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TAIF UNIVERSITY



Journal of Taif University of Human Science

Peer-reviewed journal

Issue 30

Volume 7. Rajjab 1443, Febraury 2022

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Editorial Board Word

It is with great pleasure to see the publication of the twenty-ninth issue of the seventh volume of the Taif University Journal for the Humanities. The editorial board was keen on the diversity of its research topics with the multiplicity of distinguished researchers from various universities in the Kingdom. This is one of the fruits of the efforts of Taif University and the care and attention it attaches to scientific research. The submitted papers were subjected to scientific arbitration in accordance with the journal's policy and rules.

At the end of this word, I express my sincere thanks and appreciation to His Excellency the President of the University, Prof. Youssef bin Abdo Asiri, for his continued support of the Journal and its Editorial Board.

I would also like to thank my fellow members of the editorial board for their commendable efforts and active contributions to the service of the Journal. I also thank the administrative team for the good arrangement and directing.

Asking Allah – the Almighty - to crown the efforts with success.

*On behalf of the Editorial Board,
Editor-in-Chief,*

Dr. Nasr Saud Al- Qathami

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The Demography of Offences Against Children and their Offence-proofing in Egypt Using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)

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Abstract:

Demographic factors, such as gender, residential location, family income, father's job, mother's job, father's education and mother's education, ordinarily play an important part in people's lives, and in offences against children by their peers. This paper identifies these seven factors, as they are said to influence offences against children by other children. The sample size consists of 1720 students male and female. Exploratory Factor Analysis, Confirmatory Factor Analysis, and path diagrams are used to extract offences against children by their peers from those three factors. Structural Equation Modeling verifies this factor structure and evaluates the influence of predictors on offences towards children by other children. Regression modeling shows that gender, mother's education, father's education and family income are the statistical predictors of offences against children by their peers at a 10% level of significance and affect them through all three dimensions. Levels of parental education play are significant for offences against children by their peers. Girls are less liable to victimization than boys, and family income is a significant predictor of offences.

Keywords: Demography of Offences, child offence, bullying, parenting, education, gender, demographic factors.

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Introduction

Literature Review

Any offence caused to children infringes their right to enjoy their childhood free of violence and trauma. Child offences affect different children differently. Most children suffer, physically and emotionally in the long term, but the adult lives of some children are normal and happy (Young and Widom, 2014). Offences against children can be caused by adults (including family members) or by children. This paper concerns itself with those offences, typically bullying, caused to children by their peers, and seeks to establish which demographic factors are significant for the child: gender, place of residence, family income, father's job, mother's job, father's education, mother's education.

Children's psychology is mostly determined by the kind of environment and family support they receive in the early years of their lives. In this context, Hayden (2006) has established that a child's temperament is often a predictive factor for determining his or her vulnerable mental state in later years. Children who show positive emotions at the age of three exhibit better emotional conditions at the age of seven in interpersonal tasks. Children with positive emotions are inclined toward having positive moods and interacting more with the social environment. Children who lack these qualities or have a lesser degree of them at the age of three display greater confusion at the age of seven in interpersonal tasks. The lack of these qualities can also reflect depressive moods in children, thus suggesting that when the offended children become helpless in their approach towards life it leads to depression. Negative emotional risks like anxiety and depression in the context of bullying have been studied by Seals and Young (2003) and it was seen that children who are bullies or victims suffer from depression more than children who are neither bullies nor victims. This result is also supported by Gladstone, Parker, and Malhi (2006), whose study concludes that children who suffer from bullying

show signs of depression, anxiety, social phobia, and/or agoraphobia in their adult years. Because a child's psychological makeup is not set, a child can be helped to overcome any trauma inflicted upon him/her by the perpetrator with the appropriate care and therapeutic support. What children experience with family, caregivers, and the community is apparent in their emotional and intellectual development. Both positive and negative experiences are critical. Positive experiences result in the emotional stability required for the optimal development of the human brain (Khalifa, 2017).

Divulging offence

Constant exposure to any kind of offence by parents makes a child more reactive than adaptive, so the child reacts as if danger is always present even in a peaceful environment. A significant problem is that in most cases children who experience an offence are unable to express their feelings or are threatened by the perpetrator which makes them scared to complain to their parents (Sanderson, 2006). Such pent-up emotions can continue to torture the child during its adult years, which can lead to depression, anxiety, or low self-esteem. Foynes, Freyd, and De Prince (2006) report that various factors determine whether a child will complain or not. These include the relationship that the child shares with the perpetrator, the child's age, when the traumatic experience occurred, as well as the extent of the physical injuries caused by the perpetrator.

Psychological or physical problems are often reflected in the personalities of children and that arises mostly from experiences of sexual offence or other negative events (Sanderson, 2006). A child who is subjected to a prolonged period of sexual offence during his/her early years feels his/her needs getting suppressed and this destroys the child's efficacy. Psychological problems develop in children when offenders constantly reinforce fear in their minds by violating their physical space against the child's will (Mohammed and Samak

2017). The degree of the child's problem is directly related to the child's inability to halt the perpetrator. It is not only power and coercion that make a child feel powerless; feeling trapped does too. Moreover, when a child tells, but is not believed, low self-esteem can result.

The influence of a positive family environment has also been explored by Cleaver and Unell (2011) as it has been observed that children who have grown up in a stable domestic environment exhibit personal efficacy and mental strength. Psychological problems mostly manifest in children who have suffered from child sexual offence for a prolonged period.

Gender

The consensus is that female children experience more child offence, however the results of research show that is not the case. Crozier (1995) finds that shyness is another factor that causes a lack of self-confidence in children, more often in girls than boys, and more commonly among secondary school-aged adolescents than primary school-aged children. Jones (1982) argue that shyness prevents a child from making positive connections with people, even parents, thus preventing the child from behaving appropriately in social situations. Other problems like lack of communication skills, self-consciousness, and feelings of isolation are also evident. These, in turn, hinder children from disclosing their problems to their caregivers at home. Often, they may be too shy to speak about being bullied or offended against by classmates in school, because of a lack of self-confidence.

As far as gender is concerned, Shields and Cichetti (2001) also prove that parentally abused children, both males and females, are equally likely to becoming bullies or victims of bullying. There is a more comprehensive social setting for the complex issue of child offence. The effect of socioeconomic stress on mothers was examined by Garborino in 1976, given that the respon-

sibility of bringing up children lies with parents. In areas outside towns and cities, most mothers have usually had less education and experience single parenthood. Proportionally, maltreatment of children is high in those areas. With limited resources, mothers find it challenging to rear their children, and cannot guide their children when the latter face any abuse from their peers at schools, so their mothers suffer more significant frustration. Burgess and Conger (1978) found that less supportive relationships exist between abusive mothers and children. Bousha and Twentyman (1984) found that those mothers are more aggressive toward their children, both verbally and non-verbally interactions. Schindler and Arkowitz (1986) found that mothers who do not maltreat their children are more actively involved with them than their abusive counterparts. Such situations lead children to experience feelings of anger. It can be argued that adequate social support systems in the form of economic, educational, and child-care support could reduce the probability of child offence against children who are in the care of low-income single mothers. When children lack social support, they fail to develop their strengths.

Families with and without child offence

The relationship between a child's parents also risks the child experiencing offence at school. If there is violence between parents, it is more likely that the aggressive parent will perpetrate violence on their child (Ross, 1996). Male parents show more inclination toward child offence with increasing marital violence than female parents. When parents have experienced any offence from peers during their childhood, they are more likely to take the children's experience of offence seriously compared to parents without that background (Coohey and Braun, 1997). Shields and Cichetti (2001) examined the effect on children of problems within the family or between the parents and, in turn, examined the children's attitude toward their peers. They established that children who are maltreated by parents and are psychologically adversely affected by family factors are more prone to bully other children or become victims of bullying, than non-maltreated children.

Parental marital relationship and marital status

The impact of parental behavior on children has been further studied by Lereya, Samara, and Wolke (2013), who reach similar conclusions that children who have experienced maltreatment by parents are prone to become bullies or victims. However, the degree of impact can range from being small to moderate. Perren, Gutzwiller-Helfenfinger, Malti, and Hymel (2012) have proved that suffering at the hands of parents results in a lack of moral judgment in children. Bullying is a common manifestation of their irritation and frustration. Children who are inclined to bully other children show a distorted moral reasoning as they are more interested in personal satisfaction than in ethical issues. A positive relationship has been established between the level of bullying and amoral emotions, like being proud or happy. Still, there is no negative relationship between bullying and moral emotions like shame. The authors conclude that because of their being offended against by their parents these children lack empathy and so deviate from moral judgments. Single parenting also gives rise to more involvement in bullying activities of being offended against or offending. The effects of interventions also differ for the children's family background – whether they come from single or extended families. Research by Abdulsalam, Daihani, and Francis, (2017) has shown that in Kuwaiti families, children of parents who are divorced or widowed have an increased likelihood of suffering from offences by peers. Marital relationships play a more significant and more in-depth role in determining victimization of offences from peers, than simple marital status.

Low self-esteem

Trzesniewski, Donnellan, Moffitt, Robins, Poulton and Caspi (2006) have studied the impact of low self-esteem in adolescents. They have concluded that children who show signs of low-esteem can suffer from mental and physical health problems during their adult life. It has also been found that children with low self-esteem have more probability of committing crimes during

adulthood than children with high-esteem. Crime as in bullying was studied by Rigby and Cox (1996) and it was observed that in general although girls are less inclined toward bullying than boys, low self-esteem contributes to bullying for girls rather than boys. However, regression analysis reveals that low self-esteem is contributes equally to delinquent acts like bullying for both boys and girls. In another study conducted by Slee and Rigby (1993) it was established that victims (not bullies) are associated with low esteem. Variables like the gender and socioeconomic status of children and their differentiated impacts on feelings of powerlessness in children were not established by that study. Young has found that victims of bullying display even lower self-esteem when being bullied and also that youngsters with low self-esteem are more likely to experience bullying (2013).

Place of residence

McCaskill (2013) has shown that around 50% children from schools in either urban or rural areas are bullied once or more during the time at the school. A difference in prevalence depends on the implementation of the Bully Prevention programs in schools, and also the prevalence of bullying varies as per gender. Buchanan and Winzer (2013) indicate only few differences between urban and rural areas in terms of bullying.

Mother's and father's job and family income

Parental unemployment often results in low self-esteem and anxiety in the children who end up being affected by bullying in schools. Similarly, Powdthaveea and Vernoit have found that family income should be used as a predictor for offences caused by peers (2013). Low-income families or families whose parents have menial jobs have more children being bullied than others. Therefore, family income and parental jobs are significantly related to bullying by peers.

Parental education levels

A study by Healy, Sanders and Iyer (2015) has shown that there a strong association between parenting behaviors and children being targeted for offences at school. While most victims of offences are passive victims, some are provocative victims, who are more likely to react and get picked on easily. But educated parents can help such a child to control his/her impulses. Since peer victimization might lead to loneliness, anxiety, and depression, parental intervention is very much essential in such cases. Proper parenting usually comes with higher education of parents (Hetherington and Arasteh, 2014). Parental education is directly and positively associated with parental beliefs and behaviors towards their children and helps their children in their achievements. Parental education is associated with warm, social home environments. Studies have revealed that mother's education, as well as family income has a positive impact on the learning experiences at home, while mother's education alone predicts parental warmth (Davis-Kean, 2005). These conditions are essential for a victim of offences to be able to share his or her feelings and experiences with his or her parents at home or seek help from them.

Research Aims

The current researchers are very interested in exploring the problem of child offence currently caused by peers for Egyptian children from rural and urban areas. They are also interested to explore child offence in relation to some demographic factors. As a result, a survey was conducted in the Egyptian Governorate of Assiut, which is situated along the Nile River about half-way down Egypt from Cairo.

Questionnaire

A 23-item survey questionnaire was given to a sample of 1751 children (not just a subset of abused children), male and female, between 10 and 16 years old. The children were randomly selected from different Egyptian schools and communities. Parent or caregiver permission had to be given before the children were taken aside for interview. Most of the questionnaire interviews were done face to face, using both open- and close-ended questions. Most questionnaire items used the 1 to 5 Likert scale. This was done during the period May 2014 to December 2015.

The questionnaire covered seven socio-demographic predictors relating to offences against children by their peers: child's gender, place of residence, father's job, mother's job, father's educational level, mother's educational level and family monthly income. (NOTE: These are referred to as: *gender*, *residence*, *father_job*, *mother_job*, *father_edu_level*, *mother_edu_level*, *family_income* in both figures and both tables.)

Three issues of a behavioral nature in the questionnaire relating to peer abuse of children were:

- 1) Children hurt me by making jokes and tickling me
- 2) Children say things about me behind my back
- 3) Children call me names because I haven't managed to complete a

task.

(NOTE: In the tables below, these are referred to as: *tickles_jokes*, *behind_back* and *call_names*.)

Hypothesis

The first part of this research is designed to discover which (if any) of these three behavioral dimensions are actually dependent variables that construct Offence, (i.e. the abuse of children by their peers).

The research wants to reveal which socio-demographic factors affect the incidence of Offence: child's gender, place of residence, father's job, mother's job, father's educational level, mother's educational level and family's monthly income.

Methodology

The research employed a positivist approach using the questionnaire based on the sample. It used Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) as well as path diagrams to extract Offences from the three factors. It used Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) by AMOS version 19 to verify the factor structure and evaluate the predictors influence Offence.

It used SPSS software for the statistical analysis, and CFA with path diagram models to estimate the goodness-of-fit tests for the SEM.

Instrument: Reliability, Validity and Factor Extraction

The questionnaire's reliability was measured by using the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Bartlett's test. Offence caused to children was checked as a construct of the observed behavioral dimensions: *Children hurt me by making jokes and tickling me, Children say things that hurt me, Children call me names because I haven't managed to complete a task.* It was assumed that Offence loaded on all three variables, so, at first, their suitability was explored in EFA in SPSS. The suitability of the factor analysis was tested via KMO, Bartlett's test. The closer this result is to 1, the more satisfactory it is. The result of 0.585 displays moderate suitability. The sphericity assumption holds since Bartlett's test was significant at 5%. As a result, the factor analysis could be extended. One extracted factor was related to the variables for the dimension Offence of children by peers, since it met the criterion with an Eigenvalue exceeding 1. This extracted factor explains 49.81% of the shared variance of the variables.

After that successful exploratory analysis, further confirmatory factor analysis was completed. However, the following covariates relating to the child's environment were added to the model since it was assumed that they will affect the latent variable of Offence: *gender, place of residence, father's job, mother's job, father's education level, mother's education level and monthly family income.*

Predictive factors

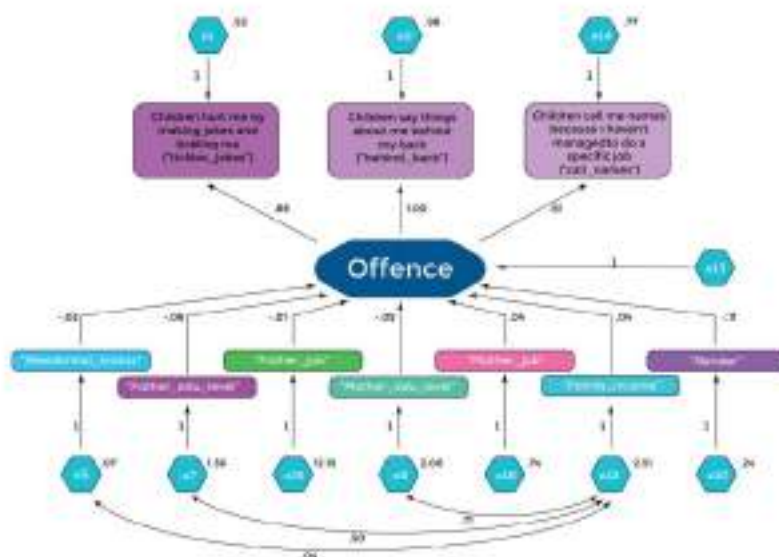
The starting point was to test for a predictor or an independent variable, that can statistically and significantly influence the dependent variable. Two steps are required for this. Initially, we extracted the dependent variable and evaluated it according to its three determinant variables using EFA. Next, we applied SEM analysis for the dependent variable to show how it related to the various independent demographic variables.

Findings

Exploratory Factor Analysis results show that Offence can be seen to be an unobserved variable which is found to influence all three observed behavioral variables related to child bullying. The effects of some of the demographic variables related to child bullying. The effects of some of the demographic variables on the Latent Variable, Offence, were inspected as well. Two SEM models were constructed. The first model used all demographic factors affecting the dimension along with their assumed covariances.

The Path Diagram in Figure 1 represents the relationships between all the variables and their estimated coefficients, variances and covariances.

Figure 1: Path diagram for the three dimensions of offence and their relation to the demographic variables



According to the estimated coefficients in Table 1, the following conclusions can be drawn. At the 10% significance level the following demographic variables significantly affect Offence (***) indicates a high level of significance).

- Father's educational level (p-value = 0.003) significantly and inversely affects Offence for children. As fathers become more educated, their children are exposed to the less Offence (estimated coefficient = -0.060).
- Mother's educational level (p-value = 0.005) has significant influence on Offence because its p-value is less than 0.1. As mothers become more educated, their children are exposed to less Offence (estimated coefficient = -0.048).
- Gender (p-value = 0.013) has significant influence on Offence. Females are exposed to Offence less than males (estimated coefficient = -0.114).
- Family income (p-value = 0.015) has significant influence on Offence. Children from families with higher income are more exposed to Offence (estimated coefficient = 0.038).
- Residential location and parents' jobs have no significant influence on Offence.

Offence as a Dimension has the following effect.

- More Offences lead to more *tickles and jokes* (p-value < 0.001 with estimated coefficient = 0.883).
- More Offences lead to more *name calling* (p-value < 0.001 with estimated coefficient = 1.666).
- Children saying things behind the child's back (*behind back*) is significant with an estimated coefficient of 1.

Table 1: Regression table

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Offence	←	Residence	-0.016	0.082	-0.193	0.847	
Offence	←	Father_edu_level	-0.060	0.021	-2.920	0.003	
Offence	←	Mother_edu_level	-0.048	0.017	-2.794	0.005	
Offence	←	Family_income	0.038	0.016	2.442	0.015	
Offence	←	Gender	-0.114	0.046	-2.483	0.013	
Offence	←	Father_job	-0.008	0.006	-1.258	0.209	
Offence	←	Mother_job	0.039	0.025	1.522	0.128	
tickles_jokes	←	Offence	0.883	0.135	6.519	***	
behind_back	←	Offence	1.000				
call_names	←	Offence	1.666	0.290	5.754	***	

Table 2 for the Model-Fit-Values displays information about the proposed model’s goodness-of-fit. For that the proposed model (“Default model”) is compared with the Independent and Saturated models. The Saturated model contains as many parameter estimates as the degrees of freedom. It is the least parsimonious model, as some of its goodness-of-fit measures are 1 and the remainder are 0. In an Independent (“Null”) model all relationships are assumed to equal 0; no correlations exist for this model. As the Default model is of interest, its goodness-of-fit indices are discussed below.

Table 2, the Baseline Comparisons Table includes indices, the most important of which is the NFI (Normed Fit Index), as it provides information about how the proposed model sits between worst fit of the Independent model and the perfect fit of the Saturated model. Thought the proposed model is 32.5% away from the worst fit, it is nearly 70% away from the perfect fit. IFI, TLI and CFI are modifications of the NFI. It appears that the model could well be improved.

The proposed model is 71.1% as complex as the Independent model. RMSEA, a major estimate for the goodness-of-fit of a model. Values above 0.1 in-

***The Demography of Offences Against Children and their
Offence-proofing in Egypt Using Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)***

dicating an unacceptable model, which is the case with the Default model, where RMSEA = 0.182. However, based on a high GFI and significant PCLOSE ($p < 0.01$ indicates a model's significance at 1% level of significance), one can say that the model is reliable. This means the model is fit and reliable overall and can be used to establish the research findings.

Table 2: Baseline comparisons - Model-fit-values as revealed by the SEM

Model	CMIN	DF	CMIN/DF	IFI	GFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
Default	960.354	32	30.011	0.332	0.827	0.052	0.326	0.182	0.000
Saturated	0.000	0		1.000	1.000		1.000		
Independent	1421.749	45	31.594	0.000	0.731	0.000	0.000	0.187	0.000

Discussion

The findings demonstrate that mother's education, father's education, family income and gender have statistically significant impacts on Offences to children by their peers.



Figure 2. The refined best model describing the relations between the variables and the dimension offence.

Parental education levels

If a parent is more educated, their child is less likely to face offences from other children. That could be because of the values that an educated parent can inculcate within the child, which, in turn, can keep him/her from being vulnerable to offences from other children. Perhaps the child is more well connected with his/her parents who in turn are in good position to explain how to deal with the offences. Pediatricians are often involved in counselling parents about how to deal with their children who are being offended against (Lissauer and Carroll, 2017). Since offences being committed by other children include name calling, joking or making fun of the victim's deficiencies and so on, these more well-educated parents might ask for school support when things get out of hand. The most important aspect of dealing with children vulnerable to such offences lies in timely action and interrupting the operation of victimization by identifying it and intervening at an early stage of the bullying. Such interventions require parental support but parents will be able to identify the symptoms of offence in their children only with proper education. For instance, when a child appears withdrawn from his/her peers, it could be because of factors like name calling, teasing or deliberate exclusion, and when the parent is well educated he or she is more likely to identify the withdrawal and relate it with an offence to the child. Proper counseling and education or making children aware are effective as preventive measures, and parents can handle such issues better only when they themselves have a satisfactory education (Gini and Pozzoli, 2013).

Gender

Research regarding gender differences in victimization of children offended against by their peers provides varied outcomes. Some research shows that boys are more liable than girls to be bullied with name calling, teasing etc. The nature of victimization depends on the child's gender. Boys are subject to aggressive, or physical, bullying, whereas girls are subject to relational vic-

timization. Verbal and relational victimization is mostly highlighted in this present research, but past research by Bradshaw, Waasdorp and O'Brennan, 2013 shows either no difference according to gender, or that girls are more likely as victims. So, this present research adds novelty by suggesting that girls are less likely to be bullied than boys considering the dimensions of offence mentioned. Such inconsistencies in the results from different studies mainly occur due to the differences in categorization by researchers.

Family income

Income level is more important than the nature of the parents' jobs as far as parenting and providing healthy ambience for children goes. Research also shows that the risk of being victimized increases with poorer income and job performance (Wolke and Lereya, 2015). Coming from a low-income family might of itself give a child an inferiority complex, which thus makes him/her susceptible to bullying and being affected easily. Research also shows that poor children resort to more bullying of others. Perhaps this is in an attempt to gain power, or in a fit of aggression resulting from the inferiority complex generated by low socio-economic status (Myers, 2017). Children with low socio-economic status or from low-income families are often neglected by their caregivers because the latter are subject to various worries. In the process, these children lose trust in their caregivers and are unlikely to share their problems. Such children are likely to have difficulties with peers and become victims of violence (Peterson, Joseph and Feit, 2014). Thus, the findings of this current research are consistent with earlier findings, that family income plays significant role in determining victimization of children. Victims of relational bullying, which involves name calling, teasing etc., are more prone to be from low-income families, but that is not so significant for cyber bullying (Tippett and Wolke, 2014).

Parental work and residential location

Parental work is not significantly associated with offences against children

by their peers, probably because in many cases mothers might choose not to work, but their education still plays a great role in providing a healthy ambience for the children. Similarly, a father might choose to stay in a low-profile job if there is a greater need to provide quality time at home.

Residential location has no significance in our research. This mirrors previous research by McCaskill (2013), which considered that urban and rural status are not predictors of offences against children.

Strengths and limitations and future scope of research

This paper shows the common, traditional Egyptian experience of offences against children by children, the factors responsible for that, and the representation of offence through various dimensions. It is appropriate to generalize Assiut's results to other countries after standardizing the scale used over other country cultures, even if their demographics are different because the research shows demographic predictors of offences against children which could exist in other countries as well. Future research could be initiated along similar lines in other countries, especially western ones. Comparative analysis could be completed between western and non-western countries as well. Research on various approaches and their beneficial impact in dealing with the consequences of offences against children by children can be further explored.

Conclusion

The findings of this present research suggest that education levels of parents, gender of the victim and family income are the key demographic predictors of offences caused to children by other children. It shows that if either parent is educated, then children are more likely to have confidence in them and share their experiences or problems. This is important for preventing bullying or name calling and teasing by peers. Getting an idea of the problem at an early stage helps the parents take adequate measures or approach the school or teachers for protection of their child against such offences which might otherwise have a serious impact on the child's psyche. Relational bullying by peers often leads to isolation of the victim who might even shy away from their school or the source of such offences. If parents have sufficient education, they can guide their children on how to avoid instances of offence or approach the right authority for protection.

The findings of this present research suggest that gender is a significant predictor too: females are less victimized. This could be because female peers are more sensitive towards their friends and associates. Girls do not gain as much fun or excitement from humiliating their peers, however this is contrary to earlier research showing that gender is not a significant predictor.

The findings of this present research suggest the importance of family income because it also determines the vulnerability of the child's mind towards such bullying activities or offences. If the child already witnesses pressure from a lack of finances or status at home and finds him or herself at a lower status than others because of the family income, he or she is more likely to endure the offences silently rather than share the problem at home. Such households often comprise parents who might not have time for analyzing their children's behavior closely and are therefore unable to find out what they face at school or in the playground with their peers.

Overall, families and teachers need to be actively involved in rearing and

nurturing the child's mind and preventing him or her from being victimized.

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Appendices

Figure 3. Distributions of the sampled areas locations





**Good News for Students with Disabilities:
Integrative Counseling Programs Can Develop Positive
Social Behavior Skills**

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Abstract:

The study's aimed to investigate the effectiveness of integrative the counseling program for the development of positive social behavior.

The study sample consisted of ten female of university students with disabilities,. They were between the ages of 19 and 29. Each of them gave consent verbally about their participation in the integrative counseling program. Once they had done the El-Keshky Positive Social Behavior Scale Test, the sample followed a selective counselling program for 6 weeks with 12 sessions (two sessions per week) of 60-90 minutes each. After that, they re-sat the Positive Social Behavior Scale, and re-sat yet again two months later. The research data was analyzed by Wilcoxon's Signed-Rank Test.

Results showed improvements in the student cohort's positive social behavior were heartening. A follow-up test showed substantial progress in their positive social behavior, thus showing the intervention's achievement and the students real benefits in their social lives.

Keywords : Integrative counselling, social behavior, disabilities ,university students.

1. Introduction

The aggregate of children and young people experiencing special needs (SN) and/or other conditions that limit their lives has been shown in a recent National Organization on Disability (2014) report to have multiplied to 73,000 from 49,300 over the ten years following 2004. Physical, sensory or intellectual disability is experienced by just about 20% of all United States citizens, which is more than 54 million people of all ages.

Al-Jadid (2013) discovered that the decades-long low incidence of Saudi people with disabilities was actually the consequence of many such people not being integrated into daily life by their families. About Saudi 135,000 people were revealed by a 2000 survey to be suffering from a disability, of which 33.7% were physically disabled.

Saudi Arabia had virtually no special education five decades ago, as no special education services were provided by the Ministry of Education until the 1960s (2002). As a result, relatives and families wholly cared for these family-members without assistance or recourse to any formal special education.

Despite the fact that school numbers multiplied in providing specialist services for different groups of students, SN students outstripped what was provided (Ministry of Education, 2002). As Pinney (2017) pointed out, clearly the requirements of children and adults whose needs were complex and perhaps even threatened their lives were unmatched by the services provided.

To acquire better behavioral control in general as well as impulse control continuous interventions are required by some with SN. As Janet Giler pointed out in 2011, medication may be required by others as well so that they have a chance of controlling their aggression, impulsivity or both. Giler also maintained that major successful therapies applicable in these circumstances include: cognitive therapy techniques, behavior modification programs and

integrative counseling designed to deal with emotions with its resultant behavior, by using charting, reprimands, time out, as well as clear “if-then” consequences.

Because of cultural or environmental circumstances, it is beyond the scope of everyone to make the choices they would like. That is why providing assistance to those people is mandatory (Koch, 2007).

Problem of the study

SN students can use all the help they can get. Hendrick and MacMillan (1987) found that a deficit in basic social skills can result in social withdrawal, alienation and low self-esteem. Those students benefit enormously from being taught about appropriate ways of behaving, ordinary courteous behavior, and behaving like a friend, as those skills provide them with the possibility of developing a healthy social network, making friends, and experiencing the pleasures of a richer life. These researchers maintain too that the chance at developing these life-skills is a great motivator for the focus required to learn how to be able to live a more socially positive life.

We are surrounded by many categories of people with SN, however only limited services are provided and only minimal research has been carried out aiming at bettering the quality of their lives. Our proposed counseling program has the goal of helping those with SN by using an empathic and supportive environment to assist them in enhancing healthy coping skills. That way, as Koch says, they will have more chances of handling the stresses of life more effectively. A key factor in this is that those with SN often have a difficulty in correctly naming their own feelings, and those of others – and consequently respond inappropriately.

1.1. Social Behavior Issues in Students with SN

Hendrick and MacMillan found that the long-held assumption that people with SN will learn simply by observing and copying their peers was incorrect. The researchers found instead that precise instruction about the implementation of social skills is required, as is feedback on how well those skills were performed. This crucial part has been omitted from social skills programs. Additionally, the researchers also found that SN students also require instruction on reading and responding to nonverbal communication, so they don't just ignore it because of its ambiguity.

Brinckerhoff (1994), and Scanlon and Mellard (2002) discovered too that SN people may be not aware of their strengths and weaknesses, while Durlack, Rose and Bursuck (1994), Field (1996), and Janiga and Costenbader (2002) also found that they were not aware of their capacity for self-determination or advocacy.

The manifold reasons for gaps in the research on positive social behavior were discussed by Eisenberg and Mussen (1989). The importance of prosocial behavior with its beneficial effects on our humanity has only recently been acknowledged. This led to the design of new studies for comprehending the progression of prosocial behavior development and what social institutions, (i.e., families, religious organizations and the education system) can do to cultivate these behaviors in young children. These researchers also think that another limiting factor concerned the lack of a commonly recognized method of assessing prosocial behavior.

As no commonly accepted measure of prosocial behavior existed, assessment tools were usually developed by researchers to suit their requirements. Aber and Jones (1997) attributed the lagging development of standardized scales to the increasing distance separating theory and method in this arena, as well

as an absence of agreement about the precise nature of positive development. Since Freud, mental health practitioners have heavily debated theories about personality change, and in the process, in Corey's view (2008, p. 448), remained true to their preferred schools of theory. Kabir (2017) drew attention to the fact that although each psychotherapeutic theory has its own value, its application to an individual client might not bring about as effective personality change, as the combination of elements from different approaches appears to be effective.

1.2. Integrative Counseling Program

These interventions comprise a combination of a counseling intervention with understandings based on a number of theoretical psychotherapeutic approaches (Stricker & Gold, 2001). Rather than focusing merely on a combination of counseling theories, it focusses on the integration of theories which will appeal to practitioners as being useful when they work with people.

It is been reiterated (Rivera & Pellitteri, 2007) that the needs of students afflicted by special needs need to be taken into account from the very start at school, because their bigger problems disadvantage them in the social, personal, academic, and most notably, professional spheres.

Practitioners, Corey claimed now aim to integrate the most suitable ideas from different theories, not just search for the best theory. The effectiveness of integrative counseling / therapy in relation to widely different personality types in to comparison with other therapies derives from the fact that it customizes the elements and approaches of psychotherapy available to the circumstances of individual clients. As Kabir and Rashid (2017) maintain, each individual needs to be seen as a whole entity with his/her own needs and circumstances and therefore in need of the personalization of techniques.

Norcross (2005) notes that psychotherapy is now progressing toward an integration of therapies, which are apparently of enormous assistance in promoting a flourishing relationship between body and mind. Norcross goes on to describe how clients are able to surpass their previous limits and experience greater satisfaction day to day, when they begin to aim for objectives or use the newly-introduced enabling behaviors.

Given all this, the formation of counselling programs for female tertiary students with SN by amalgamating various processes and theories appeared compelling. It would find logical allies in existential, cognitive-behavior, and feminist therapies. The use of these theories and associated methods, according to the Center for Substance Abuse Treatment (2004) would enable the researcher to work with a range of clients / diverse issues from a solid foundation, particularly with the aim in mind of promoting positive social behavior skills.

Given their major advantages of flexibility and the capacity to focus on a person's entirety, the full breadth of humanity's actuality (feeling, thinking, behaving) can be addressed by integrative counseling programs, i.e. a range of needs and concerns can be tackled using personalized psychotherapeutic approaches (Kabir, 2017).

Because psychotherapy finds single-school approaches inadequate, Norcross (2005, pp. 3–4) emphasizes its continued focus on exploration beyond school boundaries for new psychotherapeutic methods – in order to enhance its efficiency, efficacy, and applicability.

1.3. Importance of the Study

The growth in numbers of people with SN has not been matched by a growth in the amount of research being conducted about assisting them in coping with their disability or in improving their social behavior – despite that fact that these are fundamentally required by society for bettering the quality of

the lives of those people. Abahusain (2016) puts this succinctly by saying that what is required is further research about SN behavior, for maximizing the potential of their personalities and how to best customize an improved education to their requirements.

Healthcare services for disabled citizens, not education and training, have received most regard – their employment has been neglected. The March 2002 JICA report clearly states that intermarriage between close family members overshadows other socio-environmental factors as a reason for SN in Saudi Arabia.

The overwhelming goal of the proposed counseling practice is to meet the need of individuals with SN by assisting them in the cultivation of social behavior skills and the realization of their own worth. Assisting them in the acquisition of skills for both clear thinking and coping with adversity in a healthy way is vital. Those skills will enable them to assert their own power so they can make beneficial choices. This will of course be advantageous to both themselves and the society they live in.

Previous Studies:

An instructional curriculum employing cognitive behavior modification and/or metacognition was studied. It sought to facilitate eye contact and appropriate verbal responses in three students with learning disabilities who were not accepted by their peers (Berler, Gross & Drabman, 1982). Three levels of interventions were conducted involving single-subjects, small groups of 2 to 10, and sizable groups (with a maximum of 35). This program seemed to be successful in improving the desired behaviors in class settings, but there seemed to be little application of this in real-life circumstances, despite the fact that that comprised part of the study's design. The peer socio-metric measures did not appear to improve.

Research by Amerikaner and Summerlin (1982) indicated that a supportive social interaction carried out for A social skills group for a series of 12 sessions resulted in the participants having a greater number of positive self-concepts. The study involved 46 pupils from the first two school grades with learning disabilities.

Blackbourn (1989) as well as Vaughn, McIntosh, and Spencer-Rowe (1991) conducted studies involving elements involving cognitive behavior modification or metacognition, such as coaching, modeling, roleplaying. These used organized environments and provided feedback. Methods based on memory cues were also employed so that specific problem-solving skills or social skills could be structured and practiced. Both research groups recorded positive results.

Blackbourn (1989) chose four elementary school students with Learning Disability who had been referred because they were seen to require skills training so they could be successfully involved in peer interaction. A program for customized for each child by the researcher to increase peer acceptance by either magnifying or minimizing behaviors appropriately. Frequency counts were tallied previous to, in the midst of, and following training. In another four months, follow-up measures revealed success. A 12 week intervention was used, and followed up later in another 9 weeks. Subjects achieved proficiency in the sought-after behavior during each of the trained environments and also across observations – and even in non-trained for environments.

A systematic training approach was used for teaching sequential skills by Vaughn et al. (1991). They employed a mnemonic strategy to teach problem-solving skills relating to interpersonal relations to 10 resource students with Learning Disability. The group comprised seven males and three females from grades three to six. Their peer acceptance ratings were either low, or they were completely rejected and they were paired with ten non-verbal learning

disability classmates whose peer acceptance ratings were high. The intervention comprised two 30 minute sessions per week for 20 plus weeks, which was applied to groups of two to four students within a contextualized model. Pre, post, and a later follow-up assessments were carried out involving peer ratings, teacher behavior checklists, self-reporting, nominations, and student interviews. Continuing positive changes were achieved by the students.

Because it is possible to promote social competency with the use of suitable programs as well as sophisticated exchanges involving socially skilled classmates was proven by Lauren and Mary (2014), who emphasized the importance of focusing those interventions on the development of self-concept, impulse control and healthy growth for those with poor social skills.

However the research of Bullis, Walker and Sprague, (2001), and Sawyer et al. (1997) emphasizes that these sorts of social skills training methods in isolation are insufficient for extensive and permanent advances in individuals having attention deficit disorder or for addressing conduct disorders in individuals with conduct problems. On the other hand, though, interventions designed for parenting competency education, managing contingencies, and techniques for behavioral self-regulation methods, as well as other traditional interventions for social competence were acclaimed as representing psychological best-practice (Gumpel & David, 2000; Hemphill & Littlefield, 2001; and Nolan & Carr, 2000).

Even though Bandura (1977) pointed out that observation, modelling and imitation result in cognitive and behavioral learning, and even though Bandura's theory posits four main steps in this process (attention, retention, reproduction, motivation), it is now recognized that disabled pupils do not like being involved in peer-based social interactions as much as children who develop typically – even if they are all in the one inclusive classroom (Brown, Odom & Zercher, 1999).

Bellini, Peters, Benner and Hopf. (2007); Lösel and Beelmann (2003); McKenna, Flower and Adamson (2016) all found that for individuals suffering from special needs in addition to those having a paucity of social skill, Social Skills Training (SST) has been advantageous. However, the existing literature refers to a few methodological limitations which should be dealt with. A number of studies did not directly observe pupil behavior post SST, using only behavior rating scales to gauge the outcomes (Goforth, Rennie, Hammond, & Schoffer Closson, 2016; McKenna et al., 2016). As the collection of in-depth data on every single subject can be challenging, it is important to incorporate direct observance of the pupil's behavior as well.

According to some, most studies in this area do not contain sufficient data about maintenance and follow-up, in addition to what direct observation data is provided (Bellini et al., 2007; Gresham, Sugai, & Horner, 2001; Lösel & Beelmann, 2003; McKenna et al., 2016). The current SST literature has also been found to contain insufficient treatment fidelity data (Bellini et al., 2007; Gresham et al., 2001; Lösel & Beelmann, 2003; McKenna et al., 2016), with the result that it is difficult to ascertain if the SST itself is actually the major cause of the observed behavioral changes. In order to analyze the effectiveness of SST in a school setting, it is imperative that future research include direct observation and data relating to maintenance and treatment fidelity.

Given the increasing tallies youngsters suffering from disabilities, and young adults suffering from special needs and life-threatening diseases, requiring will require life-long assistance educationally, socially and for health issues throughout their lives, this current study is in a position to assist in the development of those people's social skills so they can have more satisfying and more sociable lives.

3. Study Procedures

1.1. Sample

Our group comprised ten students with disabilities with , women aged from 19 to 29 averaging 24.87. The standard deviation was 4.12. There were 12 sessions in the Integrative Counselling Program in which their social behavior was watched and checked during our classes and checked again 2 months afterwards.

The group used the El Keshky Scale of Positive Social behavior to set the initial benchmarks, so their social behavior and reaction to particular features could be measured. Then they undertook the Integrative Counselling Program involving a mix of therapy methods designed for people with SN to focus on social behavior and develop the relevant expertise. Afterwards, the students undertook the same tests again (Post-test assessment) to find out if there had been any improvement.

Finally, two months later, the subjects undertook the same tests for a third time (Follow-up assessment) to see if the Program's benefits had continued or not, and to see how constant the improvement was.

3.2 Tools of the study:

The pre-, post- and follow-up testing employed: the especially developed Integrative Counselling Program and El Keshky' Positive Social Behavior Scale.

1.1.1. Integrative Counseling Program

Our Integrative Counselling Program, developed by the author, comprises 12 sessions of 50 to 90 minutes each which were delivered twice weekly. The whole intervention was completed within March and April 2018, which allowed for roughly 6 weeks between the initial and final assessments.

As the program was designed for students with SN, the goal was to enhance

their ability to cope with skills' training, improve their capacity to cope with a range of stressful situations in social contexts and help them better comprehend the behavior of others.

1.1.2. Positive Social Behavior Scale

Developed by El Keshky, this instrument (currently in Press) was designed for examining and evaluating positive social behaviors amongst students suffering from special needs. It contains four sections of equal size relating to four intra- and inter-personal elements: Altruism (such as action derived from care about the well-being of another); Sympathy (such as feeling care and concern for another); Cooperation (such as attempting to cooperatively assist another in completing some task); and Forgiveness (such as attempting to forgive someone who has given them offence).



Data Collection and Statistical Analysis

The data were derived from the use of the author's application of the Positive Social Behavior Scale before, immediately after, and after a further two months following the Integrated Counseling Program.

The data was analyzed with Wilcoxon's Signed-Rank Test: firstly to compare pre- and post-test results; secondly to compare post- and follow-up test results. Altruism, Sympathy, Cooperate and Forgiveness were each analyzed and produced significant results.

4. Results

The study's results indicated that students with SN are able to effectively cultivate their positive social skills if they are given the appropriate therapy – such as this one. The results showed that with this Integrative Counselling Program, social skills can be utterly changed and improved, thereby easing the lives of students such as these and preparing them for an improved social life,

improved education and improved career choices.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Pre-, Post- and Follow-up tests

Subscale	Pre-test test		Post-test test		Follow-up test	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Altruism	26.40	8.84	35.40	8.23	35.40	8.18
Sympathy	30.30	4.13	38.70	6.48	37.40	6.34
Cooperate	29.70	6.18	36.90	5.04	32.80	6.64
Forgiveness	29.50	4.92	35.10	4.88	38.00	8.11
Total Degree of Positive Social Behavior	115.90	13.11	146.10	17.13	143.60	15.53

Table 1 shows the first series of tests and significant advances can be seen for the four subscales, particularly for Forgiveness which jumped from the pre-test (M = 29.50, SD = 4.92) to the follow-up test (M = 38.00, SD = 8.11). As indicated by Kabir and Rashid, 2017, such outcomes match those of the majority of the research into counseling therapy consequences for individuals suffering from special needs.

Table 2. Results of Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test for Pre- and Post-tests

Subscale		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Altruism	- Ranks	1	2.00	2.00	-2.431	0.015
	+ Ranks	8	5.38	43.00		
	Ties	1				
	Total	10				

Subscale		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Sympathy	- Ranks	0	0.00	0.00	-2.809	0.005
	+ Ranks	10	5.50	55.00		
	Ties	0				
	Total	10				
Cooperate	- Ranks	2	3.75	7.50	-2.040	0.041
	+ Ranks	8	5.94	47.50		
	Ties	0				
	Total	10				
Forgiveness	- Ranks	0	0.00	0.00	-2.666	0.008
	+ Ranks	9	5.00	45.00		
	Ties	1				
	Total	10				
Total Degree of Positive Social Behavior	- Ranks	0	0.00	0.00	-2.807	0.005
	+ Ranks	10	5.50	55.00		
	Ties	0				
	Total	10				

Table 2 shows that Wilcoxon’s Signed-Rank Test demonstrated improvements in the levels for altruism, sympathy, cooperation, forgiveness and the positive social behavior in general following the subjects conclusion of the Integrative Counselling Program. The Sympathy post-test result, for instance, exceeded its pre-test results, with 0 ties and 10 ranks, a mean rank of 5.50, and a rank sum of 55.00; and for Altruism, $Z = -2.431$, based on its negative ranks, and the 2-tailed asymptotic significance is 0.015.

Table 3 shows the same Wilcoxon’s Signed-Rank Test after the Positive Social

Behavior Scale was applied finally in a further two months' time to see what had then happened to the student's positive social behavior.

Table 3. Results of Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test for Post- and Follow-up tests

Subscale		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	z	p
Altruism	- Ranks	5	3.70	18.50	-0.072	0.943
	+ Ranks	3	5.83	17.50		
	Ties	2				
	Total	10				
Sympathy	- Ranks	6	5.17	31.00	-0.358	0.720
	+ Ranks	4	6.00	24.00		
	Ties	0				
	Total	10				
Cooperate	- Ranks	7	5.93	41.50	-1.428	0.153
	+ Ranks	3	4.50	13.50		
	Ties	0				
	Total	10				
Forgiveness	- Ranks	4	4.63	18.50	-0.919	0.358
	+ Ranks	6	6.08	36.50		
	Ties	0				
	Total	10				
Total Degree of Positive Social Behavior	- Ranks	6	5.82	35.00	-0.765	0.444
	+ Ranks	4	5.00	20.00		
	Ties	0				
	Total	10				

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This time Wilcoxon's Test, resulted in a Z result of -0.765, and the 2-tailed asymptotic significance closely approaching 0.4. This indicates a slight decrease in the overall positive social behavior rating two months beyond the conclusion of the Program, but this does not detract from its overall successful achievement.

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5. Explanation of the Results

Individuals with SN find it very difficult to understand the fundamental skills of social behavior or how to participate in complicated social relations with classmates and the other adults who are important to them. Galbo (1983) makes the point that such relationships model the use of effective social skills, but without appropriate prosocial behaviors they cannot participate in them. Counseling, however, can be of great assistance in their learning of those skills, so they can converse with peers or simply interact with others in class (Eccles, 1995, pp. 145-208).

Understanding of the student behaviors that otherwise result in deficient social skills can be promoted by integrative counseling from the start. Karcher and Lewis (2002) involve social reasoning, self-understanding, behavior regulation and the resolution of social issues for that. It also involves a significant social dimension of cognitive development (Feffer, 1960; Flavell, 1992, pp. 107-139; and Selman, 1980).

This study has shown that integrative counseling undoubtedly benefits the

positive social behavior of individuals suffering from special needs, in both short and long terms, even continuing after the program's conclusion. So, for instance, at its conclusion, the score results for the participants were big for positive social behavior competency and small for their negatives. These results were reinforced by the follow-up assessment.

It is clear from these results that integrative counseling can result in positive social behavior competency for individuals suffering from special needs, which is encouraging for other researchers who want to further investigate integrative counseling intervention effectiveness when they are working with special needs. Outcomes of the participants' self-reported beneficial results. There was an convincing improvement in the pre- and post-group results relating to altruism, sympathy, cooperation and forgiveness, apparent in Table 1's the mean subscale scores, and in Wilcoxon's Signed-Rank Test (Tables 2 & 3). These amount to resounding evidence that integrative counseling therapy is effective in developing altruism, sympathy, cooperate and forgiveness for adults with SN.

In finding an upward trend for the subject's emotional and behavioral results, the findings of earlier similar literature has been confirmed by this research. Moreover, the recorded observations were consistent with previous findings by Kabir (2017), observations which reveal that integrative counseling does indeed assist individuals suffering from special needs to become more self-aware, more able to express themselves and more capable of being able to put themselves into the shoes of another to appreciate their perspective.

5. Conclusion

Analysis of the impact of the integrated social behavioral counselling program on pupils suffering from special needs, and comparison of its test results from both prior to and following the intervention and the later follow-up test two

months afterwards, substantiates the development of superior levels of social behavior competency by its subjects by the program. There was a small decrease in some of these levels for a few subjects, but there was no decrease and indeed an increase for others two months later on. This is an important improvement, as it shows that individuals with special needs require more than only one counselling program, but a regularly ongoing one, so their positive social behaviors are thoroughly integrated at sufficient levels to enable them experience greater success socially and throughout their entire experiential range.

Recommendations

To summarize: this research provides initial evidence that pupils suffering from SN do actually profit from integrative counseling therapy by helping them to integrate into the greater society. With support via continuous counseling therapies, their confidence will grow, and their lives will become ever-more productive and independent.

6. Limitations

There have been some limitations in this study. It was confined only to a small sample of 10 students with special needs, all women, aged 19-29. Further research should be based on male subjects, other age groups, and subjects with other demographic differences such as a different social and educational status – though all of them need to be people with special needs.

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Obstacles to the Use of Electronic Games in Learning Kindergarten Children Games in kindergarten: Teachers' Perspective of Obstacles to Game-based Learning

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Abstract

The study aimed to detect obstacles in the use of Electronic Games in Kindergartens from the perspective of kindergartens teachers' level of teaching, qualifications and years of experience in implementing games in teaching and learning class. Kindergartens consisted of (350) female teachers at schools in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, were randomly selected to participate by responding to a questionnaire. Two hundred and twenty-six female teachers participated in this study. The highest score of the scale was twelfth item (4.33) of the mean (teachers lack interest in games) took the highest weighted average and came in first place, and item two (2.649) of the mean (it is difficult to manage a gaming class) took the lowest weighted average and came in 23rd place. The scores were generally high, with an overall average of 3.60. The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in the perspective of female teachers regarding to electronic games in kindergartens, which prevented the implementation of electronic games in kindergartens on the basis of three variables.

Key words: Electronic games; Obstacles.

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ABSTRACT

The study aimed to detect obstacles in the use of Electronic Games in Kindergartens from the perspective of kindergartens teachers' level of teaching, qualifications and years of experience in implementing games in teaching and learning class. Kindergartens consisted of (350) female teachers at schools in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, were randomly selected to participate by responding to a questionnaire. Two hundred and twenty-six female teachers participated in this study. The highest score of the scale was twelfth item (4.33) of the mean (teachers lack interest in games) took the highest weighted average and came in first place, and item two (2.649) of the mean (it is difficult to manage a gaming class) took the lowest weighted average and came in 23rd place. The scores were generally high, with an overall average of 3.60. The results indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in the perspective of female teachers regarding to electronic games in kindergartens, which prevented the implementation of electronic games in kindergartens on the basis of three variables.

Key words: Electronic games; Obstacles.

INTRODUCTION

Teaching is a process that requires teachers to plan and make decisions about classroom practices, and teachers often rely on their beliefs and professional knowledge to guide them (Berthelsen, Brownlee & Boulton-Lewis, 2002). Games of all forms are a necessary part of learners' social, emotional, educational and physical progress. Moreover, kindergartens are a place where children grow and develop using games. In recent years, some educators and educational researchers have realized that Electronic Games in Kindergartens can be an important element in formal and informal education. Therefore, this subject has become the focus of more intense study and research.

Hew and Brush (2007) examined the reason why not all teachers incorporate technology into their education. They found that a number of obstacles related to resources have been solved, due to the increasing amount of computers, software applications, and faster, more reliable networks in schools. However, they discovered that teachers tend not to use technology if they are frustrated when it does not work properly or when there is a lack of technical support at their school. Teachers also pointed to the limited time they have to review and learn about new technological tools they can use when teaching.

According to Myck-Wayne (2010), playing and games should be included during lessons as a fun component, in addition to providing more intrinsic motivation. Moreover, when children are actively participating in an activity, this forms experiences they base their learning on. Indeed, play can be seen in different ways in the classroom. For example, in England, teachers usually use a range of teaching strategies that aim to maximize student participation in lessons (Thompson, 2008).

Governments are increasingly concentrating on implementing rules and regulations regarding early childhood instruction, with legislative policies and approaches geared towards early access to quality childhood learning experiences. Indeed, Kaugars and Russ (2009) found that children who have the chance to play are more creative and expressive in their daily play, and other benefits include health ones, as “the ability to play is one of the principal criteria of mental health” (Almon, 2003, p. 1). To recognize the importance of play, the training of educators is required. This in turn will ensure it is included in the changing school environment. This training is needed as part of college preparatory courses, in addition to being part of teachers’ continuous professional development.

Children have the right to a childhood, as well as an education that respects and supports their learning and growth in ways that are appropriate for their development. One way to ensure this developmentally appropriate education is using educational computer games. Research supports the using of games as part of the educational curriculum, but with the impact of standards and mandates imposed by education authorities, play has become regarded as an old tool.

As mentioned earlier, "learning itself is improved through play" (Brown & Vaughan, 2009, p.100). Early childhood teachers play an important role in ensuring the classroom environment supports play. Moreover, it is essential for teachers to have a clear understanding of the children they teach from play observation, as well as grow as independent learners (Broadhead, 2009).

In short, play has been said to be a natural way for children to learn (Moyles, 2010). Curtis and O’Hagan (2009), who highlighted their belief that play, is a particularly effective tool for learning in the early years, as it provides them with a meaningful and natural way to learn and acquire plenty of concepts, skills, and knowledge. In fact, play could be said to be the singular,

most important activity during a child's early years. In addition to helping children to develop academically, play enables children to learn through their senses and fosters the development of effective social relationships (Faust, 2010). Because of the discussion above, the researcher of this study focused on computer game, especially during the early-years stage,

According to Kalliala, (2006, p. 20) "Children do not play in order to learn although they learn through play". This means that children are motivated by their desire to achieve their own goals during play (Canning, 2011). Therefore, children learn to take turns, cooperate, communicate, and listen, as well as learn about the world, through play (Kalliala, 2006; Martlew et al. 2011). Therefore, integrating play-based learning in the classroom is very useful.

Fred Froebel invented the concept of kindergartens, meaning "child's garden", in 1816 (UNICEF, 2013). The kindergartens and preschool teachers of today struggle with how to implement play in classrooms, with teachers often using playtime as a reward for good behavior. This is because early childhood education began to move away from play and toward teacher-directed activities in the 1930s. In the 1980s and 1990s, academic subjects were added to help the children meet the requirements tested in upper grades and, as a direct result, playtime was reduced

The educational policy in Saudi Arabia defines the goal of kindergartens as follows: First, in terms of children's physical development, it states that teachers must train the children to apply. Second, refine the innate personality of the child, and take care of its moral, mental and physical development and sound natural conditions that conform to the teachings of Islam. Third, introduce the child to the rules of conduct and facilitate their understanding of and compliance with Islamic virtues, by providing a good example for the child to follow. Introduce the child to the school environment, prepare him/her

for school life, and ensure their transition is gentle as they begin to socialize with peers and friends. Fourth, Provide the child with ability of speak, Simple and basics and information suitable for his / her age and related to his / her surroundings. Fifth, train the child to apply motor skills, get used to healthy habits, and train his five senses on to be used in the best possible manner. Sixth, encourage the child's creative activities, expand his/her aesthetic taste, and allow his/her to play under routing. Seventh, be alert in order to protect children from risks, treat misconduct early, and face childhood problems appropriately (Al-Hokeel, 1992, p. 290-291).

Indeed, the Ministry of Education is currently implementing a number of programs to reform and bring initiatives to the educational system to develop nurseries and kindergartens in Saudi Arabia. One such programs aims to expand the early childhood system to reach every child in Saudi Arabia. A current barrier is that early child education is not an obligatory part of the educational system, and so many families decide not to take their children to attend an early childhood program. Therefore, that has an impact on children's readiness to enter first grade.

In addition, the results of studies that concentrate/have concentrated on early childhood development, which is a concern for the Ministry of Education, are filling a gap in the literature by exploring Saudi teachers' views of the obstacles encounter when using electronic games in the classroom of early childhood. This particular study included both teachers who use games and teachers who do not use games yet. Previous studies have focused on the barriers to using game-based learning when teaching at primary or high school levels, while only a few studies have looked at the barriers encountered in kindergartens.

Therefore, this research focuses on Electronic Games in Kindergartens in Al-Ahsa. The study explores teachers' views, including the challenges

faced when trying to implement electronic game-based learning, since it is necessary to understand them to ensure the incorporation of electronic game-based learning in the kindergartens classroom.

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Teachers at kindergartens in Al-Ahsa face Electronic Games in Kindergartens in order to implement learning games at the early childhood would fill a gap in the literature. The researcher observed teachers often believe that early childhood education should be based on traditional lectures using books. Furthermore, there is also an absence of training courses regarding computer game-based learning.

Mndzebele (2013) looked at the use of ICTs in schools in Swaziland and found that teachers lacked ICT knowledge, had no technical aids, no Internet connectivity, no financial support, and no time available to implement them.

The literature advocates using game-based learning to various degrees and discusses the obstacles teachers may face in the learning environment. Problems such as small buildings and a lack of quality in the teaching at some Saudi pre-schools can lead to limited opportunities to incorporate efficient play-based learning. In addition, teachers often encounter difficulties in identifying the educational components of a game, as well as integrating the game in the traditional educational process (Baek, 2008). Thus, the study aims to investigate the views of teachers at kindergartens in Al-Ahsa regarding the barriers they face when incorporating electronic games in kindergartens, as well as the impact of each of the study variables, specifically such as qualifications, years of experience, and teaching level on their perceptions.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1-What are the obstacles to the use of electronic games in learning kindergarten children from the point of view of their teachers?

2-What is the effect of the level of teaching, educational qualifications, and years of experience on the perspective of obstacles?

STUDY OBJECTIVES

1-To determine the differences in the mean responses of the respondents on the study instrument attributed to each variable (level of teaching, educational qualification, and years of experience).

2-To reveal teachers' perceptions of the obstacles of electronic game-based learning.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This research benefits many different aspects of Saudi society for a number of reasons. Firstly, this study provides kindergartens teachers in Saudi Arabia with a starting point for discussing the value of Electronic Games in Kindergartens, as well as enabling them to consider solutions to possible issues. Secondly, this study also provides kindergartens teachers in Saudi Arabia with the chance to express their views about the obstacles they face when using electronic games as a tool for learning. Furthermore, this study might also facilitate changes in practice within Saudi kindergartens, because of applying some of these study recommendations, and thus increasing children's enjoyment of learning. In addition, parents may also be able to benefit from this study, as they are better informed about the barriers of using electronic games to support children's learning, as well as have a better understanding of

how they can be used to support learning through play at home. Additionally, it provides administrators at the Ministry of Education with information regarding the trends among female teachers, which is useful information for them when preparing appropriate therapeutic programs.

RESEARCH DELIMITATION

-Objective Delimitation: This research is delimited to identifying the teachers' perspective of obstacles of electronic games in kindergartens. The researcher used the survey by Watson, Yang and Ruggiero (2016) to determine teachers' perceptions of the obstacles they face when using electronic games in kindergartens.

- Time Delimitation: The instructional time of the research lasted for a month.

-Placement Delimitation: This research was administered at schools in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Hew and Brush (2007) defined Obstacles to the use of electronic games in learning kindergarten children from the point of view of their teachers, resource constraints, limited teacher knowledge and skills, as well as teachers' unhelpful attitudes and beliefs. Operationally, Obstacles to the use of electronic games in learning kindergarten children from the point of view of their teachers.

A study by Lucas (2014) defined electronic games in education are precious, increase skills and abilities such as collaboration, communication, problem solving, and critical thinking that may move into other social and

work-related spheres. Operationally, electronic games in kindergartens refers to the teaching process to modern technologies such as computer, iPod, iPhone, console, smart board, and platform to create an interactive system with which a learner can play.

LITERATURE REVIEW

ADVANTAGE AND DISADVANTAGE

The use of games in teaching in the kindergartens is one of the new methods used nowadays, as it is a new trend to enhance and improve students' learning. In fact, previous studies, such as Pound (2005), Wright et al. (2005), and Zheng (2008), confirmed that the use of electronic games in learning has many advantages: enhancing motivation students' motivation and self-confidence when learning happens in a comfortable environment. According to Alshaiji (2015), the results revealed that kindergarten learners in the experimental group performed significantly better than those in the control group. The researcher recommended that kindergartens' teachers should implement video games activities in their classroom practices to improve children's English vocabulary retention.

Al-Hileh and Ibrahim (2018) electronic games have constructive, useful effects on children of all ages, particularly those who have emotional problems. Games provide an opportunity to adjust school day and decompression. Giving your kids time to comfort is critical for emotional and psychological well-being. The benefits of electronic games in kindergartens are students in the center of attention, deal with activity to improve self-esteem, digital gaming ingenuity, availability, things are related to real world, no risks; deliver learning chances all time, trial and error is the plan and improve learner motivation(Tam & Hui, 2011). However, electronic games in

kindergartens exposes the risk of phasing out interaction in classroom, causing computer addiction and decreasing social and communicating skills, and the information required in the process of education. The type of electronic game is the video game, handheld electronic games and audio games.

OBSTACLES OF GAME-BASED LEARNING

A study by Ramorola (2013) looked at the obstacles facing teachers when implementing technology in a South African school. The study methods used were document review and observations to collect data. The findings revealed that there were obstacles to applying the technology, such as a lack of technological equipment, a lack of qualified teachers in technology integration, and maintenance and technical problems, all of which were key challenges affecting the effective integration of technology at the school level. Integration of technology requires effective planning, time, dedication and adequate resources.

Kozma and Vota (2014) examined the difficulties of employing information and communication technology in developing countries to support the educational environment. Some of the major challenges included limited electricity or Internet infrastructure in rural areas, limited availability of technical support staff, the dominance of minority languages and unqualified educational staff members. The study concluded that for ICT to be used effectively in developing countries.

A study by Alhashimi (2014) looked at the use of technology in Oman, specifically in the context of teaching Arabic, as well as teachers' attitudes and recommendations. Twelve teachers took part and the results showed a high degree of technology use in the classroom. The findings also showed that there were, however, also obstacles to applying the technology such as learning

how to use blackboard and designing programs. It is important to note that the use of educational technologies is common in Arabian countries, due to the cultural focus on research and science.

A study conducted by Bingimals (2009) focused on the perceived barriers to technology integration in science education. The research tool was a meta-analysis of related literature. The findings showed that teachers were willing to incorporate information communication technology into the classroom, however, they were found to lack confidence, competence and resources.

Phajane (2019) conducted a study, the aim of which was to explore early childhood teachers' attitudes toward the use of games in classroom teaching. Their research questions were the following: (i) what do early childhood teachers see as being the benefits of playing as a means of learning. (ii) What do early childhood teachers see as being the obstacles to using play as a way to enhance learning? The study sample included teachers from the Bojanala, a region in the north west of South Africa. The study tools consisted of interviews and observations. The results of the classroom observations showed that three factors, specifically those teachers defined play differently, there was a large enrollment of students and insufficient resources had a negative impact on the playing habits of children. This was because the teachers faced these obstacles when using play as a systematic tool every day. In addition, it was found that routine activities and practices were done without appropriate guidance and support. Furthermore, through the interviews with teachers, it was established that teachers worked on their own without any classroom support or guidance.

Onditi, Otengah and Odongo (2018) conducted a study aimed at exploring the impact of early childhood teachers' attitudes when implementing play-based activities in the classroom. The study sample included both pre-

school teachers (n=297) and key informants lead teachers (n=27) in Homabay County. The study used the design of simultaneous triangulation research. Data was analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics using Statistical Package for Social Science version 24. The study tools consisted of a questionnaire, interview, as well as a focus group discussion and observation checklist. The results of the study demonstrated that there was variation in the level of perceptions among the pre-school teachers, with some of them showing a strong positive perception while others revealed a weak positive perception of implementing play-based activities as part of the preschool curriculum.

Another study aimed to reveal the perceptions of elementary school teachers regarding computer game-based learning during elementary school courses. The sample of study included 24 teachers from Ankara, Turkey. A semi-structured interview was conducted and then analyzed using descriptive analysis. The results showed that teachers' views of implementing game-based learning in class was positive, as it was found to attract students to learning. However, teachers experienced problems in terms of time management (Ucusa, 2015).

THE IMPORTANCE OF ELECTRONIC GAMES IN LEARNING

Watson, Yang, and Ruggiero (2016) conducted another study related to this subject whose study aimed to uncover teachers' attitudes when implementing games as part of their teaching, based on a number of factors including their level of teaching, gender, and teaching experience as barriers to using games. In this context, the games were video and computer games. The study sample included 109 teachers in the K-12 for kindergarten to 12th grade in Indiana, USA. A descriptive design was used for this study, and the study tool was a survey that measured the sense of community generated by this method and perceived learning. The two-survey tool was designed by the researcher to collect and interpret the data for this study. Four factors were found to hinder teachers' use of games in the classroom:

1. The ability to use the games efficiently
2. Challenges with the technology
3. The current educational system
4. Challenges regarding access to the games.

Male teachers considered the first factor as the most serious obstacle, while the female teachers considered factors 2 and factor 4 as being more serious. It was also found that middle and high school teachers believed that the first factor represents a more serious barrier than primary school teachers do, whereas primary and middle school teachers perceived factor 4 as more of an issue than high school teachers did. In addition, the teachers who used games to teach also expressed the view that Factors 1 and Factors 3 less hindered using games.

Alnatour and Hijazi (2018) conducted a study aimed at exploring the effect of using electronic games on teaching English vocabulary to

kindergarten students. A quasi-experimental pre-post-test design was used in this study to measure the level of students in English. The students were 100 divided into two experimental groups who were taught using electronic games techniques, and two control groups taught using a traditional approach. The results of the study demonstrated that there were significant difference in the post-test between the experimental and control groups in terms of achievement in favor of the experimental group. The results indicated there were no statistically significant differences in the achievement of the students due to gender or to the interaction between group and gender.

According to Sahin and Turan (2009), whose study aimed to establish the impact of using technology on learning and teaching in a classroom environment, only pedagogically sound teaching and appropriate technologies lead to improvements in learning. In addition, their study found that, from the point of view of the students who participated, the integration of technology in learning requires some critical skills.

Khouna, Ajana, Rhazal and Elhajjami (2017) conducted a study aimed to detect the use of educational games when teaching physics. The study sample consisted of male and female learners at a high school located in Morocco. A quantitative method design was used in this study and the measuring tool was a survey. In conclusion, learners have a positive attitude related to educational games integration. The study recommended conducting an examination of how intentionally playing games affects Moroccan students' performance.

A study by Lucas (2014) looked at teachers and learners' attitudes towards learning through games in Portugal. Games in education are precious, increase skills and abilities such as collaboration, communication, problem solving, and critical thinking that may move into other social and work-related spheres. The tool was online video games to make interaction between students and teachers from several educational levels and several national

schools. From the teachers' own point of view, games can facilitate, support, and improve learning opportunities and outcomes. The findings also showed that teachers and learners perceived gaming to increase skills, knowledge and join curriculum interdisciplinary.

WAYS TO OVERCOME OBSTACLES OF GAME-BASED LEARNING

A study conducted by Lynch (2015) compared the results of a netnographic study of seventy-eight both new and experienced teachers, based on participants' descriptions of being "new to kindergarten or of having 15 years of experience as a Kindergarten teacher about playing in kindergartens. The study tool was message-board discussion. It was found that teachers in kindergartens feel pressure from other teachers, school principals, and school policies to focus on academic goals and these pressures lead them to reduce the amount of time-dedicated play. The researcher discussed the need for further research to develop effective strategies to help teachers incorporate play in kindergartens teaching, rather than just increase teacher awareness of the benefits of play. It also detailed how netnographic approaches can complement traditional ways of understanding how teachers treat play in the classroom.

A study by Sobhani and Bagheri (2014) aimed to uncover the perceptions of students and instructors regarding the impact of fun activities and games related to learning English. The study sample was comprised of 40 learners and 40 teachers, both male and female, at Shiraz language institutes. A descriptive design was used in this study and the study tool was a survey. The results showed that both teachers and learners views were positive toward language games as learning lubricants and as a method for attracting students to learning. The study recommended that teachers conduct educational and

communicative games, as well as recreational activities, when teaching to motivate learners to develop their language skills.

Ruggiero's (2013) study aimed to explore the views of both pre-service and in-service kindergartens teachers in terms of classroom gaming. The study sample consisted of 1,704 elementary and high school teachers who responded to the survey and open-ended questions. The results showed that classroom gaming had a statistically significant correlation with students' motivation and learning. Fewer than half of in-service teachers use games to teach, whereas 75% of pre-service educators said they would like to learn more about using games in class. The study recommended that lessons should be designed to include games to help teachers implementing them, and increase the number of successful learning experiences.

Can and Cagiltay (2006) conducted a study exploring the attitudes and plans of prospective computer teachers in Turkey regarding the use of educational computer games for educational purposes through the use of a survey. The findings showed that they had positive perceptions related to the use of computer games in education. However, some participants had particular doubts regarding the issues of classroom management and the educational effectiveness of computer games currently on the market.

Albirini (2006) explored the instructors' attitudes toward the use of information and communication technologies at a high school where English as a Foreign Language (EFL) was taught in Syria. The researcher examined the relationship between computer attitudes and five independent variables: "computer attributes, cultural perceptions, computer competence, computer access, and personal characteristics (including computer training background)"(P.373). The findings of this study showed that teachers might

have positive attitudes toward ICT in education. The positive attitudes of the instructors were explained by the fact they had a good knowledge of computer features, their cultural views and computer competence. The researcher believes that electronic game is a growing trend and one of the factors most influencing children is learning. Since it is likely to cause a fundamental change in the entire educational process, it is essential to establish the obstacles teachers face to implementing this approach, in order to ensure they can be overcome.

HYPOTHESES

1. There are no statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ in the mean scores of teachers' responses related to the obstacles to the use of electronic games in learning kindergarten children from the point of view of their teachers in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia.
2. There are no statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ between the mean scores of teachers' responses regarding the barriers of using electronic games in kindergarten children's learning differ according to the educational levels of teachers, the level of teachers' education and their years of experience in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia.

METHODOLOGY

RESEARCH DESIGN

To better understand teachers' perspectives, data was collected via a questionnaire (descriptive approach). Then the survey was chosen, as the method is appropriate to the nature of this study, as it can collect information on the study phenomenon, and then describe it. Table 1 shows the reliability of the items.

Table 1. Alpha Kronbach coefficient to measure the reliability of the study instrument

Number	Component	N of items	Reliability
1	Obstacle	25	0.894
2	Demographic	3	0.803
Total validity		28	0.85

It is clear from Table 1 that the study instrument has a statistically acceptable level of reliability, with a total reliability coefficient of 0.85. This is a high degree of reliability, as it is ranged between 0.89 and 0.80, which are high reliability coefficients that can be trusted when being applied to the current study.

PARTICIPANTS

The researcher conducted a pilot study among 20 kindergartens teachers to identify the time taken to conduct the main study and any potential obstacles. The study population consisted of female kindergartens teachers with either Bachelor's or Master's degree. The number of teachers, according to the statistical analysis unit at the Ministry of Education, was 350. Table 2 shows the qualification of the population.

Table 2 Distribution of study population according to qualification

Qualification	N
Bachelor	300
Master	50
Total	350

STUDY SAMPLE

The study sample consisted of 226 teachers who participated in the study, which account for 65% of 350 the total study population. The study sample was chosen randomly from each kindergartens. The table 3 shows the distribution of the study sample according to the independent variables.

Table (3) distribution of sample size according to independent variables

Variable	Level	No
Qualification	Bachelor	187
	Master	39
Level of teaching	First	60
	Second	166
Years of experience	Less than 5 years	113
	From 5 years to 10 years	74
	More than 10 years	38

PROCEDURE

Firstly, the literature and previous studies related to the obstacles facing those using the game-based learning approach was reviewed. The questionnaire, which had previously been designed by Watson, Yang and Ruggiero (2016), was used to establish the obstacles to using game-based learning. The questionnaire was composed of 29 statements and the participants marked how much they agreed with each one according to a five-point Likert scale: 5 = Strongly agree, 4 = Agree, 3 = Neutral, 2 = Disagree, 1 = Strongly disagree. A pilot study was conducted to provide information about potential areas of improvement that was then used to modify the survey. Questionnaire items 1 to 25 measured the obstacles of game-based learning and items 26 to 29 looked at demographic variables. Data management and statistical analysis were then conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS version 22). A quantitative method was employed to obtain information about the extent to which obstacles arise when computer-based educational games are used in the classroom. The descriptive design focused on the challenges involved. A letter of permission was submitted to the Ministry of Education in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia to allow the investigator to conduct and distribute the survey to the study's target population, which was found online, to collect data. The researcher started with Al-Ahsa kindergartens for a pilot study, to examine the design, wording, relevance, length, as well as to highlight any potential issues, before the main study was conducted. The researcher gave the participants between two weeks to one month to complete the survey and return it to the researcher.

Ease, difficulty, and discrimination coefficients for test vocabulary: the corrected ease coefficient was calculated from the effect of the guesswork, difficulty, and discrimination coefficient for each of the test items (according to the coefficient of corrected ease of estimation effect) through the results

of the application of the test on the survey sample. The coefficient of ease and difficulty, and the coefficient of discrimination were taken to calculate the coefficient of ease and difficulty of the test as a whole. They were as follows: ease coefficient (1.3), coefficient of difficulty (2.0) and coefficient of discrimination (0.26). Table 4. Judging the degree of obstacles according to arithmetical means:

Table 4 The arithmetic mean of the degree of sustainability and constraints

N	The arithmetic mean	The degree of use and obstacles
1	1 to less than 1.8	Very low degree
2	1.8 to less than 2.6	Low degree
3	2.6 to less than 3.4	Medium degree
4	3.4 to less than 4.2	High degree
5	4.25 to less than 5	Very high degree

STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Descriptive methods (standard deviations and means) were used in order to answer the study questions. Furthermore, a one-way ANOVA (analysis of variance) and a t-test were used to answer the study questions.

STUDY VARIABLES

First: Independent variables

Level of teaching: First and second level. -

Educational qualification: Bachelor, and Master degree-

-Years of experience: less than 5 years, from 5 years to 10 years, more than 10 years

Second: The dependent variable

-Perceptions of female teachers regarding the obstacles faced when using electronic games in kindergartens.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The following section presents the results and discussion in the order of the hypothesis included in the study.

The results of the statistical analysis of the field study were presented to identify the mean scores of female teachers' attitudes electronic games in kindergartens as an instructional methodology at kindergartens in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia. The following section is a presentation of the results and discussion of the questions included in the study.

The default or expected mean is 2.5. The weighted or observed mean is calculated by calculating the number of respondents for each alternative for each item¹. The table (Table 5) shows the weighted mean of the items.

(1)

Table 5 the weighted mean of items

No	Items	Means	Rank	Degree
12	Lack of interest	4.335	1	Very high
9	Lack of evidence that games promote learning	4.333	2	Very high
24	Lack of funding	4.134	3	High
20	Lack of training	4.130	4	High
22	Limited time available	4.009	5	High
19	Lack of supporting materials	4.004	6	High
14	Technology unavailable	3.996	7	High
13	Cost	3.996	7	High
15	Old hardware	3.982	8	High

21	Lack of professional development on games	3.915	9	High
7	Games irrelevant to the subject	3.870	10	High
16	Lack of administrative support	3.853	11	High
18	Pressures of standard-based assessment.	3.821	12	High
17	Using technology in school presents challenges	3.638	13	High
11	Value of games for learning	3.609	14	High

13	Inadequate technology support	3.591	15	High
3	Games are unrealistic	3.467	16	High
1	Students get sidetracked	3.458	17	High
25	Newer computer hardware	3.458	17	High
10	Games are complicated	3.293	18	Medium
5	Lack of clear alignment between learning and objectives	3.236	19	Medium
4	It is difficult to evaluate students	3.222	20	Medium
6	Games take too long	2.898	21	Medium
8	Educational games are not engaging	2.684	22	Medium
2	It is difficult to manage a gaming class	2.649	23	Medium

What are the obstacles to the use of electronic games in learning kindergarten children from the point of view of their teachers?

Table five shows that the scores were generally high, with an overall average of 3.60. The means for the individual items ranged from 2.64 to 4.33, and from medium to high. The highest score of the scale was twelfth item. (4.33) of the mean (teachers lack interest in games) took the highest weighted average and came in first place, and item two (it is difficult to manage a gaming class) took the lowest weighted average and came in 23rd place. Item two came the lowest, due to the nature of classroom environment in kindergartens, which is based on a more unrestricted daily schedule depending on the children's development and interest in learning.

The first related results: There were no statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ in the mean scores of teachers' responses related to the obstacles they face regarding using electronic games in kindergartens as an instructional methodology at kindergartens in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, because of the level they teach. Table 6 shows the weighted mean averages.

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$$

$$H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$$

-Since the sample size is greater than 30, the Z-test was used to detect the difference between the mean averages instead of the T-test.

Table 6

Variable type	Descriptive Statistics			Z value		Level of significance	DF
	N	Mean	Variance source	Calculated	Tabular		
First level	60	89.9	187	0.731	1.959	0.05	124
Second level	166	91.4	154				

As shown in Table 6, there were apparent differences in these averages. Since the calculated Z is smaller than the tabular Z, meaning that the difference between the two averages is not statistically significant at the significance level (0.05) and the degree of freedom (124), thus, accept the null hypothesis. In short, there was no significant difference based on the level being taught. The researcher attributes this result to the fact the teachers received the same training, shared a similar environment and interests, were from a small city, and had had an identical education at the same school system. In addition, technology devices were available to everyone.

These findings are consistent with several previous studies such as (Wayne, 2010; Kaugars and Russ, 2009; and Lynch, 2015) with no statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ in the mean scores of teachers' responses because of the level they teach.

However, these findings are not consistent with other studies such as (Onditi, Otengah & Odongo, 2018; Khouna, Ajana, Rhazal & Elhajjami, 2017; Ruggiero, 2013; Ruhan, 2015; Gizem, 2013; and Ucusa, 2015) which confirming statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ in the mean scores of teachers' responses as a result of the level they teach.

The second related results: There are no statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ in the mean scores of teachers' responses related to the obstacles they face electronic games in kindergartens as an instructional methodology at kindergartens in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, specifically in terms of the qualification variable. Table 7 show the weighted mean averages.

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$$

$$H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$$

Since the sample size is greater than 30, the Z-test was used to detect the difference between the mean averages instead of the T-test.

Table7 the weighted mean averages

Variable type	Descriptive Statistics			Z value		Level of significance	DF
	N	Mean	Variance	Calculated	Tabular		
Bachelor	187	91.273	187	0.661929	1.959	0.05	124
Master	39	89.794	154				

As shown in Table 7, there were apparent differences in these averages. Since the calculated Z is smaller than the tabular Z, it means that the difference between the two averages is not statistically significant at the significance level (0.05) and the degree of freedom (124), thus, accept the null hypothesis. There was no difference in teachers' views of this particular obstacle. The researcher attributes this result to the fact the teachers had received the same training because they are part of the same school system. Furthermore, technology devices are available to everyone.

These findings are consistent with several previous studies such as (Wayne, 2010; Kaugars and Russ, 2009; and Lynch, 2015;) with no statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ in the mean scores of teachers' responses because of the qualification.

However, these findings are not consistent with other studies such as (Alwan, 2004; Onditi, Otengah & Odongo, 2018; Khouna, Ajana, Rhazal & Elhajjami, 2017; Ruggiero, 2013; Ruhan, 2015; Gizem, 2013; and Ucusa, 2015) which confirming statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ in the mean scores of teachers' responses as a result of the qualification.

The third related results: There are no statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ between the mean scores of teachers' responses related to the obstacles they face when incorporating electronic games in kindergartens as an instructional methodology at kindergartens in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia, specifically with regard to the variable determining years of experience. Table 8 shows the weighted mean averages.

$$H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$$

$$H_3: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2 \neq \mu_3$$

Table 8

Means, standard deviations, and Z value of the years of experience variable

Variable level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Less than 5 years	113	89.91	11.43
From 5 years to 10 years	74	92.43	15.33
More than 10 years	38	91.21	11.16

The table shows the differences in the means of teachers' responses regarding the obstacle they face to determine the significance of the differences using a one-way ANOVA test, as shown in table 9.

Table 9

The ANOVA

ANOVA					
Variance	Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	287.047	2	143.524	0.875	0.418
Within Groups	36425.593	222	164.079		
Total	36712.640	224			

Table 9 shows that the p value is equal to 0.418, which is greater than the value of the significance level 0.05, this means that the differences

between the means are not statistically significant and therefore accept the null hypothesis. In short, the teachers' views were the same toward the barriers of computer game due to years of experience.

These findings are consistent with several previous studies about teachers' views of the barriers of electronic games in kindergartens in terms of teaching level, qualifications and years of experience of applying games in classrooms for the purposes of teaching and learning (Wayne, 2010); (Kaugars and Russ, 2009); Lynch, 2015; and Vaughan, 2009). However, these findings are not consistent with other studies into teachers' views of barriers, specifically teaching level, qualification and years of experience, to applying games in classrooms for the purposes of teaching and learning (Onditi, Otengah & Odongo, 2018; Khouna, Ajana, Rhazal & Elhajjami, 2017; Ruggiero, 2013; Ruhan, 2015; Gizem, 2013; and Ucusa, 2015).

Conclusion

The study detects obstacles of using electronic games in kindergartens for Saudi female teachers. The use of electronic games in kindergartens increases the question of their compatibility with profound learning (Erhel&Jamet, 2013). The results indicated that teachers are interested in using electronic games in kindergartens in class room. Despite, teachers do not know how to manage a gaming class. The views regarding barriers are positive, which paves the way for further reform efforts. The obstacles to using electronic games includes a lack of interest in implementing games in the teaching learning processes. In conclusion, electronic games in kindergartens use requires a clear plan to overcome those obstacles, as teachers play a key role in helping children overcome any obstacles they may have to learning with games. Electronic games remain a great, fun way to learn and teach to be used in class.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF STUDY

- It is important to employ game-based learning in teaching according to the teachers' responses.
- Work should be done to educate teachers about the use of game-based learning for teaching and learning.
- Schools should provide workshops and training courses for teachers and purchase game-based electronic devices.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

- More studies are needed to investigate the obstacles facing those using play-based learning in teaching.
- Examine the barriers for teachers in the educational process.
- The sample of the current study only included female participants from kindergartens in Al-Ahsa, Saudi Arabia.

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APPENDIX A: THE SURVEY OF STUDY

Games in Kindergartens: Teachers' Perspective of Obstacles to Game-based Learning

This questionnaire consists of one component (obstacles), which have to be rated by the respondents on a five point scale and three demographics questions: Please circle the choice that best fits your views toward the barriers of game-based learning.

Five-SA- Strongly agree.

Four-A- Agree.

Three-N- Neutral.

Two-D- Disagree.

One-SD- Strongly disagree.

Instruction

This questionnaire contains one section of the scale of 5-1 for the purpose of teachers' scientific research in kindergartens to measure the extent of views obstacles to game-based learning at Kindergartens in Al-Ahsa city. Please complete the questionnaire by answering all items. Participation in this research is voluntary and the questionnaire is returned to indicate that the participants from the female teachers of Kindergartens from the sample of the study and agreed to use the study information for research purposes.

In the table below, place a valid marker to indicate the direction you see.

Finally, dear teachers, filling this questionnaire means your consent to participate in this study.

If you have any questions or concerns, you can contact thank you and me in advance.

Researcher: Dr. Abdullah Kholifh Alodail

Department of Educational Technology, Faculty of Education, Albaha University, alodail1@hotmail.com, 0507241407.

No.	Items	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Students get sidetracked and do not focus on learning when games are used.	5	4	3	2	1
2	It is difficult to manage a gaming class.	5	4	3	2	1
3	Games are unrealistic- there is a disconnect between the real world and the game world.	5	4	3	2	1
4	It is difficult to evaluate student performance/ learning from playing video games.	5	4	3	2	1
5	Lack of clear alignment between learning and objectives.	5	4	3	2	1
6	Games take too long to play through to fit within the course structure.	5	4	3	2	1
7	Lack of availability of games that match the teacher's subject area.	5	4	3	2	1

Obstacles to the Use of Electronic Games in Learning Kindergarten Children Games in kindergarten: Teachers' Perspective of Obstacles to Game-based Learning

No.	Items	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
8	Educational games are not engaging.	5	4	3	2	1
9	Lack of evidence that games promote learning.	5	4	3	2	1
10	Some games are too complicated for students.	5	4	3	2	1
11	Students don't recognize the value of games for learning.	5	4	3	2	1
12	Teachers lack interest in games.	5	4	3	2	1
13	Inadequate technology support.	5	4	3	2	1
14	Lack of available technology to play video games on.	5	4	3	2	1
15	Older computer hardware.	5	4	3	2	1
16	Lack of administrative support.	5	4	3	2	1
17	Using technology in school presents challenges.	5	4	3	2	1

No.	Items	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
18	The pressures of standards-based assessment limit creative instruction like games.	5	4	3	2	1
19	Lack of supporting materials for how to best use the games for learning.	5	4	3	2	1
20	Lack of teacher resources available for training.	5	4	3	2	1
21	Lack of time for professional development on how to use games.	5	4	3	2	1
22	There is limited or no available time to play games due to the need to meet all of the required curriculum standards.	5	4	3	2	1
23	Price of games is too costly.	5	4	3	2	1
24	Lack of available funds for purchasing games.	5	4	3	2	1
25	Newer computer hardware does not support older game software.	5	4	3	2	1
26	Teaching level	First level	Second level			
27	Years of experience in education	Less than 5 years	From 5 years to 10 years	More than 10 years		
28	Qualification	Bachelor	Master			

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Title page
**Exploring the Vocabulary Learning Strategies
of Saudi EFL Students**

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Exploring the Vocabulary Learning Strategies of Saudi EFL Students

Abstract

Learning strategies play a vital role in effective learning. A learner's fluency level in the target language increases vocabulary improvement. Exploring the strategies learners use to acquire new words provides insights into how these could be incorporated into the teaching of vocabulary. The present study investigates the frequency of various vocabulary learning strategies used by Saudi EFL students at the University of Hafr Al-Batin. The results show that the participants are moderate users of learning strategies with social strategies being most frequently employed. Conscious and repeated study of new vocabulary items is the participants' preferred method of vocabulary learning. Further investigation into vocabulary learning strategies could help improve vocabulary teaching and assist teachers in making good use of the time learners invest in studying unfamiliar words.

Key words: vocabulary learning strategies, determination, socialisation, cognition, metacognition.

Introduction

Language learning may be facilitated by strategic planning and continuous application. Learning strategies and techniques should accompany learners along the way to make the learning process as efficient and fast as possible. In other words, learners need to employ various strategies and techniques to increase their knowledge of the components of the target language. Not relying entirely on teachers or instructors for their learning, students become active participants in their learning experience rather than being passive recipient sitting silently in classrooms. Such engagement shifts the learning process from a traditional one to an autonomous learner-based endeavour and results in more fruitful learning. Moreover, students' experiences may serve as the basis for implementing improvements. For example, effective strategies could be discussed in class so students can learn how to apply them.

In the learning context, strategies may vary according to what is being studied. One of the basic elements people need when they learn a new language is vocabulary. Wilkins (1972: 97) stressed the connection between vocabulary and communication: 'While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed.' In many real-life situations, vocabulary is the key to basic communication. For example, a person travelling abroad does not need to utter complete grammatical sentences to ask for a certain product at the supermarket; they just need to know the word for what they want to buy. This does not mean that grammar is not important, but it highlights the essential role vocabulary plays in communication.

Vocabulary learning depends to a great extent on personal effort. One can easily spot the difference in language proficiency between two students attending the same class by paying attention to the target language vocabulary they use in their utterances. There is no doubt that the more words they use in

the target language, the more competent they appear. The strategies learners use to increase their vocabulary can explain these differences in students' individual vocabulary size. Vocabulary size is related to overall language proficiency. Nation (2001) argues that all language skills (speaking, listening, writing, reading) are largely influenced by learners' attitudes towards vocabulary learning and the vocabulary size.

The term vocabulary learning strategy refers to 'any set of techniques or learning behaviors which language learners use to discover the meaning of a new word, to retain the knowledge of newly-learned words, and to extend one's vocabulary' (Oxford 1990: 8). This definition covers three areas that should be taken into consideration when investigating vocabulary learning: discovery, memorisation, and consolidation.

Due to the importance of vocabulary learning, researchers have designed different taxonomies to measure the common strategies used by learners. Perhaps one of the most well-known taxonomy is the one developed by Schmitt. Schmitt (1997) emphasises that strategies in general are either discovery or consolidation. Determination strategies and social strategies fall under the heading of discovery strategies, while memorisation, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies are categorised as consolidation strategies. Determination strategies, according to Schmitt (1997, 2000), are those techniques that do not depend on external intervention, for example analysing word class and word parts, guessing the meaning from the context, and using dictionaries. Social strategies, on the other hand, are based on support from others, such as teachers and classmates. Schmitt (2000) summarises memorisation strategies as those strategies that rely on mental imagery of words, on connections between words and grouping, and on physical actions. Cognitive strategies include oral and written repetition of the new item, for example through word listing

and labelling and the use of flash cards, notes, and vocabulary notebooks. Metacognitive strategies, the final subcategory of the consolidation strategies, include techniques in which learners plan and assess their learning. For example, they may plan the study of new words, make use of media, self-evaluate by testing their vocabulary skills, skip unwanted words, and pay attention to other speakers' word use.

Research questions

The present study is designed to answer the following research questions:

1. How frequently do Saudi EFL students use Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLS)?
2. What are their most and least preferred VLS?

Literature review

Vocabulary learning strategies are a much-researched topic due to the well-known impact of vocabulary skills on learners' overall language proficiency. Elashhab (2019) points out that, in general, learners find strategies very useful in their vocabulary learning. Studies in EFL contexts have focused on the most and least preferred strategies, gender differences in strategy use, and the frequency of strategy use. For example, a study by Kurniawan and Juhana (2021) that investigated the favoured and less frequently employed strategies of EFL Indonesian students found that metacognitive strategies were the most preferred while memory strategies were least often used.

In a similar context, Noprianto and Purnawarman (2019) studied the frequency of vocabulary learning strategies used by Indonesian high school students. The results show that participants were moderate users of VLS with determination being the most preferred strategy. Determination strategies were also found to be the most used strategies by Turkish EFL students in a study by Çelik and Toptaş (2010).

Findings from Arab contexts reveal a different picture. For example, a study by Rabadi (2010) discovered that the participants, Jordanian EFL students, were moderate vocabulary learning strategy users and that they favoured memory

strategies while metacognitive strategies were least frequently employed.

In Saudi EFL settings, several attempts have been made to study vocabulary learning strategies because of the important role vocabulary plays in learners' overall proficiency in the four language skills (writing, reading, speaking, listening). One study by Alqarni (2017) explored the vocabulary learning strategies of Saudi EFL students at King Saud University. He concluded that respondents were low strategy users and that metacognitive strategies were most preferred. Albiawi (2018) aimed to identify the most and least preferred vocabulary learning strategies of female Saudi EFL students at Al-Jouf University. She revealed that participants preferred social strategies and used memory strategies least often when learning vocabulary. Similarly, Alharbi and Ibrahim (2018) found that less demanding cognitive strategies were favoured by EFL students at Majmaah University. Alshammry (2020) observes that only successful learners place great value on all types of strategies and that relying on memorisation and metacognitive strategies is typical for poor learners. The inconsistency of the findings, especially in the Saudi context, encourages further research in this area. Since most studies in EFL settings employ Schmitt's taxonomy, for the sake of comparability, the present study is likewise based on this framework.

Methodology

The participants of this study are 76 female EFL learners at the University of Hafr Al-Batin. They are all of second-year English majors. One of the courses students take in their second year is called Vocabulary Building. The assigned course book is *English Vocabulary in Use* (Upper-intermediate) by Michael McCarthy and Felicity O'Dell. Students are introduced to new words with reference to contemporary themes. For example, in one of the units, students learn vocabulary relevant to the different types of modern art. This course provides an opportunity to investigate the vocabulary learning strategies the students employ. The Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire (VLSQ) by Schmitt (1997) is used to elicit responses from the students. The questionnaire consists of 48 close-ended items based on a Likert-scale format with response options covering five attitudes: 'never', 'rarely', 'sometimes', 'often', and 'always'. The questions explore the discovery and consolidation strategies of vocabulary learning. The items were translated into Arabic, the students' first language, to prevent any potential misunderstanding. All data is analysed by using descriptive statistics.

Analysis and Results

The data is analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) programme. Results are presented in tables and Cronbach's Alpha is used to show how the test score is reliable. Each of the 5 responses in the scale is associated with a value in the SPSS, for example, 'never' is given 0, 'seldom' 1, 'sometimes' 2, 'often' 3, and 'always' 4.

The overall mean of strategy use is (2.52), which shows that strategies are often used by the participants. The means of each of the five categories, namely determination, social, cognitive, memory, and meta-cognitive strategies, indicate the most and least used strategies. The results are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: The means of each of the five VLS

Strategy category	Mean	Standard deviation	Degree of use
determination strategies	2.2030	.41879	sometimes
social strategies	3.0289	2.42755	often
memory strategies	2.72.83	3.47721	often
cognitive strategies	2.2989	.82715	sometimes
metacognitive strategies	2.4395	.63078	Sometimes

As seen in Table 1, social strategies are the most preferred strategy type with a mean of 3; their degree of use is 'often'. Memory strategies come next with a mean of 2.72, followed by metacognitive strategies with a value of 2.43. The least preferred are determination strategies with a mean of 2.20, suggesting an occasional use of that domain. In general, most of the strategies fall between the means of 2 and 2.72 on a scale of 5 ('never' (0), 'seldom' (1), 'sometimes' (2), 'often' (3), 'always' (4)),

Further analysis reveals the means of the sub-strategies in each of the five domains. Table 2 shows the most and the least preferred sub-strategies in the social domain.

Table 2: Means of the strategies in the social domain

Items	Mean	Std. deviation	Degree of use
Ask the teacher to give me the definition or a synonym of the word	2.5000	1.27017	often
Ask the teacher to put it in a sentence	1.855	1.0418	sometimes
Ask my classmates for the meaning	2.5395	1.38025	often
Study the word with my classmates	2.2895	1.35465	sometimes
Ask the teacher to check my definition	2.1711	.108797	sometimes

Students resort to social strategies to negotiate the meaning of new words. According to the responses in the social domain, asking classmates for the meaning of new words is the most preferred strategy, whereas asking the teacher to put the new word in a sentence is rated the lowest.

Table 3: Means of the strategies in the determination domain

Items	Mean	Std. deviation	Degree of use
Check the new word's form (e.g. find its verb, noun, adj., adv., etc.)	2.7895	.91383	often
Look for any word parts that I know (e.g., 'impossible', 'possible', 'possibility', 'possibly', etc.)	2.5000	.93095	sometimes
Check if the word is also an Arabic word (e.g. 'tomato')	2.8553	1.24047	often
Use any pictures or gestures (body language) to help me guess the meaning	3.2237	1.07825	often
Guess its meaning from the context	3.4737	.82420	often
Use an Arabic-English dictionary	3.0000	1.08321	often
Use an English-English dictionary	1.7368	1.17040	sometimes

Determination strategies are frequently used by learners when they encounter new words. In the sub-categories, the most preferred strategy is guessing the meaning from the context (3.47), followed by using pictures or gestures (3.22), and using an Arabic-English dictionary (3.0). Participants seldom use an English-English dictionary to check the meaning of the new word (1.73).

Table 4: Means of the strategies in the memory domain

Items	Mean	Std. deviation	Degree of use
Draw a picture of the word to help remember it	1.76	1.38	sometimes
Make a mental image of the word's meaning	2.97	1.33	often
Connect the word to a personal experience	2.81	1.207	often
Remember the words that follow or precede the new word	2.86	1.23	often
Connect the word to other words with similar or opposite meanings	3.11	.979	often
Remember the words in scales (always, often, sometimes, never)	1.78	1.04	sometimes
Group words together to study them	2.09	1.16	sometimes
Use new words in sentences	2.89	1.00	often
Write paragraphs using several new words	2.01	1.12	sometimes
Study the spelling of a word	2.94	1.20	Often
Study the sound of a word	3.53	.82	Always
Say the new words aloud	3.63	.79	Always
Make a mental image of the word's form (if the new word is a noun, I make a mental image different from its verb form)	2.84	1.200	Often
Remember the word using its parts	2.59	1.21	Often
Remember the word using its word form (verb, noun, adjective)	2.61	1.21	Often
Make my own definition of the word	2.35	1.05	sometimes
Use physical action when learning a word	2.72	1.44	Often

As seen in Table 4, the strategy participants prefer to use to memorise new words is saying it out loud (3.63) and studying its pronunciation (3.53). The least preferred strategy is drawing a picture (1.76) and remembering the word in scales (1.78).

Table 5: Means of the most and least preferred strategies in the cognitive domain

Items	Mean	Std. deviation	Degree of use
Repeat the words aloud many times	3.44	.929	often
Write the words many times	3.44	.870	often
Make lists of new words	2.43	1.31	sometimes
Use flashcards to record new words	1.71	1.33	sometimes
Take notes or highlight new words in class	2.88	1.30	often
Put English labels on physical objects	1.34	1.183	rarely
Keep a vocabulary notebook	2.64	1.43	often

In the cognitive domain, two strategies are employed equally often by the participants: ‘repeat the new word aloud’ and ‘write it many times’ (3.44). ‘Use flash cards to record new words’ is the least preferred strategy in the cognitive domain (1.71).

Table 6: Means of the most and least preferred strategies in the metacognitive domain

Items	Mean	Std. deviation	Degree of use
Use English language media (songs, movies, the internet)	2.76	1.37	often
Test myself with word tests	2.85	1.05	often
Study new words many times	3.78	1.02	always
Skip or pass new words	.750	1.07	never
Pay attention to English words when someone is speaking English	3.35	.87	often

In the metacognitive domain, paying attention to English words when someone is speaking English is the most favoured strategy (3.35), followed by studying the word many times, and testing oneself with word tests (2.85). The least preferred strategy is skipping or ignoring new words (0.75).

Discussions and Findings

This study aimed at exploring the vocabulary learning strategies preferred by Saudi EFL students at the University of Hafr Al-Batin. Specifically, it set out to answer two research questions.

The first question focused on the frequency of VLS use by Saudi EFL students.

The data shows that the overall mean of strategy usage by Saudi EFL students is 2.52, which, according to Oxford's scheme (1990), indicates that participants apply VLS relatively often. This result is inconsistent with the findings of Alqarni, (2017) and Rabadi (2010) whose studies came to the conclusion that Saudi and Arab EFL learners in general do not often use VLS. It therefore gives further support to Elashhab (2019) who concluded that EFL learners find VLS useful in their learning.

The second research question sought to discover the most and least preferred strategies of the five main VLS categories. Calculating the overall means showed that social strategies are the most preferred of all types of vocabulary learning strategies, whereas determination and cognitive strategies are least frequently used. This result is consistent with the findings of Al-Bedawi's study (2018). This may be due to the focus on female EFL students that both the present study and Al-Bedawi's share in common. Perhaps, discussing new words with classmates and teachers is better established among female EFL university students than it is among their male counterparts.

Social strategies are part of the discovery category that learners use to determine the meaning of a word. Respondents seek help and support from others before they employ techniques that depend exclusively on themselves. The nature of many modern classrooms might have helped in promoting social

strategies in learning. Attending a class with others from the same age group and cultural background facilitates interaction and communication between learners. Such everyday cooperation smooths the way to the development of social strategies (Varişoğlu, 2016).

Within the social strategies domain, participants rated the item ‘asking classmates for the meaning’ the highest. This suggests that learners approach their classmates first before they turn to the teacher. Even when they seek a teacher’s help, they ask for hints or examples rather than a direct translation. A possible explanation for this is that learners may feel more comfortable checking the meaning of words with their peers.

In situations in which students are determined to find the meaning of a new word on their own, they first try to guess the meaning from the context. Context could be either the surrounding words and phrases, or pictures. This strategy, if mastered well, can help students understand words in situations in which they have limited resources, for example when they have no access to dictionaries. It ‘involves making informed guesses as to the meaning of a word in the light of all available linguistic cues in combination with the learner’s general knowledge of the world, her awareness of co-text and her relevant linguistic knowledge’ (Haastrup, 1991, p. 40). The richer the context, the more accurate the result will be.

Respondents rated using visual aids like pictures or mental images as a helpful tool when trying to comprehend the meaning of a new word. The teacher’s body language may also help students work out what the word signifies. Physical representation of the word is highly used with action words such as ‘kick’ and ‘hit’. Some words could possibly also be described using facial expressions, for example words like ‘think’ or ‘cry’.

When EFL students fail to discover a word's meaning based on given linguistic clues, they often seek out the equivalent in their first language by using, for example, Arabic-English dictionaries. Monolingual English-English dictionaries do not seem to be a popular choice among this study's participants. This could be due to the fact that participants find it difficult to use the target language to check the meaning of new words. As Thornbury (2002) explains, learners resort to bilingual dictionaries because they are easier to understand than monolingual dictionaries. In other words, using their first language is easier and more appealing to learners as it requires less effort. Learners' proficiency levels seem to be an influential factor when it comes to the choice of dictionary. According to Carter (2012), students with limited language skills tend to use bilingual dictionaries. Dictionaries, especially monolingual ones, provide learners with important information about the new word. Students can see examples of the new item in context, check its part of speech, and study its spelling.

Once students have discovered the meaning of a new word, the next step in their learning process is memorisation. Learners apply different strategies to memorise new words. In this study, respondents reported that to remember new items, they repeat the word aloud. They also put effort into studying its pronunciation. These techniques were ranked the highest of all the items in the questionnaire with percentages of 79% and 75% respectively. This shows that the participants place paramount importance on oral strategies when learning new words. Being EFL learners may explain the students' keenness to pronounce the word accurately. Comparing new words to their synonyms or antonyms is another technique respondents sometimes use to memorise words.

Cognitive strategies offer further techniques learners may use to process and memorise new words and structures. Of the cognitive strategies, participants

reported that they use repetition of the new words. This strategy can help students familiarise themselves with the sound of the word. Oral strategies, such as saying the words aloud and repeating them, seem particularly popular among EFL learners. This is also the case for the participants in the present study. In addition to oral strategies, the students often use writing to learn new words. To sum up, of all the cognitive strategies, this study's participants favour repetition in both forms, oral and written.

During the process of learning, successful learners make use of all the available techniques to reach their goal. In the present study, respondents reported that they are often attentive to the way others speak English. This step shows the students' awareness of the importance of learning the language in different contexts. On account of their access to media, such as films, shows, and songs where language is naturally and fluently used, students are able to pick up new vocabulary that they may not be introduced to in class. The participants also all replied that they study the word multiple times. Although the statement in the questionnaire says nothing about the study type, the response range ('always') suggests that respondents feel that they make a formal and conscious effort to learn the new word. In fact, this strategy was rated the highest among all the strategies in the five domains. However, as stated above, the questionnaire being somewhat vague on this point, it is unclear how exactly students repeatedly 'study' the word. It would be helpful to allow participants to add examples here. By doing so, the list of strategies could be improved as students may add methods not mentioned in the original questionnaire. Another metacognitive strategy respondents use is testing their vocabulary knowledge in word tests. Checking their progress shows responsibility on the part of the students.

Compared to the majority's concern for correct vocabulary pronunciation, the strategy least used by the respondents is writing a paragraph containing the newly learnt word. It is noteworthy that strategies that require deep cognitive processing, such as labelling physical objects in English, are rarely used by the participants.

Summary and Conclusion

There is no doubt that the use of learning strategies increases the chances of effective learning, specifically in terms of vocabulary acquisition. The present study explored vocabulary learning strategies of Saudi EFL female students at the University of Hafr Al-Batin. The statistical analysis revealed that the participants were moderate strategy users. This usage level could be an indicator of a lack of awareness of all the available strategies. Introducing the strategies in class, showing their usefulness, and teaching students how the techniques may be applied could significantly improve the VLS usage level as well as students' vocabulary skills.

The EFL learners in this study value social strategies the most and use determination strategies the least. This particular result indicates that participants tend to depend less on themselves when they learn vocabulary and more on exterior support. They appreciate the intervention of others. This is a useful insight that may form the basis for recommendations to educators and teachers. For example, teachers should make sure that there is a friendly atmosphere in the classroom when teaching vocabulary, so that learners do not hesitate to discuss new words. Moreover, the use of social exercises in class are recommended to assist students in their learning. However, social strategies are by no means the only way to develop vocabulary. Autonomous learning is of paramount importance to learners. It is a life-long learning strategy that does not depend on engagement with others; it relies entirely on the learners themselves. In this respect, vocabulary development varies according to individual learners' efforts. Teachers need to be aware of the benefits of autonomous learning and should encourage learners to develop and foster independent learning skills by presenting the techniques and strategies learners need to be successful in this regard. Teachers should also assign exercises that require

individual effort. Apart from supporting social and determination strategies, it is advisable that teachers equip students with a variety of techniques that can make the learning process more rewarding. For example, a list of the vocabulary strategies mentioned in the present paper could be provided. Lastly, it would be advantageous to implement strategies that encourage learners to utilise English in their daily lives. For example, students can use English in their social media accounts on Facebook and Instagram, or when they narrate their daily routines at home. By doing so, learners contribute into improving their own learning of the target language, which, eventually, increases the chances of more rewarding results.

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The Impact of Electronic Money on Monetary Aggregates

An Empirical Study on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

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Abstract:

The paper studies the role of e-money and its influence on the monetary policy in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Where recently, there has been a massive development in electronic money (e-money) as part of development of electronic payment system and banking functions in the globe. Where the interest in using e-money has increased because it is one of the primary means of payments to small values and it helps carry out transactions more easily and less expensively. The study employed the descriptive method to determine the effect of the development of electronic money on the banking system in the different areas directly or indirectly, analyze the previous literature reviews related to this subject so, as to understand all aspects of this subject. Also, the paper presented an empirical model to measure how the electronic payment system may impact the monetary policies adopted by the Saudi Monetary Agency. Furthermore, it highlighted the role of exchange rate stability in curbing inflationary pressures and creating an investment-friendly environment. The results from this paper represent that Saudi Arabia has a strong network of electronic payment systems and the impact of e-money on the monetary policy in the Saudi Monetary Agency is not massive, and does not led to reduce monetary policy effectiveness. In addition, the role of exchange rate stability in curbing inflationary pressures.

Keywords: Impact – E- Money - Monetary Policy - Saudi Arabia

I. Introduction:

The development of information technologies and the advancement of global economy have contributed in improving banking system. Electronic payments system refers to all electronically conducted transactions. It is believed that a world without money would be more efficient and more stable than the current economies, because it would be free of inflation. The development of the electronic payment system may contribute in changing the traditional banking jobs and may lead to some difficulties in implementing this concept. There are many factors that may affect the electronic payment system, such as the country's level of development particularly the infrastructure openness to global market and the integration of different markets of money and commodities in this country. On the other hand, e-money causes many debates to occur about its influence on monetary policy and its ability to replace the currency in circulation.

Therefore, this paper analyzes the influence of e-money on the monetary policy in one of the countries (the Saudi Arabia).

II. The Problem:

We will focus on discussing the following issue: Does electronic money have the ability to change the monetary aggregates in the Saudi Arabia and the role played by central banks? We will try to examine that.

III. Research importance:

The development of the electronic payment system may contribute in changing the traditional banking jobs and create the new functions. Therefore, this paper interests to study the influence of e-money on the monetary aggregates in the Saudi Arabia.

IV. The Statistical hypothesis:

There is a statistically significant relationship between the growth of electronic money and changing the monetary aggregates in the Saudi Arabia.

V. Research limits and variables:

The e- Money can impact such variables as monetary supply, exchange rates, the money multiplier, velocity of money. So, we collected the data of this variables from the different Annual Reports of Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency through the period from 1990 to 2019 as quarterly data

VI. Objective:

This paper aims to show the development of electronic money and its impact on changing the monetary aggregates and monetary policy. Also, it shows how central banks can control the changing of monetary aggregates and using the tools of monetary policy to balance.

VII. The Methodology of statically analysis

The study employs the descriptive method to determine the effect of the development of electronic money on the banking system in the different areas directly or indirectly. Through the previous literature reviews related to this subject and understand all aspects of this subject. Also the study uses the Descriptive Statistics variables in the Saudi Arabian to estimate the multiple regressions model.

VIII. The plan of research:

First: we show the previous literature reviews related to this subject to understand all aspects. Also we represent the development of the electronic money and the forms of it. Then, we are discussing the Analysis according to Benjamin Friedman and Palley.

Second: we employ the descriptive method to determine the effect of the development of electronic money on the banking system in the Saudi Arabian through the multiple regressions model.

IX. Literature Review

- Some studies have been conducted by Bank for International Settlements about the implications of the development of electronic money on central banks. All the researchers who have participated in this study emphasize the fact that that development of e-money and the associated policy assessments are subject to considerable uncertainty that is likely to influence the nature and timing of any central bank's regulatory response. Therefore, an appropriate regulatory framework for e-money has to be designed to balance different objectives including the stability and financial integrity of the issuer, protection of consumers and the promotion of competition and innovation.
- It was also noted in another study that the spread of e-money through the rapid advance in information technology would increase the security of this new instrument, but would weaken the role of central banks in controlling the supply of reserves. Further, the central banks' role as issuers of money will be undermined by the emergence of non-bank competitors in the provision of payment services; this will directly affect the central banks' control of monetary aggregates. In addition, central banks will have to shoulder new responsibilities like following up on the development of e-money and regulating its growth and usage.

X. Definition of E-Money

There are many definitions of e-money from many institutions.

- **The (E.C.B)¹** has given a definition of e-money as “an electronic store of monetary value within a technical system that may be used for making payments, without needing to involve accounts of banks in the transaction”.
- **(CAB)² has** described e-money as a digital system that moves electronically, and the individual can have it on a smart card or electronic portfolio. It can be used to buy something or it can be used from person to person directly without the interference of any outside structure. In addition, e-money can be transferred or spent through telephone lines.

More generally, there are three basic points that cover this subject and they together provide a solid analytical foundation:

XI. Functions of E-money:

Traditional money has three classic functions, which are:

1. Unit of account.
2. Means of payment.
3. Store of value.

E-money has not done all the functions of traditional money; it performs the function of medium of exchange and sometimes becomes a means of payments. However, it cannot carry out the mission of storing value in the same way as traditional money does. Electronic money emerged as a means of payment more than 3 decades ago, where using the mechanics of e-money was much slower than expected at the beginning as an outcome of the expensive application. In the following period, the institution played an inhibitory role to put complex rules for using electronic money in order to change this situation.

(1) **(E.C.B):European Central Bank)**

(2) **(CAB): the Consumer Advisory Board of the Federal Reserve of the (USA)**

XII. Types of E-money

- Financial transactions can be divided into two wide categories:
- They require using cash.
- The transactions do not require using cash, where the non-cash transactions consist of electronic payment systems that use some electronic devices.

Electronic Payment Systems (E.P.S.) are based on two types:

a. Smart Cards: Smart cards can also be defined as electronic portfolios; they are plastic cards with microprocessors that can be filled with a money value. The card's value is reduced with each purchase. Smart card can be re-loaded and used for multiple tasks. It needs no online authorization for value transfer.

b. Network Money: The second type of (E.P.S.) is Network Money, which refers to the software that allows the transfer of value on Internet networks. E- Money balance is a claim on a private bank or other financial institution that is not linked to any account in the bank.

IT is thought that electronic transactions do not use cash paper, this is true. However, it does not mean that electronic transactions do not require having official money. Both types of e-money require the existence of official money. The main difference between these two types of e-money is technical; the first type of e-money can be regarded as more similar to other means of payment based on the use of a card, but the second type of e-money is related to electronic fund transfers. The two types can be issued by banks as well as by firms outside the banking sector.

The following table represents the types of money or the means of payments.

Table (1) makes clear the means of payment

Means of Payment	
Non-cash	cash
Checks	Electronic
Traveler's checks	Electronic Fund Transfers (EFT)
Paper transfers	
Cards	
Credit cards	Debt cards

Done by the researcher.

There are many types of e-money. However, we will focus on the following three types in this research (Visa, Master, and ATM). “Benjamin Friedman” distinguishes between three types of new means of payment:

1. **(ATM) Automated Teller Machines:** is an e-machine put in general location and linked with data system. It is run by a bank employee to operate the drawls cash and other banking services, and it does not conceptually differ from the traditional means of payment.

2. **Visa Cash (VCs):** They are cash cards that are paid by software programs in the banks. This kind of e-money can replace currency. It is a way of making payments without having to carry money. Visa Cards are known in the world as a brand. Visa International Company has 21,000 banks. These banks have produced over one billion visa cards around the world, with values of 4 US trillion Dollars per year across over 150 countries.

There are two kinds of Visa Cards:

- a. **Determined Cards:** These cards carry the advanced determining value. They are loaded with categories of local currency. When the value of the card expires, the card is unusable and one may have to buy a new card then.

- b. Recyclable Cards:** They come without pre-limited values; consumers can reload the Cash values into (ATMs).

For (VCs), they are not likely to impact the central banks' policies, because (VCs) are identical means of payment that have already been used in a part of the market of middle sized transactions and very small purchases. Therefore, central banks could still affect the short run interest rate.

3. The third type (Master Cards): They can replace settlements on the central bank's books. Freedman believes that network money has created new ways to substitute settlements. They are small plastic cards issued from the bank to make electronic purchases. Credit cards are different from Debit Cards. Most credit cards have the same shape and size, as specified by International Standardized Organization (ISO).

XIII. The risks in using e-money and official money

There is that feeling that central banks would lose control over monetary policies, which would cause financial crises and change the foreign exchange rates. The views on this issue are more varied; some economists suggest that e-money is not different from all those kinds of money that we have today. Thus, the monetary policy implications of e-money are modest.

So we are going to shed light on some risks that can be posed in the monetary policy with the official money, which is not different from e-money:

- 1. Credit:** Credit: A bank's failing to fulfill a commitment of any organization is considered one of the most popular dangers related to banking activity. Another danger has to do with the electronic payment system's being unable to make all payments due to an error in the electronic system.

2. **Liquidity:** Another danger is when an organization becomes unable to meet its payment commitments without incurring losses when an electronic program is not able to produce more e-money or when there is more demand for e-money than the supply.
3. **Interest Rate: It is dangerous** if the movement of the interest rates negatively affects organization's financial circumstances. Nevertheless, the electronic payment system does affect liquidity.
4. **Foreign Exchange:** It is risky if the government's organizations issue local currencies to accept e-money or if the e-money scheme allows the approval of multiple currencies. Thus, changing the foreign exchange rates might negatively impact the financial situation of institutions and this is more dangerous.

- **The different risks**

1. E-money differs from the official money in that it is able to store the pre-paid values on smart cards. Using smart cards needs specialized computer hardware that involves software based on schemes loaded on computer, usually the specialized software that using microprocessor fixed in a plastic card.
2. In addition, the institutional arrangements related to e-money differ from those of official money; four kinds of service suppliers are used in running e-money: the issuers of e-money value, the web operator, the user of specific knowledge related to e-programs, and the responsible on the specific transactions of e-money.
3. The way of transferring the value e-money schemes, as electronic money is directly switched from peer to peer without participating a third one.
4. Some specific points of transactions are registered between the users and

dealers of e-money a central database.

5. In most e-money schemes, the value of e-money is stored in the system only in the local currency, but it is possible to keep the balances and payments in several different currencies.

XIV. Analysis and discussion

The debate is on the issue of whether a significant shrinking of the proportion of base money necessarily implies the weakness of central banks and their ability, and thus affects the economy as a whole through using the interest rates. It seems that that debate may have sparked off by many economists like “**Benjamin Friedman**” who believes that a significant reduction in the demand for base money, in particular for banks’ reserves, implies a corresponding decrease in central banks’ power and economy.

Friedman believes that central banks are able to control the interest rate and implement monetary policies, crucially depends that there is a positive demand for reserves or for official money. If this demand significantly decreases, central bank will see its power reduced.

Development of e-money refers to a reduction in the demand for both cash and bank deposits. Thus, the demand on reserves at the central bank decreases if the demand on the deposits decreases although banks can reduce their deposits at the central bank for other purposes as well.

There are many reactions concerning the effects of e-money on the demand for central banks’ liabilities. **Palley** is another economist who has taken a similar position like that of Friedman’s; **Palley** believes that a wide diffusion of e-money will largely reduce the demand for commercial banks’ reserves. However, he thinks that the power of central banks can be maintained by en-

couraging the significant positive demand for liabilities of central banks by imposing taxes for example.

Therefore, we are going to focus on liquidity's impact on narrow money and conduct a simplifying analysis.

XV. Liquidity Effects

The substitution of official money with e-money would impact the monetary aggregates and thus the largest impact would be on the narrow money (M1). We are going to concentrate on changing liquidity's impact on narrow money and carry out a simplifying analysis.

The impact of e-money on M1 depends on three factors:

- (1) The banking system's willingness to increase its deposits.
- (2) The reserve request on e-money balances and demand deposits.
- (3) The particular definition of M1 where M1 consists of only currency (C) and deposits (D). We will involve the e-money balances (EM) in the definition of M1.

This second channel could be of more importance because it potentially has a larger impact on M1.

The liquidity effect of transformation from official money to e-money balances depends on whether obligatory reserve requirements are in place or not.

Banks hold their reserves as percentage of certain types of deposits and hold the excess reserves for settlement purposes at the central bank. Banks can increase their deposits if they can make many loans. When a bank makes a loan, this is automatically matched by an equal increase in deposits. Hence, banks are willing to make loans if the marginal returns on loans are larger than the

marginal costs of deposits. However, obligatory reserve requirements prevent the provision of further loans, and, correspondingly, the deposits increase. Thus, with obligatory reserve requirements, the marginal rate of returns on loans is larger than the marginal costs of deposits and banks would be willing to increase their deposits at the current rate of returns and costs.

The following analysis considers two scenarios:

- (1) Zero reserve requirements.
- (2) Reserve requirements.

A. **Zero obligatory reserve requirements:**

We assume that the liquidity effect of transforming one unit of official money to one unit of e-money balances when zero obligatory reserve requirements are in place. With zero obligatory reserve requirements, the market for deposits and loans will be in balance and the marginal returns on loans equals' marginal costs of deposits and the Banks have some market power. That means the bank's increasing supply of loans would marginally reduce the rate of returns on loans and result in a loss. Thus, due to the prevailing rate of returns on loans and the prevailing costs of deposits, banks become unwilling to increase deposits by providing additional loans.

Banks are not willing to increase their deposits, the costs of deposits and the prevalent rate of return on loans, since substitution of official money with e-money does not affect the banking system's demand for settlement balances (reserves). The increase in supplying of reserves would marginally decrease the interest rate for settlement balances. That is, banks are only willing to hold the additional unit of reserves when the price for settlement balances is marginally reduced.

At the same time, transformation to digital money implies that the total amount

of currency in circulation (C) decreases by one unit and the banking system's stock of official money increases by one unit. The bank receiving the currency unit can either hold it as cash or return it to the central bank and thus increase its reserves at the central bank by one unit.

The summary of this analysis is that some changes occur in M1 with no reserve requirements.

- If e-money balances were not involved in the definition of (M1), that M1 would either increase or decrease. The mark of the change would depend on whether the decrease in currency (C) exceeds the increase in deposits (D) or not.

- If e-money balances were involved in the definition of M1, the transformation would lead to an increase of M1 because the decrease in (C) would be like an equal change in e-money balances (EM), and deposits (D) would marginally increase. Alternatively, it is more probable that the increase in (D) would make up the decrease in (C).

Thus, M1 would increase.

B. Obligatory Reserve Requirements

In this analysis, the substitution of the official money with e-money would impact the monetary aggregates, where the banks are willing to make loans and increase their deposits at the prevalent rate of returns on loans and costs of deposits that are available. **Therefore, the transformation will lead to:**

(1) Direct effect on M1 through reducing the currency (C)

(2) Indirect effect through changing the reserves of banks ®.

This analysis will build on a simple model of money using Money multiplier, which represents the link between the different monetary aggregates and the

monetary base.

· If we define the stock of narrow money without using e-money as the following:

$$M_1 = C + D \text{ ----- (1)}$$

M_1 : is the stock of narrowly defined money.

C: currency in the hands of the public.

D: deposit in the institutions

$$M_1 = MB * m \text{ ----- (2)}$$

MB: monetary base.

m: the money multiplier.

$$MB = C + R \text{ ----- (3)}$$

R: required reserves

· If we define the stock of narrow money **by** using e-money as the following

$$M_1 = C + D + (EM) \text{ ----- (4)}$$

EM = e-money

$$MB = C + R + E \text{ ----- (5)}$$

E = excess reserves from e-money

Thus, we can derive the change in the required reserves by using the following form

$$R = r_d D + r_{EM} (EM) \text{ ----- (6)}$$

R: required reserves

r_d **D: the required reserve ratio on the deposits**

r_{EM} **(EM): the required reserve ratio on digital money balances.**

XVI. The Rustle of Analyzing:

We can draw some conclusions from the above debate on the effects of e-money on monetary economics.

First: All the researchers who took part in this debate emphasized that it is very unlikely for e-money to become a widely adopted means of payment in the near future.

Second: Also, if e-money is widely used, it will still not displace conventional money completely. This cannot happen not only because e-money must however be bought with conventional money, but also because conventional money remains a more efficient instrument for a more widely class of transactions.

Third: Most of the participants have agreed on that IT changes can have relevant effects on monetary economics and central banks.

Section 2: Saudi Arabia's Monetary Policy and its Interactions with E-money

XVII. The economic performance in the Saudi Arabian

Indeed, the oil income is the main point of economic activity in Saudi Arabia, where about 30% percentage of financial revenues and about 70% of GDP and 80% of exports come from the oil sector. The economic growth in Saudi Arabia is expected to increase the economic performance at the end 2020.

The monetary policy is an important way that allows the government to influence the economy where the Central Bank has a number of targets to implement the efficient monetary policy over time. Nevertheless, Saudi Arabia's Central Bank in faces a problem when selecting targets because it is difficult to know whether changes must be applied through monetary policy or fiscal policy.

Saudi Arabia has put limitations on monetary policy since the economy was opened, hanged the SDR/riyal link in May 1981 and pegged the Saudi Riyal with the US Dollar which led to increasing the interest rates of Saudi Riyal.

Limitations to monetary policy in Saudi Arabia are due to the openness of the economy in 1981, with the Riyal effectively pegged to the US Dollar since the suspension of the SDR/Riyal link in May 1981. This leads to interest rates of Riyal tracking the rates of Dollar closely with a small premium since the mid-1980s.

In the past, domestic banks contributed substantially to capital outflow from Saudi Arabia, fanning intermittent bouts of speculation against the riyal, particularly when oil prices remained depressed. It was hard to establish the extent of the banks' responsibility for dislocation in the Riyal market, as the

banks claimed that their extensive net foreign assets and large net foreign exchange positions were the result of liquidity management rather than a deliberate short positioning of the Riyal. There is some credibility to the banks' claim, given that their net foreign assets and net foreign exchange position were significantly reduced once a range of domestic financial instruments was created in the 1990s. It appears that there are several reasons behind the impact on the conduct of monetary policy in Saudi Arabia.

In addition, the creation and diffusion of e-money could determine the range of decrease in the ratio of base money to total money in the central bank.

The new global report "The Cashless Journey" puts Kingdom of Saudi Arabia among those economies that have begun accelerating their move towards becoming a cashless society. The report, produced by MasterCard Advisors, showed the evolution of consumer payment patterns in 33 countries from five regions, representing more than 85% of global GDP, taking in both developed and developing nations, using a single methodology.

MasterCard Advisors' research indicates that a country's readiness to move to a cashless society is determined by factors like the accessibility and affordability of financial services; the scale and market share of retailers; the level of technology that is available; and participation of consumers in the formal economy.

The report indicated that Saudi Arabia has eliminated many of the typical macroeconomic barriers for going cashless. Saudi Arabia seems to be moving at a better pace on its cashless journey and the key reason for reduced cash share appears to be a substantial share shift from cash to debit cards between 2006 and 2011. The Share Indicator score for Saudi Arabia is 19, which puts the market in a category of countries that Advisors refer to as "Inception", countries that are just starting their cashless journey. However, low rates of

financial inclusion, indicated by KSA's majority unbanked population, may continue to have an adverse impact on the growth of cashless payments.

XVIII. The development of payment systems in Saudi

That role of (SAMA) in payment systems has evolved to maintain the safety of the Saudi banking, monetary system and to strengthen its credibility. The SAMA has established a Banking Technology Department (BTD) to implement the payment strategy Which responsible for the development, day-to-day operation of the payment and clearing and settlement systems in Saudi Arabia , also cooperation and participation with the local banks.

(SAMA) operates a network of 10 regional branches to meet the government's needs to collect and distribute funds and to meet the requirements of local commercial banks for currency and remittances. The regional cheque clearing houses are also operated at each of these branches.

Here are about 23 commercial banks in Saudi Arabia; ten of these banks are Saudi banks, the other 13 being branches or offices of foreign banks located in Saudi Arabia, and about 1,519 branches. All banks fully participate in the various payment and settlement systems that are currently operational in Saudi Arabia.

In addition, There are 25 moneychangers that institutions provide a traditionally exchange and other elementary banking services in Saudi Arabia. These financial institutions are permitted by law to change foreign currencies into local currency and vice versa and to provide limited funds transfer services mainly to foreign pilgrims. The moneychangers perform no primary banking functions and are not permitted to directly participate in the payment and settlement systems.

In addition, the Saudi Payment Network (Mada) achieved growth in the num-

ber of ATMs operating in Saudi Arabia which increased by 2.5 percent and there were 18,333 ATMs in 2017, compared to a 3.9 percent rise in the preceding year. The number of ATM cards issued also went up by 7.0 percent and there were 28.4 million cards, compared to that increase by 18.2 percent in the preceding year. In addition, the number of transactions carried out through (Mada) rose by 5.9 percent and 870 million transactions were performed in 2017 as compared to a rise by 13.1 percent in the preceding year.

As a result, the total number of ATM transactions rose by 4.7 percent, 2.0 billion transactions. However, total cash withdrawals declined by 3.3 percent, worth 728.5 billion SARs.

XIX. The objects of the Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency

- **To issue** and strengthen the Saudi currency and to stabilize its internal and external values.
- **Price stability** is difficult to define, particularly when a currency pegged to a reserve currency or a basket of currencies, so the exchange rate policy tries to reflect the goal of internal price stability and balance of payments considerations.

Therefore, it is considered desirable to keep the exchange rate as stable as possible and to adjust it only when necessary. Thus, the monetary policy tied with fixed policy of exchange rate to encourage and maintain the inflow of domestic capital for investment. The major factors influencing monetary aggregates are the Government's fiscal operations and the private sector balance of payment deficits, where the changing in domestic bank credit to the private sector plays a relatively smaller role in influencing monetary aggregates.

So the monetary policy has channels to conveyance the Monetary these channels of transmission of monetary policy are as follows:

- 1. Exchange Rate Effect:** The effectiveness of monetary policy is limited given Saudi Arabia's policy choice of administering the dollar exchange rate and the high degree of asset substitutability. Any decoupling of riyal interest rates from dollar interest rates, particularly in the event of lower riyal rates, will encourage arbitraging, which will have a negative impact on official foreign exchange reserves. Thus, we can say there cannot be an autonomous monetary policy under fixed exchange rate system.
- 2. Credit Availability:** Credit has a limited impact on the transmission mechanism of monetary policy, largely due to the subsidized lending of specialized credit institutions to the various economic sectors, and to banks' lending behaviour.
- 3. Interest Rate Changes:** In the absence of long-term bank credit and any meaningful leveraging by households and firms, the significance for disposable income to interest rate changes is less pronounced than is the case in did not leveraged financial environment. Thus the demand for money is generally inelastic to interest rate changes.
- 4. Wealth Effect:** This factor has its limitations in Saudi Arabia due to limited collateralization of assets and hence the limited impact on bank credit of a decline in financial asset prices.

XX. Classification of currency in circulation in SAMA

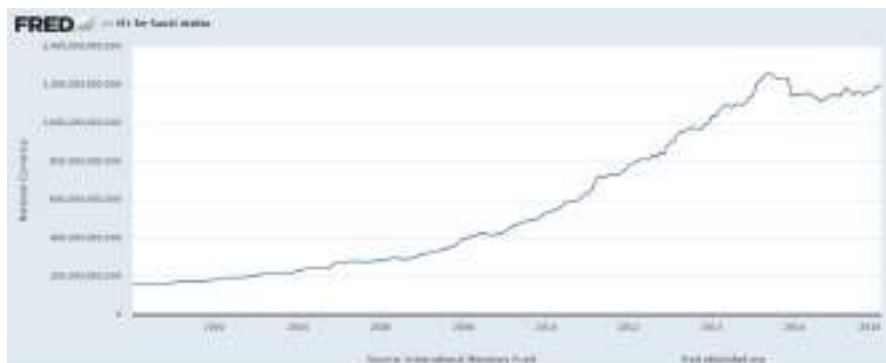
SAMA classifies currency in circulation and demand deposits as the components of the narrow monetary aggregate, namely **M1**. The broader monetary aggregate, **M2**, incorporates monetary assets within **M1** as well as less liquid assets such as savings and time deposits. In accordance with SAMA's defini-

tion of money supply, the definition of M1 comprises currency outside banks and demand deposits of businesses, individuals, and government entities in national currency with commercial banks. Currency in circulation shows that the notes and coins issued by SAMA are less than the amount held by commercial banks.

- **M2** comprises of **M1** and time and savings deposits of businesses, individuals, and government entities in national currency with commercial banks.

- **M3** comprises of **M2** and other quasi-monetary liabilities of commercial banks. Other quasimonetary liabilities comprise of foreign currency deposits of businesses, individuals, and government entities, marginal deposits for letters of credit, outstanding remittances, and banks' repurchase agreements with the private sector.

The money supply M1 in Saudi Arabia increased from 1254167 million SARs in May 2019 to 1260199 million SARs in June 2019. Money Supply M1 in Saudi Arabia averaged 499382.19 million SARs from 1993 until 2019, reaching an all-time high rate of 1260199 million SARs in June 2019 and a record low of 121503 million SARs in December 1993.



XXI. Tools of Monetary Policy

The fiscal policy plays a more dominant role than monetary policy in influencing economic activities. Because the role of monetary policy had been constrained by the pegged exchange rate system with dollar, Therefore, the Saudi Riyal interest rates followed the dollar rates, while monetary aggregates were determined largely by external factors and the Government's net domestic expenditures in shadow the openness of economy.

Hence, the monetary policy supports the fiscal policy by maintaining price stability; in addition the revenues from the Oil help to achieve stability of the price also. Because its represent the most important returns for the Saudi economy where its finance about 80% of government spending. SAMA receives oil income in dollars and put the equivalent deposits in Saudi Riyals in the Ministry of Finance's account and the dollars go to the reserves. Therefore, there is no immediate impact on domestic liquidity and the foreign exchange outflows approximate the riyal spending by the government in excess of local taxes.

XXII. Development of Monetary Aggregates in Saudi Arabia

Over time, the combination of the government's net domestic spending resulting from private sector balance of payments deficit dominates the changes in domestic liquidity. The central bank credit and other factors face the private sector balance of payments deficit, which would resulted in a far higher rate of M3 growth. Where the data in the following table (1) shows growth of M3 through the period from 1990 until 2019, which represent that M3 was multiplier with 5.7 through the period from 1990 to 2010 however the growth from 2010 to 2019 became 1.8. In addition, the change in bank claims on the rest of the economy accelerated. The result was a change in M3 of 1,985,139 billion SARs in 2019.

Also, the money Supply M1 in Saudi Arabia increased from 1254167 million

SARs in May 2019 to 1260199 million SARs in June 2019. Money Supply M1 in Saudi Arabia averaged 499382.19 SAR Million from 1993 until 2019, reaching an all-time high of 1260199 SAR Million in June of 2019 and a record low of 121503 SAR Million in December of 1993.

On other hand, the exchange rate plays a crucial role in Saudi Arabia's monetary policy; also the exchange rate is important variable for price stability and the balance of payments. Where the monetary policy under the fixed exchange rate is influenced by the level of foreign exchange outflows and the small change in interest rates may lead to a big change in reserves.

The following table shows the Money Supply in Saudi Arabian through the period from 1990:2019.

Table (1): Money Supply through the period from 1990:2019 Million Riyals

End of Period	1 Curren- cy Outside Banks	2 Demand Deposits	‘3 (1+2) Money Supply M1	4 Time & Savings Deposits	‘5 (3+4) Money Supply M2	6 Other Quasi -Money Deposits*	‘7 (5+6) Money Supply M3
1990	44,776	57,488	102,265	39,281	141,545	46,893	188,438
1991	44,620	75,850	120,470	44,623	165,093	50,749	215,843
1992	43,772	81,692	125,464	46,333	171,796	51,209	223,005
1993	42,623	78,880	121,503	47,892	169,395	59,028	228,423
1994	44,965	80,679	125,644	51,417	177,062	59,169	236,231
1995	43,087	81,384	124,471	61,223	185,694	56,075	241,769
1996	43,038	89,890	132,928	71,081	204,009	54,314	258,323
1997	45,823	95,361	141,184	77,166	218,349	54,200	272,549
1998	45,019	95,253	140,272	83,436	223,708	59,548	283,256
1999	55,060	101,605	156,665	85,341	242,007	63,439	305,446
2000	51,019	114,481	165,500	90,832	256,332	62,657	318,989
2001	49,203	130,192	179,396	91,685	271,080	68,902	339,983
2002	52,329	150,010	202,339	108,028	310,367	79,841	390,209
2003	55,445	167,577	223,022	113,382	336,404	80,703	417,107
2004	60,133	211,170	271,303	136,673	407,976	87,692	495,668
2005	64,288	219,251	283,539	165,266	448,805	104,542	553,348
2006	69,324	243,418	312,742	226,027	538,769	121,500	660,268
2007	72,192	311,365	383,557	283,059	666,616	123,140	789,755
2008	83,006	342,488	425,494	367,624	793,118	136,007	929,125
2009	88,395	433,162	521,558	323,377	844,935	184,009	1,028,944
2010	95,520	530,072	625,592	298,283	923,874	156,495	1,080,370
2011	119,902	642,094	761,995	316,401	1,078,396	161,150	1,239,545
2012	133,121	756,555	889,676	329,680	1,219,356	188,718	1,408,074
2013	143,140	860,270	1,003,410	350,266	1,353,677	207,394	1,561,070
2014	153,750	991,384	1,145,135	403,419	1,548,554	193,335	1,741,889
2015	168,492	980,151	1,148,642	439,377	1,588,020	197,562	1,785,582
2016	170,323	976,086	1,146,409	496,019	1,642,429	157,279	1,799,708
2017	172,046	1,002,468	1,174,514	454,152	1,628,666	176,505	1,805,171

End of Period	1 Currency Outside Banks	2 Demand Deposits	3 (1+2) Money Supply M1	4 Time & Savings Deposits	5 (3+4) Money Supply M2	6 Other Quasi -Money Deposits*	7 (5+6) Money Supply M3
2018	180,132	1,040,665	1,220,797	443,022	1,663,820	189,826	1,853,645
2019	189,160	1,099,151	1,288,311	501,667	1,789,978	195,161	1,985,139

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If e-money can substitute the Central Bank's currency, the Central Bank's currency will be a component in all monetary aggregates. Therefore, a change in the demand for the Central Bank's currency could affect these aggregates. The largest impact, however, would be on the narrowly defined stock of money, M1, which in most countries consists of central bank currency in circulation, traveler's checks in the hands of the public, and demand deposits. Other monetary aggregates, such as M2 or M3, could also be affected, but because central bank's currency has less weight in these aggregates, they would be less affected. The size of the stock of central bank currency in circulation, the size of demand deposit, and their relative weight, i.e., the (central bank) currency-to-deposit ration are the first indicators for the potential effect of a replacement of central bank currency on the narrowly defined stock of money, M1.

Table (2) Monetary Base through the period from 1994:2019 Million Riyals

End of Period	1 Currency Outside Banks	2 Vault Cash In	Deposits with SAMA			6 '(1+2+5) Monetary Base Reserve Money
			3 Deposits of Banks	4 Deposits of public financial institutions	5 '(3+4) Total	
1994	44,965	2,442	8,280	5,366	13,646	61,054
1995	43,087	2,464	8,627	3,135	11,762	57,313
1996	43,038	2,134	8,976	5,009	13,985	59,156
1997	45,823	2,916	9,501	5,630	15,131	63,870
1998	45,019	2,657	9,856	5,577	15,433	63,109
1999	55,060	5,468	10,515	1,760	12,275	72,803
2000	51,019	5,971	11,213	3,760	14,973	71,963
2001	49,203	3,453	12,716	1,980	14,696	67,353
2002	52,329	4,892	14,281	5,908	20,189	77,410
2003	55,445	4,257	15,472	3,312	18,784	78,486
2004	60,133	4,474	19,100	8,206	27,306	91,913
2005	64,288	7,201	21,271	6,371	27,642	99,131
2006	69,324	12,218	24,402	8,613	33,015	114,557
2007	72,192	10,019	36,277	5,648	41,925	124,136
2008	83,006	11,007	44,698	4,592	49,290	143,303
2009	88,395	10,856	50,715	1,778	52,493	151,745
2010	95,520	15,450	54,976	5,316	60,292	171,261
2011	119,902	19,945	63,511	7,498	71,010	210,856
2012	133,121	19,691	70,791	12,027	82,817	235,629
2013	143,140	23,248	81,901	7,789	89,690	256,078
2014	153,750	27,142	92,558	9,474	102,032	282,924
2015	168,492	29,420	98,117	4,668	102,785	300,697
2016	170,323	29,666	97,839	4,576	102,414	302,404
2017	172,046	31,311	97,534	1,035	98,570	301,926
2018	180,132	30,733	99,943	807	100,749	311,615
2019	189,160	29,319	105,470	724	106,194	324,674

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SAMA has introduced the initial competitive system of ATMs into the Kingdom by certain commercial banks in the mid 1980s by establishing the Saudi Payments Network (SPAN). The system operation was launched in April 1990 on the basis of full interoperability, linking the ATMs of all the commercial banks on a reciprocal basis so that all bank customers can withdraw cash at any ATM in the kingdom. This has permitted national ATM service coverage with a relatively modest deployment of ATMs. There are currently 2,577 ATM terminals in online daily operation in SPAN, processing 18.3 million transactions a month, for a total monthly value of 11.4 billion SARs. SAMA worked on a project to upgrade the SPAN system, and shrank the cash economy in 2001.

In 2015, there were more than 17,000 ATMs and 225,000 POS terminals connected to the network. More than 1.1 billion financial transactions were routed through the network, with a total value of almost SAR 626.3 billion (167 billion USD) with an average monthly transactions value in excess of 52 billion SARs. It is worth mentioning that 2015 witnessed an enormous growth in the number of installed POS terminals by over than 86 thousands devices. A number of ATMs has also grown by 17% in 2015 to be 17,217 machines compared to 14,711 in 2014.

Table (3) ATMs statistics

Period	No. of ATMs	No. of Cards Issued*	No. of Transactions (Million Riyals)			Cash Withdrawals(Million Riyals)		
			Mada	Banks	Total	Mada	Banks	Total
1995	1124	1972759	31475540	21064854	52540394	22269.1363	---	22269.1363
1996	1359	2482938	38543833	29740453	68284286	27167	---	27167
1997	1591	3052058	46977455	35803685	82781140	32526	14034	46560
1998	1808	3647881	56320769	41210184	97530953	37978	33752	71730
1999	1997	4696342	76976187	59987447	136963634	49317	54625	103942
2000	2234	4775352	90414210	79031826	169446036	57679	63583	121262
2001	2577	5561353	114683311	104689321	219372632	70421	66542	136963
2002	3120	5616565	133383021	131059818	264442839	76422	101333	177755
2003	3676	6032407	149601808	171898813	321500621	82472	89091	171563
2004	4104	6440893	173004367	239189114	412193481	92621	107801	200422
2005	4588	8041886	205444945	327758357	533203302	108225	137677	245902
2006	6079	9971521	248567219	378144594	626711813	128760.58	150340.84	279101.42
2007	7543	11104901	278913211	377577939	656491150	148050	160684	308734
2008	8893	12366441	338354626	533177986	871532612	184442	194567	379009
2009	9950	13712905	372974148	568727018	941701166	197769	213516	411285
2010	10885	12162407	418472501	656389761	1074862262	221482	246907	468389
2011	11766	14261993	485984904	768776365	1254761269	270593	307676	578269
2012	12712	16440258	532982683	800013253	1332995936	301473	324281	625754

Period	No. of ATMs	No. of Cards Issued*	No. of Transactions (Million Riyals)			Cash Withdrawals(Million Riyals)		
			Mada	Banks	Total	Mada	Banks	Total
2013	13883	17810653	558304609	777335949	1335640558	334331.4038	333810	668141.4038
2014	15516	20550274	624739995	904252659	1528992654	373029.8288	358373	731402.8288
2015	17223	22459275	726793585	1068741848	1795535433	435177.3843	342022.59	777199.9743
2016	17887	26537349	822232299	1100462142	1922694441	446300.3768	307149	753449.3768
2017	18333	28402914	870415834	1141955347	2012371181	440728.8	287782.3	728511.1
2018	18685	28559828	948781727	1176878389	2125660116	452931	295394	748325
2019	18882	31540067	982793512	1141980145	2124773657	468848.7415	271791.2823	740640.0238

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The effects of E-money on the implementation of monetary policy will depend upon whether its primary impact is on the demand for bank reserves or on the central banks capacity to supply these reserves. So the e- Money can impact such variables as monetary supply, exchange rates, the money multiplier, velocity of money. Knowing, that the control of the money supply lead to improve economic performance in generally. The following table shows the main variables that are influenced by e- money.

Table (4) some samples of the main variables that are influenced by e- money through the period from 1/1/1993 to 31/12/2019.

Quarterly	M1 for Saudi Arabia, National Currency, Quarterly	M2 for Saudi Arabia, National Currency, Quarterly, (MB)	Reserve Balances excluding Gold for Saudi Arabia, Billions of Dollars, Quarterly	Velocity of M2 Money Stock, Ratio,	Gross Domestic Income, Billions of Dollars, Quarterly	M1 Money Multiplier, Ratio, (m) Quarterly
1/1/1993	132,001	177,749	8,779	1.85	5767.812	2.83
4/1/1993	137,226	183,382	7,644	1.86	5864.799	2.79
7/1/1993	131,514	177,227	6,488	1.86	5910.743	2.75
10/1/1993	121,503	169,395	8,201	1.84	5927.023	2.71
10/1/1994	125,644	177,062	8,161	1.86	6155.738	2.72
7/1/1995	124,262	182,698	5,990	1.93	6426.443	2.77
10/1/1995	124,471	185,694	4,316	1.95	6531.606	2.80
1/1/1996	128,235	189,990	4,674	1.97	6545.416	2.77
4/1/1996	133,001	194,297	4,848	1.99	6663.732	2.79
4/1/1998	148,017	228,161	6,005	2.15	7480.079	2.55
7/1/1998	138,134	217,345	5,992	2.14	7609.555	2.52
10/1/1998	140,272	223,708	5,800	2.15	7696.11	2.48
1/1/1999	147,077	230,707	10,520	2.15	7819.355	2.43
4/1/1999	146,065	227,958	10,390	2.17	7965.95	2.40
7/1/2000	158,748	246,440	11,199	2.2	8647.179	2.13
10/1/2000	165,500	256,332	11,026	2.19	8793.083	2.10
1/1/2001	172,568	265,195	12,102	2.18	8897.873	2.08
1/1/2002	187,449	278,645	12,564	2.14	9480.569	1.97
10/1/2003	223,022	336,404	15,032	2.14	10477.14	1.77
10/1/2004	271,303	407,976	14,001	1.98	10688.303	1.77
1/1/2005	276,411	418,797	14,101	1.97	10844.582	1.75
10/1/2006	312,742	538,769	15,222	1.94	11711.862	1.74
1/1/2007	322,667	561,657	14,581	1.95	11900.665	1.74
10/1/2008	425,494	793,118	108,468	2.01	13485.337	1.68
1/1/2009	459,795	816,198	123,354	2.02	13811.601	1.66
4/1/2009	476,054	824,203	123,072	2.02	13952.617	1.64
7/1/2009	492,679	823,313	142,638	2.01	14112.574	1.62
10/1/2010	625,592	923,874	193,296	1.98	14477.511	1.62
1/1/2011	685,779	983,598	212,825	1.94	14535.432	1.60

Quarterly	M1 for Saudi Arabia, National Currency, Quarterly	M2 for Saudi Arabia, National Currency, Quarterly, (MB)	Reserve Balances excluding Gold for Saudi Arabia, Billions of Dollars, Quarterly	Velocity of M2 Money Stock, Ratio,	Gross Domestic Income, Billions of Dollars, Quarterly	M1 Money Multiplier, Ratio, (m) Quarterly
4/1/2011	716,633	1,014,937	233,296	1.92	14582.504	1.63
10/1/2012	887,115	1,221,543	261,336	1.73	14477.243	0.85
1/1/2013	940,948	1,253,035	276,518	1.74	14584.236	0.82
4/1/2013	961,968	1,281,349	284,465	1.74	14820.85	0.87
7/1/2014	1,098,920	1,500,507	335,002	1.65	15689.155	0.79
10/1/2014	1,142,951	1,541,694	352,171	1.64	15853.949	0.84
4/1/2015	1,257,089	1,630,105	395,053	1.63	16412.965	0.87
4/1/2016	1,145,714	1,589,236	454,976	1.57	16880.295	0.79
7/1/2017	1,148,480	1,619,199	502,148	1.55	18009.844	0.69

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XXIII. Regression Analysis

There is Essential assumption about the impact of electronic money on the conduct of monetary policy. So, We will estimate the regression model using SPSS software to answering on this questions Does electronic money has issued through the conversion of banknotes or sight deposits , Does it change the money supply and price stability or not? The OLS equation will be constructed as following:

Where:

	Monetary Base (MB) for Saudi Arabia
lnM1	M1 for Saudi Arabia
lnV	Velocity of M2 Money for Saudi Arabia
lnR	Reserve Balances excluding Gold for Saudi Arabia
lnm	Multiplier (m) for Saudi Arabia

The following Table clarifies the Descriptive Statistics variables entered, the mean of all variables, Std Deviation and the number of **Mean**.

Table (1) Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std Deviation	N
lnMB	13.1042	.79489	100
lnM1	.4950	.44322	100
lnV	.6529	.10369	100
lnR	9.6187	.71972	100
lnm	.4950	.44322	100

Both the mean and the standard deviation together determine the shape of the normal curve of the data, when the standard deviation close to the value (0), this means that the existing values are closing to the mean. The prewise table clears the nearby variables from the mean.

Table (2) shows the variables entered and Variables Removed

Table (2) Variables Entered/Removed b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	lnM1, lnV, lnRa lnm	.	Enter

a. Tolerance = .000 limits reached.

Table (2) Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	lnM1, lnV, lnRa lnm	.	Enter

b. Dependent Variable: lnMB

Table (3) Model Summary^b

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std Error of the Estimate
1	.950 ^a	.903	.900	.25153

a. Predictors: (Constant), lnM, lnV, lnR

b. Dependent Variable: lnMB

Look at Table (3) where estimated the multiple regressions model. This analysis was built on a simple model of money using money multiplier, Velocity of M2 Money and Reserve Balances which show the relation between the different monetary aggregates and monetary base. The Summary Table showed the correlation coefficient (R) equal 0.95. This result indicates to the strength of the regression equation. Therefore, the independent variables are being able to explain about 0.95 of the changes in monetary base and the rest (0.05) due to the other factors. Furthermore, the R Square (R²) estimated at 0.90, and, finally, the Adjusted R Square was 0.90, which indicate the strength of regression.

Table (4) ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	56.480	3	18.827	297.576	.000 ^a
	Residual	6.074	96	.063		
	Total	62.553	99			

a. Predictors: (Constant), lnM, lnV, lnR

b. Dependent Variable: lnMB

When we observe the fourth table (ANOVA) that it includes the values of the analysis of variance, through which it is possible to know the explanatory

strength of the model as a whole by means of the F statistic. It is noted from the analysis table of variance the high significance of the F-test ($P < 0.0001$) confirming the high explanatory strength of the multiple linear regression model statistically.

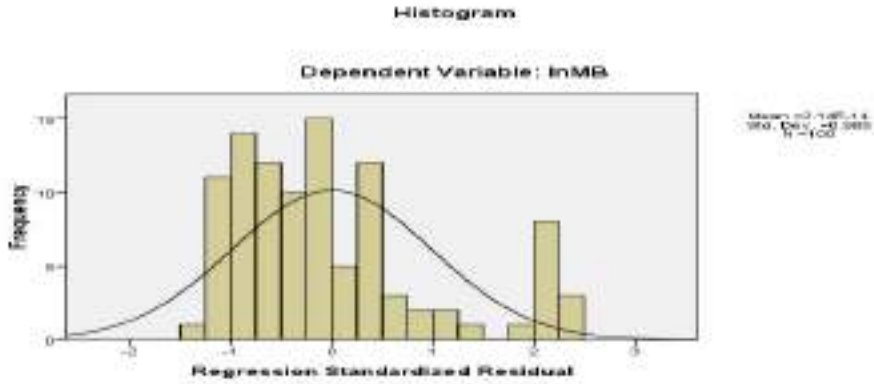
Table (5) Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standard-	t	Sig	95% Confidence Interval	
	Std. Error	Beta	ized Coeffi-			Lower	for B
						cients	Bound
1							
(Constant)	10.918	.738		14.801	.000	9.453	12.382
lnV	.146	.391	.019	.374	.709	-.630	.923
lnR	.285	.069	.258	4.134	.000	.148	.422
lnm	-1.316	.135	-.734	-9.766	.000	-1.583	-1.048

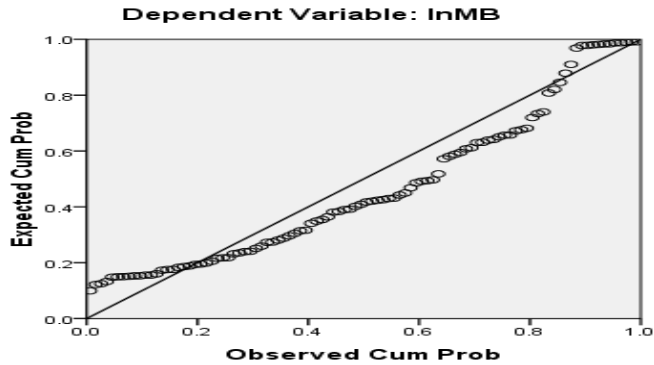
a. Dependent Variable: lnMB

We conclude from the previous table (coefficients) that the independent variables were statistically significant and according to the t-test (at the level of significance $P \leq 0.05$). Where, the table of the coefficients indicates to the elasticity of monetary base to changes in the quarterly multiplier (INm) (0.00). Also the elasticity of monetary base to changes money in (M1) was significant (0.00), but that the independent variable (Velocity) was not significant in the multiple regression model (0.709). In addition, the elasticity of monetary base to changes in Reserve Balances was significant (0.00). Moreover, the Constant value was significant (0.00) which means, the model is significant.

Charts



Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual



Conclusion

According to the previous analysis about “The Impact of Electronic Money on Monetary Aggregates in Saudi Arabia”, we can conclude the following points:

- 1- The independent variables were statistically significant where the elasticity of monetary base to changes in the quarterly multiplier, changes money in (M1) and changes in Reserve Balances was significant. This means, the model is significant to represent the relationship between the Impact of Electronic Money on Monetary Aggregates. But it does not influence on monetary policy and it does not have ability to replace the currency in circulation.
- 2- If the central bank defined its monetary goals clearly, the growth of e-money could not affect the stabilization of money demand in the future.
- 3- Decreasing the Central Bank’s control over money supply depends on the amount of local currency transferred to e-money, but the current situation does not indicate to decrease the Central Bank’s control in Saudi Arabia.
- 4- The velocity of money is increasing in Saudi Arabia where the velocity of e-money is related to cheaper cost of e-money transactions, and this led to the increase of the number of transactions of e-money and thus the velocity of all money.
- 5- Also the changing of the monetary multiplier of money in Saudi Arabia was an effective index to measure the relation between e-money and monetary aggregates.
- 6- Using a lot of e-money influenced the central banks’ revenues, be-

cause the necessity to print money decreases

- 7- The using of e-money inside the Saudi Arabia led to the wide use of e-money in international trade where the consumer would prefer e-money in transactions, because it is an easy and cheap way.
- 8- The growth of e-money contributed to the difficulties of distinguishing between monetary assets and non-monetary assets therefore, the definition of monetary aggregates is not clear.
- 9- The potential rise of the number of interest bearing assets would be more difficult to control the targeted monetary aggregates. Therefore, these facts can decrease the central bank's control over foreign exchange in the future.

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Appendices tables

End of Period	Currency Out- side Banks	Demand Deposits	Total	Time & Savings Deposits	Other Qua- si-Money Deposits*	Total	Total	Government Deposits**	Other Items (Net)	Total Liabilities
1993	42623	78880	121503	47892	59256	107148	228651	42478	155524	426653
1994	44965	80679	125644	51417	59377	110794	236438	35530	153739	425707
1995	43087	81384	124471	61223	56276	117499	241970	34625	144457	421052
1996	43037.64	89890.22	132927.856	71080.751	54313.953	125394.7	258322.56	49270	145709.228	453301.788
1997	45823.2	95360.55	141183.748	77165.538	54199.523	131365.1	272548.81	52777	171799.13	497124.939
1998	45019.05	95253.27	140272.317	83436.098	59547.916	142984	283256.33	49206	150473.16	482935.491
1999	55060.29	101604.9	156665.18	85341.415	63439.317	148780.7	305445.91	30995	122243.414	458684.326
2000	51019.46	114480.9	165500.388	90832.006	62656.915	153488.9	318989.31	52003	138768.234	509760.543
2001	49203.42	130192.5	179395.894	91684.591	68902.386	160587	339982.87	52155	148640.265	540778.136
2002	52329.21	150009.9	202339.071	108028.195	79841.297	187869.5	390208.56	51980	116750.15	558938.713
2003	55444.66	167577.2	223021.86	113381.881	80703.041	194084.9	417106.78	57124	194820.31	669051.092
2004	60133.14	211170.2	271303.381	136672.88	87691.664	224364.5	495667.93	98786	266142.59	860596.515
2005	64288.04	219251	283539.074	165266.397	104542.462	269808.9	553347.93	241287	390001.209	1184636.142
2006	69324.1	243417.7	312741.792	226026.745	121499.516	347526.3	660268.05	338926	525693.531	1524887.584
2007	72191.67	311365.1	383556.735	283059.125	123139.628	406198.8	789755.49	517599	606358.011	1913712.499
2008	83006.39	342487.7	425494.074	367623.877	136006.62	503630.5	929124.57	1057335	554692.14	2541151.711
2009	88395.35	433162.2	521557.563	323377.029	184009.189	507386.2	1028943.8	924012	516384.994	2469340.775
2010	95519.85	530072.2	625592.075	298282.546	156495.171	454777.7	1080369.8	993543.0248	545986.471	2619899.287
2011	119901.5	642093.7	761995.196	316400.646	161149.603	477550.2	1239545.4	1187984.368	662336.408	3089866.222
2012	133120.7	756555.3	889676.073	329679.868	188717.559	518397.4	1408073.5	1516739.276	727594.66	3652407.436
2013	143140	860270.2	1003410.23	350266.485	207393.726	557660.2	1561070.4	1641539.781	850172.118	4052782.343
2014	153750.1	991384.4	1145134.55	403419.45	193335.18	596754.6	1741889.2	1560706.053	935829.282	4238424.518
2015	168491.8	980150.7	1148642.45	439377.329	197562.28	636939.6	1785582.1	1162521.07	1067907.9	4016011.028
2016	170323.1	976086.2	1146409.27	496019.3079	157279.1086	653298.4	1799707.7	875423.7199	1096618.93	3771750.329
2017	172046.4	1002468	1174514.1	454152.0592	176505.2147	630657.3	1805171.4	737716.3663	1146983.2	3689870.936
2018	180132.4	1040665	1220797.4	443022.4131	189825.5609	632848	1853645.4	681491.7707	1225798.86	3760936.005
2019	189160.3	1099151	1288311.35	501666.9185	195161.1821	696828.1	1985139.5	622945.0449	1306853.03	3914937.521

Table (1) Monetary Survey: Liabilities through the period from 1993:2019

Million Riyals

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Table (2) Money Multiplier through the period from 1990:2019

End of Period	M1	M2	M3
1990	1.95	2.70	3.59
1991	2.21	3.03	3.96
1992	2.33	3.19	4.14
1993	2.24	3.13	4.22
1994	2.06	2.90	3.87
1995	2.17	3.24	4.22
1996	2.25	3.45	4.37
1997	2.21	3.42	4.27
1998	2.22	3.54	4.49
1999	2.15	3.32	4.20
2000	2.30	3.56	4.43
2001	2.66	4.02	5.05
2002	2.61	4.01	5.04
2003	2.84	4.29	5.31
2004	2.95	4.44	5.39
2005	2.86	4.53	5.58
2006	2.73	4.70	5.76
2007	3.09	5.37	6.36
2008	2.97	5.53	6.48
2009	3.44	5.57	6.78
2010	3.65	5.39	6.31
2011	3.61	5.11	5.88
2012	3.78	5.17	5.98
2013	3.92	5.29	6.10
2014	4.05	5.47	6.16
2015	3.82	5.28	5.94
2016	3.79	5.43	5.95
2017	3.89	5.39	5.98
2018	3.92	5.34	5.95
2019	3.97	5.51	6.11

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Table (3) Income Velocity of Money through the period from 1990:2019

End of Period	M1	M2	M3
1990	2.79	1.95	1.49
1991	2.77	2.03	1.54
1992	2.45	1.80	1.41
1993	2.49	1.84	1.38
1994	2.64	1.91	1.43
1995	2.73	1.89	1.44
1996	2.80	1.88	1.46
1997	2.76	1.83	1.46
1998	2.75	1.77	1.42
1999	2.76	1.77	1.41
2000	2.61	1.69	1.36
2001	2.47	1.63	1.31
2002	2.30	1.55	1.23
2003	2.21	1.47	1.18
2004	2.26	1.51	1.22
2005	2.24	1.45	1.18
2006	2.38	1.42	1.16
2007	2.28	1.31	1.09
2008	2.11	1.21	1.01
2009	1.99	1.16	0.97
2010	1.73	1.17	1.00
2011	1.61	1.13	0.99
2012	1.53	1.12	0.97
2013	1.48	1.10	0.95
2014	1.41	1.04	0.93
2015	1.54	1.11	0.99
2016	1.57	1.09	1.00
2017	1.55	1.12	1.01
2018	1.59	1.17	1.05
2019	1.57	1.13	1.02

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Table (4) Currency outside Banks through the period from 1990:2019
Million Riyals

End of Period	(1)Currency Outside SAMA	(2)Currency Held by Commercial Banks	(3)=1-2 Currency Outside Banks
1990	46,503	1,726	44,776
1991	46,388	1,768	44,620
1992	45,777	2,008	43,770
1993	45,134	2,511	42,623
1994	47,408	2,442	44,965
1995	45,551	2,464	43,087
1996	45,171	2,134	43,038
1997	48,739	2,916	45,823
1998	47,676	2,657	45,019
1999	60,528	5,468	55,060
2000	56,990	5,971	51,019
2001	52,657	3,453	49,203
2002	57,221	4,892	52,329
2003	59,702	4,257	55,445
2004	64,607	4,474	60,133
2005	71,489	7,201	64,288
2006	81,542	12,218	69,324
2007	82,211	10,019	72,192
2008	94,013	11,007	83,006
2009	99,252	10,856	88,395
2010	110,969	15,450	95,520
2011	139,846	19,945	119,902
2012	152,812	19,691	133,121
2013	166,388	23,248	143,140
2014	180,892	27,142	153,750
2015	197,912	29,420	168,492
2016	199,989	29,666	170,323
2017	203,357	31,311	172,046
2018	210,865	30,733	180,132
2019	218,480	29,319	189,160

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Table (5) Bank Credit Classified by Maturity

M illion Riyals

End of Period	Total Credit Card Loans**	Short Term	Medium Term	Long Term	Total
1,998	1,898	134,153	27,157	17,517	178,828
1,999	1,919	116,622	27,281	22,420	166,323
2,000	2,123	114,858	32,049	26,626	173,533
2,001	2,200	113,453	31,951	42,216	187,620
2,002	2,299	124,578	31,646	54,433	210,657
2,003	2,608	146,040	37,758	63,170	246,967
2,004	3,231	192,481	42,990	96,664	332,136
2,005	4,215	250,841	53,495	148,164	452,501
2,006	7,178	276,232	64,633	156,202	497,067
2,007	8,595	347,593	83,210	164,037	594,840
2,008	9,004	476,606	104,610	163,586	744,802
2,009	8,606	449,634	117,155	170,117	736,905
2,010	8,391	456,160	126,833	192,349	775,342
2,011	7,759	488,680	136,774	235,403	860,857
2,012	7,965	541,872	201,747	264,493	1,008,112
2,013	8,509	609,811	212,455	307,634	1,129,900
2,014	9,667	632,117	238,505	394,258	1,264,880
2,015	10,213	694,241	242,438	437,919	1,374,598
2,016	10,958	711,227	266,524	441,193	1,418,945
2,017	12,094	701,233	267,155	436,562	1,404,950
2,018	15,332	714,927	227,911	499,867	1,442,705
2,019	19,054	683,215	234,625	634,639	1,552,479

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Sociolinguistic Variation in the Use of Grammatical Gender Structures in Arabic Computer Mediated Discourse

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Abstract:

The present study investigates some aspects of variation in gender categorization in Arabic. It examines data collected from Twitter with the purpose of finding out how and to what extent gender as a social variable and the use of the Arabic plural grammatical gender as a linguistic variable are correlated in the Saudi Arabic variety. The study shows that plural nominal and verbal masculine gender suffixes are used in place of feminine gender suffixes. It also shows that linguistic gender neutralism is favored over gender categorization. The study provides implications for the ongoing linguistic variation and change in Arabic within the framework of Language Change Theory (Labov 1990).

Key words : Language change; variation; grammatical gender; femininity; gender neutralism.

1. Introduction

In many languages, the system of grammatical gender marks lexical items with a gender category (i.e. masculine or feminine) and searches for gender agreement between different syntactic parts of the sentence (Comrie, 1999; Corbett, 1991). While languages differ in gender categorization, languages in which the grammatical gender system deeply differentiates between gender markers of masculinity and femininity are referred to as gendered-languages. As a gendered-language, Arabic requires gender markers to be placed on all parts of speech, i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives, and pronouns with a clear distinction between femininity and masculinity (Vicente 2009, Hachimi 2007). Moreover, unlike English for example, Arabic configures only two types of gender; masculine and feminine. That is, there is no neutral category in Arabic, and each linguistic item is subjected to gender categorization (Hachimi 2007). It is obvious that the gender categorization system in Arabic is based on sex biological divisions. Nonetheless, correlations between linguistic systems and social systems can always be found interrelated at many levels.

According to Sadiqi (2007), the relationship between language and gender in Arabic shows a twofold level of its referential system. First, the grammatical level that reflects the masculine hegemony ‘androcentricity’ in Arabic, exemplified by many rules where the masculine markers are favored over the feminine markers when they come in conflict in many problematic syntactic situations. Second, the sociolinguistic level that reflects male dominance in the public spheres in society while women are associated with private spheres. While studies on the linguistic categorization of gender in Arabic are many (e.g. Al-Ani 1978, Eid 1988, Suleiman 1994, Holes 1995, Haeri 2000, Versteegh 2001, Miller 2004), there is lack of studies on this issue from the gender sociolinguistic perspective (Sadiqi 2007). Indeed, there is a lack of studies investigating the sociolinguistics of gender in Arabic in general and analyzing how gender markers are used in contemporary Arabic in particular.

To the best of my knowledge, no studies have focused on the representation of gender markers in Arabic from a socio-linguistic/gender perspective before. Thus, it is the aim of the current study to address this under-researched issue in Arabic sociolinguistics as well as to contribute to this field through the investigation of two levels of the relationship between language and gender in the Saudi Arabic variety, i.e. the grammatical level and the sociolinguistic level.

For the purpose of the present study, we compile data from Twitter as a social media platform in which people communicate with each other through a written form of language, often referred to in the linguistic literature as Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) (Crystal 2001, Baron 2003, Kiciman 2010, Hu et al. 2013). Our goal is to find out how Saudi users in Twitter make use of the plural grammatical gender forms under question when referring to feminine subjects. Based on the observation that feminine markers are sometimes replaced by masculine gender markers in colloquial Arabic (Hachimi 2007), the current study seeks an inquiry about how grammatical gender markers are used by Saudi males and females when referring to feminine referents or subjects. It is hypothesized that besides the feminine grammatical gender markers, masculine grammatical gender markers are also used to refer to feminine referents. The findings of the study reveal that variation in how speakers use the Arabic grammatical gender system in contemporary Saudi Arabic can be linked to the gender of the speaker. It is shown that female speakers show more tendency towards gender neutralization rather than gender categorization, and that women are more prone to use standard structures more often than men do. The findings have implications for Principle I in linguistic change theory (Labov 1990) which states that non-standard forms are more frequently used by males than females.

The study intends to make three major contributions to the area of gender studies within the broader field Arabic sociolinguistics. First, it sets a precedent to break a new ground on the study of Arabic Computer Mediated

Discourse from a gender sociolinguistic perspective as a domain in which, to the best of my knowledge, there is no enough studies on the sociolinguistics of gender in Arabic. To highlight this contribution that this study tries to make, the present study investigates the relationship between language use and gender identity in the Saudi Arabic variety. Our dataset employs linguistic forms extracted from Twitter as a social media platform that in itself is not a formal means of communication with a potential power of reflecting how people actually use language in their daily life. Second, the current study explores two levels of the relationship between language and gender, a sociolinguistic level (i.e. gender of user) and a grammatical level (i.e. gender structure) with the purpose of finding out how and to what extent gender effects on language usage and choice can be detected as well as revealing the sociolinguistic dimensions of language variation and change based on gender identity. Third, the study sheds light on one aspect of language change in progress in Saudi Arabic and provides an account for that under Language Change Theory (Labov 1990).

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. A brief background on Arabic varieties, Arabic gender structure, and the linguistic literature on CMC is presented in section 2. Research methodology and results are discussed in sections 3 and 4, respectively. Conclusion of this research is given in section 5.

2. Background

2.1 Varieties of Arabic

Arabic is spoken on a large populated geographical area with a wide array of variation. Arabic and its spoken varieties constitute a rich pool of linguistic variation that encompasses various structural and lexical differences. Thus, approaches to the study of Arabic also vary based on the purpose of the study. The most general formal distinction in the study of Arabic is the one made between formal Arabic and informal Arabic. Under this distinction, formal Arabic is often referred to as either Classical Arabic or Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) while informal Arabic usually refers to the spoken Arabic dialects and varieties in different Arab countries (Holes 2004).

One approach to the study of Arabic varieties assumes a socio-historical distinction. Based on this approach, Arabic varieties are categorized based on the speaking society's way of life, usually referred to as sedentary dialects versus Bedouin dialects (Bassiouney 2009, Palva 2006). Sedentary dialects are usually associated with urban areas and metropolitan cities where a specific variety is spoken while Bedouin dialects are associated with remote areas and tribal communities.

However, the most salient approach of studying Arabic varieties is the one that assumes differences between dialects based on geographical and regional borders. Versteegh (2001) makes a distinction between five groups of regional Arabic dialects: the dialects of the Arabian Peninsula, Mesopotamian dialects, Syro-Lebanese dialects, Egyptian dialects, and Maghreb dialects.

In the current study, we focus on the variety of Arabic spoken in Saudi Arabia, generally referred to as Saudi Arabic. Saudi Arabic is a major member of the broader Peninsular Arabic dialect group, but it also shares a lot of linguistic features with the Gulf Arabic dialects subgroup. Our focus on the

Saudi Arabic dialect in this study is concerned with how grammatical gender structures are used by speakers of this variety as well as how linguistic variation in such usage is affected by the speaker's gender as a sociolinguistic factor that plays a pivotal role in language variation and change (Labov 1990). Before we delve into the details of the forms under study, a general review of gender structure in Arabic is in order.

2.2 Gender Structure in Arabic

Arabic is a gendered language that recognizes two genders: masculine and feminine without a formal neutral category. Most Arabic dialects today conform to the general lexical gender categorizations found in Classical Arabic and (MSA) (Procházka 2004). In general, feminine nouns as in (1a, b) and adjectives as in (1d, e) in Arabic are derived from masculine forms through the suffix *-a'* while plural feminine forms as in (1c, f) are derived with the suffix *-aat* (Hachimi 2007).

(1) Masculine and feminine basic forms in nouns and adjectives:

- | | | |
|----|-------------------|---------------------|
| a. | <i>kaatib</i> | 'writer, masc. sg.' |
| b. | <i>kaatib-a</i> | 'writer, fem. sg.' |
| c. | <i>kaatib-aat</i> | 'writer, fem. pl.' |
| d. | <i>kabiir</i> | 'big, masc. sg.' |
| e. | <i>kabiir-a</i> | 'big, fem. sg.' |
| f. | <i>kabiir-aat</i> | 'big, fem. pl.' |

(1) The feminine suffix is also recognized as *-t* based on the stem, but generally referred to as the "*-t* of femininity" in Arabic studies.

The examples in (1) show how Arabic feminine noun and adjective forms are directly derived from their masculine counterpart forms. Nonetheless, gender structures get more complicated when it comes to conform to gender agreement rules with all parts of speech in phrases and sentences.

Gender agreement in Arabic can be found between a variety of forms, including subjects and verbs, nouns and adjectives, pronouns and head nouns, among other forms of gender agreement. Gender agreement in Arabic is also associated with number as singular and plural forms manifest different gender-related morphological exponence. This can be seen in the examples shown in (2) below where masculine or feminine gender agreement between the subject and its verb is required as in (2a, b). In (2a), the subject is masculine and so is its verb whereas in (2b) the subject is inflected with the feminine suffix *-a* and so is its verb which is inflected with the feminine suffix *-t* for gender agreement. Similarly, gender agreement is required between adjectives and their head nouns as can be seen in the examples (2c, d). In (2c), the head noun and its adjective are both masculine with zero morphological exponence whereas in (2d) the head noun and its adjective are both feminine inflected with the feminine suffix *-a*.

(2) Gender agreement:

- | | | |
|----|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| a. | <i>kataba al-kaatib</i> | ‘the writer wrote’ (masc. sg.) |
| b. | <i>kataba-t al-kaatib-a</i> | ‘the writer wrote’ (fem. sg.) |
| c. | <i>al-kaatib al-kabiir</i> | ‘the big writer’ (masc. sg.) |
| d. | <i>al-kaatib-a al-kabiir-a</i> | ‘the big writer’ (fem. sg.) |

Demonstrative pronouns are also marked with different markers based on gender and number. This can be seen in the forms presented in (3) below where gender agreement between the demonstrative pronoun and its head noun is required.

(3) Demonstrative pronouns:

- | | | |
|----|------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| a. | <i>huwa kaatib</i> | he is a writer |
| b. | <i>hiya kaatib-a</i> | she is a writer |
| c. | <i>hada kaatib</i> | this is a writer (masc. sg.) |
| d. | <i>hadihi kaatib-a</i> | this is a writer (fem.sg.) |
| e. | <i>al-kaatib alladi...</i> | the writer who... (masc. sg.) |
| f. | <i>al-kaatib-a allati...</i> | the writer who... (fem. sg.) |

It is worth mentioning that most of these demonstrative pronouns are pronounced with variation in spoken Arabic varieties. For example, the demonstrative pronoun *hadihi* “this, fem. sg.” is usually simplified as *hadi* in spoken Arabic (Hachimi 2007). In addition, relative clauses demonstrative pronouns such as *alladi* and *allati* are generally replaced by the informal neutral demonstrative pronoun *alli*. Note that formal Arabic configures only two gender categories (i.e. *alladi* and *allati*) without a neutral category such as the informal *alli*. In addition, formal Arabic configures other demonstrative pronouns based on gender and number such as *alladaani* “masc. dual”, *alladiina* “masc. pl.” *allataani* “fem. dual”, *allawaati* “fem. pl.” Nonetheless, such demonstrative pronouns in spoken Arabic varieties have disappeared (Versteegh 2001, Gibson 1996).

Possessive pronouns are also marked for gender. This is shown in the examples in (4) below where the possessive pronoun is attached to nouns as a suffix. The masculine possessive pronoun is also inflected with number based on the head noun. Note that there are also other possessive forms for dual number such as *-huma*, but our discussion here is restricted to singulars and plurals for simplicity.

(4) Possessive pronouns:

- | | | |
|----|------------------|------------------------|
| a. | <i>kitaab-h</i> | his book |
| b. | <i>kitaab-ha</i> | her book |
| c. | <i>kutub-hum</i> | their books (masc.pl.) |
| d. | <i>kutub-hun</i> | their books (fem. pl.) |

In addition, verbal tense is also marked for gender. Verbal tense suffixes as shown in (5) below are inflected for gender agreement with the subject of the verb. In (5a), for example, the final suffixal ending *-a* indicates past tense for a masculine subject whereas in (5b) the suffix *-at* indicates the past tense for a feminine subject. The suffix changes as in (5c, d) based on gender and number where the suffix *-u* refers to a masculine plural subject while *-n* refers to a feminine plural subject. Likewise, suffixes change for the present tense based on gender and number of the subject as in the forms in (5e, d).

(5) Verbal suffixes:

- | | | |
|----|-------------------|------------------------|
| a. | <i>katab-a</i> | he wrote |
| b. | <i>katab-at</i> | she wrote |
| c. | <i>katab-u</i> | they wrote (masc. pl.) |
| d. | <i>katab-n</i> | they wrote (fem. pl.) |
| e. | <i>yakatub-un</i> | they write (masc. pl.) |
| f. | <i>yakatub-n</i> | they write (fem. pl.) |

The previous discussion illustrates some of the general structural properties of gender in Arabic. Nonetheless, Arabic gender structure is more complex, and we have restricted our discussion here to the general structural patterns of the Arabic gender system. In the current study, we focus on some of these structural aspects, namely the plural possessive suffixes *-hum*, “their, masc.” *-hun* “their, fem.” and the plural verbal suffixes *-n*, “they, fem.” *-un*. “they, masc.” In addition, we will also consider the demonstrative pronouns *alladi* “who, masc. sg.” and *allati* “who, fem.sg.” along with the informal demonstrative pronoun *alli* “who, neutral”, which is usually present in the spoken language.

Our focus on these specific forms is motivated by the observation that there is some kind of variation in the use of these forms. That is, such forms could potentially experience lexical gender transformation processes (Procházka 2004). Furthermore, since our study is employing a written form of data, such suffixes can be overtly detected in the collected data. A general review of the nature of the source of our dataset is given in the following section.

2.3 Computer Mediated Communication (CMC)

Within the field of Computer Mediated Communication (CMC), researchers focus on the form of language discourse that is used for communication purposes. According to Herring (2001), Computer Mediated Discourse (CMD) is concerned with the discourse analysis techniques that are used for understanding how language is used in the Computer Mediated Communication. It is also distinct from speaking and writing as it is special in that it is a blend of both types of written and spoken texts.

Language researchers approach CMC from a descriptive perspective. Research on CMC has many advantages such as the availability of mass research data that provides researchers with a valuable source for analyzing a lot of issues from a linguistic perspective (Herring 2008). Correlations between social phenomena and CMC data can also be studied from a socio-linguistic perspective (Bamman, Eisenstein and Schnoebelen 2012, 2014). For example, Bamman et al. (2012) studied the relationship between gender and linguistic styles in Twitter. The study analyzes the content of Tweets written by American male and female authors in Twitter to find out correlations between gender and the tendency to use certain language styles.

In the present study, we focus on how Arabic grammatical gender markers are used by speakers of Arabic in the platform of Twitter. Two linguistic structures are investigated as to whether gender markers for femininity are used or not when referring to a feminine referent. The first structure is verbal and nominal suffixes in verbal and nominal forms. The second linguistic structure is demonstrative pronouns. We also take into account gender differences as to whether or not males versus females as groups show any difference with regard to how they use such linguistic structures when referring to feminine referents. Research methodology is explained in the following section.

3. Method

The present study aims to investigate aspects of linguistic gender variation in Arabic as observed in Twitter discussions and comments written by male and female users in Saudi Arabia. More specifically, the study focuses on the use of the Arabic plural grammatical gender suffixes in two particular linguistic structures: nominal and verbal suffixes as well as demonstrative pronouns. The research methodology employs data from Twitter as a source of CMC data.

3.1 Subjects and Data

The subjects of the present study are Saudi Arabian Twitter users. The collected data consists of 400 Tweets among which 200 Tweets are written by female users while 200 Tweets are written by male users with an overall total of 227 tokens. Through the user name of the account, we are able to determine the participant's gender. For the purpose of the study, the investigated subjects are randomly selected. The target is average Twitter users. The study avoids selecting highly educated or well-known users like celebrities or famous figures. Rather, it focuses on ordinary people whose language usage is supposed to represent the actual language use by speakers. Since our focus is on Saudi Arabic, the selection of authors' location is restricted to Saudi Arabia.

3.2 Procedure of Identifying Gender Markers

In the present study, the collected tweets are categorized based on gender as written by either a female or a male author. The rationale behind the identification of gender as a major factor in the current analysis lies in the fact that language choice and language usage can be affected by the speaker's gender. In the field of sociolinguistics, it is well established that speakers of different genders use language in different manners, and that different linguistic styles and linguistic change of certain structures can be attributed to gender

effects (Wardhaugh 2010, Labove 1990, Chambers 1995, 1992). Labov (1990) argues that women use standard language forms more frequently than men do. Based on that, Labov (1990) constructs a sociolinguistic theory of language change in which women often lead linguistic change in progress. Having established the premise of our identification of gender as a major factor in the categorization of the collected data, we analyze each tweet by looking for the targeted linguistic structures in which linguistic variation of usage based on gender is expected.

We start by identifying gender markers under investigation, i.e. nominal and verbal suffixes as well as demonstrative pronouns. After identifying the used gender marker, we look for the head noun (i.e. the referent) of that marker. We also identify the gender of the head noun or the referent in order to check out to how extent the gender marker under question conforms to the standard gender agreement rules in Arabic. In case the gender marker and its head noun or referent coincide with gender agreement conventions, we count that as one token. Similarly, if there is any discrepancy between the gender marker and its head noun, we take that as another token. Each token is then categorized based on gender identity as either used by a male user or a female user. This will enable us to detect how the investigated linguistic variation in the use of structures under question can be attributed to gender effects.

3.3 Data Analysis

The grammatical structures under focus in this study are nominal and verbal suffixes as well as demonstrative pronouns. The rationale behind choosing these two grammatical structures is twofold. First, based on the observation that feminine subjects are sometimes referred to with masculine markers, it is hypothesized that feminine markers are expected to be replaced by masculine markers. Second, the investigated linguistic gender variation can be traced in the written forms of these structures. That is, the expected linguistic variation in these structures can be observed in the use of the masculine suffixes in ref-

erence to women or feminine subjects. For example, the nominal suffix *-hon* ‘they 3.pl.f.’ and the verbal suffix *-n* ‘verbal feminine inflection’, are the suffixes that are used in Standard Arabic when referring to women or feminine referents while *-hom* ‘they 3.pl.m.’ and *-un* ‘verbal masculine inflection’ are the masculine suffixes expected to be used in place of the feminine suffixes. In demonstrative pronouns, *allati* ‘who, female’ is the demonstrative pronoun that refers to femininity while *alladi* ‘who, male’ is for masculinity. The demonstrative pronoun *alli* ‘who’ is neutral and it can be used to refer to both feminine and masculine subjects. We aim to investigate which demonstrative pronoun (i.e. *allati* vs. *alli*) is mostly used by males and females in reference to feminine subjects. Analysis of these structures will measure frequency values of how each structure is used by the subjects of the study.

4. Results and Discussion

Results are presented and discussed according to how each linguistic structure is used in reference to women and feminine subjects by male and female subjects. First, we discuss the use of the masculine suffixes (nominal and verbal) to refer to feminine subjects by males and females. Second, we discuss the use of the gender demonstrative pronoun and the neutral demonstrative pronoun when referring to feminine subjects.

4.1. Nominal and Verbal Suffixes

Table (1) below shows that the percentage of female participants who use the masculine nominal and verbal suffixes to refer to other women is 26.6%, within which 18% of this usage is associated with the nominal suffix

(1) *alli* is in fact an informal neutral demonstrative pronoun used in many Arabic varieties to refer to both feminine and masculine subjects. Note that Standard Arabic does not have neutral pronouns or neutral grammatical gender.

-hom ‘they 3.pl.m.’ The percentage of using the feminine forms of the investigated suffixes by women (the feminine nominal suffix *-hon* ‘they 3.pl.f’ and *-n* ‘verbal feminine inflection’) is 73.3%.

Grammatical Gender	Feminine (Standard)		Masculine (Non-standard)	
	-hon	-n	-hom	-un
Suffix				
Tokens	25	19	11	5
Percentage	41%	31%	18%	8%
Total	73.3%		26.6%	

Table 1: Females’ use of the feminine and the masculine nominal and verbal suffixes to refer to other women.

On the other hand, Table (2) below shows how men use the feminine and the masculine pronouns to refer to women. Men, in fact, show a higher percentage of using the masculine suffixes *-hom* ‘they 3.pl.m.’ and the masculine verbal suffix *-un* ‘verbal masculine inflection’ to refer to women with a percent of 29.8 compared to women’s percent in Table (1) which is 26.6. As for using the feminine suffixes to refer to women, the percentage of men’s use of these feminine nominal suffixes is 70.1%, which is a bit lower than women’s percentage in Table (1), which is 37.3%. Furthermore, the results suggest that there is a tendency among men to use the masculine suffix *-hom* more frequently when referring to women than women do.

The results of Table (2) show a similar tendency among men to use the masculine suffixes to refer to women with a slightly higher percentage than

women. Men's usage of the feminine suffixes as in the examples *majalo-hon* 'their field', and *yaʕref-n* 'they know' shows that the feminine suffixes are actually in use when referring to women. That is, there is a variation in use of these forms. However, the use of the masculine suffixes when referring to women is what is interesting here as in words such as *sawto-hom* 'their voice', and *yaʕref-un* 'they know', which were supposed to be *sawto-hon* and *yaʕref-n*, as they are referring to women. In fact, similar results are shown in Table (1) that indicate women's tendency towards this kind of language variation, however, with a less percentage of variation in use than men. We interpret such a kind of variation as a change in progress. This is a result of what Labov (2001) calls *long-term stable variation* in which gender, among other factors such as age and social class, is one of the factors that affect the distribution of the linguistic variables over a long period of time (Labov 2001, cited after Wardhaugh 2010; 198)

The results show that the higher percentage of using of the masculine suffixes to refer to women is associated with men more than women. This in fact is related to Labov's Principle I. for language variation and change (1990, p.205):

Principle I. In stable sociolinguistic stratification, men use a higher frequency of nonstandard forms than women.

The results of the present study show that men tend to use the non-standard variants more frequently than women. The results also show that men use the non-standard grammatical gender variants for about 29.8% while women use it for 26.6%.

Grammatical Gender	Feminine (Standard)		Masculine (Non-standard)	
	-hon	-n	-hom	-un
Suffix				
Tokens	37	17	14	9
Percentage	48%	22%	18%	11%
Total	70.1%		29.8%	

Table 2: Males' use of the feminine and the masculine nominal and verbal suffixes to refer to women.

All in all, table 3 below shows the overall use of the masculine nominal and verbal suffixes when used to refer to women. The table also shows the overall tendency of usage by men and women in their use of either the standard or the non-standard suffixes in reference to women. The results in the table show that 71.5% of the overall tokens by men and women use the feminine suffixes to refer to women. However, 28.4% of the overall usage of these nominal and verbal suffixes inclines towards the non-standard masculine suffixes *-hom* and *-un* when referring to women, within which the nominal suffix *-hom* is associated with a much higher percentage of use than the verbal suffix *-un*.

The results of Table 3 reveal that using the non-standard masculine nominal and verbal suffixes to refer to women is interesting. Men and women's usage constitutes a 28.4% of the overall usage of these nominal and verbal suffixes. While this percentage is not significantly high when compared to men and women's use of the standard feminine suffixes when referring to

women, it is not marginal and it can be an onset of a language change process.

Grammatical Gender	Feminine (Standard)		Masculine (Non-standard)	
	-hon	-n	-hom	-un
Suffix				
Tokens	62	36	25	14
Percentage	45.2%	26.2%	18.2%	10.2%
Total	71.5%		28.4%	

Table 3: Overall use of feminine and masculine nominal and verbal suffixes by men and women to refer to women.

By looking at the overall results of the variation in usage attested in the investigated nominal and verbal suffixes, it can be observed that verbal suffixes do not show a greater percentage of change when compared to nominal suffixes. This in fact has two possible interpretations. First, usage of the nominal forms in the collected data is more frequent than usage of the verbal forms, which in turn may be due to the wider function of nominal forms than verbal forms in communication within the analyzed CMC form of language. Second, this can indicate that historically and originally, the feminine verbal suffix *-n* can be considered as the unmarked form while the masculine suffix *-un* is the marked one in the sense that the masculine form incorporates an extra segment which is [o] in the suffix [-un] in its representation while the feminine form [-n] does not. This is contrary to what Sadiqi (2007) suggests regarding the masculine historical grammatical gender in Arabic for being the unmarked form while the feminine grammatical gender is the marked form.

4.2. Demonstrative Pronouns

The data analysis shows some variation in the use of the investigated demonstrative pronouns. Table 4 below presents the results of women's use of the two demonstrative pronouns, *allati* 'who, female', and *alli* 'who, neutral'. It is worth noting that neutral pronouns do not actually exist in Standard Arabic. The neutral demonstrative pronoun *alli* is, in fact, a colloquial demonstrative pronoun.

The analysis of women's usage of the two demonstrative pronouns in Table 4 reveals an interesting result. In this table, women's usage of the neutral demonstrative pronoun reflects a higher percentage of use that reaches 57.7% of the overall use of demonstrative pronouns when referring to other women. The standard pronoun *allati* constitutes 42.2% of the overall use.

The result of women's usage of the two demonstrative pronouns suggests that the investigated linguistic variation tends to move towards language neutralism. What is interesting in the results of Table 4 is that the percentage of using the neutral non-standard pronoun is higher than the percentage of using the standard feminine demonstrative pronoun. This result, in fact, points out that the investigated variation in language use reflects a strong tendency among women towards using the neutral non-standard demonstrative pronoun *alli* with a percentage that is equal to the percentage of the standard feminine demonstrative pronoun *allati*.

Grammatical Gender	Feminine Standard	Neutral Non-Standard
Demonstrative Pronoun	<i>allati</i>	<i>alli</i>
Tokens	19	26
Percentage	42.2%	57.7%

Table 4: Women's usage of feminine and neutral pronouns in reference to women.

On the other hand, Table 5 presents the results of men's usage of the examined demonstrative pronouns. The results of this table show interesting similarities and differences between male and female subjects in their usage of the demonstrative pronouns. The results reveal that the non-standard neutral demonstrative pronoun *alli* is significantly the mostly used pronoun by male subjects when they are referring to women, with 75.5% of usage.

The results of Table 5 show that men's usage of the two demonstrative pronouns is somehow similar to the women's usage of the demonstrative pronouns as shown in Table 4. The tendency among men towards the use of the neutral pronoun is the highest. Moreover, the results show that men tend to use the non-standard neutral demonstrative pronoun *alli* more frequently than women do.

In fact, the variation of usage of the informal non-standard demonstrative pronouns coincides with the predictions of Labov's Principle I. (1990), which states that in a stable variation men use the non-standard variants more frequently than women. The use of the non-standard demonstrative neutral pronoun *alli* instead of the standard form *allati* reveals that men tend to use the non-standard forms more frequently than women. While women use the non-standard pronoun for 57.7%, men use it for 75.5%. The variation of usage between men and women in this form is strongly related to Labov's Principle I., which also indicates that this variation is in a stable state of change.

Grammatical Gender	Feminine Standard	Neutral Non-Standard
Demonstrative Pronoun	allati	alli
Tokens	11	34
Percentage	24.4%	75.5%

Table 5: Men's usage of feminine, masculine, and neutral pronouns in reference to women.

It is important to notice that contrary to all Arabic pronouns, the demonstrative pronoun *alli* is neutral. That is, it can be used to refer to both masculine and feminine referents. Table 6 below shows the overall usage of the standard demonstrative pronoun *allati* versus the non-standard neutral pronoun *alli* when used in reference to feminine subjects. The table reveals significant results regarding the use of the neutral pronoun *alli*, which is 66% of the overall usage of the standard and non-standard demonstrative pronouns by both males and females.

The actual use of the neutral pronoun *alli* in comparison to the gender pronouns is indeed significant. The results of Table 6 show that there is a strong tendency among men and women towards using the neutral pronoun *alli*. Moreover, the percentage of using the neutral pronoun is higher than the overall usage of the gender pronoun by both men and women. What is more significant about the usage of the neutral pronoun here is that although it is non-standard, it is preferred in use by both males and females when referring to a feminine referent.

Nominal Gender	Gender Pronouns	Neutral Pronoun
Pronoun	allati	alli
Tokens	30	60
Percentage	33%	66%

Table 6: Overall usage of gendered pronouns vs. neutral pronoun by men and women.

To summarize so far, the study has examined how frequently male and female Arabic speakers use standard and non-standard gender markers. Throughout the data collected from Twitter, it has been shown that females tend to use the standard gender markers more frequently than men do. This is predicted by Labov's principle I in language change where men tend to use non-standard forms more than women do. The results also have shown that both men and women use the neutral demonstrative pronoun more frequently than the gender pronoun.

5. Conclusion

This study has attempted to provide an insight into an under-researched topic in the field of Arabic sociolinguistics. Through the examination of dataset extracted from Twitter, it has been shown that sociolinguistic variation based on gender identity does exist in the Saudi Arabic variety, and that such variation could also be accounted for within the framework of Language Change Theory (Labov 1990). Based on that, the study advocates three major findings. First, masculine markers are sometimes used in place of feminine markers when referring to feminine subjects as a case of lexical gender transformation, which is considered as the most common case of gender transformations predicted to exist in some other contemporary Arabic varieties (Procházka 2004, Hachimi 2007). In the presented study, such cases have been shown to be used

by both male and female users with variant degrees. Second, there is a tendency among female users towards linguistic neutralism that has been shown in the use of the neutral non-standard demonstrative pronoun rather than the standard feminine gender pronoun. Third, the examined linguistic structures reveal signs of a language change in progress with regard to the investigated nominal and verbal grammatical gender suffixes. The findings coincide with Labov's Principle I. (1990) for language change based on which men tend to use non-standard forms more frequently than women do.

While the study attempts to give an insight into the relationship between language and gender in the Saudi Arabic variety, the study; however, has some limitations. First, the study employs data from Twitter as a form of Computer Mediated Communication. While Twitter in itself is a social media platform that reflects some aspects of the actual use of language, its nature is still restricted to a written form of language. Indeed, this is not a conversational form of language and the conclusions on how men and women use language on this platform cannot be overtly generalized. Nonetheless, even so it can give us an idea on how language is used in the general field of Computer Mediated Communication and sets some linguistic characteristics that for the most part can be considered as a reflection of the actual use of language. Second, the present study is limited by its nature of the collected number of tweets and the extracted total of tokens. More data on a larger scale of population is undeniably needed for some stronger conclusions on this topic. This will of course require a collective effort and practical cooperation, for which a much more comprehensive future study is indeed promising.

Future work on this topic could try to formalize the claims raised on the relationship between language and gender on a larger scale of Arabic varieties. It could also explore other aspects of grammatical structures and scope out its relationship with gender identity as a prevalent sociolinguistic factor. In addition, further work could also examine how other means of communication in the social media can give a closer look on language use from a sociolinguistic perspective.

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The Use of Mobile Learning You Tube-based Program in Improving Non-native Arabic Students' Speaking Skills and Their Attitudes toward Learning Arabic

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Abstract:

This study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of a mobile learning You Tube-based program in improving speaking skills and attitudes towards Arabic language learning among non-native Arabic students at Taif University. The study sample comprised (22) students, chosen intentionally, and was randomly distributed into two groups, the experimental group ($n=11$) that studied using the mobile learning You Tube-based program, and the control one ($n=11$) that studied using the traditional way. Data were collected through two tools: a speaking skill performance test and a survey of students' attitudes toward learning Arabic language that consisted of 18 items. These tools were applied after verifying their validity and reliability. The results showed statistical significant differences in the performance of the two groups in favor of the experimental group that used mobile learning. The results also indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the mean scores of students' attitudes towards learning Arabic due to the method of teaching in favor of the experimental group mobile learning You Tube-based program. In light of the results, the study recommended employing mobile learning in developing speaking skills in the Arabic language among non-Arabic speaking students, and pursuing research on the impact of mobile learning technology on developing other Arabic language skills.

Key words:

Mobile learning, speaking skill, student attitudes, teaching Arabic language for non-native speakers, speaking skill assessment

Introduction

The Arabic language has gained increased attention among researchers recently. This attention springs from the importance of the Arabic language for many reasons. The first is its strong connection to Islam and specifically the Quran. Thus, many Muslims all over the world strive to learn the Arabic language to understand The Holy Quran and Islamic teachings. Second, the Arabic language is the fifth most commonly spoken language in the world according to UNESCO. Third, the Arabic language maintains a rich culture and heritage which are connected to historical and archaeological artefacts, and tourist places. Fourth, the industry of tourism all over the world aims to attract Arab tourists (Mat, Zakaria & Jusoff, 2009). Taken together, a pressing need to teach and learn Arabic has emerged which in turn has resulted in the establishment of many languages centers, institutes, and schools.

However, teaching Arabic is not an easy task, particularly for non-native speakers, in that it needs considerable expertise and many logistic supports (Dajani, Mubaideen & Omari, 2014). Also, the method of teaching adopted has a significant impact on students' language performance and motivation (Ihsan, 2016). Therefore, investment in technology-based teaching and learning seems to be the way to go (Taha-Thomure, 2008). In addition, the characteristics of technology may mean that it can provide effective and enjoyable contexts for teaching and learning of the Arabic language beyond the walls of the classroom (Althobaiti & Algethami, 2018).

The integration of technology in education has contributed to making language teaching and learning more interactive (Abykanovaa et al., 2016). Such an integration has helped to accommodate the individual differences between students in terms of their speed of learning, needs, preferences and interests (Azabdaftari & Mozaheb, 2012). The technology has helped to re-

move, or at least to minimize the barriers of time and place through the use of the Internet and wireless devices – such as mobile technology devices – that allow users to obtain information with minimal effort, time and money (Pareja-Lora, Calle-Martinez, & Rodriguez-Arancon, 2016). The technology has the capacity to enhance students' autonomy, motivation, and self-commitment by providing them with the capacity for voice and text conversations, exchange of information, letters, files and e-books. They can interact with their teachers, peers, and a wider audience.

The significance of mobile technology is apparent in its wide spread among language learners everywhere. Mobile technology engages students' hands and eyes at the same time (Ducate & Lomicka, 2013). The attractiveness of mobile learning to students and its wide accessibility have made mobile devices a modern educational model that can be used in the process of learning and teaching languages (Tayebinik & Puteh, 2012). The characteristics of mobile learning, such as portability, flexibility, and simplicity, make it a suitable tool for teaching and learning languages inside and outside school (Anohah, Oyelere & Suhonen, 2017).

As a result of the wide spread of these mobile devices, policy makers and educators have started to explore the integration of mobile learning in ways that satisfy the needs of the learners and achieve the optimal use of such modern technologies. Mobile learning refers to “the use of mobile computing devices, such as: mobile phones, tablets, smartphones, and E-Readers; to access learning resources, communication, collaboration, and sharing of learning experiences” (Anohah et al., 2017, p.4). Mobile learning is differentiated from other forms of digital technology-based learning by its portability, adaptation, and accessibility (Khamis, 2004).

Mobile learning enables learners to determine what suits their learning in terms of content, time, location, and learning strategies. Also, mobile learn-

ing enhances students' willingness to engage in knowledge sharing. Hence, when proposing a design for student-centered mobile learning environments, we should consider the learner's ability to plan, monitor, control and evaluate his/her learning. These abilities represent self-learning (Chatzara, Karagiannidis & Stamatis, 2016; Cho & Yoo, 2016). Successful self-learning considers the learner's control and observation of the cognitive, metacognitive, and motivational aspects that arise during the learning process (Moos & Bonde, 2016). Self-learning is described as using metacognitive learning strategies to achieve meaningful learning through the organization of the learning environment and the effectiveness of time management (Cho & Yoo, 2016).

Self-learning can be built around the social aspect of learning (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2011). This helps the individuals to work in groups and collaborate to accomplish certain learning tasks (Richey, Klein & Tracey, 2011; Richey & Klein, 2007). It includes knowledge building and sharing and makes learners active and engaged (Asikainen, Hailikari, & Mattson, 2017; Brusio & Stefaniak, 2016). It also leads to deeper and more meaningful learning and enhances decision-making skills (Gresch, Hasselhorn & Bogeholz, 2017).

Integrating mobile learning in language teaching and learning is important, specifically in teaching and learning language skills such as writing, reading, speaking, and listening. Many studies show the significance of mobile learning in mastering these skills. The current study focuses on speaking skills.

Speaking is an important skill through which the speakers can express their feelings, and convey meanings and ideas to listeners. Speaking is considered to be the true manifestation of language which externalizes inner feelings and thoughts (Jones, 1989). Therefore, speakers choose the most beautiful words and the finest images to express themselves in a way that leaves a recipient with a positive impression (Burns & Joyce, 1997).

Teaching speaking skills should not be limited to linguistic components only; rather it should consider how to operationalize these skills in real language use in authentic situations (Sinwongsuwat, 2012). Speaking has many behavioral indicators, including the sequence of presentation in a coherent way, starting from the introduction, through the presentation, and ending with the conclusion. It also includes the selection of sentences and expressions that refer to ideas in the most accurate form; showing the subjectivity of the speaker in his/her opinion regarding the topic; and vocal intonation commensurate with the meaning and having the desired impact on the listener (Nasution & Sukmawati, 2019). Other speaking behavioral indicators include the ability to express opinions verbally, the ability to participate in the conversation, and the use of body language (Sinwongsuwat, 2012). Speaking also accustoms students to fluency, mastery of pronunciation, good performance, and mastery of the meanings transmitted in order to have an effective and influential impact on the mind of the recipient (Goh, 2005).

In fact, mastering speaking skills is a priority in any language, for both native and non-native speakers. However, it is a core skill for non-native speakers, and the success of non-native Arabic language students in many cases is evaluated in terms of their progress in these skills. They need to be able to express themselves in a fluent and comprehensive way that attracts the listener's attention (Sinwongsuwat, 2012). Non-native Arabic students need to make double the effort of native speakers with regard to the selection of appropriate words, the correct pronunciation of the letters, and familiarizing themselves with the language-situations. They need to improve their speaking to accommodate with their peers in dealing with events and developments in the society in which they live. The importance of speaking skills becomes apparent when the students are involved in situations that require them to communicate verbally; if they are unable to do so in an organized manner, they risk finding themselves in embarrassing situations full of anxiety and confu-

sion. This points to the importance of allowing non-native Arabic language students to express their ideas clearly through active participation in various life situations. Therefore, speaking skills can improve and grow through social interactions with peers and language speakers in an emotional way (Anderson, 2005).

Speaking is one of the skills that the language student seeks to master (Bennis & Bazzaz, 2014). Speaking is both an end and a means. It represents the student's effort to deliver a message to a listener; and it shows the experience the student has gone through starting from constructing a sentence, to producing and pronouncing words correctly, and putting them in an appropriate comprehensible way to meet the requirements of the communicative contexts in which he/she is involved (Nasution & Sukmawati, 2019). It encompasses the process of input, intake, processing and output at the sometime. In other words, it refers to a set of mental processes that help reconstruct meaning (Long, 2007). These processes include the reception and production of information, starting with the reception of sounds from their correct source, through the mental processes that take place accompanying the production of speech, to the mental arousal that precedes the production of speech. These are internally stimulated by the desire to speak, or externally aroused such as in responding to a question. The process ends with the formation of meaning in the mind of the listener (Kuśnierek, 2015).

Speaking skill is considered to be an important one among the four main language skills (Ihsan, 2016), as it is the basis for the students' learning of listening, reading, and writing skills, and it is the means by which students express their multiple needs, especially educational ones, and their achievement in various areas of knowledge (Rahman, 2010). Speaking skill is also one of the necessary skills for communication and interaction with others, as it is a skill that meets social and life demands as well as a means of increasing

the student's linguistic reservoir that can be used to help in acquiring various sets of knowledge and skills (Riwnsisti, 2009). Consequently, students who master this skill can speak correctly, express opinions, and critically analyze others' opinions in various communication situations. The students' success in mastering these speaking components is an indicator of mental and linguistic ability and leads to increased self-confidence (Nunan, 2001).

Given the importance of the linguistics, mental and social processes associated with speaking skill, many steps should be taken to help students acquire such a skill and overcome potential challenges, such as fear of participating, by providing pressure-free contexts that may not show their weaknesses or inability to carry on the conversations effectively (Shumin, 2002). There should be convenient ways of increasing students' motivation and helping them to interact and receive feedback from either their teachers or their peers (Shumin, 2002). The integration of mobile learning is believed to have the ability to help to remove these barriers of fear and lack of motivation among students, as well as accommodating their individual learning needs and pace (Baniabdelrahman, 2013). YouTube, as a form of mobile learning, can provide students with many opportunities to enhance fluency, use retention of vocabulary and communicate properly (Almurashi, 2016).

Therefore, as an effort to improve the speaking skills among non-native Arabic students at Taif University, a mobile learning YouTube-based program has been designed. It aims to enhance students' speaking as a process and as a product, and develop their capacity for dialogue and discussion.

Previous studies

Many studies have shown the effectiveness of mobile learning in improving students' academic performances, attitudes toward learning, and motivation in many contexts (Ahmad, Sudweeks & Armarego, 2015; Chaka & Govender, 2017; Dehkordi & Golestan, 2016; Demir & Akpınar, 2018; Elfeky & Masadeh, 2016; Kaliisa & Picard, 2017; Basal, Yilmaz, Tanriverdi & Sari, 2016). These studies have adopted many research tools, including questionnaires, performance tests, and interviews. The studies were conducted in different levels of study, such as secondary schools, language institutes, and universities in many countries including Iran, Turkey, USA, and Saudi Arabia. None of them has considered speaking skills for non-native Arabic students. This shows a scarcity of research in this important area.

This scarcity is also apparent in the lack of research into the use of YouTube in improving students' learning, and specifically their speaking skills. This might be attributed to the lack of teachers' knowledge in dealing with such programs or to curriculum policies that cannot cope with such an integration of technology in the teaching and learning processes. To close this gap necessitates enhancing policy makers' and teachers' awareness of the integration of different technology in teaching and learning language skills. The wide spread of mobiles among students may facilitate such efforts. Making use of students' familiarity with mobiles by integrating this technology in curricula may help the teaching and learning of language skills. Students will no longer be mere recipients of knowledge; rather, they will be makers of it.

The study problem

The previous studies showed many benefits in mobile learning. It can enhance students' achievement of different language skills, increase their participation, and boost their motivation and self-confidence. In addition, mobile learning can help students interact, build teamwork, and collaborate with team members (Li & Wang, 2018). Furthermore, mobile learning can compensate for the infrastructure deficiencies associated with e-learning, as well as keeping students connected and reaching outside the formal educational environment in an integrated way that supports traditional face-to-face learning (Anohah et al., 2017).

Despite these benefits, mobile learning is still in its infancy (Mittal, Chaudhary & Alavi, 2017). A number of questions arise related to the extent to which learners will want to use it in the future, their expectations of the benefits and easiness of mobile learning, and the availability of the necessary technical support. Also, students may question whether or not they will achieve the desired benefits from it. All these questions generated a study problem which answers the calls of recent studies for more research on the feasibility and employability of mobile learning in the learning and teaching process (Demir & Akpınar, 2018; Elfeky & Masadeh, 2016; Hwang, Shadiev & Chen, 2014).

Speaking skill is one of the language skills that a person acquires after listening to and simulating language in different language contexts. It is therefore an overarching skill employing the sounds of the language in producing meaningful words and sentences. However, despite the importance of speaking, it represents a challenge for non-native Arabic language students (Haron et al., 2016). Many studies refer to non-native Arabic language students as less proficient in speaking skill than any other language skill (Alsrhid, 2013). These studies recommend further efforts in exploring possible ways to enhance this

skill and find appropriate and appealing methods of teaching and learning it.

Also, the problem is a pedagogically driven one in that the researcher explored the students' weaknesses and deficiencies in speaking skills as a result of what he observed when he informally met some teachers and students in the Teaching Arabic for Non-native Speakers Unit at Taif University. Both the teachers and the students showed a need to enhance their speaking skills. Thus, there is a need to design a program that meets the students' needs in terms of speaking skills which help them interact, collaborate, be more motivated and engaged, and take more part in social conversations. The current study was developed as an attempt to help solve such problems and accommodate students' needs. This study aimed to provide a solution for non-native Arabic students' speaking problems by designing a mobile learning You-Tube-based program.

Accordingly, the study intends to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the effectiveness of the mobile learning YouTube-based program in improving the speaking skill of non-native Arabic students at Taif University?
2. What is the effectiveness of the mobile learning YouTube-based program in improving the attitudes of non-native Arabic students at Taif University toward learning the Arabic language?

Study hypotheses

The current study included the following null hypotheses:

1. There are no statistically significant differences at the level of (0.05) between the students' mean scores of the control and experimental groups in the post application of the speaking skill test with its levels and over-

all scores for the benefit of the experimental group students due to the use of the mobile learning You Tube-based program.

2. There are no statistically significant differences at the level of (0.05) between the the students' mean scores of the control and experimental groups in the post application of the scale of students' attitudes towards learning the Arabic language for the benefit of students of the experimental group due to the use of the mobile learning-based program.

Method

This study adopted a quasi-experimental design of two groups, experimental and control, through the post-application of the study tools. The study has two variables. The independent variable is the teaching strategy and it includes two levels: mobile learning, and the traditional teaching. The dependent variables are speaking skills, and a scale of students' attitudes toward learning the Arabic language. They are as follows:

EG: O1 O2	X	O1 O2
CG: O1 O2		O1 O2

EG: the experimental group that studied using the educational program based on mobile learning

CG: the control group that studied using the traditional way

O1: Speaking Skills Test

O2: Students' Attitudes towards Learning Arabic Language

X: Learning using the Mobile Learning Strategy

The study sample comprised 22 fourth-level non-native Arabic students, enrolled in the second semester of the academic year 2018, in Teaching Arabic to Non-native Speakers Unit (NNSU) at Taif University. The students

were distributed randomly in two groups: the experimental group ($n=11$) that studied using the mobile learning You Tube-based program, and the control group ($n=11$) that studied using the traditional way. The teacher who taught the experimental group had received training on the mobile learning You-Tube-based program in one of the NNSU workshops that the researcher provided, and he showed a readiness to evaluate its effectiveness in enhancing the students' speaking skills and students' attitudes toward learning Arabic language.

Data were collected through two sources: speaking skill tests and a survey of students' attitudes toward learning Arabic, which were conducted before and after the implementation of the mobile learning YouTube-based program. The data from the speaking test are based on the students' scores in the speaking skill performance rubric (See Appendix 1). They are explained in the following sections

Speaking skill test

The researcher prepared a speaking skill test to measure the extent to which non-Arabic students can improve their speaking skills. The preparation and implementation of the speaking skills performance checklist involved the following steps:

- Determining the objective of the speaking skills checklist to determine the speaking skills that are suitable for fourth level non-Arabic speaking students.
- Exploring the components of the speaking skills performance checklist through reviewing previous literature such as Elfeky and Masadeh (2016), Hwang et al. (2014), Richard (2008), Holbrook (1983), Coulthard and Brazil (1982), Helmanda and Nisa (2019), Ihsan (2016), Sinwongsuwat (2012); and Nasution and Sukmawati (2019). In addi-

tion, many useful insights were gained and included in the checklist from research in the fields of applied linguistics, curricula and methods of teaching Arabic language to non-Arabic speaking students, and the textbooks used for fourth-level students.

- Checking the validity of the checklist through consulting 11 academic jurors in the field of applied linguistics and curricula and methods of teaching Arabic language to non-native Arabic speaking students. The initial checklist included seven sub-speaking skills which included linguistic-based components such as grammar and vocabulary, and para-linguistic components such as body language and interaction. The jurors rated the validity of these sub-skills according to a rating scale consisting of three levels: very appropriate, appropriate and not appropriate. The five sub-skills the jurors agreed were very appropriate were fluency, intonation, organization of thoughts, ability of persuasion, and interaction (see Appendix 1). The jurors also checked the language appropriateness of expressions and suggested some modifications. The final checklist was prepared in a way that suited the non-native Arabic students' speaking needs. Some of the linguistic components were collapsed into a more overarching label and function-based skills. The reason for focusing on fourth level students was that they had mastered many of linguistic components and needed more attention to paid to their linguistic performance than to their linguistic knowledge.
- Selecting eight videos as catalysts for speaking scenarios which were equal in terms of their levels of difficulty in order to initiate students' speaking.

The reliability of the test was explored by piloting the test to a sample of 14 non-Arabic students who were not from the study sample. Then, the reliability coefficient of the scores of the two raters for the overall skills was cal-

culated in light of the indicators included in the speaking skills performance evaluation checklist (See Appendix 1); the reliability was verified using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The reliability coefficient for the speaking skills test was (0.82), which indicates that the test has strong reliability and gives more confidence to be used in the current study. Table 1 shows the reliability coefficient for each sub-skill in the speaking skills evaluation.

Table 1: The reliability coefficient for the sub-skills in the speaking skills performance test

Speaking Skill	Reliability Coefficient
Fluency	0.89
Intonation	0.82
Organization of thoughts	0.86
Interaction	0.87
Ability of Persuasion	0.86
Total	0.86

Application of the test

The pre- and post-tests were in their final forms according to the jurors' opinions. Each test was conducted in two sessions; each session included four speaking scenarios where students were provided with four short YouTube videos from which they were asked to choose one and speak about for two minutes. Each student's performance was recorded separately. Each pre- and post-tests took two classes of 100 minutes in each group.

Test scoring

The speaking skills performance evaluation checklist was designed to analyze the student's oral response. An assistant researcher with 14 years teaching experience was invited to review the components of the speaking skills performance checklist, clarify the rating mechanism, and estimate the degree to which it represented students' performance in order to ensure accuracy in the analysis. In addition, he agreed that the analysis of the speaking skills performance should be performed individually. Further, 20 indicators for each speaking scenario in the prepared scenarios were used to specify the scores of

each student, with the scores ranging from 1 to 5 on each of the indicators that related to each speaking sub-skill. After completing the analysis and monitoring process, the sub-grades were extracted for each sub-skill for the experimental and control groups. The range of each student's scores on the test was between 20 and 100 points.

Scale of students' attitudes toward learning the Arabic language:

The researcher developed a survey for students' attitudes towards learning the Arabic language based on previous studies such as Jamaliah (2007), Hwang et al. (2014), Al-Emran, Elsherif and Shaalan (2016), and Boonrangsri et al., (2004). The survey comprised 18 five-level Likert items: strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, and strongly disagree.

The Mobile Learning You Tube-based program

The purpose of the program was to improve the speaking skills and attitudes towards learning Arabic language of the students in the experimental group, while the students of the control group were taught in the traditional way. The experimental group students were trained in the use of the designed program by using portable devices such as a their mobile phone, laptops, and iPads. All these devices were connected to the Internet in order to access YouTube to achieve the desired outcomes. After that the researcher ensured that the teachers followed the steps needed for conducting the program. The steps were adapted from some previous studies such as those of Fauziati (2014) and Riswandi (2016). They are as follows.

- Greeting the students, taking attendance, and informing the students of the targeted outcomes for the lesson and the task.
- Warming up through some brainstorming activities to prepare students for actual speaking activities and introducing a video to the students by asking them to read the title and some information about it.

- Dividing the students into small groups of three or four and asking them to start watching the video for the first time, only allowing them to take notes, the second time allowing them to discuss it with group members, and the third time allowing them to ask questions of the teacher.
- Allowing the students to choose YouTube videos on their own in light of the goals of the tasks given by the teachers.
- Letting students watch the video for the third time, or to watch a different specific clip if one of the groups needs to do so.
- Writing some extracts from the videos on the board to allow the students to initiate conversations in front of the whole class.
- Allowing the students to comment on their classmates' performances.
- Providing feedback and comments on the performance of each group by the teacher.
- Requesting each group to search for three YouTube videos related to the topics being discussed and summarize their content to present it orally to the students in the next class.

The validity of the program was checked by three PhD holders in applied linguistics, curricula and methods of teaching Arabic, and Arabic language. They provided valuable comments on the relevance of the program to the general and specific goals of the course, the content, the appropriateness of the two teaching strategies, the adequacy of the time allocated to each task, and the appropriateness of the assessment techniques. The program was modified in the light of jurors' opinions.

Procedures

After preparing the study tools, reviewing them, making the necessary modifications, and putting them in the final form, the researcher began implementing the experiment, according to the following chronology: pre-test during week 3, treatment during weeks 4 to 8, and post-test in week 12.

The researcher met the teacher of the control group in the Teaching Arabic to Non-native Speakers Unit at Taif University to familiarize him with the nature of the study, its objectives, importance, and steps to be followed in teaching the speaking lessons scheduled in the second semester of the book *The Arabic Language is Between Your Hands, Book Three, Part Two*.

The researcher also met the experimental group and explained the nature of the experiment and its purpose, and assured them that its goal was to help them achieve better results, and that the tests that would be applied would not affect their final grades.

Having collected the data via the speaking skills performance pre-tests, the scoring was done, and the data were monitored and statistically analyzed through the SPSS by using the Mann-Whitney U Test, to compare the two independent groups. The purpose was to verify the equivalence of the two groups of fewer than 30 participants. The results are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: The Mann-Whitney U test to compare the experimental and control groups on the pre- test of speaking skill, and students' attitudes towards learning Arabic language

Scale	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U Value	Sig.
Speaking skill performance checklist	Control	11	11.68	128.5	58.50	0.895
	Experimental	11	11.32	124.5		
Survey of Students' Attitudes towards learning Arabic language	Control	11	10.27	113.0	47.0	0.371
	Experimental	11	12.73	140.0		

In Table 2, the Mann-Whitney U test values revealed no significant

differences between the experimental and control groups in the pre-test of speaking skill and the survey of students' attitudes towards learning Arabic.

.This result shows that the two groups are equivalent

Post-test

The speaking skill test and the survey of students' attitudes towards learning the Arabic language were applied after the treatment had been delivered to the students of the two groups: the experimental and the control. After completing the test, it was scored according to the speaking skills performance checklist in the current study (see Appendix 2), and the results were prepared for each group to analyze them statistically. The Mann-Whitney test was run to find out the significance of the differences between the mean scores of the experimental and control groups in the pre-test of speaking skill and the survey of the students' attitudes towards learning the Arabic language.

Results and discussion

To answer the first question of the study (What is the effectiveness of the mobile learning YouTube-based program in improving the speaking skill of non-Arabic students at Taif University?) the researcher used the Mann-Whitney (u) test for independent groups to know the differences between the experimental and control groups in the post test of the speaking skills. So, the Mann-Whitney (u) test was used due to the small size of the two groups. The results are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3: The Mann-Whitney U test to compare the mean ranks of the experimental and control groups on the post- test of speaking skill

Speaking sub-skills	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U Value	Sig.
Fluency	Control	11	9.73	107.0	41.00	0.199
	Experimental	11	13.27	146.0		
Intonation	Control	11	10.50	115.5	49.50	0.467
	Experimental	11	12.50	137.5		
Organization of thoughts	Control	11	9.55	105.0	39.0	0.155
	Experimental	11	13.45	148.0		
Interaction	Control	11	9.55	105.5	39.0	0.155
	Experimental	11	13.45	148.0		
Ability of persuasion	Control	11	10.05	110.5	44.5	0.255
	Experimental	11	12.95	142.5		
Total	Control	11	9.64	106.0	40.0	0.178
	Experimental	11	13.36	147.0		

It is clear from Table 3 that the (u) values of the differences between the mean ranks of the scores of the experimental and control groups in the post-test of the speaking skills were significant in all sub-skills and the total scores. In order to determine the direction of the differences, the mean ranks of the scores of the two groups were compared. It is evident from the comparison that the mean ranks of the scores of the experimental group are greater than the mean ranks of the scores of the control group. This result means that there are significant differences at the level of ($p \leq 0.05$) between the mean ranks of the scores of the control and experimental groups in the post-test of the overall speaking skills and the overall score of the test. Accordingly, the differences are in favor of the experimental group.

Based on these results, the null hypothesis is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis is accepted. This states that there are statistically significant differences at the level of (0.05) between the mean ranks of the scores of the

students of the control and experimental groups in the post-test of the speaking skill in both its sub-skills and its overall score in favor of the experimental group students. These differences are due to the use of the mobile learning YouTube-based program. The results indicate that the program was effective and influential in developing students' speaking skills. The researcher attributes this positive impact to the use of videos (YouTube) which have valuable features and capabilities to attract students' attention and encourage them to interact effectively in the speaking process. This result aligns with Alqahtani's (2014) and Kearney's (2011) findings that the integration of technology helped to attract students to learning and enhanced their motivation.

A plausible interpretation of these results is that the use of YouTube has many benefits for the students. First, it has the capacity to appeal to audiovisual senses that in turn help the students to organize, save and retrieve information. This accords with cognitive theory, which asserts that learning effectively happens when using visual and auditory elements together. Second, the videos can provide opportunities for students to learn through narration in a way that simultaneously displays both verbal and nonverbal information. Third, the use of allows the individual differences of the students to be taken into account as they allow them to watch the videos more than once as needed, and to find videos that meet their different and varied needs (Bhagat et al., 2016).

In general, the results showed that the utilization of mobile learning has provided the students with many opportunities for active cooperation and collaboration. The video activities provided various learning activities, focusing on discussion, dialogue and practicing speaking skills to complete the required communicative tasks, either verbally or written. This is in addition to the possibility of direct interaction with the teacher and receiving immediate feedback. Such facilities provided by video activities have the capacity to develop the students' self-confidence, and to increase their speaking proficiency

by enhancing the retention of vocabulary and the ability to speak fluently with appropriate gestures and correct sounds. All these opportunities and facilities provided through video activities may not be available in regular classes. This result is in line with Baniabdelrahman's (2013) finding that mobile learning contributed to spreading the spirit of cooperation and participation as well as encouraging students to express themselves in front of their colleagues without fear or hesitation. The results are congruent with the work of Almurashi (2016) who found that YouTube had helped students in retaining information and vocabulary and increasing speaking fluency.

To answer the second question (What is the effectiveness of the mobile learning YouTube-based program in improving the attitudes of non-Arabic speaking students at Taif University towards learning the Arabic language?) the researcher used the Mann-Whitney U Test to compare the mean ranks of the scores of the two independent groups. The value of U and its statistical significance for the scores of the two groups on the survey of students' attitudes toward learning Arabic were calculated. The results of this scale are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: The Mann-Whitney U test to compare the mean ranks of the scores of the experimental and control groups on post-application of the survey of students' attitudes towards learning Arabic language

Group	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U Value	Sig.
Control	6.82	75.00	9.0	0.000
Experimental	16.18	178.00		

It can be clearly seen in Table 4 that the mean ranks of the scores of the experimental group students are higher than the mean ranks of the scores of the students of the control group for the students' attitudes towards learning the Arabic language. This result means that there are significant differences at the level of ($p \leq 0.05$) between the mean ranks of the scores of the students of

the control and experimental groups in the post application of the survey of students' attitudes towards learning the Arabic language. These differences are attributed to the program. Accordingly, the researcher rejects the null hypothesis and accepts the alternative hypothesis which states that there are statistically significant differences at the level (0.05) between the mean ranks of scores of the students of the control and experimental groups in the post application of the survey of students' attitudes towards learning Arabic.

The results of the second question clearly show that students have positive attitudes towards mobile learning and the use of YouTube videos. Presumably, this result can be explained by the benefits gained from applying such a technology in learning and teaching. The main benefits are making learning more enjoyable and interesting, increasing the students' motivation to learn, attracting the attention of the learner, and encouraging the students' collaboration, participation, and expression of opinions. These results show congruencies with student-centered learning principles. The results are in line with the work of Baniabdelrahman (2013), who stated that the use of mobile learning in teaching speaking skills had contributed to creating a real and enjoyable learning environment, which enabled students to practice the language, engage in meaningful speaking activities, learn from each other and build on the knowledge of others.

Furthermore, the results confirmed those of many previous studies that revealed that the use of mobile learning through using videos helped significantly by increasing students' participation in speaking activities as well as increasing their motivation (Almurashi, 2016; Alqahtani, 2014; Chaka & Govender, 2017). The current study results provide more evidence supporting the results of previous studies (Almurashi, 2016; Alqahtani, 2014; Chaka & Govender, 2017; Hwang et al., 2014), which lent support to the idea that interaction and participation in the classroom is the strongest indicator of students' motivation and students' ownership of positive attitudes towards mobile learning.

Limitations and recommendations

Future efforts should consider that the study had some limitations. The study focused solely on the speaking skills of non-native Arabic students, divided into five areas, namely fluency, intonation, organization of thought, ability of persuasion, and interaction, which were taught by means of mobile learning to fourth-level students in the second semester of the academic year 2018 in the Teaching Arabic for Non-native Speakers Unit at Taif University. Also, the sample included only male students. It would be more feasible to find out gender-based differences in a mobile learning YouTube program investigation with a larger sample size.

Policy makers and teacher educators of teaching Arabic language should deal with technology, and specifically mobile learning, as a tool to help students achieve desired learning outcomes. They could invite teachers to attend professional development sessions, seminars and conferences, and conduct action research to familiarize them with the importance of such a technology. This would help teachers shift from traditional methods of teaching and assessment, and would result in increasing students' autonomy, engagement, and motivation.

Conclusion

This study continues previous efforts that have supported mobile learning and demonstrates the positive impact of such a technology. This body of research has been extended to the context of non-native Arabic speaking students. Therefore, future research efforts are encouraged to keep abreast of the new trends of mobile learning applications, specifically, social media platforms that can help to create engaging language learning activities and push students to take part in more authentic language learning experiences. In addition, such efforts will make the development of Arabic language teaching and learning sustainable.

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**The oral linguistic performance evaluation checklist
(Observation checklist)**

Speaking Sub-Skills	Sub-score for each behavioral indicator	The degree to which the student masters the skills					
		Not found	Unsatisfying	Fair	Good	Very Good	Excellent
		0	1	2	3	4	5
First - Fluency:							
The student recalls some vocabulary related to some topic within a specific time.	5						
The student expresses his idea in appropriate and varied language formulas.	5						
The student presents the conversation at a speed that suits the level of the recipients and the nature of the situation.	5						
The student presents the conversation in eloquent Arabic, and free from errors of pronunciation and construction.	5						
The student presents the conversation with various styles that suit the nature of the topic, and the characteristics of the audience.	5						
Second - Intonation:							
The student focuses on the correct pronunciation and the output of letters from their .correct exits	5						
The student masters the tone of the voice with different forms (exclamation, interrogation and hopefulness).	5						
The student uses physical movements appropriate to the content of the speech.	5						
Third – Organization of thoughts:							
The student focuses on determining the goal of talking with others.	5						
The student paves the way to speak in an attractive and interesting method.	5						

**The oral linguistic performance evaluation checklist
(Observation checklist)**

Speaking Sub-Skills	Sub-score for each behavioral indicator	The degree to which the student masters the skills					
		Not found	Unsatisfying	Fair	Good	Very Good	Excellent
		0	1	2	3	4	5
The student organizes the ideas chronologically according to the important and main points.	5						
The student uses the appropriate verbal links to move from idea to idea.	5						
The student ends his speech in an attractive and appropriate way.	5						
Fourth-Ability of persuasion:							
The student supports his opinions while speaking with appropriate evidence.	5						
The student obtained this evidence from various sources, and provides convincing evidence to support the solution he proposes.	5						
Fifth - Interaction:							
The student uses kinesthetic expressions accompanying speech.	5						
The student accepts others' opinions without prejudice to his opinion.	5						
The student analyzes the interests of his listeners.	5						
The student uses verbal and nonverbal influencing strategies (gestures and body language),	5						
The student uses questions to influence listeners that capture their attention.	5						
Total student scores							
The total	100						

Appendix 2 Survey of students' attitudes toward learning Arabic Language

Dear student:

The researcher conducts a study entitled “**The Use of Mobile Learning You-Tube-based Program in Improving Non-native Arabic Students' speaking skills and Their Attitudes toward Learning Arabic.**”

The study aims to explore your Attitudes toward the Arabic language. It comprised a survey of 18 items; in front of each one you have five options. You are kindly required to read these items carefully, and put an X sign in the option that represents your attitude. All your identifying information will be kept confidential. The information you provide in the survey will be used for the purpose of scientific research.

A survey of Non-native Arabic speaking students' attitudes towards Learning Arabic Language

No.	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
.1	Learning Arabic is my .major goal					
.2	The more Arabic lan- guage skills I master, the more self-confi- .dence I have					
3.	I enjoy speaking error-free Arabic in the classroom.					
4.	I feel overjoyed when I communicate with my colleagues in an error-free Arabic.					
5.	I hope to be a fluent speaker of Arabic language.					
.6	I hope to achieve a higher Arabic language competency in both .speaking and writing					
7.	Arabic language learning deserves more efforts than I am doing.					
8.	I believe that the Ara- bic language enhances the aesthetic values of the individual.					
9.	I feel satisfied in the Arabic language lessons because it is an easy language.					
10.	I love the Arabic language because it nourishes the soul and the mind together.					
11.	I love Arabic language because it deals with humanitarian issues.					

The Use of Mobile Learning You Tube-based Program in Improving Non-native Arabic Students' Speaking Skills and Their Attitudes toward Learning Arabic

No.	Item	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
12.	I think learning Arabic language matches my desires.					
.13	I believe that the Arabic language is capable of developing one's capacity of self-expression					
15.	I love the Arabic language because it helps me communicate with others.					
.17	I think that continuous training on different Arabic language skills is necessary to learn it					
18.	I feel that the Arabic language helps me to understand the Holy Quran.					
19.	I believe that the Arabic language is a necessity of contemporary life					



**Echoes of loss in William Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*
and Walter Whitman's "My Captain:" A Comparative Study**

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Abstract:

In the area of comparative studies, influence plays an important role in shedding new lights on literary works. This study compares an extract from Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra* with a modern poem written by Walter Whitman. In the two texts, the speakers are lamenting the death of someone special. The direction of the feelings of loss is from the personal to the public. Despite the gender differences between them, both want the whole world to share their desolation and sadness. Points of similarity and differences are tackled in the paper. Genre, diction, imagery, tone and tension are diverse areas of concern to be deliberated. It is interesting to read examples of communicating history through literature and especially poetry.

Key Words: Shakespeare, Walter Whitman, Death, *Antony and Cleopatra*, Comparative Study

INTRODUCTION

William Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra* (1607) has caused much ink to flow. A great deal has been said on the dramatization of the character of Cleopatra, the other dramatic elements of the play, or the mastery of its genius playwright. However, this study does not concern itself with any of these issues. The paper attempts a comparative approach to only an extract from the play after the death of Antony (IV.XV) in relation to "O Captain! My Captain" (1865) by Walter Whitman. The unifying theme is the sense of loss and the prevalent mood is one of grief. The approach of the paper is particularly invested in the aesthetic and philosophic specificity represented by the two writers. However each of the two writers employs a different genre: Shakespeare's is a poetic tragedy and Whitman's is a lyric elegy. Points of similarity as well as points of departure will be brought into focus. Genre, diction, imagery, tone and tension are different areas of concern to be tackled.

The analogy between the two texts is thought-provoking for many reasons. First, the two texts show the pronounced capacities of their writers. Shakespeare's dramatic style and poetic powers are revealed in *Antony and Cleopatra* as fully matured. It is clear that his use of language has developed to its max now. His poetic language "parallels and reinforces the conflicts of the play, indicates what is going to happen and helps tell us why" (Hume, 1973, p. 300). On the other hand, Whitman has written so many a poem about death that many regard him as "a great poet of the joys of life, but equally a great poet of death" (Aspiz, 2004, p. I). Second, in the selected texts, the writers have managed to narrate life changing historical moments with glorious poetic language that blend politics, history and literary powers. Moreover, it is worth noting that the two texts have managed to deliver the desired feelings of sadness and desolation despite the gender differences between their speakers. In the Shakespearean play, the speaker is Cleopatra,

the Eastern Queen of Egypt who is crying over the body of her Roman lover Antony. In the poem, Whitman, the modern American poet, is mournful at the assassination of Abraham Lincoln, the President of USA. Accordingly, the two texts are examples of communicating history through literary and poetic language.

One reason for attempting to compare Shakespeare (1564 - 1616) with Whitman (1819 - 1892) is the influence which is a very important key term in the area of comparative studies. Hassan (1955) believes that this concept "is called upon to account for any relationship, running the gamut of incidence to causality, with a somewhat expansive range of intermediate correlations" (p. 67). Whitman enriches American poetry with some of his great sonnets which he molded on the known Shakespearean form. The Shakespearean influence on Whitman is so clear that many critics tend to call his poetry Shakespearean but in a very strange and unique way. Clausson (2009) states that the "intertextual relationships between Whitman's sonnets and Shakespeare's sonnets suggest that Whitman is a more traditional poet than is usually acknowledged, though certainly not in the pejorative sense of that term" (p. 132). It is a common fact about Whitman that he used to carry a copy of Shakespearean play torn out from "some broken or cheap edition" in his pocket so that he could read it "when the mood demanded" (*Prose Works*, 1963, p. 294). He even admits that he likes to memorize long passages from Shakespeare's plays and "spout" them "on the Broadway stage-coaches, in the awful din of the street" (Traubel, 1961, p. 246). He contemplates on the importance of Shakespeare in the new American literature saying that, as a developing nation, the Americans have to express their "new spirit" in a rather innovative way; however, they "shall take the same old font of type, but what [they] set up will never have been set up before." He admits that this font type is "the same old font that Shakespeare used, but [their] use will be new" (as cited in Myerson, 1991, p. 15). No matter

what he thinks about the authorship of Shakespeare, Whitman truly believes that "the author Shakespeare, whoever he was, was a great man: much was summed up in him —much— yes, a whole age and more: he gave reflection to a certain social estate quite important enough to be studied: he was a master artist" (as cited in Altrocchi, 2014, p. 123). Thus, this recognizable influence of Shakespeare on Whitman forms the foundation of this study.

In addition, it is important to say that both writers have borrowed some of their rudiments of their works from other sources. Whitman acknowledges his indebtedness to Shakespeare, saying that "If I had not stood before those poems with uncover'd head, fully aware of their colossal grandeur and beauty of form and spirit, I could not have written 'Leaves of Grass'" (*Prose Works*, 1963, p. 721). On the other hand, Shakespeare takes no trouble to be original. He has borrowed freely from all possible sources but he has successfully made all these materials entirely his own. He has transformed them by the alchemy of his genius. It is known about Shakespeare that he "makes the dust of history glow with the spirt of his imagination" (Albert, 1931, p. 102). All have been drawn by the hand of the great master of the English literature. It seems as if what he cares for most is to breathe new life into famous men and great events of the past. This recalls Shaw's (1961) observation that "the original author is not necessarily the innovator or the most inventive but rather the one who succeeds in making all his own (p. 86). Writing *Antony and Cleopatra*, Shakespeare depended on Thomas North's English translation of the Greek Plutarch's *Lives* (Hebel, 1952, p. 816). However, as with all his history plays, he did not adhere exactly to what is written in history books. There is condensation and invention but only when he was compelled to do so by the needs of the dramatic art.

With all these points of similitude between the selected texts, the thematic resemblance between them is also another area of importance. How someone

reacts to the feelings of loss at the death of a beloved one, that all of us unfortunately must encounter at some point of our lives, is unique, hardly similar to how another person might deal with. Frye (1996) contemplates that tragically "death is, not an incident in life, not even the inevitable end of life, but the essential event that gives shape and form to life" (p. 3). Besides being the "essential event" of life, death and its contemplation is also a central subject matter in literature. The idea of death and the traumatic feelings of loss and grief become very overwhelming at times of funerals. People deal with the death of someone close to them in a variety of ways, and no way is better or worse than another. No one can explain these feelings better than poets.

On the one hand, Shakespeare is widely regarded as England's National poet and the "Bard of Avon." He is the author who was praised by Wordsworth (1892), the English Romantic poet, who says: "We must be free or die, who speak the tongue/ That Shakespeare spoke" (p. 135). His poems and plays have been translated to every major living language. Albert (1931) says, "Shakespeare is unrivalled in literature. From king to clown, from lunatic and semi-devil to saint and seer, from lover to misanthrope, all are revealed with the hand of a master" (p. 103). Almost no other writer could characterize his personas with such great tolerant and unprejudiced techniques as Shakespeare. When Courtney (1995) comments on Shakespeare's plays, he states that they "focus on the greatest of all themes, the nature of life and death. . . . and are universal to humanity in all ages" (p. i). The extremely diverse talented playwright shows unsurpassed gift of expression. The fact that poetry is one of the tools Shakespeare uses to express his great ideas is very clear in practically all his plays, and especially tragedies.

In short, the extract is taken from the great tragedy about the love-story of Mark Antony, one of the three rulers of the Roman Empire and Cleopatra, the Egyptian Queen and the icon of beauty and lust. It is fascinating to know that

"for the almost four centuries since its composition, critical controversy has seethed around every aspect of the tragedy—its value, its ethos, its genre, its structure, and its characters" is worth noticing (Deats, 2005, p. 1). Shakespeare creates the whole play in blank verse which is suitable for the formal and elevated nature of tragedy. "The firm rhythms and regular line length are easier to commit to memory" (Hilliam, 2005, p. 54). The blank verse contains lines of ten syllables but no rhyming ending which creates the freely flow of words close to everyday speech. However, sometimes Shakespeare adds rhymes according to the incidents of the scenes.

In the extract, Cleopatra, the famous queen of Egypt and the heroine of the play, expresses her sorrowful feelings at the death of her Roman lover, Antony. The speech is uttered by Cleopatra after Antony's death in her lap amidst melodramatic situation. The majestic reticence of the queen betrays her in one of the most impressive passages of the play. She is certain that after the death of the great soldier, what is remarkable and extraordinary in life is gone. Now all men are equal in their rank with even young boys and girls. The highly personal strength possessed by the great queen is felt even when she laments her lover; in her use of majestic metaphors. Pointing at Antony, she laments his death saying: "We'll bury him; and then, what's brave / what's noble." She describes him as "Our lamp [that] is spent," The "crown o' the earth doth melt" and "our jewel" stolen by the gods. Courtney (1995) states that "often to Shakespeare, "crown" signifies temporal power, contrasted with love for other and humanity as a whole. Such ideas extend our thoughts beyond the mere words" (p. 18). Also such metaphors suggest the idea of transformation from one thing or substance into another. Cleopatra believes that death is a stage to another life to which Antony has just crossed. The same idea is repeated when Cleopatra blames "the injurious gods" for taking Antony's life and if "It were for" her, she "would... throw [her] sceptre at the injurious gods" and "tell them

that this world did equal theirs / Till they had stol'n our jewel." The repetitions of these metaphors deepen and emphasize their originally intended meanings. Moreover, their recurrences focus the attention of the audience more on the mental and psychological conditions of the speaker than on their reference.

As in any Aristotelian/Shakespearean tragedy, feelings of pity and sympathy should be the main response on the part of the audience. In *Course of Lectures on Dramatic Art and Literature*, Schlegel (1846) states that Cleopatra excites "our sympathy" in her love to Antony (p. 416). Cleopatra wonders that "is it sin / To rush into the secret house of death" but "This case of that huge spirit now is cold." Her love for Antony is so deep that she decides to join him in the life to come. She finds no cause to live as the man who made difference in her life lived no more. This is very obvious when she admits that "All's but naught." Death becomes a necessity for her now. Her loss is not only personal. She wants her attendants to share her feelings because "we have no friend" now.

On the other hand, Whitman, "America's most representative poet" and "the father of free verse" as Reynolds (1995) calls him, rejects the traditional form of poetry and revolts against it (p. 314). Whitman is a journalist, a teacher, a government clerk, and a poet. He has joined the American Civil War as a volunteer nurse which gives him an insight into the misery and destruction of wars (Morris, 2000, p. 5). In the introduction to Whitman's poetic collection, *Leaves of Grass*, Bloom (2005) considers that "If you are American, then Walter Whitman is your imaginative father and mother, even if, like myself, you have never composed a line of verse" (p. xxxi). This is much related to the essence of the paper; who could righteously be compared to Shakespeare, the father of English literature than the father of American literature.

It is interesting to acknowledge that Whitman has written many poems

about death. Lawrence (2002) describes Whitman as America's "great post mortem poet . . . the ghost [whose poems] are really huge fat tomb-plants, great rank graveyards of growth" (p. 4). The selected text is an allegorical and relatively conventional poem composed as a reaction to the assassination of the sixteenth president of the United States Abraham Lincoln. It is the only poem to appear in anthologies during Whitman's lifetime (Kaplan, 1980, p. 309). The poem is an extended complex metaphor about the country compared to a ship that has just arrived to the shores safe after the very frightful trip of the civil war whose Captain/President is just assassinated. The President is never mentioned by name. The mournful narrator of his captain death on the deck of the ship is Whitman, who is one of the sailors of the ship. Unfortunately, as everyone is celebrating the return of the ship the speaker continues his lament on the death of the captain. The auditory metaphors of the "bells," "exulting" crowd, "bugle," "call," "the swaying mass," and "their eager faces turning" are important to shed light on the supposed celebrating mood of the poem as contrasted with the bloody images of the Captain like "cold," "dead," and "bleeding."

The poem starts with a happy and victorious mood when the ship/America has just arrived to the shores/end of civil war. The mood is changed as the sailor notices the death of the captain on the deck. The second stanza continues the celebration of the nation as the speaker is addressing the captain describing how people are celebrating him: raising the flag, playing horns, holding flowers and ribbons, and calling out to the captain with church-bell sounds. Then the mood changes as the speaker is holding the captain in his hands and calling him father. The father's figure of the speaker is dead. The time of great rejoicing at the end of the war is turned into a mourning at his loss. This shows the great shock of the sailor; he feels he is living in a nightmarish dream from which he hopes to wake up soon. The captain will not receive his deserved

salute because he is killed. The last stanza echoes the first one. Despite the end of the war and the winning of the prize, the speaker cannot rejoice at the nation's victory because his captain is dead.

This short, simple, three-stanza poem of sadness and grief for the president becomes quickly a popular world-wide symbol for hopelessness that can easily outdo victory. The deep emotions and feelings expressed in the lines makes Whitman the most famous poet of the American Literature. Masters (1968) postulates that is the best poem "in formal verse and rhyme." No one can deny its "technical blemishes but its deep tenderness and moving passion and sorrow fuse these defects into the harmony of a lyric never to be forgotten" (p. 130). It is still worth contemplating that Whitman succeeds in using traditional and conventional rhythm to suit the sad and chaotic occasion and to reach big audience.

Each line of the two selected texts represents a carefully composed piece of artistry that supports the entire work. Via intentionally constructed tone, diction, and tension, the selected text moves esthetically forward to impress their readers. In both texts, the apt use of tone, genre, tension and diction is very powerful in conveying feelings of sorrow at the death of a loved one. Cleopatra's tone is one of sadness and grief. Also the use of blank verse and the theatrical opening are good examples of decorum in this poetic drama. This expressive extract reveals a lot about the mental accomplishments of the great famous queen of Egypt, her loyal pride along with her great love for Antony. The effect of such regular rhythm is to lend a certain formality to the utterance. The genre of poetic drama is particularly associated with the seriousness of tragedy. Shakespeare's rich poetic language is a source of visual pleasure to his audience and readers. The use of opposition highlights the tension of the text. It emerges in certain phrases as: "boys and girls/level with men," "crown/melt" and many other. For example the "crown" which

signifies the monarchy power cannot melt because the word "melt" suggests disappearance and evaporation. Cleopatra describes Antony as the crown or the mark of distinction and separateness. The same idea is raised when Cleopatra says: "the odds is gone." On the other hand, the diction of the extract is very theatrical but with high sobriety and majestic suitable to Cleopatra's rank as a queen. The majestic metaphors of Cleopatra contrast to the leading parental-figure metaphors of Whitman about Lincoln.

The apt use of tone, tension and diction is very powerful in conveying feelings of sorrow at the death of a loved one. In his poetry, Whitman usually depends on rhythm and repetition to create the desired incantational results in his readers. This repetition is very clear even in the title of the poem. It is not a coincident that Whitman begins each and every stanza by the word: "O Captain!" "O Captain!" and "My Captain." The appropriate choice of words enhances the incant elegy to mourn the dead President. Words as "heart," "father," "cold and dead," "pale and still," "no pulse nor will," and "mournful" clearly reflects the feelings of the speaker.

Mainly the meter of the poem is in an iambic meter. This fixed two syllabic meter is meant to evoke a song that will be remembered easily and recited forever. There are two kinds of sudden shifts; one in the mood, and the other in the rhythm. They are both recognized in the last four lines of each stanza. Whitman divides each eight-line stanza into a verse and a chorus. In these lines, the rhythm changes from a steady pace to a changing beat, then back again to a steady pace. Each verse contains two long rhymed couplets in which he celebrates the winning of the war. Obviously, the mood is cheerful and excited after the war is won.

On the other hand, each chorus is composed of four (ABCB) short lines that lament the death of the Captain. In the chorus, the mood quickly changes

to one of shock and despair, as the narrator discovers the dead “captain” on the deck of the ship. Whitman uses these shifts to focus the reader’s attention on the sudden tragic death of the “captain” and to convey the great loss of the nation after his death. Whitman creates these shifts in all the three stanzas, which makes the poem more appealing and the contrast more obvious. Generally, the language of the poem is simple and straightforward, as if Whitman wants his audience to focus on the subject and not get caught up in parallels to fancy figures of speech or poetic forms. In some lines, the syntax is shifted just to maintain the rhyme of the whole poem.

A detailed analysis of the two selected texts reveal that both are different versions of the idea of grief and sadness at the loss of someone special. The two share a sad tone regarding death. The general direction of the expressed feelings is from the personal to the public. As the analysis shows, Shakespeare’s offers a different formula from Whitman. The fact still remains that their diverse use of the narrative voices, their stress upon personal and subjective versus collective and objective experiences of their speakers are fascinating and remarkable.

Each text embraces different poetic style to express each author’s thoughts about death and the resulted feelings of sadness. These differences are not contradictory but prove the great Shakespearean influence on Whitman. The feelings of great loss and solitude at the death of a beloved one expressed by the modern poet are implicitly formulated by Shakespearean atmosphere and sensibility. One can righteously say that only an extract from Shakespeare’s play has managed to deliver the same feelings of a modern poem; life is empty and cold without the loved ones. Individually, the two texts are equally intense, appealing and moving. Although the two texts have been written in different times, locations and they belong to different literary genres; both express the same feelings by the use of poetic language.

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Student's Attitudes Towards Assessment Practices In Online Learning at Umm Al-Qura University In Saudi Arabia

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Abstract:

The current quantitative study explores the efficiency of three different types of online examinations and their connection regarding to their attitudes that help them for their future careers at Umm Al-Qura University in Saudi Arabia. Three assessment methods -exams, participation tasks and real-based projects- were introduced to assess students in different online courses at Umm Al-Qura University in which of them is preferred to students. 314 students were involved in this study to complete the questionnaires. One-way ANOVA was used to analyze the data and find which method had the greatest effect in addition to introducing the means and standard deviations of the students' scores in each method of assessments. Results show that the graduates have positive attitudes towards the three assessment methods used in online education, with a preference for exams are the preferred assessment method, followed by participation tasks and finally real-based projects. Also, the graduates considered exams as the best assessment method to prepare them for real-life employment in both knowledge and general skills, followed by real-based projects and finally, the participation tasks. In addition, the current quantitative study shows how while traditional face to face education and the corresponding assessment continues to be an asset for education, online assessments provide better tools and preparation for future graduates and their careers.

Keywords: online education, online assessment, higher education, exams, participation, real-based projects.

Introduction

We are living in a world where personal enquiry through online engagement and constant personal development play a key role in the success in the career world. Technology continues to improve allowing people to engage with information in multiple ways, not only communicating but also sharing and learning. Traditional education and assessments have been for a long time the dominant form of education, however, there is an increase in online and distance learning enrolments that can offer benefits not only to prepare students for this world, offering them not only acquiring new knowledge but also the skills required to continually develop new skills through technology and online engagement. As a result, assessments also must change to adapt to the new needs and forms of imparting education. Furthermore, there are other benefits, such as flexibility and cost. Today more than ever, through online education, many students around the world can access a better education, even an education at all, and access social mobility in places where that was impossible through traditional education (Gillett-Swan, 2017). Finally, this research intends to evaluate whether assessment practices in online learning in higher education support student learning.

Furthermore, traditional examinations are a passive practice that does not promote learning, nor the acquisition of skills required for today's world (Gillett-Swan, 2017). Online assessments, on the contrary, offer the flexibility and dynamics necessary to overcome the challenges that all students will encounter in their career. Online education is already giving them not only the knowledge but also the skills that they will require the rest of their life to enquire and solve problems as they advance in their careers.

The current study will explore student's attitudes towards assessment practices in online learning at Umm Al-Qura University in Saudi Arabia. Of three assessment methods -exams, participation tasks and real-based projects- which one of these do graduates consider that helped them the most for their real-life employment and career.

Statement of the study problem

The majority of the existing research based on online education has been conducted to explore the quality of it. Evidence shows that the quality of online education offers the necessary tools and knowledge to students so they can succeed in life (Kebritchi et al., 2017). However, conclusions of existing research also point out that the main concern of online education is not its quality in terms of content and knowledge but with regards to efficient examination. The current addresses this specific problem at UMM Al-Qura University in Saudi Arabia. Globalization and digitalization are demanding students to acquire skills that online education provides, however, examinations are key to certify students and institutions that offer and take the courses (Sun & Chen, 2016). Reputability depends on the quality and efficiency of examinations. Traditional examinations continue to have authority, as employees trust them. The current study explores the efficiency of three different types of online examinations and their connection regarding to their attitudes that help them for their future careers. As examination types are directly linked to pedagogy styles, the results of this research will help professors from UMM Al-Qura University to implement the most efficient examination type.

Definition of Terms

Online assessments are a set of components that are measured or evaluated to determine a student's academic achievement. Online assessment, as the name defines it, is a technique used online rather than face to face like the traditional assessment. Students are given feedback after the assessment is evaluated (Romeu Fontanillas et al., 2016).

Online learning or E-learning is the learning or impartation of academic courses that are delivered online using new emerging technology. Online learning characterizes as it can be imparted at any time and it can be learned at any time anywhere in the world. Online learning takes place in an online environment using technological interfaces to transmit students the knowledge for them to meet the necessary academic standards (Shehabat & Mahdi, 2009).

Student's attitudes towards online education refer to the relationship between students and technology used when studying online, the usefulness of online learning, and technology to acquire knowledge and a job after graduation. It refers to the positive or negative feelings that students develop while learning online and then finding a job using their online degree. Overall, they are student's behaviors regarding online education, the acceptance, and incorporation of online learning, and the technological tools used for learning (Ullah, 2017).

Students' perception of online learning refers to their opinion or feeling about the academically rigorous that online courses are in comparison to face-to-face education, and their usefulness for finding a job and to prepare them for their future career (Armstrong, 2011).

Performance tasks are a type of work that can be done alone or as part of a group with the superficial of the tutor. This kind of assessment is to acquire

critical thinking and problem-solving skills applied to the topic that is being learned. It includes written, oral, and applied skills (Kirmizi & Komec, 2016).

Participation refers to the performance of a student during class activities. Participation is assessed based on student engagement such as asking questions, cooperating with peers, group activities, or just being engaged and paying attention in class (Kirmizi and Komec, 2016).

Exams are evaluations of student's performance and knowledge. They play a central role in education. Exams can be online exams or face to face; Oral or written. They can also be take-home exams, which require a deeper analysis (Frankl & Schratt-Bitter, 2012).

Literature Review

The educational assessment has always been of importance in educational practice. It has a direct effect on how teachers teach, and thus, on how students learn (Tekyiwa Amua-Sekyi, 2016). It also provides valuable information not only about student's knowledge but also about the teacher's teaching method's efficiency. The original purpose of assessments was to find out and report on how much students learned. According to Tekyiwa Amua-Sekyi, (2016), the definition of assessment is "all the activities that teachers and students undertake to get information that can be used to alter teaching and learning" (p.1).

Examinations and tests have become the center of assessments, and many researchers agree that they are negatively affecting learning. An effective assessment promotes engagement between students and the learning material (Rawlusk, 2018).

Assessments can be done in multiple ways, from homework, tests, essays, discussions, reports, projects, amongst others. The aim is to identify what students might know or not, to improve teaching methods and fulfil the objective of learning which is the acquisition of knowledge (Tekyiwa Amua-Sekyi, 2016). In other words, assessments are tools that provide feedback about teacher's methods and student's knowledge. Tekyiwa Amua-Sekyi, (2016) explains how dialogue is very important in the success of learning and teaching because it can improve the effectiveness of the entire learning experience. It is also necessary to have summative assessments which help develop tests, marks, academic reports and qualifications. These are standard measures that help rank individuals in the social world. According to these, graduates are judged on the knowledge they have of the content of the education they received, and they are certified through qualifications (Tekyiwa Amua-Sekyi, 2016).

If assessments have two purposes: learning and gaining a qualification or certification which requires passing an evaluation, then formative and summative assessments are effective methods (Rawlusk, 2018). Helping teachers improve their teaching methods is part of the feedback that assessments provide for the ultimate goal of helping students learn and be certified (Tekyiwa Amua-Sekyi, 2016). Formative assessment is the ongoing assessment during the course, where students are encouraged to become familiar with the content and engage with it, allowing deep thinking and long-term acquisition of knowledge. Summative is the actual assessment or tests where students are judged based on their achievement. It is at the end of the phase of instruction (Rawlusk, 2018).

Finally, Tekyiwa Amua-Sekyi, (2016) mentions that assessments in the form of tests also prepares students to acquire knowledge and skills to perform particular jobs or actions in the future. However, as the education of the future is shaping towards higher-order thinking skills, there is a heated debate within assessment methods (Bengtsson, 2019). Tekyiwa Amua-Sekyi, (2016) shows how the link between teaching, learning and critical thinking skills is not necessarily successful even if the results of the assessment are positive. This is important for the current study as the effectiveness of online education has to affect not only on grades and qualifications but also in practice (Kebritchi et al., 2017). The skills needed require more than just learning how to do a job. A set of critical thinking skills and online education assessments should also be included (Liu et al., 2014). Assessment plays an essential role in formal higher education (Gaylard Baleni, 2015).

Student enrolment in online courses in higher education continues to grow at a much faster rate than traditional enrolments (Kearns, 2012). Moreover, the International Council for Open and Distance Education foresees that this form of education delivery will be the most significant format in the future for high-

er education (Kearns, 2012). Thus, it is more even important to understand the design of online teaching as well as the assessment methods of both formative and summative. Kearns, (2012) conducted a study to evaluate the effectiveness of online learning assessments, showing that instructors are concerned about the assessments in an online environment. Students show progress and understanding, and there is also space for engaging frequently in online discussions, which can be part of the assessment strategy, however, there are still doubts or mistrust of assessments taking place in the online environment.

Online and blended learning has developed drastically in the last decades, particularly in higher education. In this environment, distance and online courses of higher education have a salient role, because the lack of physical space and face-to-face interaction between students, and between students and lecturers require different techniques of both teaching and assessing (Gaylard Baleni, 2015).

The way lecturers and professors approach the assessment of online learning affects the way students approach the content of the class and how they do their own work and study. Assessments should help students prove their new abilities and knowledge. This is important because most students only cover content that is directly linked to their assessments because assessments are known to be the key element that will determine their future (Gaylard Baleni, 2015). Assessment will affect the material students will cover and the time they will spend on learning it.

It is important to highlight that even if the majority of students see the process of learning as the acquisition of knowledge proved in an examination room, this is not the essential element of learning. Learning requires more than simply passing an exam. It is the transformation process that allows students to grow not only academically but also at a personal level (Stansfield et al., 2004). It requires understanding patterns, principles, critically engaging

with arguments, and experiencing the process as personal development. This kind of learning is transformative and online technology has an important role in promoting it (Stansfield et al., 2004).

Developing a learning framework and online assessment requires the adaptation to technology and the way of imparting and receiving classes. It requires the understanding that there is lack of face to face contact and that knowledge transforms and creates new knowledge (Stansfield et al., 2004). Online course designs require valid learning tasks that are relevant to academic subjects and accessible to students.

One of the main characteristics of online learning is that they are designed to be flexible for the learner to access the programs. They usually are independent of both time and location, and each student is responsible for making their own time learning and studying. Even if they lack face to face might seem as if there is less interaction with the material, online courses allow more interactivity with the content and in more spontaneous ways, sharing ideas and opinions in chat rooms or discussion rooms and even more frequently than traditional learning.

The content is also very clear with detailed learning objectives and outcomes that can facilitate the learning process. Moreover, all the course material is presented in a variety of ways, to suit all types of learners. As a result, learners are given the power to learn in different ways and engaging with the content as deep as they wish (Stansfield et al., 2004).

When introducing online learning, it is essential to have courses that can be monitored for quality assessments (Westbrook, 2006). Many arguments against online learning come from structural and procedural transparency of courses and the corresponding assessments (Kebritchi et al., 2017). Both courses and assessments, are facilitated online, and they offer great opportunities for pro-

fessors' feedback. However, online education can still be a challenge at the hour of evaluating the quality of online assessments (Westbrook, 2006).

Higher education institutions continue to enroll more and more students on online education courses or distance learning. But there are still many doubts about whether these courses have the same benchmark as traditional face to face courses, particularly due to the assessment methods (Kim & Bonk, 2006).

Online instruction offers more flexibility and more engagement between students and professors, so high-quality instruction is not necessarily the main problem, particularly because with the continual development of new technologies, the quality of education through online platforms continues to improve (Kim & Bonk, 2006).

Many online learning environments are offering a balance between pedagogy, technology and learners needs. However, what about the assessments and the certifications they receive? do they match the benchmark in the career world when competing against other traditional courses?

There are complaints about online assessments, mainly that they are not at the same level as traditional face to face assessments. However, it is important to highlight that online education offers a more realistic form of what the real world looks like. Through online education students receive quality of education online, and the skills they develop cannot be acquired through a face to face education (Kebritchi et al., 2017). The assessment might not be as formal and framed as in an examination room, however, without online assessments, students would be missing a great part of what the education is offering them, and which those who received a traditional face to face education do not receive (Kim & Bonk, 2006). We are in an age where enquires and technology are part of daily life and essential tools of any work environment. Problem solving skills are most important, as well as individual expansion online. And

these are all skills developed and received in an online education that cannot be developed, in a face to face environment (Kim & Bonk, 2006).

The challenges of effective techniques of educational assessments have always existed particularly regarding cheating, effective assessment, identity verification and plagiarism. These become even more important in the new era of digital technologies and online education (Gaytan, 2004). In face to face assessments academic honesty is easier to verify than in online assessments (Gaytan, 2004). That is why, threaded discussions sessions are becoming very important, to ensure students regularly engage with other students, professors and material, and becoming familiar with student's writing style plays a major role in academic honesty. Discussion groups are also helpful for tutors to identify unrelated comments during threaded discussions whether it is due to lack of learning or because of academic dishonesty. An important aspect regarding assessments is online tests. In the workforce, it is most likely that communication, problem solving, and other reference materials will be available to individuals, thus, online tests should be views as take-home examinations rather than the traditional exams in a classroom without being able to search for information.

There is evidence that take-home exam's effectiveness is high. Take-home examinations are a valuable method for higher education because they foster higher-order thinking skills that other kinds of examinations do not require. To successfully complete these kinds of examinations, students are required to allow time for reflection to develop a profound and comprehensive answer. They are more than an assessment, they are a learning activity (Bengtsson, 2019).

In today's working environment where enquires are so important, as well as research of material communication and problem-solving, online tests are very much related to what is needed. Students should prove that they have

sufficient skills to find solutions and information on their own to solve problems and stay competitive and updated. Thus, technology, delivery of material, pedagogy, learning styles and learning outcomes can be best catered by online education more adequate for today's world (Gaytan, 2004).

One of the main challenges of online education is that of the isolated learner. That is why students must experience and participate in collaborative learning tasks, as well as small discussion groups, group presentations and group assessments (Gillett-Swan, 2017). These kinds of group participation will also prevent some of the bigger issues in online education such as identity dishonesty. It will also push students outside their comfort zone, which is an essential skill needed in today's world as well as peer interaction.

Online learning environments provide opportunities that traditional delivered education does not. For example, Gillett-Swan (2017), explains how group presentations in higher education have traditionally be done on a face to face environment. However, in an online environment, there are even greater opportunities not only to develop technical skills required for the presentation, but also additional summative assessment with group presentations not solely as live options.

Online media also helps higher education subtends to enhance their learning experiences and due to the flexibility, it allows, those who have other commitments and cannot engage with the material on a face to face mode, they can do it using technology via online through meetings and collaborations (U.S. Department of Education Office of Educational Technology, 2012). The digital world highlights the importance to be proficient with digital technology as well as being able to interact and experience technology in a purposeful way (Gillett-Swan, 2017). All these areas that have been mentioned are part of the entire learning experience, and that have direct effects on the future of students, they are 'add-ons' to the actual learning material, and they come with

the package even if the assessments are not the traditional way. Furthermore, many workplaces are looking for these types of learners who are capable of engaging digitally, referred as 'digital native', who have the technological capacity while they are also proficient in their area, and learned how to be collaborative learners and peers (Gillett-Swan, 2017).

The U.S. Department of Education Office of Educational Technology (2012), noted that because online learning allows students to engage with the material at their preferred pace, this improves the efficiency in which students progress, and so it has a positive effect on assessments. Moreover, online learning engages students in active learning, which improves learning outcomes which are evaluated through online discussions and continuous assessments using immediate feedback. Teachers offer online one on one support when necessary.

Assuming there is no academic dishonesty, online assessment are valuable sources of data that can be analyzed to evaluate individual and group performance as well as teaching methods. This kind of data is difficult to gather in a traditional classroom environment (U.S. Department of Education Office of Educational Technology, 2012).

New advancements in technology and online learning platforms allow students with special needs have their needs catered for. There are more accessibility features and scaffolding that allows assessments to be more valid measurements of knowledge and skills for students with disabilities (U.S. Department of Education Office of Educational Technology, 2012).

Finally, online assessments can use authentic tasks that can verify a students' acquired skills and knowledge, such as competency-based systems (U.S. Department of Education Office of Educational Technology, 2012).

Research Questions

This study seeks to answer the main research question which is the following:

What are student's attitudes towards assessment practices in online learning at Umm Al-Qura University in Saudi Arabia?

to answer this main question, four sub questions were introduced as following:

R1. How effective are online examinations for employability and career life?

R2. How effective are online participation tasks for employability and career life?

R3. How effective are Real-based projects for employability and career life?

R4. Which online assessment method is the most efficient to prepare students to compete from other students from traditional education regarding to their attitudes that help them for their future careers?

Methodology

The purpose of the study is to evaluate the efficiency of three different types of online assessments and their connection regarding to their attitudes that help them for their future careers at Umm Al-Qura University in Saudi Arabia. This study is of great importance because it can offer areas in which assessments of online courses can be improved to prepare graduate students for what they will find in their career life, and to be able to compete against other students who graduate from traditional courses. Understanding the current efficacy of online assessments for employability can help improve the weaker areas and strengthen the strong ones.

In this study, a quantitative approach was used. Student's views on online assessments were gathered, using a quantitative research method. A large sample

of graduates was also gathered, using questionnaires to measure the behavior, attitudes, learning preferences and opinions of students who graduated from higher education after completing an online course.

The participants of the study were 314 students from online courses who enter the workforce after graduating from an online course from Umm Al-Qura University during the year of 2019. They were selected from different branches of this higher education institution, offering online courses as well as an online platform offering online courses from reputable institutions. Students were selected based on convenience method at Umm Al-Qura University. Questionnaires were submitted online via e-mail.

It is important to highlight that the questions asked regarding the assessments were directly aimed at understanding the assessment methods regarding their work experience. More specifically, the questions aimed at understanding how the assessments helped students be more prepared for their future career.

The questionnaire used in this study included thirty items and the Student Satisfaction Scale (SSS) for online learning (Unver et al., 2017). The tool included two sections. The first part was a satisfaction survey and the second part were an employment survey. Both identified genders, a program of study, level of study, current job position, final grade, and attitudes towards technology and the three different assessment methods. The aim was to understand the attitude of the students towards the curriculum, the online education environment, technology, and the different assessments, but also to explore their attitudes of how these different aspects of online education, particularly the assessments impacted on their new employment and competition against other students. The Student University Satisfaction Scale had facets and indicators about the online learning environment, educational resources, curriculum and pedagogy, assignments and their alignment to meet the objectives as well as to find employment and compete with traditional education graduates, and other

related facets. The Student Satisfaction Scale is a popular tool to explore student's satisfaction with regards to different educational facets as it is a reliable and valid measurement tool according to many researchers who conducted a study to validate it (Unver et al., 2017). Furthermore, the scale used for this survey can be replicated in other settings, not only at Saudi Arabian Universities which makes this study reliable with regards to its replicability. Also, four specialists have reviewed the survey of this study to make sure that it is eligible to measure the current variables properly and Cronbach's alpha was used for internal consistency of the survey items which was high for all three variables of assessments as shown in table1.

Table 1. Cronbach's Coefficient Allpha

Assessment variables	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Examinations	.75	10
Participation tasks	.81	10
Real-based Projects	.72	10

Data analysis procedures and findings

The findings obtained from the questionnaire was as followed:

Table 2. Results of means of three assessment methods based on students' attitudes

Assessment type	N	Mean	Std. Dev
Examinations	314	3.818	.8773
Participation tasks	313	2.922	.9783
Real-based Projects	314	2.806	1.032

The results show that positive attitudes toward three methods of online assessments regarding means of each variable, so students rated exams as their preferred assessment method ($m= 3.818$; $sd=.8773$). Participation tasks were the next preferred method ($m=2.922$; $sd=.9783$) and finally real-based projects ($m=2.806$; $sd=1.032$).

Therefore, results show that exams are the preferred assessment method, followed by participation tasks and finally real-based projects based on students' attitudes. These results show that students found exams as the best method to prepare them with the knowledge required for their career future. While, the participation tasks were second in preference and the real-based projects were the third preferred. There are two different preparations for future work, one relates to the knowledge required to perform the work, and the other is with the overall skills on top of the actual knowledge in the field.

Table 3. Method considered to be more helpful for real-life work

Assessment type		Agree	Undecided	Disagree
Examinations	Frequency %	226 72.2	22 7.1	65 20.7
Participation tasks	Frequency %	203 64.7	35 11.2	76 24.1
Real-based Projects	Frequency %	216 68.9	34 10.8	64 20.3

The majority of the graduates (72.2%) considered exams as the best assessment method to prepare them for real-life employment, followed by real-based projects (68.9%) and finally, the participation tasks (64.7%).

One-way ANOVA analysis was conducted to test if there is a significant difference between the three teaching methods. Table 3 shows the results of ANOVA with the p value and F.

Table 4. One-way ANOVA investigating the differences in students' attitude among three type of assessment

	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between	192.63	2	96.315	103.5	0.000
Within	873.818	312	.931		
Total	1,066.448	314			

The results of One-way ANOVA show that p-value is 0.001 and F-value 103.5 indicating that there is a significant difference among the online assessment methods based on students' attitudes. However, the significant differences are between examination and the other two methods, but not between participation and real-life projects as shown in table 2 regarding the values of variables' means and standard deviations stated above.

Overall, the exam method was rated as the best method to prepare students in both knowledge and general skills for future work, from their experience as employed graduates. In terms of general skills for employment, on top of the actual specific knowledge, real-based projects were also found to be appropriate for their future career.

Discussion

The findings of this research suggest that the majority of students have positive attitudes towards the three assessment methods used in online education, with a preference for online examinations. They also manifested a preference for its benefits towards real-based projects for their preparation for general skills at work. While exams are useful to gather the necessary knowledge as well as for competing for work and actually doing the work, graduates also showed a positive attitude towards the other two methods. Online education overall, includes not only the actual knowledge imparted in traditional education, but also because it requires enquiry, research, the use of digital technology, participation, and application in real-based scenarios, it includes more skills than traditional education.

Graduates showed their preference towards examinations for it obliges them to study the content, just like in any other examination. The other two assessment methods allow them to enter into deeper engagement with the content, participate with other students and the implement their knowledge in real-based activities. Thus, the findings show that the three methods had positive rates from graduates who studied online and who found jobs in their field.

The findings of this study confirm other performance-based assessment researches and literature who confirm the effectiveness of traditional examinations, even if these research examinations were online or open book (Williams & Wong, 2009). The method itself of examinations has traditionally been the best method for the actual knowledge and content. The other two methods used in online education complement the examinations in other ways, covering other skills, such as becoming autonomous learners, problem solvers, teamwork, becoming digital nomads and so on.

This study fails to provide a comparison between traditional face to face graduates and online education graduates when competing for jobs. Most research has been done on what employee's personal views about online education are but not on what the actual skills and knowledge they possess when they grad-

uate compared to traditional education graduates. Large enterprises have a series of graduate programs where graduates have to go through multiple tests, including teamwork, leadership skills, information technology skills, knowledge, and other problem-solving skills (Department of Business Innovation And Skills, 2015). It would be interesting in the future to perform further research to compare the actual skills of graduates from traditional education and online education. More specifically, it would be interesting to investigate the critical thinking and problem-solving skills of the two groups.

Another limitation of the study is that graduates do not have a point of comparison of what their preference is because they do not know how good or bad examinations of traditional courses can be for employment. Thus, despite the study being quantitative research, the results are subjective to graduates who have not explored other courses' assessments and how they could help them in real life.

There is much literature review that claims that standard assessments can test student's level of particular knowledge covered by the content of the course, however, standardized tests can take away student's capacity to think critically and creatively, thus, problem-solving skills (Ghanavati Nasab, 2015). Based on this claim, it would be interesting to evaluate if online courses offer a greater diversity of skills, developing not only the content of the course but also other skills required for today's world.

While not all graduates apply for jobs at the top enterprises, it would be interesting to research on the application process of graduates who apply for these programs because they are the most comprehensive and most competitive programs available for graduates. Ultimately, what needs to be explored is whether online courses can offer graduates the skills necessary to compete for the top jobs worldwide, in the same way, that graduates from top traditional courses from top universities do.

Conclusion and implications

Many of the studies that explore the importance and effectiveness of assessments are based on traditional education and the corresponding assessments (Joan B., 1994). The world is changing, and the number of enrolments in higher education online courses is demanding further research about both the quality and value of these courses but most importantly, the assessment methods (Sun & Chen, 2016). One of the reasons is the fact that many employers continue to have the mentality that traditional education is better in quality than online education, based on the assessment methods. Particularly because in an examination room it is better to control the authenticity of the evaluation (Banks & Meinert, 2016).

The current study shows that the three most important assessment methods used in online education are valued regarding students' attitudes toward such methods of online assessments. Because the participants were all graduates who found jobs in the immediate period after graduation, assuming that their completed course helped them find the job, have the authority to share their perspective about the effectiveness of the course assessments in acquiring the necessary knowledge for their career.

It was mentioned that there are limitations in this study. One important limitation is that those students who graduated from an online education cannot compare how it is to study a traditional environment and go through traditional assessments. They only know their online experience, even if they got the job they wanted. A potential blended course could contribute more towards understanding the effectiveness of traditional versus online assessments as graduates could compare these two modes of assessment methods. Assessment methods include both continual assessments during the course and the final assessments at the end of each course. Online courses have frequent par-

ticipation forums that are a form of assessment, while this is not available in the traditional face to face class (Nortvig et al., 2018). However, the purpose of this study is not to compare traditional versus online courses, but the extent to which online courses assessments contribute to the preparation for real-life job scenarios and career life.

Unless there are valuable research studies that explore the effectiveness and quality of online education, including the assessment methods, employers will continue to doubt the value of this kind of education. Still, the number of online courses enrolments and the fact that there are more top universities that year after year continue to implement and develop new online courses also talks by itself (Kumar et al., 2017). One would wonder though if online courses are a matter of new business and students are charged with money that will not bring them any profit in the future (Smith, 2015). All these questions remain unanswered unless each aspect of online education is explored and analyzed to evaluate their quality, and ultimately compared to traditional courses.

Once those issues have been clarified it is possible to discuss whether some students might prefer one form of education over the other. It is possible that students find online education better due to the flexibility they offer and the demands of their daily life (Toufaily et al., 2018). Others might prefer face to face as it offers more structure, a sense of community and helps them organize themselves (Kemp & Grieve, 2014). But this kind of comparison can only be done once the two forms of education have proved to be of high value to students for their future career.

Another aspect to evaluate and this study is of great help, is whether the traditional education system with its competitive assessments continues to be valid and worth in today's world. If traditional assessments are to be compared to online assessments, it is most important that they are compared to the demands of today's world and not of the ones of the past (US Department of Education,

2012). As an example, today's world demands digital nomads (Pinheiro & Simões, 2016). Today's world demands initiative, creativity, problem solvers, while in the past, the business models were more autocratic, and employers were expected to follow orders, and automation was the norm (Pinheiro & Simões, 2016 and US Department of Education, 2012). Today, individuals should continue to develop themselves to remain competitive, they should reinvent themselves also to continue to be competitive. Today, technology moves fast, and individuals learn new skills year after year. This is a phenomenon that did not happen in the past. Students learned their courses and the content of knowledge and the skills they applied at work lasted for much longer than today (Grand-Clement, 2017).

Furthermore, there are subjects and particular areas of study where there are constant changes, and what was studied one day, is outdated on the other. Thus, students should learn how to be constantly updated. To do so, it is essential they are self-enquirers, that they develop their capacity to be active learners all their lives. And to do so, they should also be problem solvers. As a result, it is important to explore whether traditional assessments do assess and examine all these skills or just the knowledge necessary to pass an exam. This does not mean that knowledge is not important, but that there are other skills that are as important if not more important that students should be aware and learn to develop them during their higher education.

It is necessary to explore whether the nature of online courses and their respective assessment methods are more appropriate for students to develop the skills needed for today's world, even if they are not as structured and controlled as the traditional examination rooms and exams. Ultimately, in their daily life, in their career life, it is more than ever expected from employees to

do their research and stay updated, to find solutions on their own. And with the new availability of online communication channels and globalization (Varghese, 2013), more companies doing business virtually rather than physically, online education can contribute also towards acquiring skills that traditional face to face do not provide (Onyemaechi et al., 2018). But this kind of business has its challenges. Despite its challenges, globalization and technology are moving towards online forms of work. Thus, more than ever graduates should come prepared for these realities and with the necessary skills to be an asset rather than an obstacle (Onyemaechi et al., 2018).

Furthermore, with the availability of information online, assessments in the form of home-exams or home-tasks can also prepare students to develop the skills of enquiry, research, and in-depth engagement with the material. This is what is needed every day at work, rather than a one-off study of content, just to pass an exam in a limited period of time. This is not to say, that exams of this kind are not valid or worthless, but that it is of great necessity to explore which are the most appropriate methods of assessments to prepare students for their future career. It is not a matter of how hard an exam can be, or how controlled it is, but how well it can prepare students for the future. If participation assessments of online courses and projects contribute to developing the skills necessary, then it is positively contributing to the future.

The results of this particular study, which is only limited to explore the sentiments and preferences of graduates of online courses towards three assessment methods and how these helped them to find work and to do their work, show that assessments in the form of exams continue to be the preferred one. However, the three assessment methods had positive sentiments, even of examinations were preferred over the others.

The results of this study can contribute to developing future research designs to explore more specific areas as mentioned above. It is a starting point to continue to explore an area that continues to lack information. There are many areas that explore the effectiveness of online education from a content perspective. Studying the content and methods of imparting the courses, including online platforms, communication with lecturers, digital sources, online libraries and so on. However, there is little research done on online assessments and how these can be validated so that the final certification received from the online course can be appreciated and compete against the graduates who possess traditional courses certifications from top universities.

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