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The main sources of language-skills-specific anxiety in Tunisian ESP Students

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Abstract

This study is a replication and an extension of Subaşı’s (2010) study. In fact, it investigates fear of negative evaluation (FNE) and three self-perception subscales; namely, self-rating can do (SR-CD), self-rating for the current level of study (SR-CL), and self-rating expected perception of the English (SR-EPE) as potential sources of foreign language skill-specific anxiety. A convenience sample of 46 engineering students was explored. Both quantitative and qualitative instruments were used. Data obtained from the questionnaires relating to both the independent and dependent variables were analyzed using means, standards deviation, and range to provide descriptive statistics. Pearson correlation coefficients and multiple regression analyses were run to see which independent variables were responsible for skill-specific anxiety. The results revealed, contrarily to Subaşı’s (2010) study, that self-perception was the main variable affecting skill-specific anxiety level. With regard to the predictors of anxiety for the different skills, there was no variable interaction except for the FLLA. The study concludes with limitations and recommendations for pedagogical practices on how to alleviate foreign language anxiety taking into account the skill-specific anxiety causes as well as suggestions for future research.

Key words: skill-specific anxiety, predictors, correlation, interaction

Introduction

It has become common knowledge today that to be able to survive in a globalized world, in addition to the technical skills, one has got to be proficient in English. Despite the efforts made by both the teaching staff and the learners themselves, English proficiency, especially in countries, including Tunisia, where English is a foreign language, leaves much to be desired. Learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) have often recognized their failure in acquiring certain proficiency (Horwitz et al, 1986, p. 125; Khattak et al, 2011, p. 490). In fact, these
learners may be good at learning any other skill but when it comes to the skill of learning another language, they claim to have a mental block against it (Horwitz et al, 1986, p. 125). To this end, several studies have been carried out to explore the interaction of a psychological phenomenon termed anxiety with learning a second/foreign language Horwitz et al, 1986; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1994a, b; Saito et al, 1999; Cheng et al 1999; Cheng, 2001; 2002, 2004; ElKhafaifi, 2005, Khattak et al, 2011; Lucas et al, 2011, Riasati, 2011, Al-Shboul et al, 2013; Kazmi et al, 2013).

Broadly speaking, Spielberger and Rickman (1990) define anxiety as an “unpleasant feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry and activation of the autonomic nervous system” (p. 73). When anxiety is restricted to language learning, it falls in the class of specific anxiety reactions (Horwitz et al, 1986, p. 125). In this context, anxiety is defined as worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning a second/foreign language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a, p. 284). In this regard, several researchers, including Horwitz et al (1986, p. 126), Horwitz (2001, p. 114), and MacIntyre and Gardner (1994a, p. 2) noted that anxious students have more difficulty expressing themselves and are likely to misjudge their level of ability compared with more relaxed students. However, despite this trend, supporting a negative correlation between anxiety and performance, research findings on anxiety and its effect on performance have been somewhat inconsistent and sometimes contradictory due to conflicting views concerning the phenomenon of anxiety (Scovel, 1978, p. 134).

Foreign language anxiety (FLA) has been the subject of a rising body of research that indicates anxiety as a prevalent and severe problem among language learners (Horwitz et al, 1986, p. 130-1; Tóth, 2010, p. 2; Tóth, 2011, p. 46). However, the main focus of early research was on the speaking skill, which was regarded as the most anxiety provoking skill (Horwitz et al, 1986, p. 132; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, p. 299). Starting from the 1990s, research on FLA has expanded its focus to the other skills suggesting that anxiety can equally affect listening, reading, and writing (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a; Cheng et al, 1999; Saito et al, 1999).

To this end, the present study, by seeking to meet suggestions for further works by Subaşı (2010, p. 47), who investigated sources of anxiety in EFL Turkish students as far as oral practice is concerned, explores foreign language anxiety (FLA) in relation to the four skills. The present work, therefore, addressed fear of negative evaluation and self-perception, as suggested by Subaşı (2010) and earlier by Kitano (2001), as potential sources responsible for anxiety in the four skills; namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Research in this area will shed valuable light on whether these variables affect skill-specific anxiety in a sample of engineering students in the Tunisian context. The following is an overview of the sources of anxiety pertaining to the variables under study.
Sources of Foreign Language Class Anxiety

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety is considered to be a situational anxiety experienced in the foreign language classroom (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b, p. 92). Luca et al (2011) report that many sources are responsible for foreign language anxiety. For instance, the language classroom usually presents itself as an anxiety-causing situation to some language learners, as it engages a regular and cyclic assessment of the learners’ performance and competence. On the other hand, Scovel (1978) reports that language anxiety, one among the intrinsic motivators, most likely stems from the learner’s own self (p. 130). This means that the learner’s self perceptions and perception of others (peers, teachers, interlocutors, etc) and target language communication situations present different causes to foreign language anxiety.

FLA sources from different studies have converged and diverged depending on the skill learned. In this regard, the sources responsible for skill-specific anxiety range from self-perception (Scovel, 1978; Sarason, 1984; Horwitz et al, 1986; Subaşı, 2010; Gkonou, 2011; Zhang, 2011), fear of negative evaluation (Sarason, 1984; Horwitz et al, 1986; Brantmeier, 2005; Yildirim, 2007; Zhao , 2008; Subaşı, 2010), communication apprehension (Horwitz et al, 1986; MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991b; Cao, 2011), gender, year and level of study, test anxiety, previous experience (Horwitz, 1999; Nemati, 2012), and parents’ expectations (Liao, 2006) to teachers’ attitudes (Bailey & Nunan, 1998; Daoud, 1996). Being the main focus of the present study, fear of negative evaluation and self-perception, as variables that have been reported in the literature to have an effect on FLA in isolation and when they interact, are highlighted subsequently.

Self perception as a source of foreign language class anxiety

Self-perception of competence is the subjective evaluation of one’s ability in a given field. It is affected by several factors including the learner’s gender, culture, family, friends, and their individual expectations, faith, mind-set, and values (Lane, 2008, p. 81). Although self-perception of ability involves a lot of subjectivity and its reliability has often been a concern for researchers, its use as an assessment tool has often been recommended to encourage learners to be responsible for their own learning (Tan & Keat, 2010).

Self-perception of competence is useful for informally assessing mastery of particular skills and may be a key element in any self-regulated learning program (MacIntyre et al, 1997, p. 267). Previous research has indicated a close relationship between self-perceptions of foreign language competence and anxiety (Bailey, 1983; Gregerson & Horwitz (2002; Takahashi, 2010; Yang, 2012; Shang, 2013). In fact, learners’ self-rated proficiency has been found to be a better predictor of anxiety level than real achievement on objective proficiency measures (Cheng et al, 1999, p. 436; Cheng, 2002, p. 652).
Fear of negative evaluation

Horwitz et al (1986) define fear of negative evaluation as an “apprehension about others’ evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively” (p. 128). In this sense, Young (1991) argues that students are “more concerned about how (ie, when, what, where or how often) their mistakes are corrected rather than whether correction should be administered in class” (p. 429).

Fear of negative evaluation is similar to test anxiety. However, it has a broader range because it is not restricted to test-taking situations; it may take place in social situations as well which may require assessment (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991b p. 105). In this context, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991b) refer to the source of fear of negative evaluation being the close association between one’s self concept and one’s self expression (p. 105). Horwitz et al (1986) state that fear of negative evaluation is observed when foreign language learners experience inability to make the appropriate social impression (p. 128). It is an apprehension towards assessment by others and an attempt to evade evaluative situations.

Interaction of variables as a model for the sources of foreign language anxiety

In statistical science interaction is described as any alteration in one variable that is associated with an alteration in another variable (Walker, 1999). As Walker suggests, the interaction among variables as reported in research in many fields illustrates the impact two or more independent variables have on the dependent variable. When the two independent variables account for some variation in the dependent variable they are said to interact with one another and with the dependent variable.

In the present study, FLA cannot be explained by referring only to a correlation between the dependent and independent variables. In fact such a relationship may not account for the sources responsible for FLA as “each variable is but a small part of a complex picture” (Ellis & Larsen Freeman, 2006, p. 559). Language phenomena can only be duly explained by referring to the interaction of many variables (Ben Ali, 2014). Schlenker and Leary (1982 in Kitano, 2001 p. 551) suggest that an interaction of FNE and self-perception impacts anxiety. In fact, according to them these two independent variables affect each of the elements responsible for anxiety.

Kitano (2001) is among the researchers who highlighted the interaction of independent variables as a cause of FLA. In a study to explore two potential sources of the anxiety of two hundred and twelve EFL Japanese students in speaking, namely fear of negative evaluation (FNE) and self-perceived speaking ability, Kitano found...
out a positive correlation between FNE and speaking anxiety, and a negative correlation between self-perception of ability and speaking anxiety. However, there was no interaction between FNE and self-perceived ability as a predictor for speaking anxiety.

Subaşı (2010), on the other hand, found different results. In her examination of FNE and self-perception as two potential sources of speaking anxiety, Subaşı found out that there was an interaction between FNE and two self-rating scales, namely; self rating for the current level of study (SR-CL) and self-rating Can Do (SR-CD) which best predicted the speaking anxiety with her fifty-five Turkish EFL students (p. 46).

In this regard, the present study explored the interaction of such variables with a group of non-English majors. Such an exploration will provide a model that predicts the skill-specific anxiety to this particular group.

Research gap

The present work identified and addressed the gaps in the literature concerning EFL skill-specific anxiety. EFL anxiety has been studied by many researchers. Although foreign language anxiety is composed of four elements few have addressed foreign language anxiety as a feeling that combines the anxiety in the four skills altogether (Luo, 2011). The focus was on general EFL anxiety in the classroom using Foreign Language Class Anxiety scale (FLCAS) or on the sources and effect of anxiety of each skill separately as measured by the respective scales; ie. Foreign Language Listening Anxiety (FLLAS), Foreign Language Reading Anxiety (FLRAS), and Second Language Writing Apprehension Inventory (SLWAI). The current study, by replicating and expanding Subaşı’s study (2010), will complement previous studies on FLA by investigating whether fear of negative evaluation and self-perception are potential sources of skill-specific anxiety. Identifying the sources may suggest how teachers can reduce their students’ anxiety in learning a foreign language; hence create a more relaxing, enjoyable and effective language learning environment for the learners (Wang, 2005, p. 27).

The second gap addresses the fact that although the interactive effect of various variables in foreign language learning have been considered in recent research about FLA, there is still some lack of research in Tunisia, to the researcher’s knowledge, on the interaction of variables that are predictive of skill-specific foreign language anxiety. Most often the sources responsible for FLA have been addressed in isolation. However, recent studies have revealed that the effect of one independent variable on a dependent variable would be different in the presence of other independent variables. The present work by replicating and extending Subaşı’s study (2010) on fear of negative evaluation and self-perception as potential sources of speaking anxiety addressed the interaction of FNE and self-perception in predicting FLA in the four skills. In this regard, three research questions replicated from Subaşı’s (2010) are addressed:
1. What is the relationship between the anxiety level of an advanced ESP student and his or her dispositional fear of negative evaluation regarding the four skills?

2. What is the relationship between the anxiety level of an advanced ESP student and the self-perception of his or her ability in English regarding the four skills?

3. Do fear of negative evaluation and self-perception of ability in English interact to relate to the anxiety level of individual ESP learners?

**Methodology**

This section addresses the methodology adopted in the current research, including a description of the participants, instruments, data collection procedures, and data analysis techniques.

**Participants**

The present research was conducted at the Institut Supérieur des Arts Multimédias in Manouba University (ISAMM) Tunisia during the 2013/2014 academic year. 48 subjects (22 boys and 26 girls) from the third year IT & Multimedia Engineering section, whose age ranged between 23 and 25, participated. 38 participants were in the Web Development section, while only 10 were in the Introduction to Virtual Reality section. Data of two students were discarded because the students in question did not attend English classes regularly. Therefore, those students’ questionnaires were not duly filled in. The final sample included 46 participants -26 girls and 20 boys.

The choice of such participants was based on the fact that as they were in the third year (the last year in their studies), they received a preparation for the TOIEC certification. They were, therefore, supposed to sit for this type of test, which evaluated their four skills independently at the end of their studies. The preparation for the TOIEC certification offered by the university helps the students identify the problems they still face in some or in the four skills. The course was an opportunity to get trained in this type of certification for which they will have to sit before applying for a job.

**Instruments**

Both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments were used. Quantitative data were obtained by means of scales. At one end of the spectrum, some scales were meant to assess the dependent variables such as the Foreign Language...
Listening Anxiety Scale (FLLAS) (Appendix A), the Foreign Language Class Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Appendix B), the Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS) (Appendix C), and the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) (Appendix D). The adopted Cronbach coefficient alpha for these quantitative scales was above .70. At the other end, other scales assessed the independent variables, namely fear of negative evaluation scale (Appendix E) and self-perception with its three sub-scales: Self-Rating Can Do scale (SR-CD), Self-Rating for the Current Level of Study scale (SR-CL), and the Self-Rating Expected Perception by the English scale (SR-EPE) relative to every skill. The qualitative data were elicited by means of open-ended questions, semi-structured interviews, and communicating results to the participants. Such a mixed approach was used to triangulate information when needed and bring out further information about the concept of skill-specific anxiety.

Data analysis

Different statistical measurements were used to analyze the data provided by means of scales, open-ended questions, interviews, and the group discussion where the findings were shared. The following part examines the techniques used to yield descriptive, correlational, as well as interactional results to answer the three research questions.

Analysis of the quantitative data

To analyze the quantitative data, several statistical tools were used as follows. Excel spreadsheets together with the Statistical Analysis System (SAS) were used as analytical procedure tools where data were entered in order to investigate the first, second, and third research questions. The different scales were coded and displayed in the form of columns in Excel. Every participant’s information respective to every scale was entered in these columns in order to obtain quantitative numerical data.

Cronbach alpha was used in order to test the reliability of the results. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was run in each response provided by the participants in order to check the reliability of their responses regarding the FLLAS, FLCAS, FLRAS, SLWAI, the three self-perception subscales relative to every skill, and FNE.

To answer research question one and two, Pearson product moment coefficient was run to evaluate the direction as well as the strength of the association between the dependent variables; FLLAS, FLCAS, FLRAS, and SLWAI, and the two independent variables, i.e., FNE and the three sub-scales of self-perception. The P value (.05) which assesses the statistical significance of the results was run, too.

The interactional method was carried out to answer the third research question, whereby multiple regression analyses and a two-way ANOVA were used to create a model which identifies which variable among the fear of negative evaluation and the three self-perception ratings predict English skill-specific anxiety. Other statistical tests were also used. To compare the anxiety means between the males and
the females a T-test was used. The F-test was run to compare the variances of the independent variables in the predictive model.

**Analysis of the qualitative data**

Qualitative data were pertaining to the SLWAI open-ended question, the semi-structured interviews, and the communication of the results to the participants. As qualitative data generate several different answers, following Lowe’s (2014, p.344) recommendations, the different participants’ answers were typed. Key words of each of the participants’ answers written down, then recurring key words were identified, and thematic clusters were formed (Jackson & Trochim, 2002, p. 309).

**Results and discussion**

This section presents and discusses the findings for each research question. The findings are compared and contrasted to other results found in the literature, and particularly to those advanced by Subaşı (2010) to see how far her view of the sources of speaking anxiety, namely, fear of negative evaluation and self-perception is applicable on the sources of anxiety in the four skills and with a sample of Tunisian engineering students who learn English as a required module.

Prior to discussing the research questions, it is useful to comment on the parity between the females and the males in relation to every scale. Generally speaking, the differences between the two groups regarding the different scales, and especially in the independent variables scales, namely the fear of negative evaluation scale, and the three self-perception subscales as shown by the t-test were small enough to be considered negligible. For example, the fear of negative evaluation scale displayed a t-test result showing that there was no difference between males and females in FNE \((t=.14, \ p=.89)\). Therefore male and female groups have been combined in this analysis, in order to increase the power.

**Research question 1**

Concerning Research Question 1 “What is the relationship between the anxiety level of an advanced ESP student and his or her dispositional fear of negative evaluation regarding the four skills?” the FNE and skill-specific anxiety correlation is discussed as follows. Table 1 summarizes the findings pertaining to research question 1.

**Table 1**

| Summary of the Correlations between FLLAS, FLCAS, FLRAS, SLWAI and FNE |
|-------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 46**   | **Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0** |
| FNE    | FLLAS  | FLCAS  | FLRAS  | SLWAI  |
| **FNE**                                   | **Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0** | **FLLAS** | **FLCAS** | **FLRAS** | **SLWAI** |
|        |        |        |        |        |        |        |
FNE and FLLA

The Pearson correlation coefficient, which was positive ($r = .244$, $p = .101$), indicated that the higher an individual’s fear of negative evaluation, the higher their listening anxiety, hence, a positive correlation. Though similar to Subaşı’s (2010) finding, reporting a positive correlation between fear of negative evaluation and the anxiety pertaining to the speaking skill (p. 38), the effect of FNE on FLLA in the present research is lower and not as significant as Subaşı’s as she found out a similar but more significant correlation ($r = .488$, $p = .000$, $n = 55$). Viewing the modest correlation between FNE and FLLA, and the lack of significance, FNE does not have a great impact on the listening anxiety pertaining to the present participants.

Though the results revealed by both the quantitative and qualitative data collection tools relative to the first research question did not allude to any effect of fear of negative evaluation on the listening anxiety, the present participants’ answers in the semi-structured interview echoed Yıldırım’s (2007) participants whose fear of negative evaluation was at the origin of their listening anxiety.

Yıldırım’s (2007) findings and the correlation between FNE and the listening anxiety seemed to match the explanations reported by the participants in the current study, though the focus was not the same. In fact, Yıldırım’s participants reported that the fear of being negatively evaluated when it came to the likelihood of misunderstanding a listening passage emanated from their lack of practice, which went back to their high school education experience (p. 195). Similarly, in the present study, some answers revealed in the interview about the listening anxiety showed that most often teachers skipped listening passages because of time constraints or equipment shortage. Note that the similarity of the two types of participants alluded to different origins of listening anxiety. While Yildrim’s participants’ answers brought to light fear of negative evaluation, the present participants’ answers stressed another variable causing listening anxiety. This will be discussed subsequently.

FNE and FLCA

The results pertaining to the FNE and the FLCA correlation showed that these two variables did not correlate significantly ($r = .089$, $p = .555$). FNE does not have a significant visible effect on the FLCA with the present sample of students. The speaking anxiety of the participants does not depend directly on the FNE. This outcome confirms the results yielded from the pilot study on similar students during the 2012/2013 academic year. The interview data with the present participants further confirmed this finding. In fact, none of the participants who were interviewed showed a concern about fear of being negatively evaluated by the teacher, their peers or native speakers.
Subaşı (2010) found that FNE was one source of speaking anxiety in the Turkish classroom (p. 44). According to her, the students in question feared the negative evaluation by their peers, and for fear of creating a stupid image of themselves they preferred to remain silent.

The inconsistency between the results of the present findings and Subaşı's might be attributed to the different participants' majors. In the present study the students were engineer students who were learning English as a required module while in Subaşı’s study, the students were learning English as a major subject as they were enrolled in the English Language Teaching (ELT) department of Anadolu University. Therefore, due to the fact that English is not a major subject with the current participants, the latter might be less subject to fear of negative evaluation as far as the speaking anxiety skill is concerned.

**FNE and FLRA**

The Pearson correlation coefficient indicates no correlation between FNE and the FLRA \( (r=-.065, p=.667) \). Such a finding can be interpreted in two ways. First, as reading is a silent activity, it does not call for an evaluation on the part of the teacher or the peers, a finding consistent with Brantmeier’s (2005) study on anxiety about L2 reading with a group of 92 university students enrolled in an advanced level of a Spanish grammar and composition course (p. 73). However, although reading is a silent act, and does not relate its anxiety to FNE with the present participants, it is necessary to ask the question suggested by Brantmeier (2005): “do the students at the advanced level fear that their peers will negatively evaluate them when they discuss what they have read?” (74); a question that needs to be addressed in future research to investigate the FNE/reading anxiety correlation more thoroughly.

Second, previous research demonstrated that familiar tasks generate less anxiety (Brantmeier’s, 2005, p. 75). In fact, participants in the present research were used to tasks that involve multiple choice questions where little production is required from the learners. Yet, this contradicts Zhao’s (2008) findings about the learners of Chinese who dreaded such an activity as it only requires one correct answer, which enhanced in them an anxious feeling emanating from their fear that their understanding is different from that of the teacher or their classmates’ (p. 110). Contrarily, the present learners seem to enjoy the multiple choice questions which do not require further explanation or debate from them.

**FNE and SLWA**

FNE and the SLWAI did not correlate \( (r=.008, p=.954) \). The positive direction indicated by the Pearson coefficient means that despite this minor SLWAI/FNE correlation there still seems to be a tendency indicating the higher the FNE, the higher the writing anxiety with the present participants. However, similar to the results displayed with the correlation between listening, speaking, and reading anxiety and FNE, FNE on its own does not seem to affect the writing anxiety.
Yet writing anxiety still seems to be present. The descriptive statistics indicating 82 and 88 as the maximum scoring in the SLWAI, as well as data generated from the interview indicated that the present participants still had some apprehension in the writing skill. This finding is consistent with previous studies (Horwitz et al, 1986; Gkonou, 2011; Zhang, 2011; Shang, 2013) indicating that many students are likely to feel anxious regarding their writing skill, regardless of how long they have been learning a foreign language, due to the fear of making mistakes.

To conclude this part, FNE correlation with the skill-specific anxiety scales only correlated positively with the FLLA ($r = .244$, $p = .101$). FNE did not have any significant correlation with FLCA, FLRA, and SLWA. It seems that FNE does not affect the anxiety level of these advanced Tunisian ESP learners regarding speaking, reading, and writing. This can be explained by two factors. First, the participants of the present study were engineer students specializing in Information Technology and Multimedia. As they were in their last year of study, they felt confident about their technical skills, and they displayed some feelings of self-efficacy in their subject areas. They did not care about the evaluation of others concerning English proficiency. The fact that their specialty teachers did not master English very well and yet managed to teach a specialty subject in English was one of the best explanations for their attitude, and hence lack of fear of negative evaluation.

Second, viewing the context of the study, which took place two years after the revolution in Tunisia, the fact that FNE did not affect the anxiety level of most of the skills can be explained by the fact that due to the changes brought about by the Tunisian revolution young people have been empowered and valued due to their initiation of the Tunisian revolution. In fact, young people nowadays are praised for not fearing the oppression of the previous regime or any other authority. This context may have been another explanation for the lack of effect of FNE on the anxiety level of most of the skills.

**Research question 2**

The discussion of research question 2; “What is the relationship between the anxiety level of an advanced ESP student and the self-perception of his or her ability in English regarding the four skills?” addresses three areas of self-perception; mainly Self-Rating Can-Do (SR-CD), Self-Rating for the Current Level (SR-CL), and Self-Rating Expected Perception by the English (SR-EPE). These three areas are addressed independently in order to explore the relationship of self-perception as an independent variable with the anxiety level of every skill. Note that except for the FLRA, all three self-perception subscales correlated negatively with the FLLA, the FLCA, and the SLWA. This is partly in line with Kitano’s (2001) negative relationship between general foreign language anxiety and self-perceived language ability (p. 555), and Subaşı’s (2010) negative correlation between speaking anxiety and self-
perceived speaking competence (p.9). Elsewhere, Bailey (1983) noted that language anxiety may stem from one's self-perception as less competent compared to one's peers (p. 96). Therefore, consistent with previous findings, such as MacIntyre et al's (1997), Kitano's (2001), Subaşı's (2010), and Takahashi's (2010) the findings about the present participants revealed that low self-perception is a predictor of foreign language skill-specific anxiety.

**Self perception and FLLA**

The correlation between FLLA and the three ratings of self-perception, namely SR-CDS, SR-CL, and SR-EPE showed a significant negative relationship.

**Self-Rating Can Do Scale and FLLA**

The Pearson correlation which was negative and significant ($r=-.626$, $p=<.000$) indicates that the lower an individual’s self-rating can do, the higher their listening anxiety. The present students were in their last year of study. Therefore, they felt that normally at this stage they should have a good mastery of all subjects. However, the reality was different. In the English class, they still seemed to be experiencing difficulty in understanding authentic listening materials. Besides, informal observations revealed that these participants were always critical of their performance suggesting that they did not practice enough listening during their Licence years. Such a negative correlation between self-perception and listening anxiety may have emanated first from the participants’ bias in judging their current listening competence, a view in line with MacIntyre et al (1997, p. 279) and Cheng (2001, p. 84). Second, data generated from informal observations and the semi-structured interviews provided some evidence about the participants’ leaning towards perfectionism and their ideal future self as suggested by Gregerson and Horwitz (2002, p. 569) which induced higher levels of anxiety regarding the listening skill.

**Self-rating for the Current Level of Study and FLLA**

The negative moderate and significant Pearson correlation ($r=-.672$, $p=<.000$) indicated the lower the self-rating for the current level, the higher the listening anxiety level. Data from the interview revealed that the present participants judged the fact that learning English from the junior high school was a little late. To have a good mastery of English, they believed that an earlier initiation in the target language would have been more beneficial for them. On the other hand, the present participants, as stated earlier, were quite demanding, and in line with Yang’s (2012) findings about the Taiwanese students, the more they wanted to be proficient in English, the more anxious they were (p. 19).

**Self-rating Expected Perception by the English and FLLA**

The significant negative moderate correlation between self-rating expected perception by the English and the FLLA ($r=-.630$, $p=<.000$) indicated that the lower
the self-rating expected perception by the English, the higher the listening anxiety. Such a negative correlation between self-rating expected perception by the English and the listening anxiety confirms the present participants' perceived language competence philosophy. In fact, their perfectionist attitude as pointed out by Gregerson and Horwitz (2002, p. 569) made them apprehend native speakers’ perception of their competence in this skill. Unlike reading, which allows recovering missed information (MacIntyre et al, 1997, p. 279-280), listening does not present such an advantage. On the contrary, it involves more concentration and knowledge of word segmentation. Therefore, not being able to understand from the first time may lead to embarrassment.

The present learners underestimated their ability which made them believe that they could not perform as expected in English. This emanates from their beliefs about foreign language achievement and their bias in rating their ability. This idea is in line with MacIntyre et al (1997) who suggest that such belief creates negative expectations which consequently lead to reduced effort and achievement (p. 280). The same idea of the effect of learner’s belief on their FLA supports Horwitz et al’s (1986, p. 127) suggestion of the importance of learners’ beliefs about success and failure, which is a key factor in determining whether they continue or give up studying.

From another angle, the present learners’ self perception of their listening skill competence as expected by the English may be subject to bias as pointed out by MacIntyre et al (1997, p. 278) and Cheng (2001, p. 84). In fact, as MacIntyre et al (1997) suggest self assessment can be wrong, whether positive or negative, it may fail to match objective measurement of proficiency (p. 267).

Self-perception and FLCA

The correlation between the three self ratings of self-perception, namely SR-CD, SR-CL, and SR-EPE and FLCA showed a negative relationship. Despite the difference in major, as the present participants are non-English major students, this finding is in line with Subaşı’s (2010) study.

Self-Rating Can Do Scale and FLCA

The Pearson correlation coefficient, which was found negative (r= -.596, p<.000) indicated that the lower an individual’s self-rating can do, the higher their speaking anxiety, a finding in line with Subaşı (2010 p. 9) and contrasting Kitano’s (2001, p. 554) conclusions concerning the lack of significant correlation between SR-CD and speaking anxiety.

In the speaking Can Do scale, the present participants deemed that it was a little difficult for them to express themselves on items 13, 14, and 15. This is in line with Takahashi (2010) who stated that these items were difficult even for quite proficient non-native speakers (p. 95). So, it would not be surprising that these items
affected the participants’ self-perception, and hence their speaking anxiety level as they were non-English majors.

**Self-Rating for the Current Level of Study FLCA**

The Pearson correlation \( r = -0.690, \ p < 0.000 \) which indicated a significant negative moderate relationship between speaking anxiety and self-rating for the current level of study showed that the lower the self-rating for the current level, the higher the speaking anxiety. Again similar to Subaşı's (2010) findings, the present participants felt anxious in the speaking skill because they felt that they did not achieve enough proficiency. This means that their current level was below their expectations which made them apprehend engaging in a speaking activity. Such a result supports findings from previous qualitative and quantitative studies, indicating a negative correlation between anxiety and self-perceived competence in a foreign language (Cheng, 2002, p. 652; Kitano, 2001 p.555).

**Self-rating Expected Perception by the English and FLCA**

The negative moderate relationship between speaking anxiety and self-rating expected perception by the English \( r = -0.559, \ p < 0.000 \) meant that the lower an individual’s self-rating expected perception by the English, the higher their speaking anxiety, a finding that supports Kitano’s (2001) study about learners of Japanese as a foreign language. Qualitative data uncovered some of the sources that were responsible for a low speaking perception when it came to be evaluated by native speakers.

During the interview a shortage of vocabulary, poor grammar, and bad pronunciation were at the origin of holding a low-perception of one’s speaking ability with regard to native speakers’ expectations, which in turn induced speaking anxiety. Such findings are in line with Young (1991) who suggests that anxiety triggered by the difference between a learner’s perceived competence and the reality may emanate from the learner’s perceived pronunciation compared to that of native speakers. However, the reality is that most “students, unless they are highly motivated, will not sound like a native speaker” (p. 428).

**Self-perception and FLRA**

The correlation between the three self ratings of self-perception, namely SR-CD, SR-CL, and SR-EPE and FLRA showed a positive relationship. This means that the higher the self-perception, the higher the reading anxiety. This view contradicts Young’s (2000 in Brantmeier, 2005) finding that suggests that the higher the reading anxiety, the lower the learners rated their self-perception of the reading ability (p.76). However, elsewhere, similar to the present findings, it was suggested that
anxiety had a positive effect on reading performance, and hence reading ability (Saito et al, 1999).

**Self-Rating Can Do Scale and FLRA**

The Pearson correlation coefficient, which was positive \( r = .400, \ p = .005 \) indicated that the higher the individual’s self-rating can do scale, the higher the reading anxiety. This might be explained by the fact that learners at the advanced level, as is the case with the present participants, value their reading proficiency highly compared with students in the beginner or intermediate level, a view in line with ElKhafaifi’s (2005, p. 212) and Brantmeier’s (2005, p. 73). In fact, the present learners read a lot of materials in their specialty subjects. Such a positive relationship might indicate their willing to display proficiency in the skill they practiced the most in their specialty subjects.

On the other hand, the positive relationship between self-rating can do scale and reading anxiety can be explained by the present learners’ nature, strategy adoption, and tolerance of ambiguity. In fact, as the present learners were engineer students, they, therefore, adopted a lot of problem solving strategies in their reading comprehension texts to manage their reading.

**Self-rating for the Current Level of Study and FLRA**

The Pearson correlation, which was positive, indicated that there was a significant positive moderate relationship between reading anxiety and self-rating for the current level of study \( r = .569, \ p < .000 \). This meant that the higher the SR-CL, the higher the reading anxiety. This suggests that the learners’ reading anxiety increased with their perception of the difficulty of the reading texts. The results are similar to the findings in previous studies (Horwitz et al, 1986; Saito et al, 1999) where the threat to an individual’s self concept or perception is at the heart of foreign language anxiety. It is in fact caused by the intrinsic limitations of communicating in an improperly mastered second or foreign language.

**Self-Rating Expected Perception by the English and FLRA**

The Pearson correlation \( r = .376, \ p = .009 \) indicating a positive relationship between reading anxiety and self-rating expected perception by the English meant the higher an individual’s self-rating expected perception by the English, the higher their reading anxiety. This might suggest that although the present learners judged that they had reached a good level in the reading skill based on their positive evaluation of their Can Do scale and their current level of study, they, nonetheless, apprehended an evaluation of the English of their reading skill. An explanation to this might emanate from their misunderstanding of the words in a reading text due to a limited knowledge of the cultural material underlying the text, a view in line with Saito et al’s (1999, p. 203).
Results from the analysis of the correlation between the three subscales of the self-perceived reading competence and reading anxiety indicate that although the present learners perceived their reading ability as high, they, nonetheless, experienced a high degree of reading anxiety. Sources of their reading anxiety ranged from personal factors such as high expectations about their reading achievement and the potential failure to meet such expectations, a somewhat limited knowledge of the English cultural background, and their apprehension of the oral post reading activities to the apprehension of the complexity of the reading texts from a linguistic point of view. This result supports MacIntyre and Gardner's (1991a) view that:

Anxious individuals think about their own reaction to a task in addition to the demands of the task itself. The content of their thoughts is negative and centered on self-degradation...If anxious students could focus on positive experiences in the second language, rather than on negative ones, the debilitating effects of language anxiety could be reduced (297).

**Self-perception and SLWA**

The examination of the scatter plots and Pearson correlations showed that there were significant negative relationships between writing anxiety and the three self ratings, SR-CD, SR-CL, and SR-EPE. Such finding is in line with authors like Cheng (2002) who states that low self-perception affects writing anxiety (p. 652).

**Self-rating Can Do Scale and SLWA**

There is a significant negative low correlation between self-rating can do scale and the writing anxiety (r= -.415, p=.005). Hence this meant the higher an individual's self-rating can do, the lower their writing anxiety, and the lower an individual’s self-rating can do, the higher the writing anxiety.

The negative correlation between self-perceived ability in writing and writing anxiety of the present research is in line with previous research such as Shang's (2013) who revealed that low anxious learners express higher self-perception of writing competence than high anxious learners. This suggests that low anxious learners are likely to feel more skillful in writing.

**Self-Rating for the Current Level of Study and SLWA**

The Pearson correlation, which was negative, indicated that there was a significant negative low relationship between writing anxiety and self-rating for the current level of study (r= -.457, p=.001). Therefore when the self-rating for the current level decreased, writing anxiety level increased. As previously said, some participants (4), putting the blame on some previous teaching practices, suggested that writing tasks were often ignored during their English lessons. What was worse was that sometimes there were no writing essays in their tests or exams. This is in
line with Cheng’s (2001) study which identified self-perceptions among the potential sources of writing anxiety (p. 83). Similarly, Zhang (2011) suggested that self-perception of insufficient writing practices would make learners feel uncomfortable during writing tasks and would, therefore, induce anxiety in them (p. 25-26).

With such beliefs, the present participants ended, therefore, neglecting such a skill, and felt that as writing was such a demanding skill in terms of vocabulary and grammar knowledge, they preferred to skip it. These participants were confident enough in skipping the writing task as they felt that their career path as website or game developers did not require good writing skills in English. Such idea supports other participants’ view as those revealed by Cheng’s (2002) study. In fact, Cheng (2002) suggested that high anxious learners tend to avoid writing tasks and resort to choosing academic majors and careers that require little writing (p. 642).

**Self-Rating Expected Perception by the English and SLWA**

The Pearson correlation, which was negative ($r$ = -.410, $p$ = .001), indicated that the lower an individual’s self-rating expected perception by the English, the higher their writing anxiety. Such data show that although some of the present participants indicated in the SLWAI open-ended questions that the nature of their future jobs did not require writing in English very much, they nonetheless valued such a skill, and perceived that low writing performance affected their anxiety level.

Qualitative data from the open-ended questionnaire and the semi-structured interview indicated that the participants expected native speakers to perceive their writing skill as poor due mainly to their lack of mastery of both grammar and vocabulary, lack of writing practice, and their previous writing experience. This finding agrees with Subaşı’s (2010) findings about her participants’ self perception of their speaking skill as poorer than that of native speakers’ (p. 45). Besides, similar to speaking, writing involves a lot of exposure. Therefore, the fact that the present learners did not experience an immersion program, they perceived that their writing skill was far away from being suitable in a native English speaking environment, a view in line with Gkonou’s (2011) EFL Greek students’ writing anxiety. Table 2 summarizes the correlations between FLLAS, FLCAS, FLRAS, and SLWAI and SR-CD, SR-CL, and SR-EPE.

**Table 2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SR_CDS</th>
<th>SR_CL</th>
<th>SR_EPE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FLLAS</td>
<td>-.626</td>
<td>-.672</td>
<td>-.630</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&lt;.000</td>
<td>&lt;.000</td>
<td>&lt;.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLCAS</td>
<td>-.596</td>
<td>-.690</td>
<td>-.559</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research Question 3

Do fear of negative evaluation and self-perception of ability in English interact to relate to the anxiety level of individual ESP learners?

The regression analysis together with a two-way ANOVA procedure helped determine which independent variables among the FNE and the three self-perception ratings have the highest impact on the anxiety level of each skill. The impact of the interaction between those independent variables on the skill-specific dependent variable was measured by the squared partial correlation coefficients. Depending on the shared variance, the impact was measured as low (2% to 12.99%), medium (13 to 25.99%) or high (26% and above).

Anxiety predictors for Foreign Language Listening Anxiety (FLLA)

The anxiety model regarding the listening skill presents a close link between poor self-perception in the three subscales as a result of perceived deficiencies in the listening skill. The predictive model of the listening anxiety displays the emergence of self-perception in isolation or in combination with FNE as a predictive model of FLLA. In fact, the descending order of shared variance displays a predictive model as follows: SR-CD and SR-CL with a shared variance of 42% and 15%, respectively. FNE also emerged in this predictive model, displaying an interaction with SR-CL with a medium variance of 15%, and with SR-CD displaying a small variance of 7.5%. Hence, a clear indication on the part of the participants that they were not satisfied with the level attained so far in their achievement in the listening skill, which led to their apprehending the negative evaluation of others.

Qualitative data revealed that mainly lack of exposure made the present participants vulnerable to feel they had poor listening skills, and therefore they fell short of meeting their expectations in this skill regarding their expected listening ability. As a result of a deficient listening level, they felt they were far from meeting the expected perception from a native speaker’s point of view.

In line with Subaşı’s (2010) findings concerning the predictors of FLA in the speaking skill (p. 41), fear of negative evaluation accompanied with a low level of self-perception increased the participants’ FLA. This outcome supports self-presentational theory (Schlenker & Leary, 1982 in Kitano, 2001 p. 551), which suggests that an interaction of FNE and self-perception impacts anxiety as these two
independent variables affect each of the elements responsible for anxiety such as the desire to make a good impression on others, and the doubt in ones' ability due to low self-perception. Table 3 summarizes the models of predictors of listening anxiety.

**Table 3**

**Model of Predictors of Listening Anxiety**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Value</th>
<th>Pr &gt; F</th>
<th>Squared Partial Corr Type I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FNE_Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>415.933</td>
<td>4.82</td>
<td>.017</td>
<td>0.059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CDS__Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1543.077</td>
<td>17.87</td>
<td>&lt;.0001</td>
<td>0.419</td>
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<tr>
<td>SR_CL__Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>488.180</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>.009</td>
<td>0.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_EPE__Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>71.459</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>.448</td>
<td>0.010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNE_Level*SR_CDS__Level</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>303.718</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>.020</td>
<td>0.069</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNE_Level*SR_CL__Level</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>237.933</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>0.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNE_Level*SR_EPE__Level</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>210.573</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.088</td>
<td>0.073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CDS__Level *SR_CL__Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>210.128</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>.108</td>
<td>0.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CDS__Level *SR_EPE__Level</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CL__Level *SR_EPE__Level</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.010</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Anxiety predictors for Foreign Language Class Anxiety (FLCA)

Concerning the predictors of the speaking anxiety (Table 4), the results suggest that no interaction of variables was noted to predict anxiety for the speaking skill, a finding that confirms the pilot study of similar participants in the 2012/2013 academic year with different self-perception subscales emergence, though. The large shared variance of SR_CD (39.5%, p=.000) explaining the total variance of FLCA anxiety predictors emerged as a potent variable in presenting a consistent model predicting FLCA in comparison to the other self-perception subscales, i.e. SR_CL, whose variance 19% explained a medium impact in this predictive model (p=.002). While SR_EPE emerged as the least predictive variable affecting FLCA with only 2% accounting for the total variance (p=.053).

Such findings contradict Subaşı’s (2010) English majoring participants’ anxiety predictors concerning the speaking skill where she found that FNE and self-perception interacted and impacted FLA regarding the speaking skill (p. 46). However, the findings of the present investigation support Kitano’s (2001) findings as
the latter did not find an interaction between fear of negative evaluation and self-perception regarding the speaking skill (p. 557). Thus, in line with earlier studies indicating a negative relationship between self-perceived ability and FLA such as Bailey's (1983), Young's (1991), MacIntyre et al's (1997), Kitano's (2001), Cheng's (2002), and Yang's (2012), self-perception was revealed as the best predictor of the speaking anxiety. Therefore, a low perception of the proficiency in the speaking skill contributed to a higher anxiety level in that skill.

**Table 4**

**Model of Predictors of Speaking Anxiety**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Value</th>
<th>Pr &gt; F</th>
<th>Squared Partial Corr Type I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FNE_Level</td>
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<td>117.160</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>.1882</td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CDS_Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>623.228</td>
<td>9.53</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>0.363</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CL_Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>522.809</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>0.192</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_EPE_Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>217.471</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>.053</td>
<td>0.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNE_Level*SR_CDS_Level</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>65.563</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.425</td>
<td>0.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNE_Level*SR_CL_Level</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>130.139</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>0.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNE_Level*SR_EPE_Level</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.970</td>
<td>0.12</td>
<td>.730</td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CDS_Level *SR_CL_Level</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.215</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>.826</td>
<td>0.046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CDS_Level *SR_EPE_Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>65.683</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>.381</td>
<td>0.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CL_Level *SR_EPE_Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>135.562</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>.147</td>
<td>0.064</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Anxiety predictors for Foreign Language Reading Anxiety

Regarding predictors of the reading anxiety (Table 5), among the self-perception subscales the SR-CL had a unique influence on FLRA eliminating all other variables that may have predicted anxiety. This finding adds more clarity as to which independent self-perception variable had the most effect on the reading anxiety. A low self-perception of the current reading level emerged as a potent contributor to the reading anxiety. Confidence in this pattern of results is strengthened by the significant correlation between reading anxiety and SR-CL ($r=.569, p<.0001$) revealed in research question 2.

The finding of the SR-CL reading anxiety model provides important support to the perfectionist attitude suggested by Gregerson and Horwitz (2002, p. 569). With respect to a perception of an inadequate current reading level, though biased it may have been, these participants perceived that their current level in the reading skill did not meet their expectations. This in turn led to increasing their reading anxiety. Hence, a low-perception of self-efficacy related to reading tasks produced anxiety in the mentioned skill.

In fact, as the present learners had to deal with English articles in their specialty subjects, they attributed their being deficient in reading those articles to their current reading level as they lacked automaticity, did not acquire enough reading speed, and still had problems with grammar and vocabulary. This may explain the interaction, though not significant, between FNE and SR-CL in the reading skill ($p=.080$), implying that a low perception of the current level paved the way for the emergence of FNE, which in turn affected the anxiety level of the reading skill. Therefore, an awareness of the low current level in the reading skill induced fear of negative evaluation in these participants, and hence made them vulnerable to feeling anxious in this particular skill.

Overall this finding suggests that SR-CL was a significant anxiety predictor for the reading skill with the present sample of participants, hence suggesting an alternative model to the one advanced by Subaşı (2010) concerning FNE and self-perception as predictors of the speaking anxiety (p.46). The SR-CL reading anxiety model with the present participants as non-English majors will provide an insight into how to approach teaching reading to similar sample of learners in order to improve self-perception about reading achievement, and its causal link to reading anxiety.

**Table 5**

**Model of Predictors for Reading Anxiety**
Anxiety predictors for Second Language Writing Anxiety (SLWA)

SR-CD was revealed as a key variable in predicting SLWA (Table 6). With a medium value of total variance (17.5%), SR-CD emerges as the main predictor of SLWA. Such a finding is rooted in the lack of writing practice, as reported by the participants in the qualitative data collection instruments, which may have induced a negative self-perception. Due to the lack of practice the participants may have experienced difficulties in communicating in written English, and as suggested by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a) “such difficulties can lead to the impression that anxious students are not capable communicators in the second language” (296). This supports the findings revealed in research question 2 where it was suggested that SR-CD and SLWA were negatively correlated ($r$ = -0.415, $p$ = .004). These participants’ main apprehension about writing tasks was expressed in leaving such tasks undone. Such an outcome echoes some of the findings suggested by researchers like Gkonou (2011). In fact, as suggested by the author, writing, like speaking, reveals a significant amount of learner self-exposure. Therefore, when feeling that the writing task may require additional effort on these participants, when feeling that that their writing may expose their writing skill for evaluation, these participants are likely to hold a negative self-perception about their writing skill which may in turn make them liable to fear the negative evaluation of others, hence the interaction between fear of negative evaluation and self-perception. A SR-CL and FNE emerging model is displayed subsequently, a finding that echoes Zhang’s (2011) predictors of the writing anxiety, and Subaşı’s (2010) predictors of the speaking anxiety.
Concerning the outcome of variable interaction in predicting a SLWA model, among the three self-perception subscales, SR-CL was the variable that displayed a significant interaction with FNE (p=.02) to predict SLWA displaying a non-significant share of variance of 0.7%, though. This outcome alludes to the participants’ awareness of their current level which did not allow them to meet proficient writing expectations due to some teaching practices as reported by some of them. This calls to mind the findings revealed by Musa Salem and Thomas Voon Foo’s (2012) Jordanian students reporting on teachers’ manners as one of the causes responsible for their writing anxiety.

Hence, the present participants were caught in a vicious circle whereby they thought they did not receive enough instruction in the writing skill, at the same time; they had to produce flawless writing pieces. Such a pressure made them feel anxious about their writing skill, especially when they perceived that their current writing level did not allow them to meet the intended results, hence a SR-CL/SR-EPE interaction.

The present learners’ low perception of their current level led to a SR-CL/SR-EPE interaction displaying .03% of the total variance. Though such an interaction is not significant (p=.06), it nonetheless reveals a close link between the participants’ self-perception of their current level and the expected perception of their writing skill by native speakers. In fact, although some of the participants reported that the nature of their studies and potential work as web developers did not involve writing in English, they still seemed to care about their writing level. This adds significant information to understand writing anxiety, as it explains how far self-perception can account for writing apprehension. In other words, when the learner feels their writing skill level is far from expected, they are likely to feel that native speakers will perceive their writing skill as low. In this case, they will feel anxious. Hence, again this outcome highlights the present participants’ concern about their writing achievement as a result of a low perception of their writing skill.

**Table 6**

**Model of Predictors for Writing Anxiety**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F Value</th>
<th>Pr &gt; F</th>
<th>Squared Partial Corr Type I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FNE_Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>65.208</td>
<td>0.96</td>
<td>.394</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CDS_Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>434.539</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>.005</td>
<td>0.174</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_CL_Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>144.242</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>.138</td>
<td>0.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SR_EPE_Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>109.952</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>.215</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FNE_Level*SR_CDS_Level</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>138.268</td>
<td>2.04</td>
<td>.131</td>
<td>0.006</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion and recommendations

In a nutshell, self-perception with its three subscales, namely, SR-CD, SR-CL, and SR-EPE displayed a higher predictive power in skill-specific anxiety both in isolation and in the presence of FNE. This draws attention to learners' beliefs about themselves as language learners as an important aspect predicting skill-specific anxiety, supporting some earlier case studies such as Bailey’s (1983) Ho and Young’s (1986), Horwitz’s (2001), and Cheng’s (2001). The strong association between self-perception and skill-specific anxiety revealed in the present study lends empirical support to the idea that “anxiety arises from self-assessment of personal deficit in meeting situational demands” (Sarason, 1984, p. 937).

As self-perception was revealed to be the most significant variable affecting the participants’ skill-specific anxiety, several recommendations that pertain to each skill need to be taken into account in order to make these learners and similar ones develop more positive beliefs about themselves and be more confident in their skills.

Generally speaking, teachers should create a supportive and environment so that the learners would feel more comfortable in the language class. Teachers should also reflect on the types of activities given to the learners, and in the case where learners are advanced, the latter should be given some freedom to suggest some tasks. This might motivate them to learn, and ease their apprehension as the suggested task in the English class may reflect a previous task in another class or even in real life.

It is highly recommended for the English language teachers with the help of their universities to network with other classrooms in some universities in English-speaking countries where local students can interact with native or non-native English speakers. Interactions with such speakers can be carried out through video conferencing in class or using simple IT communication tools such as Skype or social networks. In so doing, learners can have more authentic interactions with speakers of English. Such natural interactions may serve as a standard against which the learners can evaluate their learning as the latter will be offered the chance to be more objective in evaluating their ability in the language. Their self-perceived ability will, therefore, be less biased, in addition to the potential benefit of minimizing their foreign language anxiety.
The results of the present study may be attributable to the specific sample used in this research, consisting of non-English majors, who learned English as a required module, and who used it in both their English course and in their specialty subjects. Therefore, further research is needed with different samples in various instructional environments to investigate the skill-specific sources of FLA.

To this end, this study should be replicated with larger populations including engineer students from different fields, and even engineers in office from different specialty areas. Such a recommendation emanates from the researcher’s training experience with professionals on-site. In fact, throughout the training these professionals tended to apprehend their English training especially when the trainer was a native speaker. Furthermore, it would also be useful to add a control group from English majors to check if there is any difference between English majors and non-English majors as regards skill-specific anxiety in Tunisia.

Another recommendation is to add classroom observation, students’ videotaping during the interview, if any, as was carried with Gregerson and Horwitz (2002, p. 564), and participants’ diaries as was carried out by Bailey (1983) to the set of the tools used in the present research in order to add more validity to the results.

Anxiety is such a complex phenomenon, and its analysis may be endless as the variables that induce it are multiple, and may change from individual to individual and even within the same individual as they are affected by external factors such as time and space. On the other hand, its measurement, though intended to be as comprehensive as possible, still suffers some limitations. The findings of the present study are not definite, and may not always be consistent with different individuals, and even with the same individuals in different contexts and on different occasions.

This said the findings of the present study further confirm the complex picture of anxiety that was yielded by other studies. Again a call for more investigation in order to understand the complex interrelation and interaction between the variables under study is required to understand the phenomenon of anxiety, and more broadly foreign language learning without neglecting the significance of other cognitive and affective variables that might turn to be invisible to researchers (Lowe, 2014).

By contributing to the body of research about FLA, and suggesting some pedagogical strategies, it is hoped that the present study is significant for both researchers on FLA and teaching practices. For FLA researchers as self-perception was highlighted as the main variable affecting the skill-specific anxiety level of advanced non-English majors, it is suggested to delve more into this phenomenon and explore the intervening variables that interplay with self-perception, and affect skill-specific FLA. For teachers, it is hoped that the results as well as the pedagogical strategies suggested in the present study would induce them into adopting a more humanistic approach to their teaching in order to meet the requirements of quality teaching.
References


# Appendix A

**Listening questionnaire**

For each statement, please indicate your opinion by circling the appropriate number on the line following each statement. As the findings of this survey are going to be used for research, you are kindly requested to be honest while answering the questions. Please give your first reaction to each statement and mark an answer for every statement.

Name: ______________________________

## Part one: Self-rating Can Do statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1: With great difficulty or not at all</th>
<th>2: With some difficulty</th>
<th>3: Quite easily</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I can understand very simple statements or questions in the language (&quot;Hello,&quot; &quot;How are you?&quot;, &quot;What is your name?&quot;, &quot;Where do you live?&quot;, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>In face-to-face conversation, I can understand a native speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>On the telephone, I can understand a native speaker who is speaking to me slowly and carefully</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>In face-to-face conversation with a native speaker who is speaking slowly and carefully to me, tell whether the speaker is referring to past, present or future events</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>In face-to-face conversation, I can understand a native speaker who is speaking to me as quickly and as colloquially as he or she would to another native speaker</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I can understand movies without subtitles</td>
<td></td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>I can understand news broadcasts on the radio</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>On the radio, I can understand the words of a popular song I have not heard before</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I can understand play-by-play descriptions of sports events (for example, a soccer match on the radio)</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>I can understand two native speakers when they are talking rapidly with one another</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>On the telephone, I can understand a native speaker who is talking as quickly and as colloquially as he or she would to another native speaker</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
### Part two: Self-rating for the current level of study

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
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<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>For my current level of study in English, I think my sound perception and recognition is</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>For my current level of study in English, I think my accent recognition is</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>For my current level of study in English, I think my identification of the central theme, main ideas and supporting details is</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>For my current level of study in English, I think my understanding of long speeches is</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>For my current level of study in English, I think my identification of the level of formality is</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>For my current level of study in English, I think my deduction of incomplete information is</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>For my current level of study in English, I think my deduction of unfamiliar vocabulary is</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>For my current level of study in English, I think my inferential skills are</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>For my current level of study in English, I think my overall listening ability is</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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</table>

### Part three: Self-rating perception expected by the English

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I think my sound perception and recognition would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I think my accent recognition would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I think my identification of the central theme, main ideas and supporting details would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I think my understanding of long speeches would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I think my identification of the level of formality would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I think my deduction of incomplete information would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>7</td>
<td>I think my deduction of unfamiliar vocabulary would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I think my inferential skills would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I think my overall listening ability would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>2: Disagree</td>
<td>3: Neither Agree nor Disagree</td>
<td>4: Agree</td>
<td>5: Strongly Agree</td>
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<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>When listening to English, it is not easy for me to make guesses about the parts I missed</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>It is difficult to differentiate individual English words</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I am not confident in listening to English without a chance to read the transcription of speech</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I have difficulty in understanding instructions given orally in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I do not feel confident in my English listening skills</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I often get so confused that I cannot remember what I have heard in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I get confused when listening for important information in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>When listening to English, I often end up translating word by word without understanding what I’m listening to</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I would rather not listen to people talking in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I get confused when listening for new information in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>When listening to English, I find it difficult to guess the meaning of new words.</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>English stress and intonation patterns are not familiar to me</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>It often happens that I do not understand what English speakers say although I know the words</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I have difficulty understanding conversations between two people speaking English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Section II: Task-Focused Apprehension**

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>2: Disagree</th>
<th>3: Neither Agree nor Disagree</th>
<th>4: Agree</th>
<th>5: Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>When listening to English, I feel worried when I come across one or two unfamiliar words</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>When listening to English, I get nervous if I only hear a listening passage just once</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I worry that I might not be able to understand when people talk too fast in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>When listening to English, I am nervous when I’m not familiar with the topic</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When listening to English, I worry that I might have missed important information while I was distracted</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix B

#### Speaking questionnaire

For each statement, please indicate your opinion by circling the appropriate number on the line following each statement. As the findings of this survey are going to be used for research, you are kindly requested to be honest while answering the questions. Please give your first reaction to each statement and mark an answer for every statement.

| Name: |  
|---|---|

#### Part one: Self-rating Can Do statements

| 1 | I can say the days of the week in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2 | I can give the current date (month, day, year) in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3 | I can order a simple meal in a restaurant in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 4 | I can ask for directions on the street in English can ask for directions on the street in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5 | I can buy clothes in a department store in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6 | I can introduce myself in social situations, and use appropriate greetings and leave-taking expressions in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 7 | I can talk about my favorite hobby at some length in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 8 | I can describe my present job, studies, or other major life activities in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 9 | I can explain what I did last weekend at some length in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 10 | I can explain what I plan to be doing 5 years from now at some length in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 11 | I can sustain everyday conversation in very polite style English with a person much older than I am | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 12 | I can sustain everyday conversation in casual style English with my English friend | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 13 | I can describe the educational system of my own country in some detail in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 14 | I can state and support reasons my position on a controversial topic (for example, cigarette smoking) in English | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 15 | I can describe in English the role played by English business corporations in the world market | 1 | 2 | 3 |
### Part Two: Self-rating for the current level of study

1. For my current level of study in English, I think my English pronunciation is
   | 1: Poor | 2: Relatively poor | 3: Fairly good | 4: Good | 5: Very good |
   |       |                 |             |         |             |
2. For my current level of study in English, I think my English fluency is
   |       |                 |             |         |             |
3. For my current level of study in English, I think my grammatical accuracy in spoken English is
   |       |                 |             |         |             |
4. For my current level of study in English, I think my overall speaking ability in English is
   |       |                 |             |         |             |

### Part Three: Self-rating perception expected by the English

1. If I were to go to England, I think my pronunciation would be perceived by the English as
   | 1: Poor | 2: Relatively poor | 3: Fairly good | 4: Good | 5: Very good |
   |       |                 |             |         |             |
2. If I were to go to England, I think my English fluency would be perceived by the English as
   |       |                 |             |         |             |
3. If I were to go to England, I think my grammatical accuracy in spoken English would be perceived by the English as
   |       |                 |             |         |             |
4. If I were to go to England, I think my overall speaking ability in English would be perceived by the English as
   |       |                 |             |         |             |

### Part Four: Foreign Language Speaking Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

1. I never feel quite safe of myself when I am speaking in my English class
   | 1: Strongly Disagree | 2: Disagree | 3: Neither Agree nor Disagree | 4: Agree | 5: Strongly Agree |
   |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
2. I don’t worry about making mistakes in English class
   |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
3. I get nervous when I know that I’m going to be called on in English class
   |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
4. I get nervous when I don’t understand what the teacher is saying in English
   |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
5. I keep thinking that the other students are better at foreign languages than I am
   |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
6. I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class
   |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
7. In English class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know
   |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
8. It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class
   |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
9. I get nervous when I don’t understand what my English teacher is correcting
   |                   |             |                            |         |                  |

11. I often feel like not going to my English class
   |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
12. I feel confident when I speak in English
    |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
13. I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make
    |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
14. I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do
    |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
15. I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students
    |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
16. I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class
    |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
17. When I’m on my way to English class, I feel very sure and relaxed
    |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
18. I get nervous when I don’t understand every word my English teacher says
    |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
19. I feel overwhelmed by the number of grammatical rules you have to learn to speak English
    |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
20. I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English
    |                   |             |                            |         |                  |
Appendix C

Reading questionnaire

For each statement, please indicate your opinion by circling the appropriate number on the line following each statement. As the findings of this survey are going to be used for research, you are kindly requested to be honest while answering the questions. Please give your first reaction to each statement and mark an answer for every statement.

Name:

Part one: Self-rating Can Do statements

1: With great difficulty or not at all  
2: With some difficulty  
3: Quite easily

1. I can read personal letters or notes written to me in which the writer has deliberately used simple words and constructions

2. I can read on store fronts the type of store or the services provided (for example, "dry cleaning," "bookstore," "butcher," etc.)

3. I can understand newspaper headlines

4. I can read personal letters and notes written as they would be by a native speaker

5. I can read and understand magazine articles at a level similar to those found in Time or Newsweek, without using a dictionary

6. I can read popular novels without using a dictionary

7. I can read newspaper "want ads" with comprehension even when many abbreviations are used

Part two: Self-rating for the current level of study

1: Poor  
2: Relatively poor  
3: Fairly good  
4: Good  
5: Very good

1. For my current level of study in English, I think my reading fluency is

2. For my current level of study in English, I think my sight word automaticity is

3. For my current level of study in English, I think my reading accuracy is

4. For my current level of study in English, I think my understanding of unfamiliar words from context is

5. For my current level of study in English, I think my overall reading ability is
Part three: Self-rading perception expected by the English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I think my reading fluency would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I think my sight word automaticity would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I think my reaction time would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I think my understanding of unfamiliar words from context</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I think my overall reading ability would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Part four: Foreign Language Reading Anxiety Scale (FLRAS)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I get upset when I'm not sure whether I understand what I am reading in English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>When reading English, I often understand the words but still can't quite understand what the author is saying</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>When I'm reading English, I get so confused I can't remember what I'm reading</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I feel intimidated whenever I see a whole page of English in front of me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I am nervous when I am reading a passage in English when I am not familiar with the topic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I get upset whenever I encounter unknown grammar when reading English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>When reading English, I get nervous and confused when I don't understand every word</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>It bothers me to encounter words I can't pronounce when reading English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I usually end up translating words by word when I'm reading English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>By the time you get past the funny letters and symbols in English, it's hard to remember what you're reading about</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I am worried about all the new symbols you have to learn in order to read English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I enjoy reading English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I feel confident when I am reading in English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Once you get used to it, reading English is not so difficult</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The hardest part of learning English is learning to read</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Page 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I would be happy just to learn to speak English rather than having to learn to read as well</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I don't mind reading to myself, but I feel very uncomfortable when I have to read English aloud</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I am satisfied with the level of reading ability in English that I have achieved so far</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>English culture and ideas seem very foreign to me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>You have to know so much about English history and culture in order to read English</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Page 3.
Appendix D

Writing questionnaire

For each statement, please indicate your opinion by circling the appropriate number on the line following each statement. As the findings of this survey are going to be used for research, you are kindly requested to be honest while answering the questions. Please give your first reaction to each statement and mark an answer for every statement.

Name: 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part one: Self-rating Can Do statements</th>
<th>1: With great difficulty or not at all</th>
<th>2: With some difficulty</th>
<th>3: Quite easily</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I can write instructions</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I can write a short report or message</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I can write personal notes, e-mails and letters</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can write simple paragraphs with main idea and supporting detail on familiar topics</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I can use correct grammar and spelling in written English</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I can edit written materials</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I can write materials to provide direction, training or support (e.g. a training manual)</td>
<td>1 2 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1: Poor  2: Relatively poor  3: Fairly good  4: Good  5: Very good

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Part two: Self-rating for the current level of study</th>
<th>1: 2: 3: 4: 5:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. For my current level of study in English, I think my writing fluency is</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. For my current level of study in English, I think my grammatical accuracy in written English is</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. For my current level of study in English, I think my writing coherence is</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. For my current level of study in English, I think my use of cohesive devices is</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. For my current level of study in English, I think my writing style is</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Part three: Self-rating perception expected by the English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I think my writing fluency would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think my grammatical accuracy in written English would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think my writing coherence would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think my use of cohesive devices would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think my writing style would be perceived by the English as</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Part four: Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Disagree</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Neither Agree nor Disagree</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Agree</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Strongly Agree</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Closed questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. While writing in English, I am not nervous at all</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel my heart pounding when I write English compositions under time constraint</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. While writing English compositions, I feel worried and uneasy if I know they will be evaluated</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I often choose to write down my thoughts in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. While writing in English, I often worry that I would use expressions and sentence patterns improperly</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I usually do my best to avoid writing English compositions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. My mind often goes blank when I start to work on an English composition</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I don’t worry that my English compositions are a lot worse than others’</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I tremble or perspire when I write English compositions under time pressure</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. If my English composition is to be evaluated, I would worry about getting a very poor grade</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. When I write in English, my ideas and words usually flow smoothly</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I do my best to avoid situations in which I have to write in English</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. My thoughts become jumbled when I write English compositions under time constraint</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Unless I have no choice, I would not use English to write compositions</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I often feel panic when I write English compositions under time constraint</td>
<td>1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>While writing in English, I often worry that the ways I express and organize my ideas do not conform to the norm of English writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I’m afraid that the other students would decide my English composition if they read it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I freeze up when unexpectedly I am asked to write English compositions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I would do my best to excuse myself if asked to write English compositions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>When I write in English, my mind is usually very clear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I don’t worry at all about what other people would think of my English compositions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I usually seek every possible chance to write English compositions outside of class.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Open-ended questionnaire**

1. Do you experience any difficulties while writing in English? If yes, what are they?

2. Name the situations and people connected with your writing anxiety.

3. What kind of physical changes occur while you are writing in English?

4. How do you feel when writing in English?

5. Have you shared your experience of writing anxiety with anyone?

6. How do you think your attitudes towards English writing will affect your future working?
## Appendix E

### Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (FNE)

Please indicate your opinion by circling the appropriate number on the line following each statement. As the findings of this survey are going to be used in for research, you are kindly requested to be honest while answering the questions. Please give your first reaction to each statement and mark an answer for every statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name: ____________________________</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

| 1: not at all characteristic of me | 2: slightly characteristic of me | 3: somewhat characteristic |
| 4: very much characteristic of me | 5: extremely characteristic of me |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Circle 1</th>
<th>Circle 2</th>
<th>Circle 3</th>
<th>Circle 4</th>
<th>Circle 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I worry about what people will think of me even when I know it doesn’t make any difference</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I am unconcerned even if I know people are forming an unfavorable impression of me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am frequently afraid of other people noting my shortcomings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I rarely worry about what kind of impression I am making on someone</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I am afraid that others will not approve of me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I am afraid that people will find fault with me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Other people’s opinions of me do not bother me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. When I am talking to someone, I worry about what they may be thinking about me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I am usually worried about what kind of impression I make</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. If I know someone is judging me, it has little effect on me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I often worry that I will say or do the wrong things</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix F

Acronyms

EFL: English as a foreign language
FLA: Foreign language anxiety
FLCAS: Foreign Language Class Anxiety Class
FLLAS: Foreign Language Listening Anxiety Scale
FLRAS: Foreign Language Reading Class Anxiety Scale
SLWAI: Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory
SR-CD: Self-rating Can Do
SR-CL: Self-rating for the Current Level
SR-EPE: Self-rating Expected perception of the English
Learning Situation Motivation: The power of teachers

Adel Hannachi
Military Academy of Foundok Jedid, Tunisia

Abstract

This paper is situated in motivation studies in the formal EFL learning context. The study examines the learners' motivation with regard the learning situation including the course, the teacher and the group. The study hypothesises that teachers represent the highest motivating factor. The data were collected by means of a questionnaire composed of 58 items on 5 point Likert scale. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of 147 students from the Institut Supérieur des Langues de Tunis (ISLT). The collected data were computer processed using SPSS via descriptive and correlation analyses. Respondents reported that teachers were perceived to have a high motivating power compared to the course and the group. Also, teacher-specific motivation significantly correlated with the learning-situation motivation and with course-specific motivation. On the whole, the findings corroborated the advanced research hypothesis. Some other socio-demographic factors were accounted for to check the fluctuation of learners’ motivation, namely age and gender. The implications of this study bear on raising teachers’ awareness of the major role they play in motivating students and fostering their EFL proficiency.

Key words: EFL, motivation, learning situation, teacher, and socio-demographic variables.

1. Introduction

This paper aims at scrutinizing the motivational aspects within the Tunisian EFL context at University. The main purpose is to portray students’ motivation for the learning situation as defined by Dörnyei (1994a) in his model of language learning
motivation (LLM). This study also attempts to test the effect of age and gender on learners’ motivational intensity.

Research on individual differences in language learning has been looked at from different perspectives. This study narrows down its scope into learning situation motivation as an individual factor contributing to language achievement and better learning outcomes. Motivation has been theorized to be a strong predictor of learners’ proficiency in second foreign language (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). Further to Gardner & Lambert (1959) researchers in the field of second/foreign language learning have been trying to demystify this concept and its relationship with language achievement (Dörnyei, 1994a, 1998; Gardner, 1985a; Gardner and Lambert, 1959, 1972; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Spolsky, 1989, 2000; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995).

In the 1990s, Dörnyei has developed several models of language learning motivation (LLM), among which the one developed in 1994 which considered motivation at three levels: language, learner, and learning situation. This model is more concerned with the EFL than the ESL setting in that it was developed in the EFL context of Hungary.

Dörnyei (1994a, 1998) has given much importance to the learning situation as “the most elaborate part of the framework” (Dörnyei, 1998: 125). Prior to Dörnyei, in the 1980s and early 1990s, the learning situation received more attention than other aspects of language learning motivation (Gardner, 1985a, 1985b; Ramage, 1990; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1991). Also, as suggested by Dörnyei (2007) “the classroom environment is made up of a number of varied ingredients. And just as in cooking, achieving an optimal, motivating outcome can be done using different combinations of spices” (p. 650). Moreover, some other studies attempted to extend Gardner's construct by adding new components, such as, attribution about past successes and/or failures (Dörnyei, 1990), need for achievement (Dörnyei, 1990), and classroom goal structures (Julkunen, 1991 in Dörnyei, 2003), and other situation-specific variables such as classroom events and tasks, classroom climate and group cohesion, course content and teaching materials, teacher feedback, and grades and rewards (Dörnyei, 1990; Ramage, 1990; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Julkunen, 1991 in Dörnyei, 2003).

2. Review of the literature

Motivation is described as goal-directed; the learner’s direct goal is to learn the language. According to Gardner, to understand why learners are motivated, it is necessary to understand the learners’ basic goal or purpose from learning the language. Gardner refers to this as the learner’s orientation. He identifies two distinct orientations for learning a language, integrative and instrumental (Gardner &
Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner, 1985a, 2001). Integrative orientation points to a learner’s willingness to learn more about the cultural community of the target language or to assimilate to some degree in the target community. Integrative orientation refers to a desire to increase the affiliation with the target community. Instrumental orientation, in contrast, is a more utilitarian orientation; it deals with the learner’s willingness to learn the language to accomplish some non-interpersonal purpose such as job promotion. Language learners can display characteristics of both orientations at the same time, and there may well be other orientations that motivate a learner (Gardner, 1985a).

These orientations are part of the learner’s motivation at the goal level and affect the learner’s core motivation. Gardner’s hypothesis is that integratively oriented learners are more persistently and intensely motivated than other learners. He claims that an integratively oriented learner is likely to have a stronger desire to learn the language, has more positive attitudes towards the learning situation, and is more likely to spend more effort on learning the language (Gardner, 1985a). Nevertheless, Dörnyei (1990) contends that instrumental motives significantly contribute to motivation in EFL contexts, and can involve a number of extrinsic motives, resulting in a homogeneous subsystem.

The third component of Gardner’s goal motivation is the learner’s attitudes towards the learning situation. In the context of a language classroom, the learning situation may include variables such as the teacher, the textbook, classroom activities, classmates and so forth. The learner’s attitudes toward these variables may influence the learner’s core motivation as well as their orientation. Positive attitudes toward the learning situation will likely produce greater enjoyment in the study of the language, the desire to learn it, and the effort spent on learning it.

Several researchers point out that Gardner’s theory emphasises the social aspects of motivation rather than the role of motivation in the language classroom (Dörnyei, 1994b; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Though Gardner (1985a) discusses the learner’s reaction to the learning situation, he offers little explanation of how the learning situation can be manipulated in order to affect the learner’s motivation in a positive way. As a social psychologist, Gardner is more concerned with the effect of social variables on learner’s motivation. However, he thinks that language teachers are more concerned with the effect of the syllabus, lesson plans, and activities that students experience in the classroom.

Crookes’ and Schmidt’s discussion of the definition and measurement of SLA motivation (1991) includes four conditions for motivation introduced by Keller (1983). Keller’s four conditions are interest in the topic and activity, relevance to the students’ lives and needs, expectancy, i.e. expectations of success and feelings of being
in control, and satisfaction with the outcome. These four conditions, which were borrowed at a later stage by Dörnyei (1994a), contain elements of each of the major approaches of motivational psychology. The expectancy-value theory is represented in each condition. Keller’s condition of expectancy relates directly to the idea of expectancy from the expectancy-value theories. Furthermore, relevance, interest, and satisfaction are all related to the value placed on the task. Autonomy, an integral tenet of the self-determination theory, is included in the condition of expectancy. Goal-directed theories are represented in the condition of satisfaction in the outcome, the extent to which goals are met.

Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier & Ryan (1991), from a self-determination perspective, apply four levels of regularity to extrinsic motives in the classroom. The least developed form of extrinsic motivation, external regulation, is the least beneficial to students and results in the lowest level of learning. The task is regulated and initiated by the teacher as an external origin. When students follow a teachers’ rule or do their homework to avoid guilt or punishment, they are involved in introjected regulation. Students involved in identified regulation, complete a task or an activity because they value the outcomes it will produce. If the value and the outcome of the activity have been integrated into the learner’s sense of self and are assimilated with the learner’s other values, needs, and identity, the student is engaging in integrated regulation. Integrated regulation is very close to intrinsic motivation and is seen as very advantageous to learning and achievement.

Following Crookes’ and Schmidt’s initiative (1991), Dörnyei (1994a) suggests another framework of motivation. His model specifically deals with motivation in the language classroom. His taxonomy of motivation falls on three levels: the language, the learner, and the learning situation (Dörnyei, 1994a). The language level is the most general one. It focuses on “orientations and motives related to various aspects of the L2” (Dörnyei, 1994a: 279). Such motives and orientations determine the studied language and the basic learning goals. Here, Dörnyei identifies motivation using the concept of orientation evoked in Gardner (1985a). The learner level involves the influence of individual traits of language learners.

Motivation is influenced at the learner level by the learner’s need for achievement and self-confidence. The learner level is concerned with internal, affective characteristics of the learners related to their need for achievement and their level of self-confidence. The latter component is closely related to expectancy, involving language anxiety, self-efficacy, and evaluations of possible success based on past experiences. Gardner (2007) stresses the fact that “the teacher, the class atmosphere, the course content, materials and facilities, as well as personal characteristics of the student (such as studiousness, etc.,) will have an influence on the individual’s classroom learning motivation” (p. 11). Motivation at the LSL is influenced by a
number of intrinsic and extrinsic motives that are course-specific, teacher-specific, and group-specific (Dörnyei, 1994a, 1998).

The course-specific motivational components relate to the class syllabus, the used materials, the teaching method, and the learning task. Dörnyei uses the conditions presented by Keller (1983) and later by Crookes and Schmidt (1991): interest, relevance, expectancy, and satisfaction. The teacher-specific motivational components are the characteristics of the teacher and the teaching style that affect learner motivation. Affiliative drive refers to the learner’s desire to please the teacher. The teachers’ authority type and direct socialization of motivation through specific practices intended to increase motivation also affect learners’ motivation. Some practices that have a direct effect on motivation include modelling, task presentation, and feedback. The group-specific motivational components refer to the social influences on motivation from the collective group that the learner is part of. Such effects include the group’s orientation, cohesiveness, and the amount and level of competition within the group (Julkunen, 2001 in Dörnyei & Schmidt, 2001).

Dörnyei & Murphey (2003) offer several suggestions on how to exploit these conditions to develop more motivating learning situations. These levels coincide with the three basic constituents of the L2 learning process, i.e. the L2, the L2 learner, and the L2 learning environment, and reflect the three different aspects of language, i.e. the social dimension, the personal dimension, and the educational subject matter dimension. The learning environment is a constituent of what Dörnyei (2010) called ‘L2 Learning Experience’ this construct also includes other situated motives such as “the impact of the teacher, the curriculum, the peer group, the experience of success” (p. 80). Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) conclude that the socio-cultural context has an overriding effect on all aspects of the L2 learning process, including motivation.

Van Lier (1996) contends that motivation “is a very important, if not the most important factor in language learning” (p. 98). He also argues that without motivation even 'gifted' individuals cannot accomplish long-term learning goals, irrespective of the curricula and the teacher. Thus, the concept of language learning motivation has become central to a number of theories of L2 acquisition (Krashen, 1981; Gardner, 1985a; Spolsky, 2000). Motivation is widely accepted by teachers and researchers as one of the key factors influencing success rates in second/foreign language (L2/FL) learning (Gardner, 1985a; Dörnyei, 1994a; 1998; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995). That is, all other factors involved in L2 acquisition, i.e. language aptitude, cognitive style, learning strategies, personality type, etc, presuppose motivation.

Van Lier (1996), however, points out that the meaning of motivation depends on the used perception of human nature. In the same direction, Deci & Ryan (1985)
distinguish between mechanistic and organismic theories. The former tend to see the human organism as passive (e.g. behaviourism), whereas the latter tend to see it as active volitional and initiating behaviours. Recent educational theories tend toward the second interpretation, with Gardner (1985a) defining motivation to learn an L2 as "the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experienced in this activity" (Gardner, 1985a: 10). This definition includes effort expended to achieve a goal, a desire to learn the language, and satisfaction with the task of learning the language.

Gardner (1985a) also provides a behaviourally based view of motivation, "when the desire to achieve the goal, and favourable attitudes towards the goal are linked with the effort and drive, then we have a motivated organism" (Gardner, 1985a: 11). Thus, Gardner follows the consensus that motivation is essentially a behavioural phenomenon, during which latent influences contribute to the emergence of learning directed activity. Although some researchers attempted to give a definition to motivation, the concept still holds some ambiguity that need to be deciphered (Van Lier, 1996; Deci & Ryan, 1985; and Gardner, 1985a).

The significance of motivation in SLA is widely recognized in the SLA research community. Most researchers pledge that motivation plays a vital role in the learner's achievement; it is often attributed to the capacity to override other factors, such as language aptitude, in affecting achievement in both negative and positive ways (Dörnyei, 2001). Though the importance of motivation is widely recognized, its meaning is elusive. Motivation is a complex and multifaceted construct that researchers have approached from diverse perspectives. Motivation in SLA yields more complexity by the multifaceted roles of language (Dörnyei, 1998). According to Dörnyei, “it is not the lack but rather the abundance of motivation theories which confuse the scene” (1998: 118).

Motivation can be broadly defined as the reasons why humans behave the way they do. Pintrich and Schunk (1996 in Dörnyei, 1998) further defined motivation as the process during which a goal-directed activity is prompted and upheld. Motivational theorists in SLA have sought to answer three basic questions: What cognitive processes are involved? What effect does motivation have on achievement and learning? How can it be optimised? (Dörnyei, 1998). In their attempts to answer such questions, theorists have presented a number of models dealing with SLA motivation. Here I will first review dominant theories of motivational psychology, present theories directly related to SLA and second language education, and finally discuss the application of such theories to specific EFL contexts.
3. Method

The researcher adopted the stratified random sampling technique to increase the estimation accuracy by using prior information. The prior information is used to subdivide the parent population into strata. The population here includes all three university levels. The stratum used is third-year students of English at the ISLT. Random sampling was then applied to select a sufficient number of subjects from the stratum. "Sufficient" refers to a sample size large enough to be reasonably confident that the stratum represents the population. Stratified sampling is often used when one or more of the strata in the population have a low incidence relative to the other strata (Brown, 1988). The selected stratum is third-year students of English at the Institut Supérieur des Langues de Tunis (ISLT). This stratum is made up of 452 students. The sample is composed of 147 subjects. The overall distribution of third-year students of English at the ISLT, in terms of gender is made up of 82 males (18.14%) and 370 females (81.85%). The distribution of the total stratum by gender approaches that of the sample accounted for in this study.

In order to collect data, a questionnaire on language learning motivation is developed following the format of Gardner's (1985a, 1985b) Attitude and Motivational Test Battery (AMTB) and other questionnaires presented in Dörnyei & Csizer (2002) discussions of questionnaires and surveys in motivation studies. The questionnaire is aimed to measure students’ motivation at the learning situation level. Within the present questionnaire, some items were fully taken from Gardner's AMTB (1985b) and Dörnyei & Csizer (2002), whereas some others were partially taken and were adapted to the university context. Some other items were genuinely developed to achieve the purposes of this study.

The questionnaire is composed of three specific motivational components: course, teacher, and group. (a) Course-specific motivation deals with four subcomponents: (1) intrinsic interest in the course, (2) relevance of the course, (3) expectancy from the course, and (4) satisfaction with the course. (b) Teacher-specific motivation concerns teachers’ behaviour, personality, and teaching style with three subcomponents: (1) learner’s affiliative drive, (1) teachers’ authority type, and (3) teachers’ direct socialization of motivation. (c) Group-specific motivation is composed of three subcomponents: (1) group goal orientedness, (2) group norm and reward system, and (3) classroom goal structure.

4. Results

The questionnaire used a five-point Likert scale where students are asked to report on their agreement or disagreement. The reliability of the questionnaire was tested
and found significant ($\alpha = .84$). The obtained data were analysed using SPSS to obtain general results through descriptive statistics and correlation results by means of correlation analysis. Figure 1, below, exposes respondents’ distribution based on age and gender. 76% of the respondents aged between 21 and 23 years and 24% between 24 and 26 years. Additionally, 83% are females and only 17% males.

![Bar chart showing respondents by age and sex](image)

**Figure 1.** Respondents’ distribution by age category and gender in percent.

At the level of motivational indices all three levels were significant. The overall motivational index was ($M= 3.37$), the course-specific motivation was ($M= 3.35$), the teacher-specific motivation was ($M= 3.50$), and the group-specific motivation ($M= 3.25$). Figure 2 illustrates a rather high motivation to the learning situation with teachers perceived as the highest motivating factor.
**Figure 2.** Language learning motivation indices among ISLT third year students of English.

Table 1 exhibits the motivational indices for the different subscales. The highest index is allocated to teachers’ modelling (M= 3.90) and the lowest to group goal structure (M= 2.80). These indices corroborate the findings illustrated in Figure 2 where teacher-specific motivation received the highest loading (M= 3.50) and group-specific motivated had the lowest index (M= 3.25).

### Table 1

*Motivation indices of the motivation subscales*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Sub variable</th>
<th>M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Course-specific motivation</td>
<td>Intrinsic interest in the course</td>
<td>3.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Course relevance</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expectancy from the course</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Satisfaction with the course</td>
<td>3.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-specific motivation</td>
<td>Affiliative motive</td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers’ authority</td>
<td>3.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers’ modelling</td>
<td>3.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers’ task presentation</td>
<td>3.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Teachers’ feedback</td>
<td>3.53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The correlation test between LSM and age resulted in a non-significant correlation coefficient (Table 2). Thus, the variable pertaining to age does not relate to students’ motivation except for course-specific motivation with a moderately low significance (r= .186*, p< .05). Also, the connection between respondents’ Gender and LSM indicates the absence of a significant correlation. This result leads to saying that gender does not account for the degree of the overall learning situation motivation registered in third year students of English at the ISLT. Concerning the internal correlation of the three components with the learning situation motivation, the course (r=.775**, p< .01) and the teacher (r= .806**, p< .01) specific motivational components are strongly predictive for learning situation motivation while GS (r= .335**, p< .01) is moderately predictive of LSM. Moreover, the inter-correlation among the three components gave a moderate correlation between teacher-specific motivation and course-specific motivation (r=.357**, p< .01).

Table 2

Correlations among LSM, CSM, TSM, and GSM with age and gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>LSM</th>
<th>CSM</th>
<th>TSM</th>
<th>GSM</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LSM</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CSM</td>
<td>.775**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TSM</td>
<td>.806**</td>
<td>.357**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSM</td>
<td>.335**</td>
<td>.074</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>.186*</td>
<td>.090</td>
<td>.051</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>-.145</td>
<td>.290**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed).
The results above confirmed the advanced hypothesis stipulating that teachers are perceived to be the highest motivating factor among ISLT students. In addition, it is concluded that course, teacher, and group specific motivational components are strong predictors of students’ motivation at the learning situation level. Moreover, the differences in language learning motivation are generally not related to both age and gender. Yet, the only the course-specific component correlated with age.

5. Discussion

The discussion that follows is subdivided into three sections. First, the general theoretical implications of the current research findings are outlined followed by a more detailed analysis of the specificities of learning situation motivation held by university EFL learners in Tunisia. In the final section, future pedagogical implications in the Tunisian EFL context are then discussed.

On the whole, results maintained the advanced hypothesis that teachers constitute the highest motivating factor among ISLT students. On the whole, data confirmed the absence of a significant relationship between LLM and age and gender. With regard to the specific EFL situation of university education in Tunisia, results show different tendencies for each component. All components loaded a high motivation index; however, the weakest level was group-specific. In what concerned course-specific motivation students demonstrated a high degree of motivation according to Cohen (1988) conventions for interpreting effect size (in Hemphil, 2003). Learners’ satisfaction with the course, as one of the key factors in course-specific motivation, received the highest loading with a motivation index (M=3.70). However, learners’ expectancy from the course received the lowest loading (M=3.11). Intrinsic motivation is generated through the use of authentic tasks and assessment, through affording an optimal environment of difficulty and by providing choices that level with students’ personal interests and expectancies.

In this study, it was not accounted for the assessment of the teaching material at a pedagogical level, however, let us assume that teachers use authentic material, but what about the level of difficulty of the used material? Intrinsic motivation is primarily influenced by personal expectations of success. If a learner believes that learning and success are possible, then chances that they will be motivated, assuming that success is desired, would be bigger. However, in the present study, figures showed that learners’ expectancy loaded least in what concerned course-specific motivation.
Teachers’ specific motivation stands in pole position (M= 3.50, Correlation coefficient with LSMI, r=.806**, p< .01). Direct socialization of motivation through teachers’ modelling, task presentation, and feedback received the highest loadings. A key element that can be identified from students’ responses was the distribution of power in the learning situation, i.e. empowerment and monopolisation. Teachers hold power in that they orchestrate the curriculum and the classroom environment. However, a more fundamental aspect is the way they respond; positively or negatively, to students’ behaviours and learning efforts. It can be concluded that the degree of empowerment granted by teachers to students is acceptable. Additionally, teachers’ responses and feedback on students’ behaviour and learning effort is expressive. These interactions between teachers and students, if positively demonstrated, will create mutually respectful and helpful atmosphere that would positively affect the learning situation. Furthermore, forming a comfortable self-image and positive group supportiveness can be a key factor for students’ learning process.

Group-specific motivation can have an impact on learners’ achievement in that a weak group as opposed to a ‘good’ or strong group can lower the motivation degree of language learners (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003: 3). Two subcomponents out of three measuring group-specific motivation loaded low indices (M= 2.80) and (M= 2.85). These two indices relate to group goal orientedness and classroom goal structure respectively. Results from these two subcomponents showed that group goal orientedness was rather individualistic and classroom goal structure seemed uncooperative and uncompetitive. These features may hinder the development of positive group dynamics and then lead to a less motivated and less productive group (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003).

The social dimension is undoubtedly important for motivation. Most learners are by nature motivated to acquire knowledge and learn. Then they should be motivated to work in a social setting, and if the social setting is good they will be motivated to work for extrinsic reward such as grades, thanks, respect, and positive feedback. Stevick (1980, cited in Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003) claimed that “success depends less on material, techniques and linguistic analyses, and more on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom” (p. 4). For a group to function effectively, it is necessary to develop a sense of community. If there is no community and no cohesion within the group, it is just like a group of prisoners who are looking forward to run away with no consideration to their colleagues (Dörnyei, 1997; 2003; Clement, Dörnyei & Noels, 1994). Furthermore, Hadfield (1992, in Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003) stressed the fact that he is persuaded that “a successful group dynamic is a vital element in teaching/learning process” (p. 10).
6. Conclusion

Referring to the aim of this paper, the findings ruled out the lack of motivation among ISLT students of English. Students’ manifested a high motivation to the learning situation in general. Teachers were the highest motivators of students, followed by the course, and last the group. Even thought the motivation index pertaining to the group was significant, the aspect related to the group represents the ‘weakest link’ in the chain of the learning situation levels. More to the point, two subcomponents out of the three forming the group motivational components registered a non-significant index. As far as the socio-demographic variables are concerned, no specific relationship with motivation was detected.

The link between teacher and course specific motivation is expressive of intertwined relation between the teacher and the course in motivating learners and contributing to better academic outcomes. Teacher’s motivational behaviour and practices including teachers’ authority, modeling, feedback and task presentation are likely to fuel the learning-situation motivation and are directly linked to students’ engagement in classroom activities. Also, teachers’ motivational behaviour and practices impact on students approach to the course and therefore generate better academic outcomes. Finally, fostering teachers’ awareness of their real intrinsic value in the teaching/learning process via empirical research, action research, training, and continuous professional development seems to be essential in such a dynamic educational context.

The implications for teaching underlie every stage of the course development from design, through implementation, to students’ evaluation. At the level of the syllabus, providing a framework adjusted to students’ perceptions of the usefulness and relevance of English can develop motivation. Syllabi have to be conceived to fit with the learners’ interest, meet their expectancies, and satisfy their pedagogical and pragmatic needs through the relevance of the subjects and the material used. Even though students positively rated their teachers, a permanent watch-out and an up-to-date pedagogical training and continuous professional development seem to be the key elements for success with students. Pedagogical watch-out will be helpful for teachers in their relationship with students as well as in the student-to-student relationships. Teacher-to-student relationship develops in the sense of satisfying the need for more autonomy and more empowerment. Teacher monitored student-to-student relationships, build up in the creation of a cohesive, cooperative, supportive, and competitive group.

Furthermore, for future extensions of this study, the submission of ESP and high school students to similar surveys will be of interest in that it may help scrutinising the dynamics of LLM in the Tunisian EFL context. More elaborate nationwide
investigations would also aid to detect the different factors that impede high achievement levels and look forward to making up for the deficiencies of the educational system. Besides, it would be of great pedagogical bearing if we can develop and update a Tunisian model of FLL motivation that takes into consideration the peculiarities of the Tunisian society with more implication of the various socio-psychological factors.
References


Promoting Global Competence in Teachers’ Education: Towards Globally-Oriented Classrooms

By Zakia Djabberi
Tlemcen University, Algeria

Abstract

Within teachers’ education, it seems critical to consider global competence as a crucial 21st century skill needed to meet the challenges of the demands of this global age. Raising this awareness, in fact, requires careful quality delivery instruction that prepares learners to effectively understand and act as global citizens, ready to investigate the world, recognize its perspectives, and achieve deliberate goals. Experience educators, thus, call for an urgent need for the internalization of the curriculum, the development of globally-oriented classrooms and globally competent teachers.

Therefore, this paper will attempt to reflect upon possible changes in education delivery in MENA settings. We will problematise issues related to globally-oriented classrooms, such as enhancing a general global vision, preparing internationally-oriented teachers, transforming curriculum and instruction by integrating and contextualizing international content, which may lead to international partnership between MENA contexts.

Key-words:
Globally-oriented classrooms, globally-competent teachers, 21st century skills, education, challenge for innovation.

Introduction: Global Competence as a 21st century Imperative
The illiterate of the 21st Century are not those that cannot read or write, but those that cannot learn, unlearn, and relearn. Alvin Toffler

Within a progressively high knowledge-based society, globally-oriented world, and diverse society, making sure that our students are well equipped with the necessary tools and competences to live in this age is, in fact, one of the prevalent challenges facing today's education. Indeed, ideas such as “global education” and “internationalization” are in vogue within recent research worldwide, but systematic and concrete integration into classroom practice is still rare.

Postulations about the world within this rapidly changing world are becoming obsolete in the 21st century. New concerns and new demands are triggered as a result of globalization and the digital revolution we are witnessing. At the dawn of the 21st century, in fact, our understanding of the world should be shaped and recast to be ready to survive in this world. Our teaching vision should turned for more powerful, relevant, and self-directed learning that will prepare the young to exist, struggle, and cooperate in a new global scenario.

Therefore, this paper is deduced for MENA countries to redirect their attention, inspire their curiosity to move from the traditional ways of teaching to education for Global Competence, this is to hopefully prepare our future generation to successfully engage the world. Teachers, administrators, educators, policymakers, researchers, parents, students, and all other stakeholders should have to rethink about the current practices to find out the magic recipe for the 21st century skills needed.

21st Century Skills Needed

The crux of success or failure is to know which core values to hold on to, and which to discard and replace when times change.—Jared Diamond

Considering the changing face of the world we are living in, manifold essential skill sets seem to be at the core to prepare our future workforce. They range from learning, to thinking, to innovation skills, such as thinking creatively and using systems thinking, learning to innovate and innovative learning (Mansilla and Jackson, 2013).

It is often argued that deep understanding is best achieved through efforts focused on clear and manageable learning goals. Educators should well set their teaching
goals highlighting the most important concepts, skills, and processes that students will discover, creating a personal path for learning. The premise here is that learners should have their own capacities, which are not generically inherited, but rather learned and/or adapted to the newly digital world. In other terms, a special kind of competence can be achieved through is recast in global terms. Thus, students should be trained/learned *a propos; through, within, and pro* a complex and interconnected world to be able to survive in today's age. Learners must learn to think and work like an expert to reach as I believe, this essential pyramid process, moving from the very core skills to the optional ones:

![Diagram 1.1. 21st Century Skills adopted from (Mansilla and Jackson, 2013).](image)

What I call for is an urgent need for the internalization of the curriculum, the development of globally-oriented classrooms and globally competent teachers, i.e., Preparing our students for the world beyond the classroom.
In this sense, and within this knowledge age, globally competent students should be able to do the following:

1. Investigate the world beyond their immediate environment, framing significant problems and conducting well-crafted and age-appropriate research.

2. Recognize perspectives, others’ and their own, articulating and explaining such perspectives thoughtfully and respectfully.

3. Communicate ideas effectively with diverse audiences, bridging geographic, linguistic, ideological, and cultural barriers.

4. Take action to improve conditions, viewing themselves as players in the world and participating reflectively. Boix Mansilla and Jackson (2013:11)

In fact, the ability and willingness to compete globally may entail the acquisition/learning of extensive knowledge of international issues. To reach a certain degree of competence, our students need high-level thinking skills, which will gradually improve their creativity and innovation. Students who achieve a thorough understanding of the economic, social, and technological changes existing around them across the globe boost their ability to know how to live and compete worldwide.

It is believed that learners’ proficiency in foreign languages is considered as competence. Their ability to understand, read, write, and speak in more than one language will, in all probabilities, enhance their cross-cultural communication skills. The knowledge of additional languages is assumed to open learners’ minds to reach an understanding of other cultures and people who speak those languages (Suárez Orozco, 2008).
In today's hyper-connected world, no nation can instigate a fully effective education agenda, without taking into account the global needs and trends, and nurturing a globally competent citizenry. The main goal of our plan is to increase the global competencies of all our teachers to help upgrade our educational system, but the question that it asks itself is that are our teachers ready for such a change? And can learners adapt themselves to different situations?

Consequently, teaching should in any way aims at adapting its objectives according to the increasingly globally competent society. This can be achieved through upgrading and transforming the curriculum, moulding it to meet the needs and requirements of the target university (Gardner, 1999). For instance, some universities begin with training the staff, and learn from experiences teachers, others transform their programs, and others attempt to create newly adopted courses globally orientated.

For this reason, a small scale study was held to investigate teachers’ and learners’ awareness about global education.

Method:

If we take an x-ray to depict the situation, we would straight fully find that we are teaching content, but not teaching students how to use it creatively. And in an attempt to investigate this, a small scale study was held at Tlemcen University – Algeria. The study aims to investigate the degree of awareness among EFL teachers and learners about the significance of 21st century skills within the teaching/learning process.

It is also of great necessity, for any researcher involved in any field of research and classroom investigation, to identify his sample’ profile needs and interests for the sake of constructing systematically the basic knowledge needed for a better research experience. Therefore, this study is concerned with first-year LMD students from Tlemcen University, English Department. 50 of them were randomly chosen. The students involved in this classroom-investigation are in the age group of 17 to 20 years old, they are Baccalaureate holders from different streams (Life and Natural Sciences, Humanities, letters and philosophy and foreign Languages). As they come from government schools, they share roughly the same educational background. Each student had completed 7 years
of English study prior to entering university, but they had very few opportunities to practice and speak English outside the four walls of the classroom.

Besides, 20 Experienced Teachers of English were interviewed, their teaching experience varies from seven to seventeen years, and they are in charge of the following modules: Linguistics, Research Methodology, Oral Production, Phonetics and Phonology, TEFL, Sociolinguistics and General Psychology.

- Research Tools:

It is often believed that the "The backbone of any survey study is the instrument used for collecting data" (Dörnyei, 2003). Thus, based on a multimethod approach, which requires a multiple sources of data collection, the researcher has designed the present study using students’ Survey and Teachers’ Interviews.

In fact, questionnaires have gained considerable attention in the social sciences. In this line of thought, Dörnyei (2003:3) states: "questionnaires are certainly the most often employed data collection devices in statistical work, with the most well-known questionnaire type - the census - being the flagship of every national statistical office". For this reason, it was adopted to seek for learners’ general and global skills. Regarding the interview, it provides in-depth information about a particular research issue. It was put by Kvale (1996: 14) as being an inter-view, i.e., "an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest". It was addressed to teachers to know their vision about upgrading the curriculum, globalising the classrooms and their opinion about quality insurance.

Results:

Among the most important findings, I tried to check the matter from the teacher’s stand point and then from the learners’ stand point.
• **Teachers’ Interview Results:**

It was found that teachers believe that our learners are unprepared for an increasingly global future, since too many learners lack even the most basic skills for navigating or understanding the critical context of the world events. Teachers assume that lessons are not designed for problem-solving situations to make learners ready to meet long-term goals, like reflective and creative thinking, but rather based on traditional ways of teaching.

When asked about upgrading the curriculum according to international standards, teachers drove our attention towards quality insurance rather than quantity-based teaching, they believed that quality education should foster:

- a confident person who thinks independently and critically and who communicates effectively;
- a self-directed learner who questions, reflects, and takes responsibility for his or her own learning;
- an active contributor who is innovative, takes risks, and strives for excellence; and,
- a concerned citizen who is informed about world and local affairs, has a strong sense of civic responsibilities, and participates actively in improving the lives of others.

• **Learners’ Questionnaire Analysis**

Searching for learners’ position, it was emphasised on a number of skills needed in the classroom such as problem solving situation, organizational skills, oral communication skills, adaptability skills and analytical skills.

It was found that a number of research skills are always found in the classroom with low percentages, however the others are rarely found in the classroom, as stated in the following bar-graph:
Oddly enough, learners seem to be aware of these skills, but reality appears to be challenging and different. Because, to reach this end, a number of measures need to be taken into account such as:

- Training globally-competent Teachers coming from globally-competent institutions,
- Upgrading the curriculum and internalising the content,
- Engaging learners in the world
- Creating partnership between Universities (example GVC),

Data Discussion

21st century skills are required in our curriculum if change is desired. Though teachers are for the idea of upgrading the curriculum, but it is felt that their traditional methods of teaching will cause great difficulties for them to rethink
their ways of teaching. In spite of the challenge, both learners and teachers demonstrate their willingness to change.

Suggestions:

Within such a context, MENA universities can be joined together using a network of videoconferencing through two-way video and audio transmissions simultaneously. The result of these connections is the creation of new terms in education to keep pace with the latest technologies, such as Virtual Classrooms. As a concrete example, the e-partnership between universities such as, Global Virtual Classroom (GVC) between the University of Abu Bekr Belkaid, Tlemcen, ALGERIA and East Carolina University, USA.

This project aims at creating Cross Cultural Communication Skills to overcome culture shocks among global communicators, it also offers the opportunity for collaborative and teamwork among students in different universities. Besides, as this project is based on technological-based tasks, it enhances students’ technological competence to be confident and comfortable with technology. It also aims at:

- Transferring our classrooms into globally oriented classrooms which will create a global vision and culture,
- recruiting and preparing internationally-oriented globally competent teachers,
- transforming curriculum and instruction by integrating international content,
- emphasizing language proficiency,
- expanding students’ experiences through harnessing technology,
- creating international cooperation and partnerships.

Conclusion:

“If we teach today as we taught yesterday, we rob our children of tomorrow” -- John Dewey

Transferring our classrooms into globally oriented classrooms may create a global vision and culture in our educational systems. It may also
recruit and prepare internationally-oriented teachers, transform and upgrade our curriculum and instruction by integrating international content. It may also emphasize language proficiency, expand students’ experiences through attaching technology, and internationalizing cooperation and e-partnerships between universities.

References

Appendix A; adopted 21st Century Skills

1- Research skills
- Know how to find and collect relevant background information
- Be able to analyze data, summarize findings and write a report

2- Critical Thinking skills
- Be able to review different points of view or ideas and make objective judgments
- Investigate all the possible solutions to a problem, weighing the pros and cons

3- Organizational skills
- Be able to organize information, people or things in a systematic way
- Be able to establish priorities and meet deadlines

4- Problem-solving skills
- Be able to clarify the nature of a problem
- Be able to evaluate alternatives, propose viable solutions and determine the outcome of the various options

5- Creative thinking skills
- Be able to generate new ideas, invent new things, create new images or designs
- Find new solutions to problems
- Be able to use wit and humour effectively

6- Analytical/logical thinking skills
- Be able to draw specific conclusions from a set of general observations of from a set of specific facts
- Be able to synthesize information and ideas

7- Public speaking skills
- Be able to make formal presentations
- Present ideas, positions and problems in an interesting way
8- Oral communication skills

- Be able to present information and ideas clearly and concisely with content and style appropriate for the audience
- Be able to present opinions and ideas in an open, objective way.
Rethinking the Past: Historiographical constructs about the causes of the American civil war

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Abstract

This paper seeks to ‘rethink the past’ through exploring constructions of the American Civil War (1861-1865) from three different perspectives. It attempts to ascertain some plausible understanding of this war by contrasting three different positions towards it. The rationale behind such enterprise is to question the settled through uncovering the authors’ biases as could be reconstructed from their assumptions. To this effect, a linguistic synthesis is made of the frameworks of White (1978, 1987) and MucCullagh (1998) leading to an analytic checklist. Textual data are analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. It has been found that, though the three accounts are biased, a plausible measure of “truth” was recovered to the effect that the abolition of slavery was the main but not the sole cause behind the war.

1. Background to the Study

The American Civil War is a phenomenon worth exploring. “It was a sectional struggle with roots in such a complex of political, economic and social differences that no single basic cause can be specified” (Johnson, 1966, p. 176). After reading Tulloch (1999) and Kennedy and Benson (2007, p. vii), not only was the American Civil War (henceforth ACW) variously labeled “The War for Southern Independence” or “The War of Northern Aggression”, its causes were differently approached. Such controversial literature calls into question the plurality of accounts. For this, ‘the abolition of slavery’, the cause of ACW conventionally taught in academic history, has become a questionable assumption.

The first account represents the political and official version that sheds light on the racial question. The second account pertains to an economic, Marxist viewpoint stressing a discrepancy between the North and the South. In the third
account, the authors consider ‘secession for independence’, the real cause of the war.

2. Literature Review
This study is to critically survey the changing and controversial historical literature surrounding the causes of the ACW. In this respect, some concepts need to be defined.

2.1. History/Historiography: Definition and Scope

“History, understood as a form of knowledge, is an account of what existed and happened in the past and why it happened. History is an empirical discipline” Murphey (2009, pp.1-29). Furay and Salevouris (1988, p. 223) assume that historiography is “the study of the way history has been and is written – the history of historical writing”.

(Tulloch, 1999, p. vii) presupposes that the scope of historiography is not exclusively limited to the writing about dead facts or “permanent verdicts but controversies among its presenters”. Historiography is, then, revisiting the past through historical documents, which pertains to academic debates and changing methodologies manifested. In a different line of thought, Jenkins (1991, p. 6) features a clear distinction between history and the past: “history is a discourse about, but categorically different from, the past”. In the same line of thought, White (1987, p. 4) defines historiography in relation to narrativity. “Historiography is an especially good ground on which to consider the nature of narration and narrativity”. This leads to explore basic notions in historiography: sources, trends, methods and concepts.

2.2. Major Schools/Trends and methods of Historiography

Since the beginning of the twentieth century, there has been the birth of influential Schools of Historiography pertaining to different approaches to history. Empiricism, the Marxist School of historiography and Post-Structuralism.

2.2.1. Empiricism

Empiricism was the main feature characterizing the traditional paradigm of history writing associated with “Rankian history”1 mostly prevailing in the 19th c. Then, history was viewed as “an objectivised empiricist enterprise” for the end of objectivity (Munslow, 1997, p. 2) and historical writing, a positivist research process targeting objectivity. It follows that the historian has empiricist assumptions and writes about the facts as they really happened in their chronicle. Empiricism had some inadequacy associated, which gave way to another method: reconstruction.

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1 “Rankian history”: the writing of history as a science advocated by the German Leopold Von Ranke (1795-1886).
2.2.2. Reconstruction

The empiricist scientific method pertaining was inherited by Reconstructionists\(^2\) who believe that the reconstruction of history can be realized through objective methodology that requires conformity to commitment to accuracy and truthfulness on the part of the historian to reconstruct the past as it really happened. Reconstruction adopts major principles as a framework of “commitment to an evidence-based methodology” (Munslow, 1997, p. 36), these are: The past is real, facts are discovered in evidence and precede interpretation and truth is not “perspectival”.

2.2.3. Marxist historiography

It is a school of historiography influenced by Marxism\(^3\). Its basic concepts are the centrality of social class and economic factors in creating social change. Marxist historians believe that history is one of class struggle, a struggle between the owners of the means of production and the workers. Marxist historiography contributed to the methodologies of the history from below that is concerned with the history of the working class and the oppressed nationalities so as to bring those groups by history to self-consciousness\(^4\). This school of thought posed a main problematic, as whether history is subject to economic determinism\(^5\) or dialectical materialism\(^6\).

2.2.4. Post-structuralism

In 1960’s, there was a linguistic turn that provided a postmodern\(^7\) intellectual climate affecting historical representation. Deconstructionism pertained to another related style of historiography, post-structuralism, pioneered by White (1974) in the framework of a post-structuralist challenge to the traditional assumptions. He made a shift of focus from certainties of historical truth to a focus on the historical text through the analysis of rhetorical elements such as style, genre and narrative

\(^2\) Reconstructionists are mainstream reconstructionalist philosophers of history (as C. Behan McCullagh) claim the objective reconstruction of the past through accuracy of observation as a way to historical truth (Munslow, 1998).

\(^3\) “Marxism is a political philosophy, economic and sociological worldview based upon a materialist interpretation of history; a Marxist analysis of capitalism derived from Marx and Engels.” (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Karl-Marx).

\(^4\) Group: History: On learning from and Writing history, “The different Schools of Historiography” May 31, 2009

\(^5\) Economic determinism is “the theory that all human acts are ultimately determined by economic forces” Dialectical materialism is “the philosophical theory outlined by Karl Marx which holds that only matter exists, social institutions must be explained in material terms” Longman Dictionary of the English Language, p 397.

\(^6\) Economic determinism is “the theory that all human acts are ultimately determined by economic forces” Dialectical materialism is “the philosophical theory outlined by Karl Marx which holds that only matter exists, social institutions must be explained in material terms” Longman Dictionary of the English Language, p 397.

\(^7\) Postmodern refers to the trend of Postmodernism which is “a description of the various critiques of, and reactions against, the Enlightenment and its cultural product modernism” (Munslow, 1998:187, emphasis in the original).
structure. The substance of rhetoric in historical analysis is best found in the works of White (1978, 87) and Jenkins (1991) who have challenged the belief that historians can be objective and focused on their inevitable involvement through the conscious use of language.

2.3. White's key concepts

White (1978, 87) stresses the inevitability of the historian's viewpoint in the interpretation of past events, which questions the extent to which the past is truthfully represented. He assumes that history is narrative.

2.3.1. Narrativity

White (1987, p. 3) claims that history cannot be “claimed the status of a pure science” as it depends on analytic methods that cannot be evaluated by scientific standards (White, 1987, p. 1). History is not a mere recording of an onward followed itinerary but involves the historian's voice manifested in a rhetorical style: "Narrative is a meta-code. A chronicle, however, is not a narrative". The following figure presents White's conceptualization of history as narrative.

![History as narrative diagram](image)

Figure 1: History as 'Narrative'

According to the figure above, White claims that history pertains to a historical discourse that is multilayered as “it bears a wide variety of interpretations of its meaning” (White, 1987, p. 42). It serves as a vehicle that transmits information about the past, which gives way to a wide variety of interpretations bearing the perspectives of their writers. These interpretations include facts explained in individual rhetorical styles pertaining to a range of forms. This latter gives way to the same content that entails the truth value about the extrinsic referent: the event in the past.

2.3.1. “Emplotment”/Causality

Causality is what White (1978) calls “Emplotment” to refer to the historian's conceptualization of the structure s/he gives to the sequencing of events.
“Emplotment” is “the encodation of the facts contained in the chronicle.” (White, 1978, p. 8). Such concept reveals that history is about the relationship between events as conceived by the historian. These events can be emplotted differently through narrative means of “encodation”; for this, the nature of the relationships between the events is not intrinsic. White assumes that “every narrative discourse consists of a complex set of codes the interweaving of which by the author, attests to his talents as an artist” (White, 1987, p. 41). Accordingly, the historical text is a linguistic construct that is open to different readings which are subject to subjectivity and manipulation. Behind a plot structure, lays a pattern reflecting the dynamics of causality in history.

2.3.2. Ideology

Ideology refers to the ideas determining the degree of thoughts and awareness of an individual or a group. Munslow (1997, p. 184) defines ideology as a “coherent set of socially produced ideas that lend or create a group consciousness”. Ideology in historical narrative is disassociated in the dynamics of the discourse the former conveys. White (1987, p. ix) believes that “narrative is not merely a neutral discursive form...but rather entails ontological and epistemic choices with distinct ideological and even specifically political implications”. Accordingly, ideology is a mind style that constructs the historian’s perception of history as well as the world. This style is manifested in the interpretation of the past in the light of an agenda detected through the strategic and emotive use of language; thus, the historical narrative is a construct in which the historian engrains his personal ideological orientations. In this respect, Fairclough (1989, p. 85) assumes that “ideology is most affective when its workings are less visible”. Ideology makes the historical discourse deviational from the path of objectivity.

2.3.3. Goal-orientation

White maintains that history “is always written for a specific (manifest or latent) purpose” (White, 1978, p. 55) Accordingly, historical writing is directed to target readers notably a ruling class to legitimate its ideological presuppositions and discursive practices. In the same vein, Strauss believes that history writing is not innocent but serves others’ aims. “History is never simply history, but always "history for", history written in the interest of some infra-scientific aim or vision” (Lévi-Strauss, 1966, p. 257). Jenkins (1991, p. 19) to confirm:

History is basically a contested discourse, an embattled terrain wherein people(s), classes and groups autobiographically construct interpretations of the past literally to please themselves. There is no definitive history outside these pressures, any (temporary) consensus only being reached when dominant voices can silence others either by overt power or covert incorporation. It could be claimed that, goal orientation leads one to cast doubt upon the ‘innocence’ of the historian’s goal. The provision of a plot structure, the rhetorical styles applied, the recourse to the fictive element and the selected genre as well as its intended effect on the readers, together, help the historian orient his/her goals towards the direction s/he purposefully envisaged: the past is controversially read to serve different goals.
Thus, history (facts), ideology (serving interests) and method (data selection and interpretation) led Jenkins to view that “history is composed of epistemology, methodology and ideology, history is theory and theory is ideological and ideology just is material interests” and to conceive of history as an isosceles triangle (Jenkins, 1991, p. 19). The following figure presents Jenkins’ conception of history:

![Epistemology](Epistemology) ![Methodology](Methodology) ![Ideology](Ideology)

**Figure 2: History as an isosceles triangle**

### 2.4. McCullagh’s key concepts

McCullagh’s contribution (1998) came as a reply to the claims postulated in the postmodern writing. He believes in the existence of accuracy in history and claims that descriptions of the past can be independent of the historian’s view.

#### 2.4.1. The Truth of History

McCullagh (1998, 306) believes that history can pertain to a true and objective account of the past; therefore, it limits the doubt cast on the significance of what historians write. He claims that our language and culture inescapably shape the way we perceive the world and our knowledge of it. The truth of history can be inferred from historical descriptions and interpretations although they are subjective. He contends that there should be no need to the strong division of opinion between scholars approaching the past since they are aware of their focuses. “Historians are generally aware of the rationality of their procedures, of their critical evaluation of evidence, so they are naturally convinced that on many occasions they have uncovered something true of the past” (McCullagh, 1998, p.3). In the same vein, Appleby and Jacob (1994, p. 7) assume that truth in history is possible despite the subjectivity in historical interpretations. They envision that “truths and the past are possible, even if they are not absolute, and hence are worth struggling for”.

#### 2.4.2. Historical Interpretations

McCullagh assumes the existence of many historical interpretations to the same event claiming that interpretation in history is not a deviation from the path of truth and fairness as far as there are “common forms of interpretation in history” (McCullagh, 1998, p. 6). In this sense, generalization can be helpful for historians if they take into consideration the existence of truth conditions for general descriptions of the past. He views that the variety of historical interpretations does not hinder academics from presenting a true and objective account of the past relying on studied facts. This assertion comes in the framework of a reply to the attack upon the truth and objectivity of history by postmodernists who have been skeptical about the truth in
history writings. McCullagh responds to these challenges assuming that, although truth is difficult to attain, it is worth struggling for and that historical interpretations do not exclude the possibility of their accuracy. “I agree that historical interpretations are, to a large extent, subjective, but I will argue that nevertheless they can be true, fair and moderately comprehensive” (McCullagh, 1998, p. 3).

2.4.3. Causal explanations

McCullagh assumes that history is largely about human actions which are explained in terms of the reasons for which they were done. Historians not only refer to interpretation or description but also explanation in accounting for the past. These explanations are causal. “They tell a story of how an event came about; beginning with the cause which first increased the probability of the effect significantly” (McCullagh, 1998, p. 173). Accordingly, actions can be reasons as explanation displays a “rational” connection between reasons and action. Such “causal connection” is necessary for a satisfactory explanation of events, which leads to another related concept: effect. Causes bring about their effects because the concept of a cause includes an effect brought about. Although causes are not only contingently necessary for their effects, they contribute to making them very probable. In this context, the relationship of causality is inferred from between the participants and the action that pertains to the investigation of agentivity. Causality is conveyed by two process types: The material and the relational as “the main types of process in the English transitivity system” (Halliday, 2004, p. 171).

2.4.4. Objectivity

McCullagh recognizes that the subjectivity of historians belonging to different cultures is inescapable as their perceptions are “couched” in the concepts of their culture, which leads historians to account for the past differently. “There is no doubt that the interpretations which historians provide often reflect the interests and values held by themselves, their social group, or their nation”. However, “history can be objective so long as it is about universal values” McCullagh (1998, p. 129). So, historians are required to eliminate their personal values and interpret events with regard to a set of universally accepted values to establish objective history and ultimately defend historical credibility. MacCullah demonstrates the weakness of postmodernists’ assumptions claiming that such subjectively-conceived descriptions of the past cannot be objective. Instead, he emphasizes the possibility of writing objective history through opting for objective interpretations and descriptions of the human past in spite of cultural diversities. To sum up, White’s emphasis on the return to the historical text presented a challenge to prevailing assumptions in history representation. McCullagh’s concepts hold firm to the basis of historical credibility. These concepts pertain to a framework of qualitative toolkit applied to study the corpus through a set of analytic angles.

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8 Agentivity is a key notion in ‘Functional Grammar’ by Halliday (2004). It deals with finiteness and accounts for the involvement or the responsibility of the subject in the process of the action.
3. Methodology
This part presents the theoretical framework applied to conduct the research. This section specifies the selection criteria, the research paradigm, the analytic methods, the research framework and the instruments.

3.1. Selection criteria
This study investigates the problems of representation in history through a setting which can be considered appropriate for this paper: three accounts approaching the causes of the ACW through three angles. The following section is devoted to the clarification of the selection criteria behind the choice of the corpus.

3.2. Assumptions detection
The Number of accounts is determined in terms of feasibility for the focus and the research objectives stated beforehand. The versions presented by the corpus call for investigation the three versions in an attempt to uncover the underlying assumptions, the biases, the propagated ideologies and the oriented goals of the scholars through rethinking history. Therefore, detecting ideologies is a significant process towards unveiling whose interests are served and whose are damaged when history is written from these very angles. This dissertation attempts to uncover historians’ reflections on historiography, they consecrate declared versions of the past that they intend to propagate.

3.3. Finding comprehensiveness
This corpus presents a fertile ground which exemplifies how historiographical controversies can be a fruitful debate in rethinking history through displaying the scholars’ worldviews. Therefore, the fourth criterion is to build a comprehensive view as a synthesis between the three angles to the causes of the ACW which the three analytic angles have offered. This synthesis is intended to demonstrate the narrow scope of the conventional historical knowledge prevailing in academic history and which claims that the abolition of slavery was the main and the only cause behind the war. The next subsection tackles the analytic tools used to conduct a critical analysis of the corpus.

3.4. Analytic Methods
This part deals with the analytical methods used to structure the current writing and reach its findings through a critical analysis of the corpus. Both the qualitative and the quantitative research methods will be opted for, through the application of tools to address the current research questions which develop and find their respective answers as the research proceeds.

3.4.1. Qualitative research paradigm
According to Tuckman (1988), the focus of qualitative research is not only to describe but also to analyze so as to provide answers to the ‘why’ not just the ‘what’ questions. Such orientation meets the requirements of the study that cuts across different perspectives to interpret the controversies resulting from divergent views about history.

Using qualitative tools has helped to demonstrate how scholars approach history opting for their own ways of talking about reality. Qualitative research helps to
uncover the deeply-monitored ideological complexities and the refined concepts embedded in linguistic tools to enforce the historical discourse and its propagation. In this framework, Holliday (2002, p. 15) points out that "qualitative research must recognize the ideology which is embedded in its own discourse, method and theories". Detecting ideology in historiography requires the application of a framework of qualitative tools to interpret the corpus at hand. This is going to be dealt with in the following subsection.

3.4.1.1. The Research framework
The section outlines the framework applied to investigate the three sub-corpora as three lines of research in the current research. The framework comprises two major elements: Analytic angles and linguistic tools. These are the key concepts of White (1978, 87) and MacCullah (1998) and the linguistic tools whose realizations in the account correspond to those angles. The tools will be applied to study the three texts under analysis. The framework will be applied to study the viewpoints of scholars engrained in the three texts. These analytic and linguistic tools of historiography are going to be dealt with in the following two subsections.

3.4.1.2. Analytic Angles
The framework applied to current study entails two diametrically opposed views. These pertain to analytic angles as a framework of arguments that will be applied to the study of the corpus because they are representative to this work’s focus. Linguistic tools are basic devices whose analysis can yield crops at the level of interpretation. For this, the focus will be limited to three major linguistic tools: Lexical terms, modality and causality. The light is shed on such devices as they are relevant to the scope of this study that investigates controversies resulting from different viewpoints. The following table presents a synthesis of the qualitative toolkit applied to the study of the corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualitative toolkit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>White’s Checklist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Point of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bias</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table one: Qualitative toolkit**

These tools pertain to the angles from which the scholars perceived the object of study. The findings attained by the quantitative research are going to be interpreted through the qualitative research in the text analysis of the accounts.
3.4.1.4. Text analysis
Text analysis figures to highlight what linguistic choices have been made in the three texts. It is carried out through the application of the analytic concepts and tools to interpret the accounts at hand. Text analysis puts to the surface the outlooks of historians towards the causes of the ACW. Equally important, text analysis pertains to the interpretation of the frequency of the most recurrent categories and their main implications, in each text. The findings attained would help to unearth the position, the tacit ideology and the goal orientation of the historians that they embed in the text. The quantitative research paradigm is going to be explored in the following subsection.

3.4.2. The Quantitative Research Paradigm
Quantitative research methodology is not restricted to pure and physical sciences but it can be adopted by social sciences, namely history. “The quantitative framework of research is necessarily grounded in positivistic epistemology where social reality is seen as hardly distinct from natural reality inasmuch as both realities are rule-governed” (Maalej, 2010, p. 3). This research paradigm explores numerical data through the application of technical tools to interpret the linguistic tools through the frequency of their occurrence.

3.4.2.1. Research instruments
Quantitative linguistics that analyses textual data quantitatively in order to attain findings that answer this paper’s questions. The quantitative instruments selected to conduct the investigation are sampling techniques, electronic texts, search categories, frequency distribution and statistics. This is carried out through the use of the computer.

3.4.2.1.1. Sampling techniques
To fulfill a quantitative analysis of the corpus at hand, the ‘Random Sampling’ is adopted as a convenient technique to conduct this study. The quantitative analysis is going to be carried out over the first ten pages of each account for the sake of consistency and ease of performance. The quantification of the frequency of the most recurrent elements pertains to the focus of this research. It is important to mention, here, that since C1 comprises ten pages, so, the quantification will be on the whole text.

3.4.2.1.2. Search categories
The instrument will be applied to the textual processing of the corpus through conducting a quantitative analysis of the main linguistic units. This will be carried out through the search for the most recurrent categories in the three texts under investigation. These categories, namely nouns, adjectives, verb phrases, adverbs and conjunctions are linguistic terms having lexical and grammatical implications. For the sake of consistency, I will limit myself to at most five items in each category. The analysis of the recurrence of these categories can result into the detection of the overt/covert point of view and the goal orientation encapsulated in C1, C2 and C3 respectively.

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9 “Quantitative linguistics is concerned with the application of statistical analysis to the study of language.” (Triki & Sellami-Baklouti, 2002, p. 37)
3.4.2.1.3. Frequency distribution

For the sake of valuating data, I resorted a simple software program: ‘Microsoft Office Word 2007 Search’ to work on C2 and C3, and ‘Adobe Reader Search’ to work on C1 as it is a ‘PDF’ text. I got access to these programs from the computer program ‘Microsoft Office Word 2007’. These programs search for the frequency of occurrence of the most recurrent categories as nouns, adjectives, verbs and modals. This program will be used because of its feasibility, ease of use and application. To search for metaphors and passive structures, recourse will be made to manual count to fulfill the frequency count of these linguistic tools.

4. Corpus analysis and Findings

This part deals with the analysis of the corpus: the official/political account, the economic/Marxist account and the geographic/Southern account. To carry out analysis, light will be shed on the frequency of the most recurrent linguistic tools: Lexical tools, causality and modality.

4.1. Lexical tools

In the study of lexical tools, the focus has been on the analytic angle: Involvement. The qualitative and the quantitative analyses conducted on lexical tools have led to the following findings. Involvement implies taking part or presence in the wording of the texts manifested in their lexical choices from which indices can be inferred.

In C1, shedding light on adjectives, the author opt for more ‘attributive’ than ‘predicative’ adjectives as in “[A]n important stimulus to the country’s prosperity was the great improvement in transportation facilities”, “Garrison’s sensational methods” (C1, p. 131-133, emphasis added). The adjectives written in bold in the first sentence are, at the surface level of the text, descriptive; but at the underlying structure, they are used for evaluative purposes. This unveils the author’s focus on what is given and not what is new, which reflects his tendency for implicitness in description. This triggers out the finding that the whole involvement of the author is not spontaneous but strategic.

Regarding C2, the involvement of the author in the account is overt through lexis that reveals the author’s assumptions of the subject in focus. In this respect, the adjectives “economic” and “competitive” reveal the theoretical tendency of Marxism adopted by the author to express his strong claim about the “definite reasons why the Civil War came” (C2, p. 216). Such tendency reaffirms the predominant economic feature of approaching the causes of the ACW in this account. Such lexical choices lead to the finding that the Marxist thinking that author adheres to, is engrained in this account. This finding pertains to an involvement on the author’s part hidden behind an apparently clear detachment.

In terms of C3, the authors’ involvement is declared from the recourse to attributive and predicative adjectives as “abiding” and “right” in their recognition that they have “an abiding faith that the South was right” (C3, p. vii)). In the same framework, the frequency of adjectives (32/22) reveals that ‘communist’ and ‘Southern’, two diametrically opposed adjectives make up a dichotomy pertaining to the bone of contention in this account.). The adjective ‘communist’ is associated with union, while ‘Southern’ refers to independence. These attributive adjectives make explicit the authors’ tendency for a strategic blend of describing and evaluating.
To wrap up, the frequency of the lexical term ‘slavery’ gives much evidence to the claim that the racial question figures a central issue in the corpus. However, the way slavery has been framed and the features selected by each scholar reveal the perspective from which that entity has been perceived.

4.2. Modality
Modality concerns “the extent to which producers commit themselves to, or conversely distance themselves from, propositions” (Fairclough, 1992, p. 42). The focus on epistemic modality to determine the degree of the authors’ commitment to truth through the study of “the linguistic phenomenon whereby grammar allows one to say things about” (Portner, 2009, p. 1). Brinton and Brinton (2010, p. 167) define epistemic meaning as “a matter of belief such as potentiality, possibility, probability, prediction or certainty”, it “relates to the entire proposition”. The following table presents the frequency of modal auxiliaries in C1, C2 and C3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Account</th>
<th>Angle</th>
<th>Realization</th>
<th>Instances</th>
<th>Occurrence in the text</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Modality</td>
<td>Modals auxiliaries</td>
<td>-Would, Could, Should, Will, Cannot</td>
<td>12, 8 6, 5, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>Modality</td>
<td>Modal auxiliaries</td>
<td>-Would, Should, Could, Must, Had to</td>
<td>5, 6 6, 3, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>Modality</td>
<td>Modal auxiliaries</td>
<td>-would, did, could, “should”, “will”</td>
<td>13, 8, 6 4, 4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: The frequency of modal auxiliaries in C1, C2 and C3.

The use of modals in C1 has pertained to different epistemic meanings conveyed by ‘would’ and ‘could’ that express degrees of probability and possibility to display the author’s hedging and non-commitment to the truth conditions of the propositions. The author wants to convince the reader of his /her distancing from the text and movement towards the virtual more than the real through the frequent use of ‘would’ and ‘could’ (Frequency: 12 and 8). In the following examples, “the economic interests that would undergird the political alliance of the union” (C1, p. 131), and “In other settings, however, it could be milder” (C1, p. 133) the epistemic meaning is conveyed by the whole proposition to display transparency and neutrality through his/her non-committal attitude.

Regarding epistemic modality in C2, it is expressed through the use of the auxiliaries ‘would’ and ‘could’ to convey probability and possibility. These meanings entail the author’s belief about the truth of the proposition to which s/he does not commit himself for the sake of a pretended detachment. This is expressed at the level of the entire sentence to convey ‘sentential modality’10 as in “Otherwise wage labor would be cheaper” and “such societies could be found in every state in the Union”. (C2, p223). Equally important, the author’s use of ‘should’ pertains to the meaning of logical

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10. “Sentential modality is the expression of modal meaning at the level of the entire sentence. It is expressed, among other things, by modal auxiliaries and sentence adverbs” (The Journal of Linguistics, Vol 46, p255, 2010). ‘Sentential modality’ is a notion adapted from Portner, (2009), Modality (Oxford Surveys in Semantics and Pragmatics).
deduction that does not reflect a categorical tone as in “[T]his fact should be ample proof that the Civil War was not caused by a fervent love for the abstract idea of union.

As regards C3, epistemic meanings are conveyed by the authors’ reference to the conditional pertaining to hypotheses through the use of ‘would’ which gives way to a hybrid of probability and impossibility that reflect a detachment through hedging. Probability pertaining to the weak involvement of the authors figures in the following example: “Why would any large slaveholder trade this security for a war that if lost would lose him all of his property? (C3, p. 30). However, the following example results in a different finding: “that war would doubtless determine the future of America” (C3, p.10). The author’s hedging is exposed through the use of the adjective: their attitude is uncovered committal. The ‘emphatic do’, however, is used in the framework of the gradable involvement of the authors through expressing their views towards Lincoln. “Although not a socialist or Marxist himself, he (Lincoln) did possess a willingness to do whatever it took to consolidate his power” (C3, p. x). The following quotes entail assertion regarding slavery: “Yes, slavery did have a great influence” (C3, p. 29). Grammatically, the emphatic ‘do’ expresses a high degree of certitude to convey “Factive modality” as “a means of expressing epistemic certitude through assumptions” (Triki & Sellemi-Baklouti, 2002, p. 132).

Briefly, the investigation of the epistemic meanings has shown that the three authors hide bias and display detachment through hedging manifested in the use of modals. What about causality patterns?

4.3. Causality

The notion of causality carries out a view of how history works. Causality defined as “the relation between a cause and its effect”, differently-conceived in the views of White (1978) as “emplotment” and McCullagh (1998) as “causal explanations”, has been checked against in the corpus through the investigation of transitivity patterns and linkers. The table below presents the most frequent signs of causality in C1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corpus</th>
<th>Angle</th>
<th>Realization</th>
<th>Instances</th>
<th>Frequency of occurrence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>Causality</td>
<td>1. Transitivity patterns</td>
<td>Threatened to create</td>
<td>144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Causality</td>
<td>- Relational causative Verbs</td>
<td>- Cultivated</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C2</td>
<td>Causality</td>
<td>1. Transitivity patterns</td>
<td>- began to move</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Causality</td>
<td>- Causative verbs: the material process.</td>
<td>- was</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C3</td>
<td>Causality</td>
<td>1. Transitivity patterns</td>
<td>- seceded to protect</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Causality</td>
<td>- Causative dynamic verbs</td>
<td>-were</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Causality</td>
<td>- Copular verbs</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11 Longman dictionary of the English Language, p. 230
Table three: Causality in C1, C2 and C3

The analysis of transitivity patterns has pertained to the following findings. Transitivity patterns involve verbs and adverbs that describe who is involved in the action and how, with a focus on the actor, and the patient as key notions of material and relational process types. The material process is one of “doing-and-happening”; the relational process is a process of “being and having” (Halliday, 2004, 179). The analysis of this typology has helped to uncover the strategy of the authors’ convictions as to how history works regarding causality.

In C1, process types pertained to findings about causality and agentivity manifested in the use of causative transitive verbs. The predominant process types are the material and the relational; this shows that there is an exertion of action of one entity on the other through manipulating agentivity as revealed in 86 cases. This is carried out in tandem with the author’s assumptions concerning causality. In “abolitionists crusaded against slavery in the states” (C1, p. 134), abolitionists is the agent that exerts the crusade on ‘slavery’ that is the patient; hence, agentivity is highlighted to glamorize the image of what is associated with the North, the abolitionists and to demonize all that is attributed to the South, hence, slavery.

This strategy of agentivity manipulation has been equally detected from the alignment of the author with the North against the South through agentivity assigned to the belligerent entities. As far as the relational process is concerned, there are 144 relational causative verbs that convey causality and agentivity between the major entities in the text: the North, the South and slavery abolition. Such relationship entails an agent (the North) and a patient (the South); it answers the question “Who does what to whom?” The verb “established” in “these links established the economic interests” (C1, p. 131) pertains to the relational causative process highlighting a relationship of causality between “links” and “interests”.

Regarding C2, causality deconstructs the author’s worldview about the driving force in history through the investigation of participants and processes. Causative verbs pertaining to the material and the relational causative processes strategically prevail in this text. A frequency of 47 causative verbs as “trespassed” and “determined”, “contain in their semantic decomposition the atomic predicate ‘CAUSE’ ” (Triki&Sellami-Baklouti, 2002, p. 97). Verbs resulting in the materialist process entail the exertion of an action over a patient. This can be illustrated in “interests began to move in opposite directions” (C1, p. 216), whereby agentivity is assigned to interests. The verb ‘move’ unveils the discursive strategy of the author whose lexical choice reflects knowledge of the syntactic and the semantic properties of the verbs. Considering that “Sectional antagonism has always existed in the United States, and has many times led to threats of secession” (C1, p. 216) suggests the encapsulation of the logic of action exertion by the agent (antagonism). This example uncovers the author’s assumptions as to the driving force of history: struggle in social change.

In the same context, there is a high frequency of copular verbs (41 and 21) that refer to the relational process. The verbs describe states but more significantly, the relationship between entities as in “slavery was not a political issue” (C2, p. 217).
Such instance unveils the author’s economic perspective from which he perceives slavery.

As regards C3, causative dynamic verbs reflect the recourse to the material process to account for the cause of the war. This typology has resulted in framing action exertion and agentivity to fit in the pattern of causality assumed by the authors. This pattern stresses the geographic consideration: secession for Southern independence that was postulated and defended throughout the account through refuting the cause that “the South fought to promote the cause of slavery in America” (C3, p. 27) propagated by Lincoln and Marx. In this proposition, “the cause of slavery in America” is presented as the beneficiary; however, in “Southern colonial legislative bodies were petitioning the king to end the African slave trade” (C3, p. 29), “the African slave trade” figures as a patient. The manipulation of participants is strategically intended to express the authors’ logic about causality that highlights their denial of Lincoln and Marx’s claims. As for the relational process, the frequency of copular verbs (frequency: 64 and 35) reflects an option for the relational process that figures in the verb ‘to be’ in the past (was and were). The authors strategically opt for these forms to consecrate their bias when they maintain that “the history of slavery in the United States demonstrates that the South was the leader in every effort of ending slavery” (C3, p. 28). The South is upgraded when characterized as the leader in ending slavery. Such claim expresses the internal mechanisms of the logic of causality that the authors hide.

In terms of passive structures, different findings have been attained. In C1, this pattern is adopted to focus on the action not the doer. In C2, the author tends for explicitness through highlighting both the action and the participants. In C3, however, a hybrid of strategies has been resorted to; the authors purposefully mention the participants to highlight agentivity. This is checked against through the instances taken from the three accounts respectively.

5. Discussion

The section discusses the main findings attained that would confirm or disconfirm the research claims. What follow is interpretation of the outlooks of authors by reference to sources, methods and key concepts so as to highlight their vantage points.

5.1. Sources

As already mentioned in the literature review, ‘sources’ present a main origin of controversies. The three accounts display reliance on primary and secondary sources. In C1, the author refers to primary and secondary sources to apprehend reality: Uncle Tom’s Bin (1859) and Democracy in America (1835). These works depict the suffrage of slaves and the cruelty of owners (C1, p. 137) fit into the author’s conception of the cause of the ACW. The second source, which marvels the democracy of the country, consecrates a well-painted picture of the United States claimed to be the land of freedom. These sources hold their owners’ views that the author draws upon, which makes the selection of such materials calculated and ideological as it unmasks the author’s empowerment of the political stance that s/he defends.

C2 comes in the same framework of serving the economic agenda of the ruling class. Such pattern of dominance is carried out through the withholding of source materials. Primary sources as The poor Whites of the South (1856), Historical Sketch of Slavery (1858), The lost Cause (1860) and Southern Wealth and Northern Profits (1860)
highlight the economic differences between the sections. Accordingly, the selection of materials unveils the emotive choice that fits into the author’s Marxist argument. Contrary to C1 and C2, C3 accounts for the past through reference to primary sources: The U.S. Constitution, The Declaration of Independence and The Emancipation Proclamation. These historical landmarks are referred to in order to refute the Northern cause: the abolition of slavery, and defend theirs: the war for Southern independence. Opting for this undeniable and unfiltered ground (landmarks), fits the authors’ arguments and reveals their intentional strategy of stance-empowerment. Constitutional documents are devised to give much credit to their positions of enhancing a collective view of the South. Nevertheless, resorting to primary sources is not devoid of bias as far as it is subject to conscious choice and arbitrariness. If sources choice is loaded, how can methods lead to divergent readings of history?

5.2. Methods
The analysis of the corpus has revealed the authors’ option for different methods to conduct their arguments and validate their accounts. These methods differ in data collection, data selection and data evaluation. In the political and economic accounts, reality is apprehended in an attempt to ‘construct’ the past. The authors do not ‘discover’ but ‘impose’ relationships between events. There is a tendency to apply the method of reconstruction adopted by the Marxist School of Historiography. This method requires narrating past events chronologically as it is the case of C1 and C2 where events are presented in a chronicle. However, this method’s use has pertained not to objectivity but to involvement and bias.

On a different ground, in C3, there is a different methodological approach that matches the authors’ world views. Deconstruction of the past is the method adopted by the authors in order to be reconstructed in the light of the authors’ conceptualizations of the world that determines their views of history. The authors defend the Southern perspective through postulating independence as the real cause behind the war.

In the three texts, the textual representations reflecting shifting emphases in apprehending reality. The methodological differences have led to a limited agreement as to the cause of the ACW. The aim behind these methods is to make historical knowledge corresponds to the realities being studied. This does not relate to sources and methods exclusively but extends to point of view, ideology and goal orientation.

5.3. Point of view
The linguistic analysis of the corpus has led to the result that the three perspectives hold their authors’ points of view. Regarding C1, the author consecrates the official view as this account is written by the Bureau of International Information Programs, U.S. Department of State. The author is involved in the chronicle through the choice of source materials. Jenkins (1991, p. 12) envisions that the viewpoint of the historian determines his/her writing: “The past that we ‘know’ is always contingent upon our own views”. This confirms White’s claim about the inevitability of the historian’s view in the historical discourse. The economic perspective is designed to develop a Marxist approach to history. His
against-slavery position reflects his presuppositions about economic determinism, which is, in reality, the stand of the Marxist school of thought embraced by the author. He intends to make of the historical facts he processes, common knowledge.

In C3, a different point of view is put to the surface. From the very beginning of the text, the authors declared “Indeed the South was right!” (C3, p. vii). This alignment with the South is explicit over the whole text, which shows that they have a thesis to defend (the war for independence) and another to subvert (the war for the perpetuation and the extension of slavery). Accordingly, the authors mediate the past into history imposing their points of view. Thus, the historian’s point of view reflects no neutral ground for history knowledge but constructed versions of the past. So what about interpretation?

5.4. Interpretation

‘Facts’ versus ‘interpretation’ form the bone of contention in historiography. Facts form only a part of the historical narrative, while interpretation is what historians transform of events to patterns of meaning through accounting for what, why and how events happened. Interpretation is inevitable because “it is never really a matter of the facts per se but the weight, position, combination and significance they carry vis-à-vis each other in the construction of explanations that is at issue.” (Jenkins, 1991, p. 33). The authors are concerned with relativizing past events to their claims. As far as the official perspective is concerned (C1), the author’s political assumptions of the union are covertly encapsulated in the interpretation of the events to direct the reader to the constructed claims defended in the account. The same findings apply to C2 where the assumptions about economic determinism in social change and class struggle are consecrated in the interpretation of the cause of the ACW. Similarly, the Southern perspective falls within the same framework of involvement in interpretation. The authors’ held positions against ‘Red Republicans and Lincoln’s Marxists’ led the authors to interpret the past differently in favor of their claims for independence.

In sum, the different accounts do not present objective but biased interpretations of the past. This gives weight to White’s concept of the inevitability of the historian’s involvement in the interpretation of evidence. This leads to discuss the power of ideology in history.

5.5. Ideology

The scholars’ outlooks have ideological orientations that have been unearthed through investigation.

Concerning C1, as the position of the author presents the official stance, there is an ideological legitimization of the political claim of the abolition of slavery in order to preserve the federal union. Foley (2007, p. 482) affirms that the federal government served as a national community used “to support the idea of national growth and the central development of a continental economy”. Thus, stressing the economic sectionalism between the North and the South pertains to the claim that political and economic causes seem to be dissolving into one another. This fusion accounts for the state’s underlying agenda behind waging the war on the South.
Politically, “the ideology of union” is a foreground hiding the “subjugation” of the South and the denial of its claims to independence as “Lincoln never recognized the constitutionality of secession” (Tulloch, 1999, p. 104). Economically, the expansion of capitalist interests in the South stresses the economic bonds between the two sections, for this, the abolition of slavery fits into the interests of capitalism and union. Zinn (1965, p. 445) argued “it was not the antihuman, immoral aspect of the institution which brought all the weight of national power against it; it was the anti-tariff, anti-bank, anti-capitalist, antinational aspect of slavery which aroused the united opposition of the only groups in the country with power to make war.”

Although the most important reason of the war was slavery, the consequence of the war was the remaining of slavery because of some white Southerners’ refusal to emancipate blacks for the former’s economic interests. “After four years of vicious and dispiriting war over the preservation of the union and the abolition of slavery, the great majority of the white people of the US spent the next half century forgetting and denying the war’s most important outcome” (Blight, 2001, p. 15) It is for this reason that Blight named the abolition of slavery, “the Lost Cause”. Accordingly, this claim is no more than a propaganda to legitimate the government’s discursive practices for preserving its capitalist interests. This partly political, partly economic argument confirms what Jenkins (1991, p. 17) envisions: “History is an ideological construct”.

In C2, the mismatch between capitalism and slavery unveils the ideological claim for its abolition and accounts for the dismissal of the economic dimension to the idea of union. The author’s ideological presuppositions are overt from the very beginning of the account: “There are definite reasons why the Civil War came at the exact time it did” (C2, p. 216, emphasis added). The term “definite” reflects the Marxist ideology and a purely economic perspective. The frequency of the term “chattel slavery” conveys the author’s criticism from an economic perspective as well as a cultural one. Slavery is as much as an inherited culture as the cornerstone of economy; in that, the abolition of slavery (as a culture) in the South cost the Civil War. This confirms the difficulties of the eradication of cultural issues notably slavery. “By examining Simons’ historical writing, one can see that his history is much more than a Marxist curiosity. His history was shaped both by experience and ideology, and it was intended to be a cultural critique as well as an economic one”\(^\text{12}\).

These findings pertain to the same ideological constructions veiled by C1. Taking into consideration that C2 was written in 1911 and C1 in 2005, there is continuity in timeline between the two accounts in terms of ideological orientations based on economic assumptions in both accounts. C1 postulates political claims hiding economic ones as slavery does not serve the interests of a developing capitalist system.

In a different vein, in C3, the authors claim for the Southern independence as the real cause behind the war. They deny responsibility to the South in terms of the perpetuation of slavery, giving evidence from history that “no one suggested at the signing of the Declaration of Independence that all slaves have to be freed. Every delegate who signed the Declaration of Independence represented a slaveholding colony” (Kennedy and Benson, 2007, p. 4). This argument refutes, according to C3, the

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\(^{12}\) P 65 of Journal of American Studies, Vol2, N1, April 1968.
Northern claim for slavery abolition. Importantly, the South’s feeling of separateness led Southerners to consider the Civil War, a “fighting for the concept of a small government” to form the Confederacy as conformity to what is stated in the Declaration of Independence. Brock (1973, p. 187) maintains “Secession was the southern version of romantic revolution. Secession was and always had been a constitutional right.”

Briefly, the common thread between the three lines of research consists in articulating history academically through dominant ideological orientations to defend the authors’ theses. Even though these positions are seemingly derived from facts, the authors veil their impositions that have been detected through analysis. Remapping the past was carried out to consecrate the authors’ ideologies. What about their goal orientations?

5.6. Goal orientation

The goal orientations of the accounts answer the key questions in historiography: ‘What/who are the intended audience/readers?’, ‘Why?’ and ‘For what purpose was the account written?’, ‘Why are some versions of history dominant and others marginal?’ Jenkins (1991, p. 25) argues that historians ostensibly construct the past to bring about a history reading that serves dominant agendas of the ruling class in an attempt to legitimate their discursive practices. This is how things operate in history regarding power in its two main types: political and economic. The ideological orientations of the three authors indicate that the accounts are oriented to an intended audience.

C1 is oriented towards the common world for persuasive purposes, to evoke a view of history to influence the world’s historical knowledge, in general, and academic history, in particular. In this respect, it is important to remind the reader of a piece of information already mentioned in the methodology chapter (see section 2.1.1) about the distribution of this book ‘freely’ by the American Embassy. This may seem ‘a favor’ offered to readers all over the world. However, this version was strategically oriented to the newly-independent African countries would support the USA rather than the URSS. This version gives an illustration of the scholars’ manipulation of history to serve the interests of those in power to legitimate their practices. This led Jenkins (1992, p.17) to envision that “History is never for itself; it is always for someone”.

Taking into account the common thread between the political and the economic perspectives, C2 is oriented to “the masses of capitalist countries”13 namely the United States where capitalism was developing. Through the account, the author defends this orientation: “The attempt has been made in this work to trace the various interests that have arisen and struggled in each social stage and to determine the influence exercised by these contending interests in the creation of social institutions” (C2, p. vii). This ideology oriented to the US was a failure of Marxist goals theory in America as “it is in the United States that Marxism has been least successful.

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As yet no large, miserable, and class-conscious proletariat has developed to fulfill the Marxist predictions"\textsuperscript{14}.

As regards C3, the title of the book explicitly declares the goal behind its writing and the audience to which it is oriented: “Red Republicans and Lincoln’s Marxists” is oriented to:

- First, to the whole world to challenge what is conventionally known about the cause of the ACW: the abolition of slavery. This account attempts to postulate the real cause, from the Southern perspective, “the War for Southern Independence”.
- Second, to call for a fair reconsideration of the revolution of the Confederate States of America (hence forth CSA), as “the more libertarian option”\textsuperscript{15}.
- Third, to Marxists, through a strong denial of Lincoln’s and Marx’s claims of the secession of the South for “the extension and perpetuation of slavery” and a stress on the historical precedence of the American South in the abolition of slavery.
- Fourth, to the American Government, to remind the politicians that the Southern Independence is not a break up with but conformity to the main articles in the U.S. Constitution about equality liberty and freedom.
- Fifth, to the world view, to contribute to the revision of the ‘positive portrait’ of Abraham Lincoln worldly known as ‘the abolisher of slavery’.

To sum up, the wide implications of the geographic factor in making history, help, along with other factors, to recover the goal orientation in C3. The Southern perspective presents ‘a radical libertarian analysis’ to the causes of the war that disagrees with existing interpretations (the official and the economic versions). The analysis is envisioned to contribute to “a constructive reconsideration of the Confederate past”\textsuperscript{16}. The version presented by the South is aimed to look deep into the “relevance of that experience to contemporary issues: imperialism, colonialism” (Stromberg, 1977, p. 32). Studying the cause of the ACW, is illuminating as it leads to reconsider understanding contemporary issues as internal affairs and foreign policies, globalization and imperialism. Such reconsideration opens horizons for research and investigation.

There is a tendency to emphasize what is taken for granted and not what is new. Such finding conveys that the three authors tend to legitimate their claims, regarding causality, through recourse to a causal linker more than another. This credits the research’s claim that accounting for reality is perspectival.

**Conclusion**

\textsuperscript{14} ibid


\textsuperscript{16} (ibid)
To sum up, this paper has aimed at “the weaving of a comprehensive analysis with a variety of historical perspectives”\textsuperscript{17} makes of the controversies between historians, a fruitful approach to history so far as they bring about academic enrichment to historiography.

The findings attained call for adopting a critical attitude to the reading of history being written. In fact, to read history critically is to acquire the ability to criticize the logic behind writing the text. In this regard, the fundamental positive in this dissertation is the possibility to deal with history being written with a critical mind and a clarity of vision to help readers to recover the historian’s profile, the purpose and the routes emphasized to defend his/her claims, through a very close reading of the historical discourse. The constructions of the ACW have presented vexed questions written-about controversially. It may continue to be a subject that pours a lot of ink in the future.

“The Civil war continues to dominate American history (both in print and in the classroom) because it refreshes two powerful ideas about the United States: that the nation makes sense as an integral whole, and that it rejects the rights of everyone who lives within its borders. That these ideas are, at best, speculative and, at worst, misleading only confirms why the Civil War will continue to be the engine of American history”\textsuperscript{18}

The racial question was not the only but a main cause that if had not existed there would not be a war at all. This conclusion was reaffirmed by Gienapp (1996) who claims that without slavery it is impossible to imagine a war between the North and the South.

\textsuperscript{17} Religion and the American Civil War, 5/10/2009, The free Library
\textsuperscript{18} London Review of Books, 2 June 2005.
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The Corpus


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