

Investigating the Role of Cultural Schemata in Understanding Others' Spoken Discourse

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to answer the question which is said, "To what extent cultural gap lets most people not to understand each other's spoken discourse critically?". It is an attempt to show the importance of cultural schemata in understanding each other's spoken discourse. The researchers have adopted the qualitative method. A questionnaire and interview were used as tools for collecting data relevant to the study. The sample of this study comprised of (60) + (10) people who did not share the same cultural background and they were descended from different cultural background identities. The marks obtained from the questionnaire and interviews were compared. The results have revealed that the cultural schemata play a great role in understanding each other's spoken discourse critically. Also, the results have shown that there are highly differences among those people who descended from different cultural background identities. Therefore, more space should be given to those people to bridge the gap among themselves and others in terms of exchanging the discursive messages.

Introduction

Language pervades social life. It is the principal vehicle for the transmission of cultural knowledge, and the primary means by which we gain access to the contents of others' minds. Language is implicated in most of the phenomena that lie at the core of social psychology: attitude change, social perception, personal identity, social interaction, intergroup bias and stereotyping, attribution, and so on. Moreover, for social psychologists, language is typically the medium by which subjects' responses are elicited, and in which they respond. In social psychological research language often plays a role in both stimulus and response. Just as language use pervades social life, the elements of social life constitute an intrinsic part of the way language is used. Linguists regard language as an abstract structure that exists independently of specific instances of usage (much as the calculus is a logic-mathematical structure that is independent of its application to concrete problems), but any communicative exchange is situated in a social context that constrains the linguistic forms participants use. How these participants define the social situation, their perceptions of what others know, think and believe, and the claims they make about their own and others' identities will affect the form and content of their acts of speaking.

Listening, which should be considered as the most important skill to be improved since it is the most frequently employed skill in our daily lives, is defined as a highly complex problem-solving activity by Byrnes (1984). In the comprehension of this highly complex problem-solving activity, it has been hypothesized that background knowledge plays a crucial role. Since listening is now regarded as an active process, occurring between the listeners existing background knowledge and the listening material, it becomes essential to prepare the listeners prior to the listening activities in order to ease the comprehension. This preparation should seek the importance of cognitive faculties of students towards comprehension having used the pre-listening activities effectively to activate the students' schemata and ease their listening process.

Since the beginning of cognitive psychology in the 1970s, the focus in listening pedagogy has greatly been on the bottom-up linguistic processing rather than top down processing. As researchers began to suggest that not only language schemata and knowledge schemata are essential for enriching and facilitating comprehension, the importance of background knowledge and the significance of schemata in comprehension have been more acknowledged. Thus, the importance of activating the learners' existing background knowledge has automatically risen as well. The schemata knowledge, which has been highlighting the importance of pre-stored knowledge in language comprehension, puts forward that comprehending a text is an interactive process occurring between the learners' already stored knowledge and the text itself, either spoken or written. In such a case, the job of a language teacher is to aid students by triggering their already existing knowledge and help them employ this knowledge to comprehend the new text. Having insufficient background knowledge may lead to difficulties in understanding; thus, teachers need to help students by improving their metalinguistic knowledge as well. By doing so, the teaching of listening can turn into a more motivating, interesting and enjoyable one.

Aims and Scope of the Study

This study aims to answer "To what extent cultural gap lets most people do not understand each other's spoken discourse critically?". The scope of this study was limited to the people who did not share the same cultural background. There were different nationalities that have been exposed to this study which was conducted in Abha city at Khamees Mishait Central Market at Kingdom of Saudi Arabia where those people, who descended from different cultural background identities, were gathered together. The researcher has noticed that there were Intertextual gap among the people who descended from different cultural background identities. Therefore, this study aims to identify the problematic areas.

Literature Review

Defining Schema

Before looking at the schema theory, it is important to define what a 'schema' is (plural: schemata or schemas). It is clear in the literature that a British psychologist, Frederic Barlett (1932) coined the term 'schema' to refer to an active organisation of past experiences in his well-known book, *Remembering*. A schema can be viewed as a (hypothetical) mental patterns for representing generic concepts which are kept in memory. It can be defined as the organised background knowledge which can help us make predictions or expectations within our interpretation. As for an example, when a student is asked to tell his day in his school, s/he does not need to tell every single details, like taking a vehicle to school, attending the lessons, taking a seat, greeting his/her friends or the teacher, studying that day's topics, and so on; however, we can still fill in these missing details perfectly as our schemata for a lesson experience are already stored in our minds.

Despite the fact that the notion was introduced in the 1920s, it gained its value in the 1970s and 1980s as a result of the improvements in both cognitive psychology and also in cognitive science. The reason why Barlett's idea became popular after fifty years was that, unluckily for Barlett, it was proposed during the period when behaviourism was heavily acknowledged in psychology and the mental entities were excluded from scientific psychology.

Barlett (1932) stated that the prior knowledge and people's expectations form our remembrance and understanding, and these expectations, in our minds, are presented in some types of schematic organisation. Similarly, Rumelhart (1980) attempts to define the notion of schemata as units that all knowledge is packed in units, which he calls them 'the schemata'. He also points out that, embedded into these packs of knowledge, additionally knowledge itself, information about in what way this knowledge is to be utilised lays in these units. Adams and Collins (1979) define schemata as the previously acquired knowledge structures.

Taylor and Crocker (1981: 91) define the notion as "a cognitive structure that consists in part of the representation of some defined stimulus domain. The schema contains general knowledge about that domain, including a specification of the relationships among its attributes as well as specific examples or instances of the stimulus domain".

Alba and Hasher (1983: 129) report that schema is "general knowledge a person processes about a particular domain."

Brown and Yule (1983: 249) define the notion as an organised background knowledge which leads people to expect or predict aspects in their interpretation of discourse. They say that 'our background knowledge is organised and stored in some fixed schemata, together with some other, more flexible schematic structures'.

Carrell and Eisterhold (1983: 559) state that "what is understood from a text is a function of the particular schemata that is activated at the time of processing the text"

Poplin (1988) attempts to define 'schemata' as the spiral of knowledge. Taglieber, Johnson, and Yarbrough (1988) highlight that comprehension occurs when readers make use of their schemata (i.e., knowledge structure in memory) and the text.

Yekovich and Walker (1988) call it as scripted knowledge.

Pichard (1990) defines schemata as our theories of the way things are, or as representations of one's background experiences and it is clear that the culture one lives in impacts schemata.

Zhu's (1997) simple definition suggests that schema is background knowledge and background information.

Juan and Flor (2006: 93) point out that "schemata, the relevant packages of prior knowledge and experience that we have in memory, can call on in the process of comprehension."

80 A Schematic Approach to Teaching Listening Comprehension

EUL Journal of Social Sciences (V:I) LAÜ Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi June 2014 Haziran

Carroll (2008: 176) defines "a schema is a structure in semantic memory that specifies the general or expected arrangement of a body of information"

Schema Theory

The search for understanding the relation between comprehension and background knowledge has led to the model termed 'schema theory'. According to this theory, meaning is shaped when it interacts with the previously acquired knowledge in which a text can only act as directions for readers/listeners. Huang (2009: 139) states that 'according to schemata theory, any text, spoken or written, does not carry meaning itself. Comprehending words, sentences, and entire texts require the capacity to link the material to one's own knowledge'.

Schema theory puts forward that understanding a text (spoken or written) occurs as a result of an interactive process that goes through between the listeners' background knowledge and the text. This process was highlighted by Goodman (1975: 135) as "reading is a psycholinguistic process by which the reader, a language user, reconstructs as best as he/she can a message which has been encoded by a writer as a graphic display".

Anderson (1977) states that one's knowledge of the world is what determines every act of comprehension. Widdowson (1983) highlights that, "They [people] reflect the experiences, conceptual understandings, attitudes, values, skills, and strategies... [We] bring to a text situation" (as cited in Vacca & Vacca, 1999: 15). Widdowson's views reflect similarities to the Rumelhart's (1980) definition of schemata "the building blocks of cognition". Smith (1994: 8), similar to Anderson (1977), states that "everything we know and believe is organised in a theory of what the world is like, a theory that is basis of all our perceptions and understanding of the world, the root of all learning, the source of hopes and fears, motive and expectations, reasoning and creativity. And this theory is all we have. If we make sense of the world at all, it is by interpreting our interactions with the world in the light of our theory. The theory is our shield against bewilderment".

Basically, there are three types of schema that play a role in the process of understanding, which are linguistic schema, formal schema, and content schema (Yang, 2010). Linguistic schema refers to linguistic knowledge of a learner. It is the learner's current language proficiency in grammar, vocabulary, phoneme, idioms, phrase, paragraph, cohesive structure, sentence structure, etc. Shortage in linguistic schema will lead a learner to have hard times in decoding and understanding a text, written or spoken. A learner activates his/her linguistic schema to decode syntax, phoneme, the meaning, and pronunciation. It is obvious that the more one has stored linguistic schema in his/her mind, a quicker and better understanding s/he receives. Formal schema refers to the knowledge of organizational and rhetorical structures of a discourse. It involves knowledge of divergences in genre, divergences in the pattern of fables, simple stories, poetry, newspaper articles, simple or scientific text, and so on. The findings of studies exhibit that being aware of what kind of genre of text is going to be read (or listened to) may ease understanding. Content schema can be defined as the background knowledge of the content area of a text, such as the subject(s) a text speaks about.

Sociocultural Research and Reading

Further change in the perspectives of reading research came with educational, social and cultural studies which put emphasis on the conception of learning as a sociocultural experience closely interacting with knowledge. Knowledge exists in the social and contextual interchanges and no longer in individual minds, and its conditionality can arise from social and contextual factors (Lantoff, 1999; Scollon, 1999). Gardner (1991) highlights the existence of formal knowledge (“schooled”) and informal knowledge (“unschooled”) and their salience in learning. In certain circumstances, knowledge is even revealed to negatively affect learning and obstruct conceptual change through misconceptions and strong opinion. The specific nature of disciplines (e.g. mathematics versus history) and the beliefs about the learning of these disciplines are also factors which modify knowledge (Alexander & Fox, 2004). Literacy instruction has to be responsive to the sociocultural dimension of the student’s knowledge to promote learning (Au, 2001, 2002; Gregory, 2002). This is translated in the form of cultural relevance of educational materials and procedures, literature instruction, collaborative learning, and learners’ engagement.

Register Analysis

Related to target needs analysis, Register analysis is based on the premise that specific academic disciplines and professional areas have specific languages different from the general language. It is shaped by the structural view which assumes that learning a language means mastering the “building blocks” of the language, from phoneme to word, sentence and mastering the rules (the grammar and structures) that combine them (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

Early ESP (English for Specific Purposes) practitioners set themselves the task to analyse specific languages in order to determine their linguistic and functional properties and provide an input for teaching materials. The research on register analysis is carried in structural terms and involves quantitative studies about English for Science and Technology. Frequency counts of grammatical structures and vocabulary items are provided. ESP (English for Specific Purposes) has become associated with certain types of vocabulary and grammatical structures like the passive or the simple present tense, which are reported to characterize scientific writing.

Nevertheless, research has recognized the difficulty of teaching semi-technical vocabulary, i.e. partly specific to certain disciplines but used in general English like “consists of”, “contains”...etc. The idea of a basic specific language common to all scientific disciplines has pervaded and with it the issue of how specialized an ESP (English for Specific Purposes) course should be. The materials produced under that perspective are substandard. The passages used are usually related to a specific discipline, followed by a set of repetitive exercises, lacking variety. The concentration on vocabulary and grammar is inadequate for writing a credible textbook on English for Science and Technology (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998). Concern for meaning in language learning casts doubts about register analysis.

Rhetorical, Discourse and Genre Analysis

Along with the realisation that language involves more than inventories of grammatical structures and vocabulary, a broader view of language has emerged and has given rise to functional, notional and communicative perspectives. Functions are the communicative purposes for which we use language (e.g. definitions, dimensions, properties), while notions are the conceptual meanings (objects, entities, state of affairs, logical relationships, and so on) expressed through language” (Nunan, 1988: 35). Analysing language in terms of functions and notions, and starting with the content of scientific language rather than structures, has been particularly appealing to ESP (English for Specific Purposes) practitioners.

ESP learners would have the opportunity to know about how scientists use the system and follow new courses instead of previous remedial courses. The approach has moved forward to examine the relations between grammatical items and purpose. Trimble (1985) investigates the rhetorical elements in the discourse of scientific and technical English. Rhetorical elements are “the process a writer uses to produce a desired piece of text. This process is basically one of choosing and organizing information for a specific set of purposes and a specific set of readers” (p.10).

Further insights have emerged from the field of discourse analysis which has produced an extensive literature especially on cohesion and coherence, background/foreground information, given/new, story grammar (the structure of narratives), text structure (e.g. problem/solution, cause/effect, description, comparison, recall, etc.) (Abdallaoui, 2001).

Nevertheless, the communicative approach has shaped ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and focus is placed on analyzing the nature of discourse and the abilities involved in creating it. Teaching scientific and technical English implies teaching how scientists and technologists use the system instead of presenting a set of isolated functions and notions. In other words, ESP

(English for Specific Purposes) courses should enhance communicative abilities of learners by focusing on “use” rather than “usage” (or conventional form), and associating teaching the language with other subjects in the curriculum (Widdowson, 1978).

In the ESP (English for Specific Purposes) classroom, the content-based approach does not seem to be satisfactory; it raises some doubts related to the mismatch between the ESP (English for Specific Purposes) the learner’s and the instructor’s knowledge of the specific domain. A trivialized content can be boring and frustrating to learners. The other concerns are related to the selection and sequencing of contents. The next development is genre analysis. According to Swales (1990:58):

“A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. The rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice and of content style”

The assumption underlying genre analysis is that certain categories of discourse present regular patterns of “moves” or “steps” as they occur. For example, in research article introductions, genre analysis identifies a set of moves which writers across disciplines follow to write a research paper. Genre imposes constraints at the level of discourse structure, whereas register imposes constraints at the level of vocabulary and grammatical structures. Genres may include research papers, abstracts, letters of personal reference, news broadcasts, recipes, political speech, etc. Swales (1990) accepts that content and formal schemata contribute to recognizing a genre and to producing similar models.

Nevertheless, schema-theory is primarily concerned with the cognitive aspects of text processing, and relies on “decontextualized” samples of texts. Therefore, schema theory cannot account for the communicative dimension of genres. Genre analysis seems to be useful and easily adaptable to the ESP (English for Specific Purposes) classroom. Moves of a given genre can be identified and used for materials development. The risk, however, lies in dealing with moves as fixed technical entities and ignoring their communicative aspects. Hyland (2005) suggests raising students’ consciousness of the nature of conventions used, highlighting features by comparing texts from different disciplines, i.e. getting students to become “mini discourse analysts”.

Another evolution of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) is the increasing interest and analysis of specialized corpora (or electronic text collections). Large and varied language corpora are being built in different fields and allow researchers to obtain comprehensive and representative data of language use. Like register analysis, corpus analysis provides frequency counts of the linguistic properties of a specific language. Unlike register analysis, however, it uses large samples of language, which allows more accurate statistics and a deeper insight into the relations existing among the various rhetorical functions of a text (Flowerdew, 2002). Corpora analysis has led to a renewed interest in Register analysis and instruction of form, and with that the risk of focus on the product at the expense of the process. Nevertheless, by revealing characteristics of discourse, corpora analysis has paved the way to other perspectives, notably “hedging” or vague language. Hedging is defined as the practice of expressing statements with “caution” and “diplomatic deference” to the views of colleagues in academic language. In other words, hedging is a discursive resource in expressing uncertainty, skepticism, and open-mindedness about one’s propositions (Hyland, 1996). The most frequently used devices are “shields”, i.e. modal verbs expressing possibility, probability; “approximators”, expressing quantity, degree, frequency, etc.; expressions such as “I believe”, “to our knowledge”, etc.; “emotionally charged intensifiers”, such as extremely interesting, unexpectedly, etc. Foreign language learners should be made aware of such “hedging techniques”. Consciousness-raising exercises are proposed, like rewriting exercises and translation (Jordan, 1997).

SA (Skills Analysis) along with a growing interest in processes and learners, the skills approach has been concerned with what learners do as readers, writers, listeners and speakers. The focus is on processes rather than language. The approach is particularly useful when a group of learners is heterogeneous and the decision about language data is complex. Three parameters are involved in (skills analysis) SA: the study situation (e.g. lecture, seminar, private study, research, etc.); skills or macro-skills (i.e. reading, writing, listening and speaking); and sub-skills (or study skills, i.e. the techniques, abilities or strategies used when reading, writing, or listening).

The integration of skills in a course depends on the learners' needs and contextual factors. One or more skills may be needed and may stand in a hierarchical position. Moreover, the boundaries between skills may be blurred; for example, teaching reading comprehension may rely on writing or listening and vice versa. It may also share the same sub-skill (e.g. note taking) with another macro-skill (e.g. listening) (Jordan, 1997). Study skills, needed by university learners studying in English textbooks, are wide and can be difficult to specify. Jordan (1997) draws a list of eight situations and more than fifty study skills which can be used more than once depending on the target situation. Study skills can vary from reading efficiently, note taking, summarizing, paraphrasing, asking questions, clarifying, to finding and analyzing evidence or preparing for exams.

The analysis of the target situation helps defining the skills needed. The approach is particularly relevant to EAP (English for Academic Purposes) learners as it answers immediate needs. The danger, however, is dealing with the skills in a mechanical manner, transforming the EAP (English for Academic Purposes) class into a training class. The educational dimension of the EAP class is necessary for the development of "a general capacity or set of procedures to cope with a wide range of needs" (Dudley -Evan & St John, 1998: 42).

Methodology

This part is concerned with the methodology of the study. A detailed description of the subject and setting has provided the design of the instrument, procedure of data collection and the method of the data analysis. Validity and reliability of the questionnaire and interview are presented.

Subjects: The Students

The subject of this study was comprised of (60) + (10) people who did not share the same cultural background and they were descended from different cultural background identities. Those people were randomly selected because they were not having the same cultural background in terms of their mothers' tongue and nationalities. They have the same educational background. English language is the second language of most of them.

Results and Discussion

This part is devoted to the analysis, evaluation, and interpretation of the data collected through the questionnaire and interview. Questionnaire was given to (60) respondents who represented the people who did not share the same cultural background identities, and interview was given to 10 respondents who represented the random community sample who descended from different cultural background nationalities.

The Responses to the Questionnaire

The responses to the questionnaire of the (60) people who were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of the findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

Each item in the questionnaire was analyzed statistically and discussed. The following tables supported the discussion.

Analysis of Questionnaire

Now, let us turn to analyze the questionnaire. All Tables show the scores assigned to each of the 8 statements by the (60) respondents.

Statement (1)

Table (1) shows that most people, who descended from different cultural backgrounds, do not know how to interact positively when they are involved in the spoken discourse with others.

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
Strongly agree	16	26.7
Agree	35	58.3
Neutral (no opinion)	4	6.7
Disagree	5	8.3
Strongly disagree	0	0
Total	60	100.0

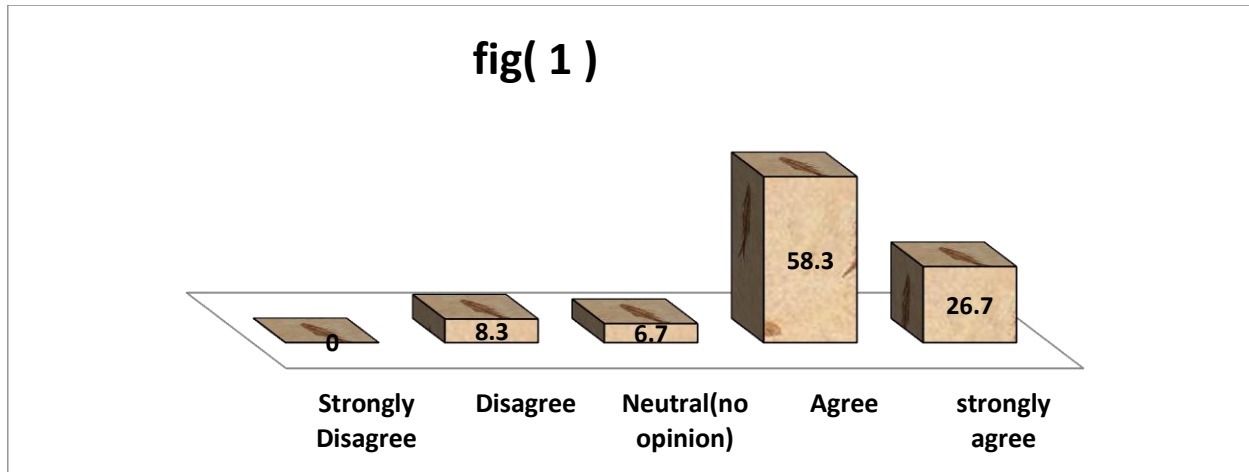


Table (1) shows that a majority of the respondents (85%) strongly agree and prove that most people are in need to accept others when they listen to them. Only 8.3% do not agree to that.

Statement (2)

Table (2) shows that most people, who descended from different cultural background, do not have visual analysis to understand the spoken discourse when they are involved in real communication with others.

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	8	13.3
Agree	29	48.3
Neutral(no opinion)	16	26.7
Disagree	7	11.7
Strongly Disagree	0	0
Total	60	100.0

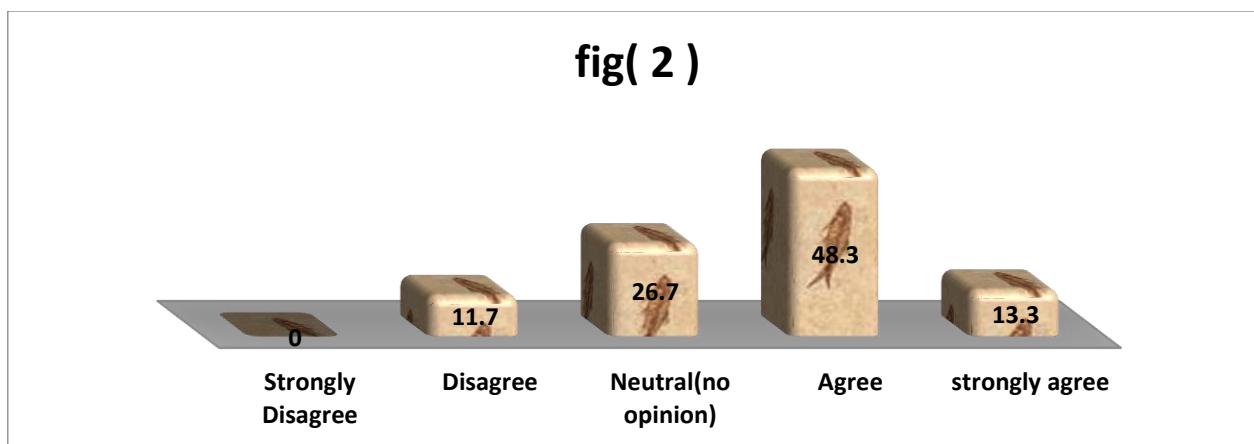


Table (2) shows that a majority of the respondent (61.6%) Strongly agree and prove that most people are in need of the knowledge of the world surrounding them to understand the spoken discourse when they listen to others. Only 11.3% do not agree to that.

Statement (3)

Table (3) shows that most people who descended from different cultural background, are not able to understand the contextual meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	14	23.3
Agree	22	36.7
Neutral(no opinion)	8	13.3
Disagree	16	26.7
Strongly Disagree	0	0
Total	60	100.0

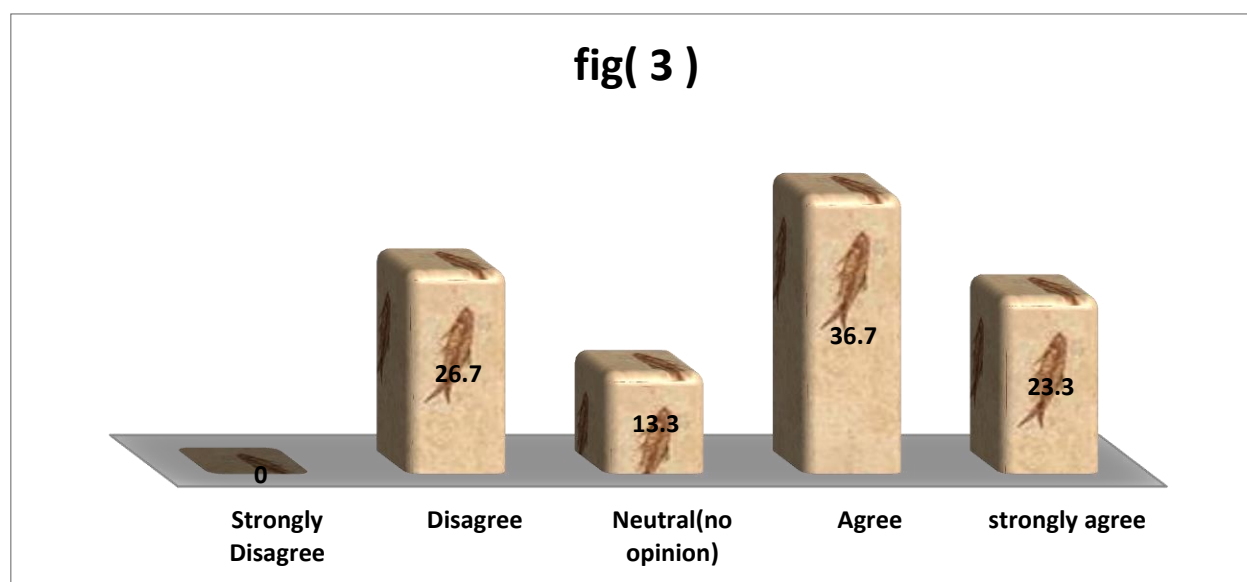


Table (3) explains that a vast majority of the respondents (60%) strongly agree and approve that most people are not able to listen to critically the meaning of the word when they listen to a spoken discourse. Only 26.7% do not agree to that.

Statement (4)

Table (4) shows that most people ,who descended from different cultural background , are not able to understand the denotative meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication.

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
Strongly agree	9	15.0
Agree	19	31.7
Neutral(no opinion)	21	35.0
Disagree	11	18.3
Strongly Disagree	0	0
Total	60	100.0

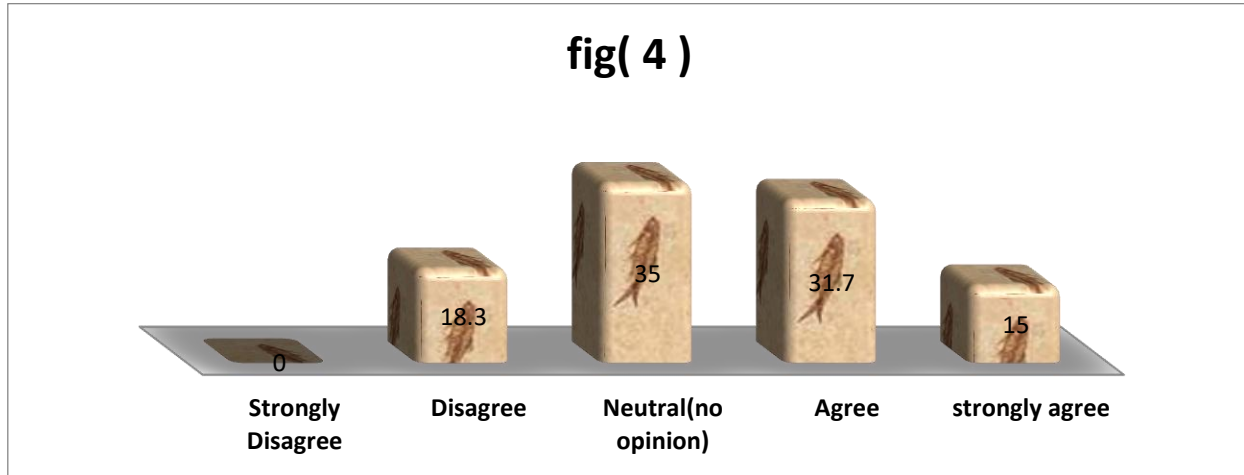


Table (4) shows that a vast majority of the respondents (46.7%) Strongly agree and approve that most people are not able to understand the indirect meaning of the words when they listen to a spoken discourse. Only 18.3% do not agree to that.

Statement (5)

Table (5) shows that most people who descended from different cultural background, are not able to understand the cultural meaning of the words when they listen to a spoken discourse

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	7	11.7
Agree	26	43.3
Neutral(no opinion)	16	26.7
Disagree	11	18.3
Strongly Disagree	0	0
Total	60	100.0

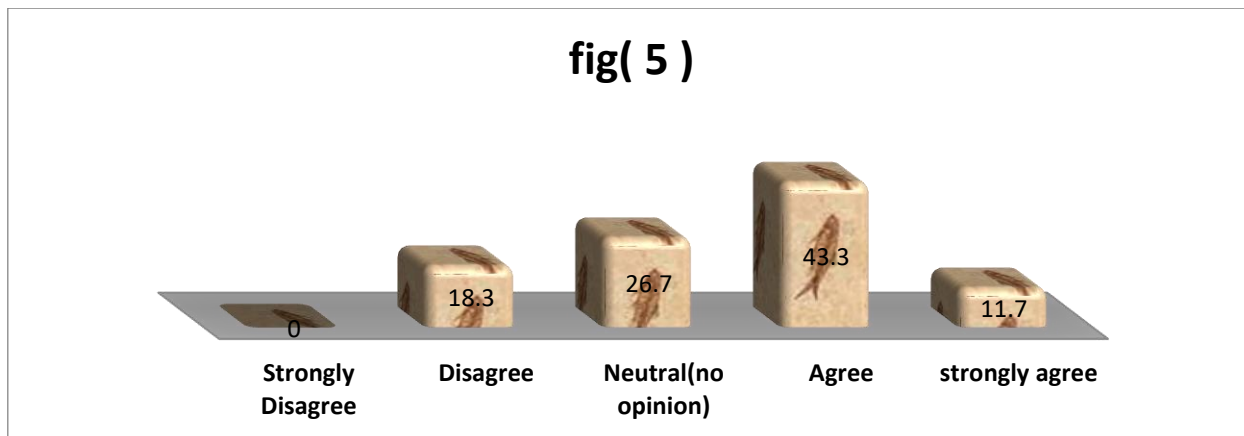


Table (5) shows that a majority of the respondents (55%) Strongly agree and approve that most people are not able to understand the direct meaning of the words when they listen to others. Only 18.3% do not agree to that.

Statement (6)

Table (6) shows that most people, who descended from different cultural background, are not able to infer the connotative meaning of the words when they are involved in real communication with others.

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	8	13.3
Agree	17	28.3
Neutral(no opinion)	7	11.7
Disagree	28	46.7
Strongly Disagree	0	0
Total	60	100.0

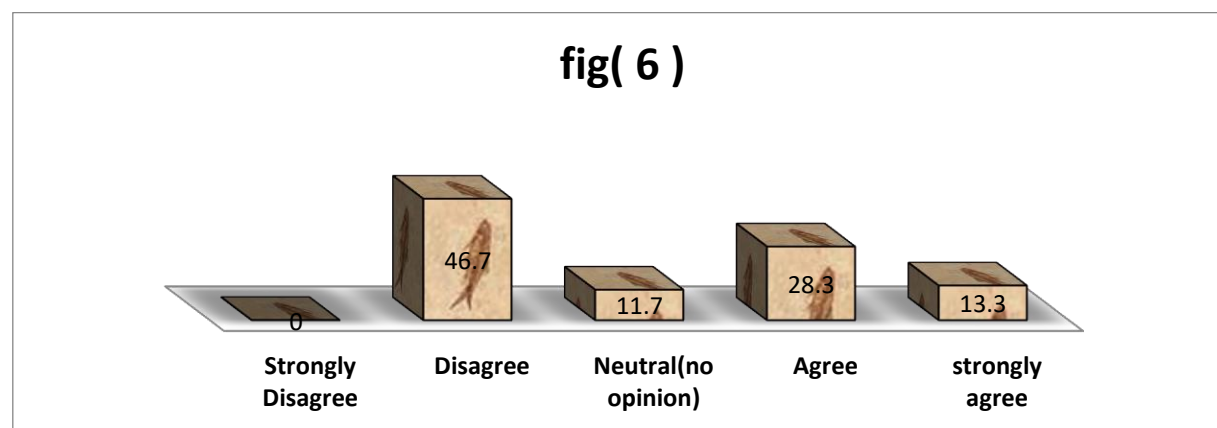


Table (6) shows that a majority of the respondents (41.6%) Strongly agree and state that most people are not able to infer the indirect meaning of the words when they listen to others and 46.7% do not agree to that.

Statement (7)

Table (7) shows that most people who descended from different cultural background, have poor vocabulary to understand the meaning of the words when they listen to the others.

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	10	16.7
Agree	37	61.7
Neutral(no opinion)	8	13.3
Disagree	5	8.3
Strongly Disagree	0	0
Total	60	100.0

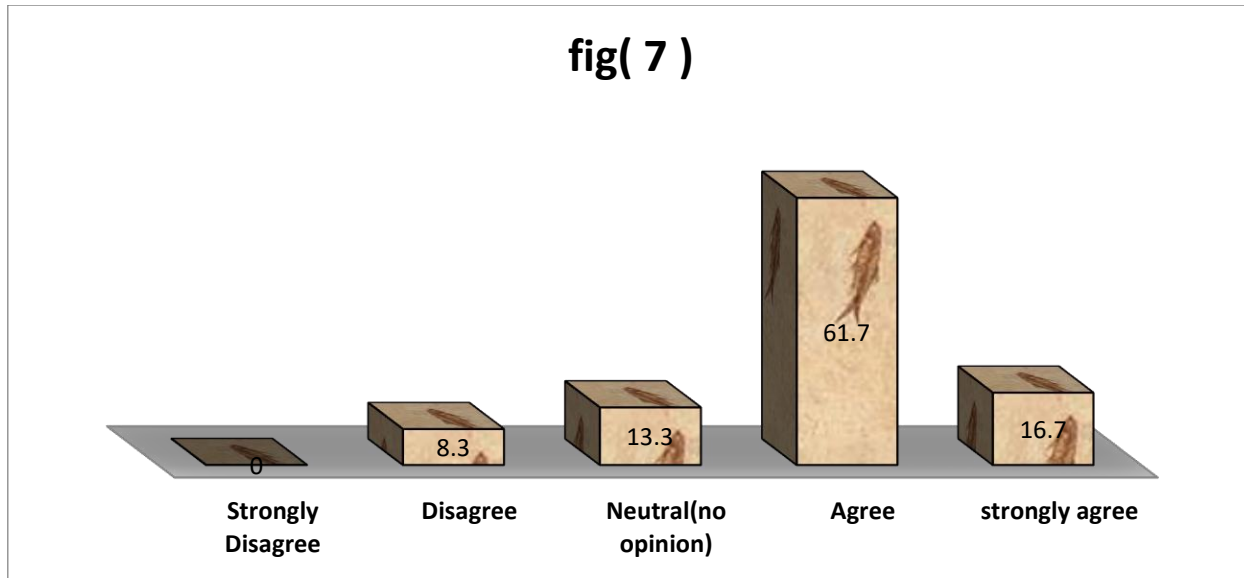


Table (7) shows that a majority of the respondents (78.4%) Strongly agree and state that most people are in need to use high level of language when they listen to others. Only 8.3% do not agree to that.

Statement (8)

Table (8) shows that most people who descended from different cultural background, want to be superior when they are involved into spoken discourse with others.

Valid	Frequency	Percent (%)
strongly agree	9	15.0
Agree	23	38.3
Neutral(no opinion)	17	28.4
Disagree	11	18.3
Strongly Disagree	0	0
Total	60	100.0

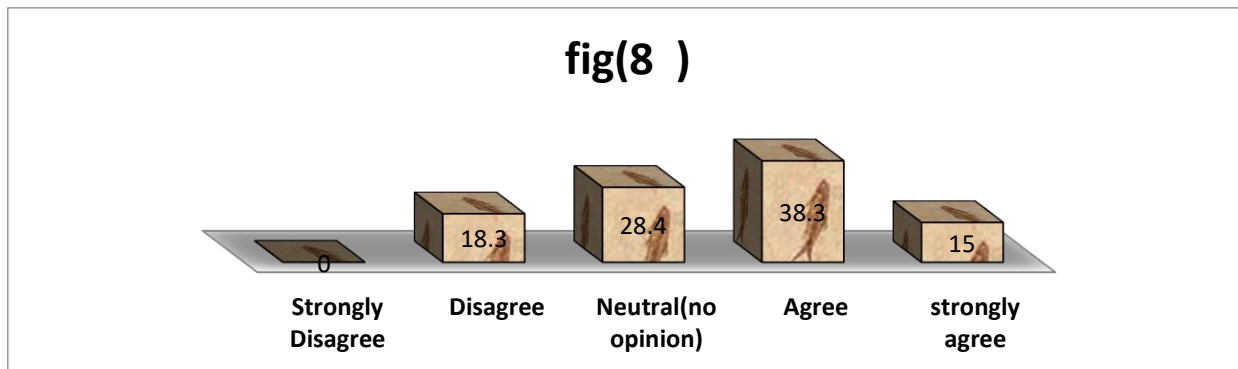


Table (8) shows that a majority of the respondents (53.3%) strongly agree and approve that most people are in need of showing politeness and maturity when they are involved in spoken discourse with others. Only 18.3% do not agree to that.

The Highest and Lowest Agreement through the Teachers' responses

As discussed above, statements in all sections obtained the highest mean of agreement are given by the teachers. In other words, these statements scored a percentage of 72% agreement among the teachers. This proves that the English teachers (respondents) were in total agreement with the concept of most people do not understand spoken discourse critically. Most people do not understand contextual meaning of spoken discourse effectively. Most people do not give feedback when they expose to spoken discourse positively.

This indicates the importance of spoken discourse in shaping people's negative attitude as well as highlight the problematic areas in misunderstanding of spoken discourse and Provide solutions to spoken discourse negative attitudes.

(a) The Highest and Lowest Disagreement through the Teachers' responses

Statements gave the highest disagreement and lowest percentage – with a percentage of 3.1 %. It disagrees with the idea of pleasure and benefit, which proved that most people do not understand spoken discourse critically. Most people do not understand contextual meaning of spoken discourse effectively. Most people do not give feedback when they expose to spoken discourse positively.

The Responses to the Interview

The responses to the interview of 10 teachers were tabulated and computed. The following is an analytical interpretation and discussion of findings regarding different points related to the objectives and hypotheses of the study.

Each question in the interview is analyzed statistically and discussed. The following table will support the discussion.

Analysis of Expertise Teachers' Interview

Questions	Question One		Question Two		Question Three		Question Four		Question Five	
10	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Frequencies	2	8	7	3	6	4	4	6	8	2
Percentages	20%	80%	70%	30%	60%	40%	40%	60%	80%	20%

Question One

The table above illustrates the percentage and frequency of the study sample answers that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were positive which are represented by the percentage (80%). This justifies that most people are ignorant to receive the spoken discourse.

Question Two

The table above illustrates the percentage and frequency of the study sample answers that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were positive which are represented by the percentage (70%). This justifies that spoken discourse is too difficult to be understood by majority of people.

Question Three

The table above illustrates the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were positive which are represented by the percentage (60%). This justifies that spoken discourse addresses majority of people's mind.

Question Four

The table above illustrates the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were positive which are represented by the percentage (40%). This justifies that some people are intendedly abused the spoken discourse to save their own agenda.

Question Five

The table above illustrates the percentage and frequency of the answers of the study sample that concern with the questions and shows that most of the sample answers were positive which are represented by the percentage (80%). This justifies that majority of people are in badly need to interpret the spoken discourse.

Conclusion

To sum up, the findings of this chapter revealed that all sections justify 'the need for understanding spoken discourse' was highly rated by the teachers. We can say there was a consensus of opinions in favor of Investigating the importance of spoken discourse in shaping people's negative attitude. Highlighting the problematic areas in misunderstanding of spoken discourse. Providing solutions to spoken discourse negative attitudes. The neutral responses, however, show irregularity, unexpected and unexplainable instability of the respondents' uncertainty in the all hypotheses. The responses to all statements in terms of English language syllabus evaluation. All statements are positive in these sections were either strongly agreed to or only agreed to. The percentages of the negative responses were less significant for understanding spoken discourse, but higher for the teachers. All teachers agreed to the all statements of the sections "the role of spoken discourse". The undecided responses, however, showed small differences. The majority of the respondents were in favor of the need for understanding spoken discourse. A very large majority of the respondents agreed on:

- a. the importance of helping the teachers to acquaint with understanding spoken discourse;
- b. the fact that evaluation increases awareness of teachers' understanding spoken discourse;
- c. the urgent need for understanding spoken discourse especially for explaining and understanding of the difficult areas in spoken discourse;
- d. Necessity for people to know their understanding spoken discourse abilities.

When the teachers were compared among themselves, no statistically significant differences were perceivable which stated that the teachers have no opportunity for understanding spoken discourse. However, the teachers confirm that understanding spoken discourse should be one of the main medium of improving students' performance, they were in favor of the use of understanding spoken discourse in teaching the target language so as to reach the maximum efficiency in understanding spoken discourse.

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