 1-Hardan et al. 's mina al-Khalij ila al- Muhit [From the Gulf to the ocean] (1980).
- 2- El-Said Badawi et al .'s Al-Kitab al-Asasi, parts I and II (1983& 1987).
- 3- Roger Allen and Adel Allouche's Let's Learn Arabic (1986),.
- 4- Samar Attar's Modern Arabic (1988).
- 5- Mahdi Alesh's Ahlan wa Sahlan (1989).
- 6- Peter Abboud et al.'s new version of Intermediate Modern Standard Arabic (1991).
- 7-Raji Rammuny's Advanced Standard Arabic (1994).
- 8- Brustad et al's al-kitab fi Ta alum al-Arabiyya (1994).
- 9- Karin Ryding's Formal Spoken Arabic (1990).
- 10- Peter Abboud and Attieh's Middlebury series Let's read with Arabs, Let's Speak with Arabs and Let's Speak Fusha (1991).  
(From Al-Batal, (1995).

## APPENDIX B

Description for all levels in **Listening** according to ACTFL guidelines

(1) **Novice-Low** understanding is limited to occasional isolated words, such as cognates, borrowed words, and high-frequency social conventions. Essentially no ability to comprehend even short utterances.

(2) **Novice-Mid** is Able to understand some short, learned utterances, particularly where context strongly supports understanding and speech is clearly audible. Comprehends some words and phrases from simple questions, statements, high-frequency commands and courtesy formulae about topics that refer to basic personal information or the immediate physical setting. The listener requires long pauses for assimilation and periodically requests repetition and/or a slower rate of speech.

(3) **Novice-High** is able to understand short, learned utterances and some sentence-length utterances; particularly where context strongly supports understanding and speech is clearly audible. Comprehends words and phrases from simple questions, statements, high-frequency commands, and courtesy formulae. May require repetition, rephrasing, and/or a slowed rate of speech for comprehension.

(4) **Intermediate-Low** is able to understand sentence-length utterances which consist of recombinations of learned elements in a limited number of content areas, particularly if strongly supported by the situational context. Content refers to basic personal background and needs, social conventions and routine tasks, such as getting meals and receiving simple instructions and directions. Listening tasks pertain primarily to spontaneous face-to-face conversations. Understanding is often uneven; repetition and rewording may be necessary. Misunderstandings in both main ideas and details arise frequently.

(5) **Intermediate-Mid** is able to understand sentence-length utterances which consist of recombinations of learned utterances on a variety of topics. Content continues to refer primarily to basic personal background and needs, social conventions and somewhat more complex tasks, such as lodging, transportation, and shopping. Additional content areas include some personal interests and activities, and a greater diversity of instructions and directions. Listening tasks not only pertain to spontaneous face-to-face conversations but also to short routine telephone conversations and some deliberate speech, such as simple announcements and reports over the media. Understanding continues to be uneven.

(6) **Intermediate-High** is able to sustain understanding over longer stretches of connected discourse on a number of topics pertaining to different times and places;

however, understanding is inconsistent due to failure to grasp main ideas and/or details. Thus, while topics do not differ significantly from those of an Advanced level listener, comprehension is less in quantity and poorer in quality. (7)Advanced is able to understand main ideas and most details of connected discourse on a variety of topics beyond the immediacy of the situation. Comprehension may be uneven due to a variety of linguistic and extralinguistic factors, among which topic familiarity is very prominent. These texts frequently involve description and narration in different time frames or aspects, such as present, nonpast, habitual, or imperfective. Texts may include interviews, short lectures on familiar topics, and news items and reports primarily dealing with factual information. Listener is aware of cohesive devices but may not be able to use them to follow the sequence of thought in an oral text.

**(7) Advanced** is able to understand main ideas and most details of connected discourse on a variety of topics beyond the immediacy of the situation. Comprehension may be uneven due to a variety of linguistic and extralinguistic factors, among which topic familiarity is very prominent. These texts frequently involve description and narration in different time frames or aspects, such as present, nonpast, habitual, or imperfective. Texts may include interviews, short lectures on familiar topics, and news items and reports primarily dealing with factual information. Listener is aware of cohesive devices but may not be able to use them to follow the sequence of thought in an oral text.

**(8) Advanced Plus** is able to understand the main ideas of most speech in a standard dialect; however, the listener may not be able to sustain comprehension in extended discourse, which is propositionally and linguistically complex. Listener shows an emerging awareness of culturally implied meanings beyond the surface meanings of the text but may fail to grasp sociocultural nuances of the message.

**(9) Superior** is able to understand the main ideas of all speech in a standard dialect, including technical discussion in a field of specialization. Can follow the essentials of extended discourse which is propositionally and linguistically complex, as in academic/professional settings, in lectures, speeches, and reports. Listener shows some appreciation of aesthetic norms of target language, of idioms, colloquialisms, and register shifting. Able to make inferences within the cultural framework of the target language. Understanding is aided by an awareness of the underlying organizational structure of the oral text and includes sensitivity for its social and cultural references and its affective overtones. Rarely misunderstands but may not understand excessively rapid, highly colloquial speech or speech that has strong cultural references.

**(10) Distinguished** is able to understand all forms and styles of speech pertinent to personal, social, and professional needs tailored to different audiences. Shows strong sensitivity to social and cultural references and aesthetic norms by processing language from within the cultural framework. Texts include theater plays, screen productions, editorials, symposia, academic debates, public policy statements, literary readings, and most jokes and puns. May have difficulty with some dialects and slang.



## APPENDIX C

Description for all levels in **Speaking** according to ACTFL guidelines

(1) **Novice-Low** is oral production consists of isolated words and perhaps a few high-frequency phrases. Essentially no functional communicative ability.

(2) **Novice-Mid** is oral production continues to consist of isolated words and learned phrases within very predictable areas of need, although quantity is increased. Vocabulary is sufficient only for handling simple, elementary needs and expressing basic courtesies. Utterances rarely consist of more than two or three words and show frequent long pauses and repetition of interlocutor's words. Speaker may have some difficulty producing even the simplest utterances. Some Novice-Mid speakers will be understood only with great difficulty.

(3) **Novice-High** is able to satisfy partially the requirements of basic communicative exchanges by relying heavily on learned utterances but occasionally expanding these through simple recombinations of their elements. Can ask questions or make statements involving learned material. Shows signs of spontaneity although this falls short of real autonomy of expression. Speech continues to consist of learned utterances rather than of personalized, situationally adapted ones. Vocabulary centers on areas such as basic objects, places, and most common kinship terms. Pronunciation may still be strongly influenced by first language. Errors are frequent and, in spite of repetition, some Novice-High speakers will have difficulty being understood even by sympathetic interlocutors.

(4) **Intermediate-Low** is able to handle successfully a limited number of interactive, task-oriented, and social situations. Can ask and answer questions, initiate and respond to simple statements, and maintain face-to-face conversation, although in a highly restricted manner and with much linguistic inaccuracy. Within these limitations, can perform such tasks as introducing self, ordering a meal, asking directions, and making purchases. Vocabulary is adequate to express only the most elementary needs. Strong interference from native language may occur. Misunderstandings frequently arise, but with repetition, the Intermediate-Low speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors.

(5) **Intermediate-Mid** is Able to handle successfully a variety of uncomplicated, basic, and communicative tasks and social situations. Can talk simply about self and family members. Can ask and answer questions and participate in simple conversations on topics beyond the most immediate needs; e.g., personal history and

leisure time activities. Utterance length increases slightly, but speech may continue to be characterized by frequent long pauses, since the smooth incorporation of even basic conversational strategies is often hindered as the speaker struggles to create appropriate language forms. Pronunciation may continue to be strongly influenced by first language and fluency may still be strained. Although misunderstandings still arise, the Intermediate-Mid speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors.

**(6) Intermediate-High** is able to handle successfully most uncomplicated communicative tasks and social situations. Can initiate, sustain, and close a general conversation with a number of strategies appropriate to a range of circumstances and topics, but errors are evident. Limited vocabulary still necessitates hesitation and may bring about slightly unexpected circumlocution. There is emerging evidence of connected discourse, particularly for simple narration and/or description. The Intermediate-High speaker can generally be understood even by interlocutors not accustomed to dealing with speakers at this level, but repetition may still be required.

**(7) Advanced** is able to satisfy the requirements of everyday situations and routine school and work requirements. Can handle with confidence but not with facility complicated tasks and social situations, such as elaborating, complaining, and apologizing. Can narrate and describe with some details, linking sentences together smoothly. Can communicate facts and talk casually about topics of current public and personal interest, using general vocabulary. Shortcomings can often be smoothed over by communicative strategies, such as pause fillers, stalling devices, and different rates of speech. Circumlocution which arises from vocabulary or syntactic limitations very often is quite successful, though some groping for words may still be evident. The Advanced-level speaker can be understood without difficulty by native interlocutors.

**(8) Advanced Plus** is Able to satisfy the requirements of a broad variety of everyday, school, and work situations. Can discuss concrete topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence. There is emerging evidence of ability to support opinions, explain in detail, and hypothesize. The Advanced-Plus speaker often shows a well-developed ability to compensate for an imperfect grasp of some forms with confident use of communicative strategies, such as paraphrasing and circumlocution. Differentiated vocabulary and intonation are effectively used to communicate fine shades of meaning. The Advanced-Plus speaker often shows remarkable fluency and ease of speech, but under the demands of Superior-level complex tasks, language may break down or prove inadequate

**(9) Superior** is able to speak the language with sufficient accuracy to participate effectively in most formal and informal conversations on practical, social, professional, and abstract topics. Can discuss special fields of competence and interest with ease. Can support opinions and hypothesize, but may not be able to tailor language to audience or discuss in depth highly abstract or unfamiliar topics. Usually

the superior level speaker is only partially familiar with regional or other dialectical variants. The superior level speaker commands a wide variety of interactive strategies and shows good awareness of discourse strategies. The latter involves the ability to distinguish main ideas from supporting information through syntactic, lexical, and suprasegmental features (pitch, stress, intonation). Sporadic errors may occur, particularly in low-frequency structures and some complex high-frequency structures more common to formal writing, but no patterns of error are evident. Errors do not disturb the native speaker or interfere with communication.

## APPENDIX D

Description for all levels in **Reading** according to ACTFL guidelines

**(1) Novice-Low** is able occasionally to identify isolated words and/or major phrases when strongly supported by context.

**(2) Novice-Mid** is able to recognize the symbols of an alphabetic and/or syllabic writing system and/or a limited number of characters in a system that uses characters. The reader can identify an increasing number of highly contextualized words and/or phrases including cognates and borrowed words, where appropriate. Material understood rarely exceeds a single phrase at a time, and rereading may be required.

**(3) Novice-High** has sufficient control of the writing system to interpret written language in areas of practical need. Where vocabulary has been learned, can read for instructional and directional purposes, standardized messages, phrases, or expressions, such as some items on menus, schedules, timetables, maps, and signs. At times, but not on a consistent basis, the Novice-High level reader may be able to derive meaning from material at a slightly higher level where context and/or extralinguistic background knowledge are supportive.

**(4) Intermediate-Low** is able to understand main ideas and/or some facts from the simplest connected texts dealing with basic personal and social needs. Such texts are linguistically noncomplex and have a clear underlying internal structure, for example, chronological sequencing. They impart basic information about which the reader has to make only minimal suppositions or to which the reader brings personal interest and/or knowledge. Examples include messages with social purposes and information for the widest possible audience, such as public announcements and short, straightforward instructions dealing with public life. Some misunderstandings will occur.

**(5) Intermediate-Mid** is able to read consistently with increased understanding simple, connected texts dealing with a variety of basic and social needs. Such texts are still linguistically noncomplex and have a clear underlying internal structure. They impart basic information about which the reader has to make minimal suppositions and to which the reader brings personal interest and/or knowledge. Examples may include short, straightforward descriptions of persons, places, and things written for a wide audience.

**(6) Intermediate-High** is able to read consistently with full understanding simple connected texts dealing with basic personal and social needs about which the reader has personal interest and/or knowledge. Can get some main ideas and information

from texts at the next higher level featuring description and narration. Structural complexity may interfere with comprehension; for example, basic grammatical relations may be misinterpreted and temporal references may rely primarily on lexical items. Has some difficulty with the cohesive factors in discourse, such as matching pronouns with referents. While texts do not differ significantly from those at the Advanced level, comprehension is less consistent. May have to read material several times for understanding.

**(7) Advanced** is able to read somewhat longer prose of several paragraphs in length, particularly if presented with a clear underlying structure. The prose is predominantly in familiar sentence patterns. Reader gets the main ideas and facts and misses some details. Comprehension derives not only from situational and subject matter knowledge but from increasing control of the language. Texts at this level include descriptions and narrations such as simple short stories, news items, bibliographical information, social notices, personal correspondence, routinized business letters, and simple technical material written for the general reader.

**(8) Advanced Plus** is able to follow essential points of written discourse at the Superior level in areas of special interest or knowledge. Able to understand parts of texts which are conceptually abstract and linguistically complex, and/or texts which treat unfamiliar topics and situations, as well as some texts which involve aspects of target-language culture. Able to comprehend the facts to make appropriate inferences. An emerging awareness of the aesthetic properties of language and of its literary styles permits comprehension of a wider variety of texts, including literary. Misunderstandings may occur.

**(9) Superior** is able to read with almost complete comprehension and at normal speed expository prose on unfamiliar subjects and a variety of literary texts. Reading ability is not dependent on subject matter knowledge, although the reader is not expected to comprehend thoroughly texts which are highly dependent on knowledge of the target culture. Reads easily for pleasure. Superior-level texts feature hypotheses, argumentation, and supported opinions, and include grammatical patterns and vocabulary ordinarily encountered in academic/professional reading. At this level, due to the control of general vocabulary and structure, the reader is almost always able to match the meanings derived from extralinguistic knowledge with meanings derived from knowledge of the language, allowing for smooth and efficient reading of diverse texts. Occasional misunderstandings may still occur; for example, the reader may experience some difficulty with unusually complex structures and low-frequency idioms. At the Superior level the reader can match strategies, top-down or bottom-up, which are most appropriate to the text. (Top-down strategies rely on real-world knowledge and prediction based on genre and organizational scheme of the text. Bottom-up strategies rely on actual linguistic knowledge.) Material at this level will include a variety of literary texts, editorials, correspondence, general

reports, and technical material in professional fields. Rereading is rarely necessary, and misreading is rare.

**(10)Distinguished** is able to read fluently and accurately most styles and forms of the language pertinent to academic and professional needs. Able to relate inferences in the text to real-world knowledge and understand almost all sociolinguistic and cultural references by processing language from within the cultural framework. He is able to understand a writer's use of nuance and subtlety. Can readily follow unpredictable turns of thought and author intent in such materials as sophisticated editorials, specialized journal articles, and literary texts such as novels, plays, poems, as well as in any subject matter area directed to the general reader.

## APPENDIX E

Description for all levels in **Writing** according to ACTFL guidelines

Writing consists of nine levels which are

**(1) Novice-Low** is able to form some letters in an alphabetic system. In languages whose writing systems use syllabaries or characters, writer is able to both copy and produce the basic strokes. Can produce romanization of isolated characters, where applicable.

**(2) Novice-Mid** is able to copy or transcribe familiar words or phrases and reproduce some from memory. No practical communicative writing skills.

**(3) Novice-High** is able to write simple, fixed expressions and limited memorized material and some recombinations thereof. Can supply information on simple forms and documents. Can write names, numbers, dates, own nationality, and other simple autobiographical information, as well as some short phrases and simple lists. Can write all the symbols in an alphabetic or syllabic system or 50-100 characters or compounds in a character writing system. Spelling and representation of symbols (letters, syllables, characters) may be partially correct.

**(4) Intermediate-Low** is able to meet limited practical writing needs. Can write short messages, postcards, and take down simple notes, such as telephone messages. Can create statements or questions within the scope of limited language experience. Material produced consists of recombinations of learned vocabulary and structures into simple sentences on very familiar topics.

**(5) Intermediate-Mid** is able to meet a number of practical writing needs. Can write short, simple letters. Content involves personal preferences, daily routine, everyday events, and other topics grounded in personal experience. Can express present time and at least one other time frame or aspect consistently, e.g., nonpast, habitual, imperfective. Evidence of control of the syntax of non-complex sentences and basic inflectional morphology, such as declensions and conjugation. Writing tends to be a loose collection of sentences or sentence fragments on a given topic and provides little evidence of conscious organization. Can be understood by natives used to the writing of non-natives.

**(6) Intermediate-High** is able to meet most practical writing needs and limited social demands. Can take notes in some detail on familiar topics and respond in writing to personal questions. Can write simple letters, brief synopses and paraphrases, summaries of biographical data, work and school experience. In those languages relying primarily on content words and time expressions to express time, tense, or aspect, some precision is displayed; where tense and/or aspect is expressed

through verbal inflection, forms are produced rather consistently, but not always accurately. An ability to describe and narrate in paragraphs is emerging. Rarely uses basic cohesive elements such as pronominal substitutions or synonyms in written discourse. Writing, though faulty, is generally comprehensible to natives used to the writing of non-natives.

**(7)Advanced** is able to write routine social correspondence and join sentences in simple discourse of at least several paragraphs in length on familiar topics. Can write simple social correspondence, take notes, write cohesive summaries and resumes, as well as narratives and descriptions of a factual nature. Has sufficient writing vocabulary to express self simply with some circumlocution. May still make errors in punctuation, spelling, or the formation of nonalphabetic symbols. Good control of the morphology and the most frequently used syntactic structures, e.g., common word order patterns, coordination, subordination, but makes frequent errors in producing complex sentences. Uses a limited number of cohesive devices, such as pronouns, accurately. Writing may resemble literal translations from the native language, but a sense of organization (rhetorical structure) is emerging. Writing is understandable to natives not used to the writing of non-natives.

**(8)Advanced Plus** is able to write about a variety of topics with significant precision and in detail. Can write most social and informal business correspondence. Can describe and narrate personal experiences fully but has difficulty supporting points of view in written discourse. Can write about the concrete aspects of topics relating to particular interests and special fields of competence. Often shows remarkable fluency and ease of expression, but under time constraints and pressure writing may be inaccurate. Generally strong in either grammar or vocabulary, but not in both. Weakness and unevenness in one of the foregoing or in spelling or character writing formation may result in occasional miscommunication. Some misuse of vocabulary may still be evident. Style may still be obviously foreign.

**(9)Superior** is able to express self effectively in most formal and informal writing on practical, social and professional topics. Can write most types of correspondence, such as memos as well as social and business letters, and short research papers and statements of position in areas of special interest or in special fields. Good control of a full range of structures, spelling or nonalphabetic symbol production, and a wide general vocabulary allow the writer to hypothesize and present arguments or points of view accurately and effectively. An underlying organization, such as chronological ordering, logical ordering, cause and effect, comparison, and thematic development is strongly evident, although not thoroughly executed and/or not totally reflecting target language patterns. Although sensitive to differences in formal and informal style, still may not tailor writing precisely to a variety of purposes and/or readers. Errors in writing rarely disturb natives or cause miscommunication.



## APPENDIX F

### Questionnaire

Dear student,

I am a PhD student in the department of Teaching & Leadership in School of Education at the University of Kansas. This questionnaire is part of the research for my doctoral dissertation investigating, **Motivation Factors and Language Proficiency of Learners of Arabic in Selected American Universities**. All you need to do is complete this questionnaire.

I appreciate your participation. Please remember that there is no right or wrong answer as I am interested in your opinions. Please take your time to answer all the questions. Again thanks for your cooperation.

Ahmad AlAeraini.  
1940 Heatherwood Dr. #201  
Lawrence, KS 66047  
Phone # 785 841-6066  
Email [a1389@ku.edu](mailto:a1389@ku.edu)

**Part one: Student's Information**

1-Native Language: .....

2-Other language that you have studied:  
.....

3-Gender:                Male                 Female

4-Your ethnic background:.....

5-College status: Freshman         Sophomore                Junior   
                                Senior                Graduate student                other

**Part two: Motivation Factors**

Please use the scale of agreement to rate the following reasons for studying Arabic Language.

No.	Statement  <b>I am taking Arabic Class, because .....</b>	disagree	moderately disagree	neutral	moderately agree	agree
		1	2	3	4	5
1	I will be able to participate in cultural activities of the language group.					
2	I will be able to better understand and appreciate the art and literature of Arabic world culture.					
3	I feel Arabic language is an important world language.					
4	I think foreign language study is part of a well- rounded education.					
5	I will need the language for my future career.					
6	I will get respect from others if I know a foreign language.					
7	Arabic is a part of my heritage.					
8	I want to communicate with my friends in Arabic					
9	I have friends who decided to study Arabic.					
10	My parents encouraged me to study Arabic.					
11	I want to travel to Arabic world.					
12	I want to study abroad in the country in which Arabic is spoken.					
13	I want to teach English in the country in which Arabic is spoken.					
14	I want to satisfy my general intellectual curiosity.					
15	I feel learning Arabic is mentally challenging and provides mental exercise.					
16	I chose Arabic class because the program has a good reputation.					
17	I heard Arabic language teachers were good					
18	I need it to fulfill my major requirement.					
19	I think I will get an easy grade due to my previous learning experiences.					
20	I want to understand written and audio materials in Arabic.					
21	Other reasons:					

### Part three: Sung Language Self-Assessment Questionnaire

Please read the following statements in each of the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). Rate how well you can perform the various activities in the Arabic Language. Using this **scale**:

- 1- I can not do it at all.
- 2- I can do it but with great difficulty.
- 3- I can do it but with some difficulty.
- 4- I can do it fairly well but with occasional difficulty.
- 5- I can do it comfortably.

#### Listening comprehension

NO.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1	I can understand general questions about myself and my family.					
2	I can understand teacher's directions in class.					
3	I can understand directions to my friend's house.					
4	I can understand a short message in answering machine.					
5	I can understand the story that the teacher reads to us in class.					
6	I can watch and understand a TV program.					
7	I can understand a lecture given by a native speaker on a topic that interests me.					

## Speaking

Scale:

- 1: I cannot do it at all.
- 2: I can do it but with great difficulty.
- 3: I can do it but with some difficulty.
- 4: I can do it fairly well but with occasional difficulty
- 5: I can do it comfortably.

No.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1	I can introduce myself to other people.					
2	I can answer general questions about my family.					
3	I can give someone directions to my house.					
4	I can tell a friend about a TV program I recently saw.					
5	I can leave a message on an answering machine. (e.g. name, phone number, time, date, reason for calling).					
6	I can describe objects in Arabic.					
7	I can converse with a native speaker on a general topic using Arabic.					

## Reading comprehension

Scale:

- 1- I cannot do it at all.
- 2- I can do it but with great difficulty.
- 3- I can do it but with some difficulty.
- 4- I can do it fairly well but with occasional difficulty
- 5- I can do it comfortably.

No.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1	I can read the names of simple objects.					
2	I can read simple sentences in the textbook.					
3	I can read a short children's story.					
4	I can read a letter from a pen-pal.					
5	I can read a newspaper.					
6	I can read magazines with minimal use of a dictionary.					
7	I can read an interesting book in Arabic.					

## Writing

Scale:

- 1- I cannot do it at all.
- 2- I can do it but with great difficulty.
- 3- I can do it but with some difficulty.
- 4- I can do it fairly well but with occasional difficulty.
- 5- I can do it comfortably.

No.	Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1	I can list the things in my school bag.					
2	I can write a note to a friend.					
3	I can write a description of objects in Arabic.					
4	I can write a letter to a pen-pal.					
5	I can write a review on my favorite movie/book					
6	I can write about my future plan and the reasons for them.					
7	I can write an essay expressing my thoughts on a particular topic.					

## APPENDIX G

### The University of Kansas Center for Research, Inc.

COORDINATING RESEARCH FOR THE UNIVERSITY OF KANSAS

Contract Negotiations and Research Compliance

March 3, 2003  
HSCL #13819

Ahmad AlAeraini  
1940 Heatherwood Drive, Apt. #201  
Lawrence, Kansas 66047

The Human Subjects Committee - Lawrence Campus has reviewed your research project application,

13819 AlAeraini/Gonzalez-Bueno (T & L) Motivational Factors and Language Proficiency of Arabic Learners in Selected American Universities

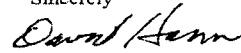
and approved this project under the expedited procedure provided in section III.E.3.(c) of KU's Assurance Policies, 45 CFR 46.110 (f) (7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Since your research presents no risk to participants and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context HSCL may waive the requirement for a signed consent form (45 CFR 46.117 (c) (2)). Your information statement meets HSCL requirements.

1. At designated intervals until the project is completed, a Project Status Report must be returned to the HSCL office.
2. Any significant change in the experimental procedure as described should be reviewed by this Committee prior to altering the project.
3. Notify HSCL about any new investigators not named in original application. Note that new investigators must take the online tutorial at [www.research.ukans.edu/tutor](http://www.research.ukans.edu/tutor).
4. Any injury to a subject because of the research procedure must be reported to the Committee immediately.
5. When signed consent documents are required, the primary investigator must retain the signed consent documents for at least three years past completion of the research activity. If you use a signed consent form, provide a copy of the consent form to subjects at the time of consent.
6. If this is a funded project, keep a copy of this approval letter with your proposal/grant file.

Please inform HSCL when this project is terminated. You must also provide HSCL with an annual status report to maintain HSCL approval. If your project receives funding which requests an annual update approval, you must request this from HSCL one month prior to the annual update. Thanks for your cooperation. If you have any questions please contact me.

Sincerely



David Hann  
HSCL Coordinator

Cc: Faculty supervisor: Manuela Gonzalez-Bueno

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