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**Implementing Inclusive Education in Mixed-Ability Classrooms
to Meet Learners' Needs and Enhance English Vocabulary
Learning: *The Case of First-Year Students of English at
Constantine 1 University***

Thesis Submitted to the Department of English Language and Literature in Candidacy for the
Degree of LMD Doctorate in Linguistics and Applied Languages

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Statement of Originality

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I, Ms. Khadidja **LATRECHE**, do herewith assert that the submitted thesis titled:

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Needs and Promote English Vocabulary Learning: *The Case of Second-Year Pupils at Ahmed*

Boussena Middle School in Mila

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Notification

This thesis is an original work of the candidate, Ms. Khadidja LATRACHE. At first, the thesis original title was as follows: **Implementing Inclusive Education in Mixed-Ability Classrooms to Meet Learners' Diverse Needs and Enhance English Vocabulary Learning: The Case of First Year Students of English at Constantine1 University**, which is the one that appears in the administration papers. However, because of intensive readings, and due to the progress of this research project, the candidate made some modifications on the title, but could not do it officially in the registration papers due to administrative considerations. Therefore, she invites the scientific committee and members of the jury to consider the revised version of the title and read her work based on the following modified title: **“Implementing Inclusive Education in Mixed-Ability Classrooms to Embrace Learners' Diverse Needs and Promote English Vocabulary Learning: The Case of Second-Year Pupils at Ahmed Boussena Middle School”**.

Dedication

I dedicate this work to:

*My parents, the source of happiness and inspiration, who have always believed in me and
continually supported me*

Thank you for your prayers and love

My siblings for their care, love, and constant encouragement

My dear friends for their kindness and care

My entire family, all my teachers, and beloved ones

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Abstract

The rationale for this study is twofold. Firstly, Algerian pupils start studying the English language at the middle school wherein they are supposed to learn as much vocabulary as possible. Helping them doing so would enhance their performance in the English class. Secondly, the field of inclusive education has not been largely investigated in Algerian educational institutions. This research henceforth aims at investigating the effectiveness of inclusive education in accommodating Algerian middle school pupils' needs. In precise terms, it attempts to explore how far differentiated instruction can enhance pupils' learning of the English vocabulary in regular schools. Methodologically, this study adopted a Mixed-methods approach that encompassed a case study and quasi-experimental designs. Accordingly, three research tools were employed to gather insightful data: a pre and post-treatment questionnaires, a pre and post-tests, and an observation. To carry out this study, and following the non-probability sampling technique, a sample of forty-four second-year pupils was selected out of a population of 114 EFL middle school pupils in Ahmed Boussena School. Ultimately, the obtained results corroborated the research hypotheses and reflected the practicality of inclusive education in enhancing pupils' learning of the English vocabulary as measured and cross-checked through the tests and the pupils' questionnaire, respectively. Consequently, the present study suggests the implementation of inclusive education in Algerian schools as an attempt to meet pupils' needs and improve their performance. It further calls for the integration of inclusive education in pre and in-service teacher training as a catalyst that gives more impetus to pupils' needs and ultimately prevails equity and belongingness in Algerian EFL classrooms.

Key words: Differentiated instruction, inclusive education, learners' needs, learning styles, vocabulary teaching/learning

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ICTs: Information and Communication Technologies

FLL: Foreign Language Learners

IE: Inclusive Education

DI: Differentiated Instruction

EFA: Education for All

ULD: Universal Learning Design

SEN: Special Educational Needs

ASD: Autistic Spectrum Disorder

ADHD: Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder

IDs: Individual Differences

PLSQ: Preferred Learning Style Questionnaire

N: Number

%: Percentage

CG: Control Group

EG: Experimental Group

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General Introduction

1. Background of the Study

It is quite noteworthy to state that vocabulary is a profoundly paramount aspect in learning a Foreign Language (FL). Inevitably, teachers firmly believe that to run out a successful and a meaningful communication, a good mastery of the needed vocabulary items is of paramount importance. Otherwise, a deficiency in communicating would, wittingly or unwittingly, appear (Allen, 1983). Historically speaking, however, vocabulary learning has largely been marginalised especially during the period 1940-1970. Mostly, teachers were asked to primarily work on improving learners' grammatical competence before teaching them words (Allen, 1983; Carter, 1998). In conjunction with this, Lewis (1993) postulates that "Lexis is the core or heart of language but in language teaching has always been the Cinderella." (p. 89)

Interestingly, when tracing back the history of vocabulary learning in a foreign language, we will figure out that neglecting vocabulary learning has been the norm since the introduction of some methods of teaching in language teaching moving from grammar translation to direct method to the communicative approach. This attitude was further fostered due to the linguistics research that emphasised the importance of syntax and phonology. However, this neglect did not last so longer. By the 1970s, much emphasis was thoroughly directed to vocabulary learning and teaching (Carter, 1998; Thornbury, 2002). By 1972, David Wilkins wrote his book "Linguistics in Language Teaching" that was a milestone in teaching/learning vocabulary in a foreign language.

Accordingly, research in this realm began to shift its focus to teaching/learning vocabulary. Lewis (1993) goes further in clarifying the importance of vocabulary by denoting that "language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar" (p. 89). Other works

that have given importance to vocabulary learning are “The Lexical Syllabus” by David Willis (1990) and “The Lexical Approach” by Michal Lewis (1993).

After vocabulary teaching/learning received interest, looking for the suitable strategies and techniques to foster vocabulary learning has always been at issue since then (Nation, 2001). As a matter of fact, teachers should adapt miscellaneous techniques and strategies that embrace learners’ diverse needs and interests. This will assuredly help in creating a positive classroom environment where learners are able to carry out their maximum potential. In this regard, Marzano et al., (2005) argue that people are rigorously looking for a sense of belonging and someone to understand and accept that they are different. Learners are no exception. They, too, want teachers to understand and value their needs, interests, and differences. In so doing, teachers will create an optimal ground for a fruitful learning environment to cater learners of different needs.

Similarly, Haycraft (1978) acknowledges that the chosen classroom techniques ought to be in favour of learners’ needs and the material being taught, as well. An effective teaching of English does not rely solely on what method you are adhering to or what techniques you are using. To no surprise, there are classes where you are bound to see recipient learners notwithstanding the use of adequate and effective techniques. This is mainly attributed to the lack of interest from the teacher’s part on his/her learners. This statement rightly epitomises the standpoint of getting learners enticed by the teacher’s practices in the classroom as an avenue for an effective learning atmosphere.

In the same spectrum, believing that learners generally show good performance in their studies whenever their needs are fully met, we chose Inclusive Education (IE) as the keystone to teaching/learning English Vocabulary. IE is commonly conceptualised as the philosophy of

teaching heterogeneous classrooms with different educational needs of learners. It first appeared as an alternative to “social justice problems associated with special education, notably the separation and segregation of disabled learners from others not so identified” about 30 years ago. Admittedly, IE was first associated with the idea that all learners have the right to be educated in ‘mainstream schools’. Afterwards, the term enlarges its scope to encompass all learners despite their diverse needs (Florian & Pantic, 2017). By learners’ diverse needs we mean all aspects that shape up one’s identity and delineate the discrepancies between people. (Florina & Pantic, 2017)

Likewise, Ainscow et al., (2006) avow that inclusion is commonly conceived as dealing with learners who suffer from certain types of impairments. This standpoint was discarded later by the view that IE is not concerned merely with disabled learners, but with all learners no matter how different their needs are. Indeed, inclusion necessitates equity between groups of learners in spite of their motley skills. It mainly ensures reciprocal help and respect, unity, self-assurance, appreciation of differences, empower classroom interaction, and raise the anticipated outcomes (Flecha, 2015). Furthermore, differentiating instruction to actively engage learners in the learning process and meet their needs is the bedrock of IE (Strogilos et al., 2018). Hence, this study relies basically on Differentiated Instruction (DI) as a prerequisite of IE.

2. Statement of the Problem

It goes without saying that vocabulary learning is a critical issue in second/foreign language learning arena, and this importance is accurately well-merited. To no surprise, it is a precursor to communicating properly with others. In this regard, Wilkins (1972) affirms that “Grammar provides the overall patterns, and vocabulary is the material to put in the patterns. While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (pp. 111-112). A view that aligns with Harmer’s (2002 as cited in Haixia & Zhaohui,

2015) who declares that “if language structure makes up the skeleton of a language, then it is vocabulary that provides the vital organs and the flesh. An ability to manipulate grammatical structure does not have any potential meaning unless words are used.” (p. 394)

Believing that “lexis is the core or the heart of language” (Lewis, 1993, p. 89), teachers found out that enhancing learners’ repertoire of vocabulary is, by all means, mandatory. It needs to be noted though that pupils at Algerian middle schools do not receive enough time for studying English. They have approximately three hours per week (and only two sessions with forty-five minutes in the time of Corona virus), let alone the fact that English is considered as a mere foreign language. Concomitantly, Lightbown and Spada (2013) state that studying a second language for one or two hours per week will not produce advanced speakers even if learning lasts for eight years. Learners in this case tend to feel frustrated; they feel like they are wasting their time without any progress. Unfortunately, this view cannot be subjected to criticisms since it rightly depicts reality. Henceforth, searching for more qualified pedagogical teaching practices that foster and consolidate language learning is highly recommended.

On the other hand, it is no exaggeration to say that today’s classrooms are becoming more diverse as they include individuals with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Teaching learners with different interests, needs, abilities, difficulties, cultural and social backgrounds, skills, and IQs is meant to be an overwhelmingly challenging task (Florina & Pantic, 2017; Voltz et al., 2010). Accordingly, adhering to one single strategy of teaching will surely be doomed to failure since it partially engages a certain type of learners and excludes the rest. Thus, it is imperative for teachers to use multiple strategies that contribute to promoting pupils’ learning of different aspects of the foreign language, especially learning about new vocabulary items.

In search for more qualified pedagogical practices that prioritise learners' differences and improve learning for all learners, DI was chosen as an impetus for IE in this research. At its most basic, DI is about working in heterogeneous classrooms and considering all sorts of learners, even though they do not share enough commonality. Henceforth, teaching the English vocabulary will be adjusted to be in parallel with learners' needs in general and with their learning styles in particular to achieve their maximum growth. This will mainly be done through various forms of well-planned, flexible, differentiated curriculum and instructional strategies.

3. Research Questions and Hypotheses

To obtain relevant data about the effectiveness of IE in meeting the pupils' needs and fostering their English vocabulary learning, the following research sets out to answer the following research questions:

RQ1: To what extent is the implementation of Inclusive Education in Algerian middle schools effective in meeting pupils' diverse needs?

RQ2: Does differentiated instruction promote learners' English vocabulary learning amidst middle school pupils?

RQ3: How do middle school pupils perceive the integration of Inclusive Education in the teaching/learning of English vocabulary?

As mentioned earlier, this study seeks primarily to investigate the use of IE strategies, mainly DI, as a means for enhancing English vocabulary learning. The study is based on the assumption that middle school pupils can better learn English vocabulary if appropriate inclusive strategies are integrated in the learning process and tailored to the needs and interests of all the pupils. Therefore, in accordance with the abovementioned research questions, the following hypotheses have been formed:

RH1: If teachers adopted Inclusive Education as an underlying framework in their classrooms, this would help in accommodating the pupils' different needs.

RH2: If teachers differentiated instruction as a supporting inclusive pedagogy, pupils' rate of learning the English vocabulary will be fostered.

RH3: If inclusive education is integrated and the pupils' needs are fully met and prioritised, the pupils would appreciate and support the implementation of inclusionary practices at the middle schools.

4. Aims of the Study

Traditional-based learning has been largely criticised by so many researchers. The –one size fits all– paradigm is proved to be no more effective nowadays, particularly in addressing pupils' needs and interests. For that reason, our general aim in this research is to implement IE as an attempt to meet pupils' needs and, hence, solidify English vocabulary learning at the middle school level. More specifically, and believing that, “a successful interaction of teaching and learning depends on appropriate teaching strategies used in the classroom” (Sit, 2017, p. 1), we aim throughout this study at:

- ascertaining the importance of IE strategies (the case of DI in this research) in the teaching of English as a foreign language at the middle level with much emphasis on the teaching of new lexis and widening the pupils' vocabulary knowledge;
- developing awareness about the use of IE in the middle level and to explore pupils' attitude towards the implementation of the inclusive practices;
- embracing pupils' different needs and, eventually, boosting English vocabulary learning amongst second-year middle school pupils; and

- getting profound insights about the common impediments that the pupils are usually confronted with. This last aim will help in developing appropriate provisions for the betterment of the educational process for all pupils.

5. Research Methodology for this Study

It is worthwhile to state that research is simply trying to find answers to some raised research questions. For designing a successful research, “we need to be systematic so that by the end we can stand by our results with confidence” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 15). Correspondingly, being systematic in our research entails the adoption of the right research design(s) and tools.

The former requires data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data. These data are then analysed primarily by statistical methods. A well-known example is the questionnaire. The latter, on the other hand, implies data collection procedures that result in non-numerical data that are then analysed primarily through non-statistical methods. Best example in this case is the interview. Another type of research is the mixed-methods approach that, at its basic sense, merges both qualitative and quantitative tools and analysis such as interrelated questionnaire and interview studies. (Dörnyei, 2007)

The nature of the current study necessitated the adoption of a Mixed-methods approach since it sought to determine the effect of inclusive strategies on the learning of English vocabulary with a focus on the VAKT learning style model amongst second-year EFL pupils at ‘Ahmed Boussena’ middle school. It also attempted to describe the pupils’ attitude towards the use of IE. Thereby, a group of second-year pupils was selected for the quasi-experiment with a treatment, pre- and post-test phases.

Before the treatment phase, the pupils were first exposed to a proficiency test (the pre-test) in order to attest their vocabulary repertoire and assure that they have approximately the

same level. Additively, based on the results of the test, the researcher differentiated the lessons' content according to the pupils' learning styles. This step aimed at accommodating the needs and interests of every pupil in the classroom. Next, the pupils in the experimental group had to answer a questionnaire about learning styles in order to have an openly clear idea about everyone's learning style preference.

The teacher taught the pupils for one month (8 sessions: 2 sessions per week) where she differentiated the lessons' content, process, and product in addition to the teaching material with much emphasis on the pupils learning styles. Meanwhile, the teacher was a participant observer; she observed the pupils' attitude, reactions, responses, and interactions when learning in an inclusive setting. Then came the post-test phase where the pupils set for another test to attest their vocabulary knowledge.

In addition to the quasi-experiment and the observation, the researcher designed a pupils' questionnaire. The latter was administered to the same group of pupils who undertaken the treatment to get in-depth insights about their attitude regarding the implementation of IE and how far differentiating instruction helped in fostering their learning to the targeted English vocabulary.

6. Population and Sampling Technique

When selecting the population for this study, a non-probability sampling procedure: the "Convenience Sampling" was used. The targeted population for this study is second-year middle school pupils at Ahmed Boussena middle school in Mila. Second-year pupils were purposefully selected for this study. The reason behind so is twofold: firstly, they have already spent one year studying the English language the thing that allows them to sit for the pre-test to check their level. Secondly, Algerian pupils start studying the English language for the first time in their first

year at the middle school. Based on the researcher's personal experience, many pupils struggle whilst learning this target language. Thus, implementing inclusive strategies to boost second-year pupils' vocabulary learning process is deemed conventional at that stage.

7. Structure of the Thesis

In addition to a general introduction and general conclusion, this thesis is made up of six chapters: Three chapters are dedicated to the theoretical part. Respectively, each chapter discusses one variable separately. The three other ones are devoted to the practical part. Overall, these chapters are sequenced according to the outline below:

Chapter 1: The gist of this chapter turns around the concept of IE and its underpinning methods namely DI. It reviews the literature of IE and DI. It also portrays the tenets of inclusive classrooms and how differentiation can be established at the level of lesson content, process, and product in accordance with the pupils' readiness level, preparedness, and interests.

Chapter 2: It demonstrates the field of learner needs, learning styles, and individual differences. It also tackles the issue of special educational needs, the difference between learning difficulty and learning disability, and some common learning difficulties usually encountered in the classroom. Later, it sheds light on some provisions that help accommodating learner needs and diversity.

Chapter 3: It introduces the importance of vocabulary in learning the language starting from definitions and historical background to strategies and tips for vocabulary teaching and learning.

Chapter 4: It addresses the methodological side of the thesis. It is divided to two major sections. The first section provides a theoretical-methodological background. The second section clarifies the choice of the research's paradigm, approach, design, strategies, and tools.

Chapter 5: It discusses the results gathered through the various qualitative and quantitative data collection tools used in this research. It also provides a profound interpretation and analysis to the obtained findings.

Chapter 6: It synthesises the study findings and offers pedagogical implications in respect to the contributions this study may offer regarding the applicability of IE in Algerian middle schools. These implications are directed to the teachers and pupils at the middle school, in addition to the parents, curriculum makers, and society at large. It further discusses the study limitations and offers suggestions for further researches that tackle the issue of inclusion.

8. Significance of the Study

This study is in support of raising awareness amongst middle school pupils in particular and teachers of English at large regarding the significant importance of IE strategies on encircling pupils' needs and how this can be a great boost to the learning of English vocabulary. Moreover, this research mainly endeavours to get the best out of IE, not only in dealing with disabled pupils, but also in addressing all pupils' needs no matter how greatly different they are. It may inspire middle school teachers to promote the learning of English vocabulary that is rather underemphasised in the teaching/learning of the English language through exploring the potential of IE in their classrooms.

That is, teachers' teaching styles will be augmented to cater the different preferences of pupils. Not only it elucidates vocabulary learning for pupils, but it also places them at the epicenter of the learning process through giving much importance to their differences, interests, needs, etc. Most importantly, it strives to emphasise the learning styles of pupils and highlight their significance in directing learning towards a more pupil-centered classrooms. In so doing, teachers would be enlightened about what suitable activities would better fit in accordance with

their pupils' different learning styles and needs. Fundamentally, this study will provide insights about the use of different techniques and ICTs under the umbrella of DI in the classroom.

This study is, by all means, considered beneficial for administrators, parents, and curriculum makers, too. It enlightens them about the different needs of the pupils so that sufficient materials and activities that go hand in hand with pupils' diverse needs and interests are planned and orchestrated.

9. Demystifying Terminology

A number of terms require elucidation to determine how and in which sense they are used by the researcher.

Inclusive education

Learners with 'special needs' have always been separated from their normal peers and been provided special schooling. This type of exclusion was mainly to care more about this kind of learners, a view that changed radically few years later. Separating learners with 'special needs' from the others was disapproved and a call for IE was highly demanded (Pijl et al., 1997). Inclusive education is one of the human right movement originating about 30 years ago that, by definition, mandates the right to include all learners in the same schools no matter how different they are.

Learners who seem to be struggling with learning have the right to be educated equally alongside their peers (Richards & Armstrong, 2011; Florin & Pantic, 2017). In essence, IE discloses the idea of differentiating instruction to encompass learners' needs. The term 'differentiation' is primarily concerned with treasuring learners' differences and responding effectively to every individual's different interests. It is about teaching a community that emanates an array of needs instead of a particular group of learners. (Tomlinson & Allen, 2000)

Differentiated instruction

When tackling the issue of DI, Tomlinson and Allan (2000) have probably provided the most comprehensive definition of this term. They posit that today's classrooms reflect the diversity of the country. They constitute of learners with different cultural background trying to bridge the language-related aspects of the two languages.

In addition, you may encounter very advanced learners sitting next to less-able learners who struggle mightily with certain school subjects. You may also find learners with rich reservoirs of background experience studying alongside their peers who know nothing about this vast world except the few blocks of their neighborhood. Notwithstanding all these differences, all learners share the right of having enthusiastic teachers who work on accommodating their needs and appreciate their differences.

Learners' needs

By this, we do not mean solely disabled learners who suffer from certain types of impairment. Conversely, all types of learners' needs fall under the defined term including different disabilities, misbehaviours inside the classroom, slow learners, social problems, and the list goes on. As a matter of fact "to understand the different types of learners who enter every classroom, it is useful to consider the life circumstances of those children and adolescents who are coping with problems in varying degrees." (Marzano et al., 2005)

Admittedly, it is rather easy to pinpoint the needs of disabled learners whose disability tend to be observable enough. It is the hidden needs of other learners who suffer from life problems that entail hard work on the part of the teacher. To demonstrate, learners who experienced a state of discomfort as far as health issues are concerned may arrive at school

feeling distraught, scared, anxious, pathetic, or they may yield other feelings that bewilder the teacher. (Marzano et al., 2005)

Vocabulary learning

It has been defined in so many ways. In the Paperback Oxford English Dictionary (2001), the term vocabulary is defined as “all the words used in a particular language or activity” (p. 858). It is worth mentioning that “there is no one totally satisfactory definition, but that we can isolate four of the most frequently implied meanings of ‘word’: the orthographic word, the morphological word, the lexical word and the semantic word” (Todd, 1987, p. 49).

The ‘orthographic word’ is about words and other symbols like the ‘hyphen’. The ‘morphological word’ is all about form. The ‘lexical word’ deals mostly with the closed meaning of words, and the ‘semantic word’ is concerned with making clear the difference between words that are similar in form but differ in meaning. (Todd, 1987; Carter, 1998). Another different definition was provided by Hatch and Brown (1995) that denotes that vocabulary is “a list or set of words for a particular language or a list or set of words that individual speakers of a language might use.” (p. 1)

When talking about enlarging learners’ repertoire of vocabulary, that is the main quest of this research, Haixia and Zhaohui (2015) argue that “Enlarging English vocabulary does not simply mean learning and remembering words and their meanings from a vocabulary list or an English dictionary” (p. 395). The term ‘vocabulary’ in this thesis is a twofold word. It means both single words and phrases “because part of vocabulary is acquired in the form of single words, and part of it is learned and memorised in the form of chunks...” (Haixia & Zhaohui, 2015, p. 396)

Chapter One: Inclusive Education: Reviewing the Basics

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Chapter One: Inclusive Education: Reviewing the basics

Introduction

Inclusive education has always been an intriguing field of research for language teaching researchers. The fact that it calls for equity amongst learners and works as a catalyst to respond to learner diversity and needs lies at the heart of their interest. This chapter therefore functions as a theoretical background that portrays the historical development of IE since its first emergence as human rights movement. It provides an ideal opportunity to comprehend how DI works, that is a hallmark of an inclusive-oriented classroom. It identifies the elements of the curriculum and learner characteristics that can be differentiated as an attempt to dismantle the barriers that hamper the learners from achieving their optimum success. Essentially, this chapter yields ways about how to amalgamate learners of different needs and backgrounds inside one classroom.

1.1 Inclusive Education: A Historical Account

Inclusive Education is a philosophy of teaching where acceptance of learner diversity is a central issue. Its emergence has paralleled with human right movements and learner exclusion from mainstreaming schools. It “starts from the belief that the right to education is a basic human right and the foundation for a more just society” (UNESCO, 2001, p. 15). After being interested in defending human rights, IE placed a great emphasis on responding to learners excluded from regular schooling for having a certain kind of disability.

When tracing back the history of IE, Topping and Maloney (2005) point out that the concept of inclusion is not really new. It traces its roots to the 1600s, stemming from the human right movements. In accordance with this view, Mitchell (2008) advocates that IE is a result of three main events: the first one, headed by the Scandinavian countries, took place around 40 years ago when impaired persons’ life started being recognised and accepted in social life.

By the 1960s and 1970s, the second event took place in the USA. The aim behind this event was twofold. First, it called upon all races' right of belonging, acceptance and equity. Second, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act passage in 1975' asked for the right of handicapped learners to be taught in normal settings alongside their same-age peers. In June 1994, the third event entitled –the 'Salamanca Statement'- was organised with the presence of 92 governments and 25 international organisations that all agreed upon the dire need to adhere to IE. (Mitchell, 2008)

The importance of this statement is well-merited since it was the first international conference to give considerable importance to human rights, in general, and to the acceptance and appreciation of learners' various needs in regular schools, in particular. (Ainscow, 1999)

Inclusive education is gaining momentum across different countries of the world. It saw its heyday through the Salamanca conference in which special educational needs were at issue. The conference was held by the UNESCO World conference in Spain, in 1994 (Ainscow, 1999). Historically speaking, during the 1960s, many countries (especially the Nordic nations) started the implementation of IE in their schools where disabled learners were privileged to study alongside their same-age peers in the same classroom. (UNESCO, 2001)

Another attempt of integrating inclusion in schools took place in North America during the 1980s. Meanwhile, Canadian countries crafted programmes that are mostly geared towards including learners with Special Educational Needs (SEN) in regular schools with their normal peers (Aefsky, 1995 as cited in Topping & Maloney, 2005). Moving to the UK, it is about the 1990 that IE received an enormous amount of attention through conferences aiming at raising awareness of its significant importance. (Hall, 1996 as cited in Topping & Maloney, 2005)

Currently, there is a shift from placing disabled learners in regular schools and claiming for human rights to responding to learners' misbehaviours and difficulties they encounter in learning. Placing disabled learners in normal classes alongside their same-age peers seems to be less of an issue than being responsive to the array of behaviours, attitudes, and learning problems they display. (Corbett, 2001)

Inclusive education practitioners took the responsibility of, not only to include disabled learners in normal schools, but also to assure a successful inclusion of all learners with learning difficulties if the defense for human rights is to be successful. That is, human right movements are a multi-faceted issue of concern and responding to learners' educational rights is one of its pivotal complementary parts.

1.1.1 Social Constructivism

When talking about constructivism, one cannot help but refer to Piaget's work about the different stages of child cognitive development that is the bedrock of this theory. It pictures the different stages children go through from birth to adulthood and how they interact with the surrounding environment to construct meaning and draw plausible conclusions (Pritchard, 2009). Moving to learning, constructivism is mainly about interaction in the classroom; how learners make meaning and make out meaning (Candy, 1989 as cited in Richards & Armstrong, 2011). Learning is resulted through constructing and adding novel ideas and information to the person's previous knowledge. Best learning occurs when learners construct meaning by their own instead of receiving ready-made information (Wearmouth, 2009; Pritchard, 2009). Social constructivism is a branch of constructivism that gave it more impetus. It is mostly headed by Lev Vygotsky. (Pritchard, 2009)

Social constructivism and IE both share the same endeavour of pushing learners to understand things through personal experiences and interaction with their peers, aside from the traditional reliance on teachers. Learners are put at the epicenter of their learning given more opportunities of experiencing learning, constructing meaning, and crafting conclusions in a more cultural and social-oriented contexts. Obviously then, IE is grounded in the social constructivist educational theory. Richards further reinforces this stance and Armstrong (2011) who advocates that social constructivism is such a well-fitted ‘theoretical framework’ for inclusion that practically contradicts with traditional teaching methods. The latter subsequently emphasises the idea of teachers being mere purveyors of knowledge (i.e., teacher-centered), in addition to the punishment/reward mechanism that most commonly tends to be the commonly used system in such settings. (Richards & Armstrong, 2011)

Barr and Tagg (1995) put it clear when said that “The instruction paradigm frames learning atomistically ... The chief agent in the process is the teacher who delivers knowledge; students are viewed as passive vessels, ingesting knowledge for recall on tests” (p. 21). Quite the contrary, social constructivism sets upon the idea that new information is primarily built through interaction in a ‘socio-cultural’ setting. It stresses the active accumulation of knowledge and meaning-making approach over traditionally absorbing information from teachers. This is mainly because “Learning is active mental work, not passive reception of teaching.” (Woolfolk, 1993 as cited in Pritchard, 2009)

In traditional-oriented environments, learners tend to be passive recipients who have no control over their own learning. Viewed through constructivism lenses, learners are considered as active members who share an integral part in the learning process with their teachers. They are the ones who cause things to happen and construct meaning through their interaction with the

surrounding environment instead of passively receiving information. (Candy, 1989 as cited in Richards & Armstrong, 2011)

Pritchard (2009) further buttresses the pivotal role of interaction and the dynamicity of learners in constructive-driven classrooms by indicating that learners' interaction in social constructivist classrooms is, by all accounts, of paramount importance. It does not really matter with whom they interact as long as they keep interacting. This view was forcefully argued by Barr and Tagg (1995) who declare that "...students must be active discoverers and constructors of their own knowledge" (p. 21). It is safe to say then that social constructivism gives more impetus to inclusive classrooms where interaction between learners, teachers, and all classroom elements is deemed to be of prime importance. If teachers ever tried to install inclusion or DI that is an inclusive strategy, in a teacher-centered setting, this will miserably backfire on teachers because IE demands more active and energetic learning environments. (Brown, 2004)

1.2 Inclusive Education: Definitions

It is well documented that learners with special educational needs (SEN) have largely been marginalised and pulled out from regular schools. Inclusive education is said to be a precursor to successfully including that special portion of learners in regular schooling. Aside from this, its most salient concern is to provide equal chances for all types of learners in mainstream schools. While definitions of IE differ substantially, it is commonly conceptualised as a teaching pedagogy that strives to prevailing inclusive values inside schools, valuing differences amongst learners as well as their diverse cultural backgrounds. It also appreciates what the community provides to uphold education and inclusion (Richards & Armstrong, 2011). This view is further stressed by Pijl, Meijer, and Hegarty (1997) who declare that "The term 'inclusive education' stands for an educational system that includes a large diversity of pupils

and which differentiates education for this diversity” (p. 1). It strives earnestly to meet the demands of every single learner through personalising instruction in accordance to their differences.

Another significant definition is given by Booth, Nes, and Stromstad (2003) who assert that “... inclusion is about consciously putting into action values based on equity, entitlement, community, participation and respect for diversity” (p. 1). At its root, IE is an approach to teaching that gives much importance to learners’ various needs. It mandates that all learners ought to benefit from the same schooling no matter if they do not share enough commonality. In an inclusive classroom, we find disabled learners studying alongside gifted ones. Of course, a great emphasis would be put on the disabled ones. (Hasan & Halder, 2018; Stronsnider & Lyon, 1997; Pijl et al., 1997; UNESCO, 2001)

Digging deep in the aims of inclusion, Liasidou (2015) postulates that “...the aim of inclusive education reforms is to achieve revolutionary pedagogical and curricular changes to accommodate students’ diverse needs” (p. 38). Placing learners from special schooling to a more normal one is not the sole aim of IE. It rather works on providing the most adequate teaching methods, ways of assessing learners, and differentiated curriculum to encompass the diverse preferences of those learners. Teachers are, furthermore, required to show competence in these areas. (Mitchell, 2008)

It is quite noteworthy to state that IE is confounded by many conceptualisations. There are people who see it through disability lenses. In the UK, ‘official policy documents’ and schools use IE, though not always, to refer to disabled learners. Conversely related, there are others who firmly believe that IE includes all sorts of learners, be them disabled or normal. Its genuine meaning is larger and deeper than to specify disabled learners with inclusion. (Ainscow

et al., 2006; Richards & Armstrong, 2011; Corbett, 2001; Topping & Maloney, 2005; Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Mitchell, 2005)

In fact, IE is far from being a philosophy that cares solely for disabled learners. There are other learners who suffer from no disability. Still, they encounter difficulties in learning. These difficulties are mainly because of social, cultural and linguistic segregation, poverty, ethnic minority and so forth (UNESCO, 2001). In a similar vein, Richards & Armstrong (2011) put it clear when said:

Inclusive education is one of the most important, yet elusive, concepts to emerge in the UK and internationally in recent years. It is an important concept because, in its full interpretation, it represents a potentially profound shift away from policies and practices based on selections according to perceptions about ability, which have traditionally sanctioned the exclusion of many learners from mainstream education. Inclusive education rests on the belief that all members of the community have the right to participate in, and have access to, education on an equal basis. However, it is an elusive concept because it is the subject of many different interpretations, depending on who is using the term, in what context, and for what purpose. (p. 7)

Alongside the same lines, the Index for inclusion proposed other alternatives to refer to disabled learners and ‘special educational provisions’. They can be replaced with ‘barriers to learning and participation’ and ‘resources to support learning and participation’, respectively. Clearly enough, the word ‘support’ here embraces all the possible pedagogical activities and actions that may enhance learners’ level of engagement and serve as a participation-boosting tool. (Booth & Ainscow, 2002 as cited in Ainscow & Booth, 2006)

Put precise, the main quest of IE is to offer potential solutions to learner segregation from regular schools. It strives for prevailing equity and belongingness in today's diverse schools. Surely enough, disabled learners do not handle the onus for their disability; it is the role of, not only teachers, but the whole school personnel, curriculum designers, and even parents to facilitate learners' full access to learning through appreciating their differences and valuing their interests that should be a starting point towards an effective planning. In this manner, it is critical to bear in mind that disability in learning is not embodied in those learners who have certain type of impairment, but it furthers up to include learning difficulties that learners are bound to encounter when exposed to learning.

Learners who show lack of interest, demotivation, disengagement, exhibit disruptive behaviours, and tend to learn in a very slow pace (to name a few) all fall under the umbrella of learners with learning difficulties. The goal of IE has ceded from including learners with SEN in mainstream schools to responding to the diverse needs of any learner who encounters a learning difficulty. Henceforth, it is inadequate and unfair to typify learners who suffer from disabilities with the term SEN.

1.2.1 Inclusion versus Integration

Inclusion and integration are two notions that, most of times, used interchangeably and other times used with no constrains. While integration is used to refer to the placement of disabled learners in normal schools provided that they are equipped with the necessitated requirements of this integration; inclusion, on the other hand, is about creating the right settings to ensure a successful inclusion of all learners with learning difficulties disregarding the number of differences they may bring around. The most salient concern of inclusion is to appreciate and value learners' diversity and to differentiate learning so that it encompasses all their needs and

interests. In so doing, classrooms would be well fitting for including all kinds of learners. (Casey, 2005; Mittler, 2000)

Quite similar, Pijl et al. (1997) assert that “The term ‘inclusion’ has a wider context than the term ‘integration’. Integration reflects the attempts to place pupils with special needs in the mainstream in regular education” (p. 1). That is, integration treats disabled learners as outsiders who do not belong to the whole and who need to be cared for and prepared to be integrated with their same-age peers in regular schools. Along the same lines, Jones (2004) points out that ‘Integration’ is a multi-faceted concept that primarily focuses on the shift from special schooling of disabled individuals to mainstream schools without considering the problems they may encounter due to their learning difficulties; whereas, inclusion sees disabled learners as an integral part of the whole. All learners in inclusive classrooms are equal and they all need assistance regarding certain learning difficulties they suffer from.

Integration has been, in many occasions, replaced by the term inclusion. This shift is a predictor of the wise thinking concerning how learners with special education disabilities should be treated inside and outside the school settings. Of course, certain institutions such as schools are of focal importance in this movement. (Casey, 2005)

1.3 Teachers and Learners in the Inclusive Classroom

Inclusive classrooms are, beyond any shadow of doubt, different from traditional classrooms where learners are passive recipients, teachers are mere purveyors of information (i.e., sages on stages), and the spoon-feeding stance of teaching is the name of the game. Today’s classrooms are becoming more diverse resulting in a dramatic change in the teaching arena. Frederickson and Cline (2009) put it clear when said that “What was once a relatively homogeneous and stable population has been transformed” (p. 3). Tomlinson and Allan (2000)

stress the increasing diversity of the classrooms saying “Look inside almost any classroom today and you will see a mirror of our country” (p. 2). Similarly, Voltz et al. (2010) ascertain that today’s schools are getting more diverse in nature. Classrooms are populated by learners with diverse needs and linguistic and cultural background. Teachers work with multiple types of learners such as gifted, disabled, less-able, etc.

Quite similar, Tomlinson and McTighe (2006), postulate that learners and classrooms are non-static. Through time, learners who used to struggle with learning at certain points will develop strategies to overcome those learning barriers. The same goes for their needs, interests, learning strategies, etc. What is deemed to be necessary for teaching and learning may need refinement to accommodate the changing demands of education. Obviously then, using the same traditional technique with all learners is doomed to failure. Teaching in such circumstances where one needs to be constantly up-dated is one of the predicaments that possess bigger challenges on teachers.

As argued by Tomlinson and Allen (2000) “In fact, the challenge of addressing academic diversity in today’s complex classrooms is as important and difficult a challenge as we have before us” (p. 1). Consequently, teachers are highly recommended to cope with this transformation as it has a significant importance for teacher education (Florian & Pantić, 2017). The notion of diversity in this case embraces all what shape up individual’s identity and result in delineating differences between people. (Florian & Pantić, 2017)

Aside from learners’ wide range of differences that teachers are most likely to encounter in their classrooms, teachers are bound to face instances where they have to deal with disabled learners. Every classroom compiles different sorts of learners, from gifted to disabled ones. They all await for an adequate input that fully meets their various needs and interests. Not only this,

but they also need guidance on the part of the teacher and acceptance so that they reach their maximum potential. This can only be made possible through differentiating the curriculum in order to provide as many learning occasions for all learners as possible. (Miller, 1996)

To put it clear, dealing with learners who are coming from different cultural and social backgrounds, with different skills, needs, learning styles, and so forth inevitably means imparting new teaching resources. Teachers have to demonstrate competence in responding to learners' diverse needs. In this regard, Pijl et al. (1997) postulate that teaching disabled learners in standard classrooms is a challenging task for teachers. Surely, responding to disabled learners' needs will push teachers to somewhat neglect the 'regular' programme and invest much effort in providing the adequate techniques, amount of time, teaching methods and approaches that fully meet the needs of the disabled learners and integrate them in the learning process.

Pijl et al. (1997) argue that learners' inclusion goes beyond organisational and legislative considerations. It actually depends primarily on the 'resources' teachers find at their disposal and how well they use those available resources to differentiate instruction and respond to the needs of all learners. Successful inclusion is rather difficult to achieve (Liasidou, 2015; Ainscow, 1999), whereas learning materials can be afforded; obtaining new teaching methods and creating effective learning environments with small groups is rather difficult (Pijl et al., 1997). Teachers who go for inclusion and teaching diversity should first be armed with the necessitated fundamental prerequisites of IE, from the most appropriate teaching method to the needed materials.

Furthermore, in addition to the available resources, teachers' attitude towards disabled learners is of paramount importance in the success of inclusion. The way teachers handle teaching disabled learners, respond to their needs, and the amount of the available resources are

said to be essential prerequisites of learner inclusion in regular classrooms (Voltz et al., 2010). In case teachers refuse to educate learners with special needs in regular classrooms, this will ultimately result in excluding learners from normal schooling and increasing the levels of school segregation. (Pijl et al., 1997)

Henceforth, teachers who deal with diversity ought to reveal awareness to learner needs. They need to be well trained and skillful regarding the way they deal with learners at different cognitive stages. They are also required to be adept and wise enough when adapting a rich and suitable differentiated curriculum that would match all the various needs, interests, learning preferences, and personalities presented in the classroom (Miller, 1996). To put it clear, “To make inclusive education a success, teachers in training need a thorough pre-service and an on-going in-service training programme to develop new skills and approaches” (Perner and Porter, 1998 as cited in Mitchell, 2008, p. 222). Such a view is further reinforced by Goree (1996) who advocates that to take the best out of IE, it is pivotal for teachers to be ‘well trained’ in how to deal with the diverse needs of learners.

1.4 Inclusive Classrooms and Education for All

According to UNESCO (2001), the ‘Education for All movement’ rests on the belief that all learners have the right to be equally educated within the same context. As a new idea, it was first introduced at the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990, and saw its heyday through the World Declaration on Education for All. As alluded to previously, IE’s chief endeavour is to deepen the inclusion of learners who have difficulties in learning through accepting their differences and responding positively to their interests. In so doing, learners would develop a sense of comfort and belongingness, and classrooms would be an adequate space for educating all learners. Further, Corbett (2001) asserts that “... an inclusive

school looks to the needs of its community and works to foster a healthy climate in which individual differences and collective values are taken seriously.” (p. 35)

Similarly, Graham and Scott (2016) acknowledge that “Inclusive teaching acknowledges the classroom reality of diversity by providing multiple ways for students to access content and demonstrate their learning” (p. 9). When rigorously working on accepting and respecting learner diversity, this will, in return, lead to creating an appealing learning environment. Teachers’ attitude towards learners’ differences is important in this case simply because “All effective teaching begins from a positive attitude and a desire to achieve what is best for all the pupils in a class” (Rose & Howley, 2007, p. 13). Not only teachers’ attitude that is of cost-effect, but also the teaching strategies and the materials they opt for are of pivotal importance. This is further emphasised by Rose and Howley (2007) who say that “In response to the diverse range of needs and strengths of all pupils, it has become clear that teaching styles and strategies need to be equally diverse” (p. 40). In addition, Mitchell (2000) asserts that:

The current push for inclusive education and the provision of education to students with special educational needs requires that all teachers take responsibility for learning of all students in their classrooms. Attention to diversity as a theme in the educational reform process requires all institutions providing in-service and pre-service teacher education programmes to include issues pertaining to inclusive practices, as in pedagogies for diversity, disability issues, and understanding processes to address barriers to learning and development. (p. 223)

It is worth mentioning that creating inclusive classes as the basic platform for EFA cannot be achieved overnight. It is true that many countries are working on addressing IE in their schools; however, as noticed in Asia and South Africa, this move is surrounded by many

impediments such as teachers' attitude, disregarding learner disabilities, lack of materials and supportive pedagogies, lack of adequate teachers' training on how to successfully implement IE, lack of clear understanding of the notion IE, traditional-oriented large classes, static teaching strategies and methods, absence of parental support, etc. (Mitchell, 2008). Although the synergy of all the aforementioned components is essential for EFA to be skyrocketed, teachers' attitude towards learners remains the very foundation of maintaining EFA. Additionally, it entails a radical change at different levels in education.

1.5 Inclusive Teaching Strategies

Inclusive education is one way of dealing with heterogeneous classrooms, i.e.; It deals with all sorts of learners albeit they do not share the same similarities. According to Voltz et al. (2010), in classrooms that contain diversity of learners, IE is doomed to failure if not supported by an appropriate pedagogy. In conjunction with this, Rouse and Florian (2012 as cited in Graham & Scott, 2016) define inclusive pedagogy as:

An approach to teaching and learning that represents a shift in thinking about teaching and learning from that which works for most learners along with something 'different or additional' for those who experience difficulties, to an approach to teaching and learning that involves the creation of a rich learning environment characterised by lessons and learning opportunities that are sufficiently made available to everyone so that all are able to participate in classroom life. (p. 9)

Hence, it is absolutely necessary to choose one of the strategies that underpin IE. Blanco and Duck (2011 as cited in Chavarria, Condoy & Montesion, 2019) argue that "... this requires strategies to carry out its principles of equal opportunities, attention and respect for diversity, accessibility, among others" (p. 208). Needless to say, this strategy ought to encircle all learners'

diverse needs. In this regard, Voltz et al., (2010) advocate that DI is a supporting instructional approach that encircles the needs of academically diverse individuals, particularly gifted and disabled learners.

In addition to DI that is the core inclusive strategy used in this research, Universal Learning Design (ULD) is another inclusive strategy that is further discussed at the end of this chapter. In the same vein, Corbett (2001) asserts that DI is a well-fitted inclusive strategy that teachers are required to opt for if IE is to be successfully maintained in their classrooms. It welcomes learners' diversity and paves the way for thorough effective learning environments to be established.

Quite markedly, a teaching pedagogy has mainly to do with the way teachers deliver their lessons and how can this be effective in getting learners engaged in learning. It keenly underpins two principle aspects namely 'participation' and 'representation' (Booth et al., 2003). Representation issues are about the type of learners registered at school, the staff workers, and the way learners' differences are approached in learning (Booth et al., 2003, p. 41). Potts (2003) stresses the significant value of participation saying that it is far from being regarded as attendance alongside the other learners. It rather means being physically and cognitively present and engaged in learning through interacting with the other peers, being a part in decision-making matters, and expressing one's thoughts freely. Simply put, 'participation' is about being accepted and valued as an active member in the classroom for one's self.

In educational contexts, learners of the same age are better be treated equally and provided with the same learning opportunities. Delivering the curriculum in one single way may fit some learners and exclude the others. Teachers should invest much effort in this area and

provide learners with a differentiated curriculum to help them reach their maximum growth. (Tomlinson, 1999)

1.5.1 Differentiated Instruction

When rising up children, parents usually notice how different their children are from one another. The fact that they are siblings does not guarantee similarness. To demonstrate, in one family, we may find different types of children with different interests, needs, personalities, and so forth. One child might be audacious, venturesome, and dareful. In such a case, parents are required to show provident care and trace some constrains whenever is needed. This does not mean that this child should be deprived from what typifies his/her personality. Contrariwise, s/he inevitably needs to go for life adventures and, most importantly, to be upheld by his/her parents.

Another child perhaps is more of an introvert or a shy person who is constantly afraid of taking risks. In this instance, parents would do what would seem unwise to do with the first child i.e., they encourage and push this child to take risks, have faith in his/her abilities, and praise him/her if ever did what he is usually afraid of doing. One of the children may eat anything while another would be a vegetarian or a person who prefers eating meat. There are even children who show perseverance, love of reading and some other interests at early stages of infancy, while others born with no interest to do the aforementioned preferences. These are simply some of the differences that parents encounter with their children. (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003)

In the classroom, learners are no exception. They may share some common points, that is something quite natural for human beings. Learners may be similar at the level of weight, height, preferences or dislikes, but this does never mean that they are alike. As our human nature insists on us, we are similar in many ways. However, we differ in many other ways and this is what makes us unique individuals (Tomlinson, 2001). Likewise, Tomlinson (1999) asserts that

learners display a wide range of differences in terms of "...experience, readiness, interest, intelligences, language, culture, gender, and mode of learning. As one elementary teacher noted, 'Children already come to us differentiated'. It just makes sense that we would differentiate our instruction in response to them." (p. 24)

Learners today are more aware about their needs and interests. Of course, they all look for their needs to be achieved. This is best demonstrated by Sarason (1993) who argues that learners revealed high levels of awareness about the ineffective traditional systems teachers opt for to teach different learners with different preferences. They clearly understand that one technique cannot fit all learners. They wish for radical changes in the education arena so that classrooms become more differentiated and learner-oriented. In so doing, their needs would be appreciated and fully gratified (as cited in Tomlinson, 1999). This makes them feel a sense of belongingness. The latter is important in that it triggers their motivation and actuates their engagement in the learning process. (D'Amico & Gallaway, 2010)

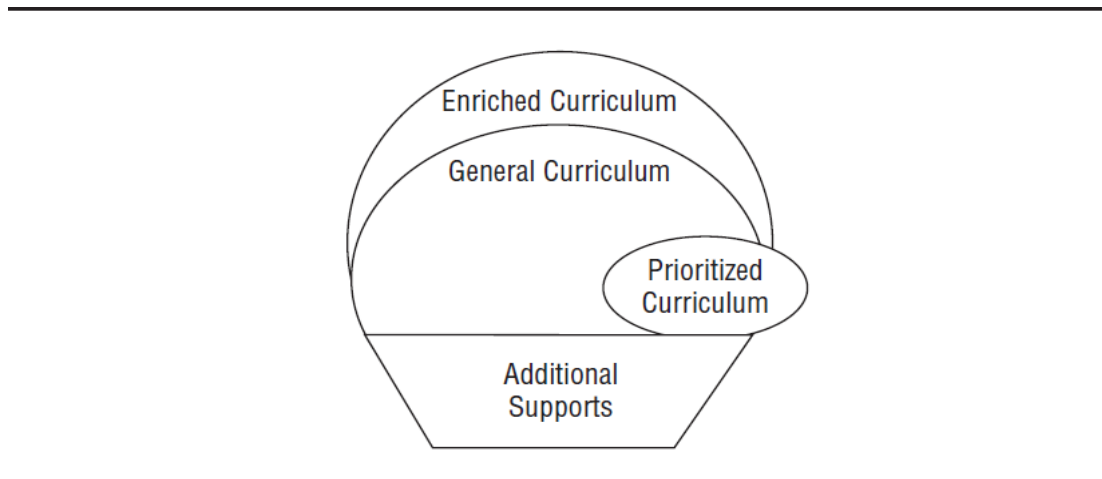
Such a view is amply demonstrated by Marzano et al. (2005) who argue that valuing and appreciating learners' individual differences goes an extra mile in paving the way for creating an effective learning atmosphere in the classroom. It actually helps learners to feel comfortable and, henceforth, be an effective member in the classroom.

Responding to learners' increasingly various needs entails from the teacher to differentiate instruction and reveal awareness for every learner's interests. Differentiating instruction, that is a prerequisite of teaching diversity, is best thought of as striving to respond to the array of needs displayed by every learner instead of looking to learners as if they all share the same needs and interests. Act this way, learners will feel that their interests, needs, differences

and preferences are appreciated, accepted, and of great value. Consequently, learners will be more inquisitive and passionate about learning. (Tomlinson & Allan, 2000; Singh, 2014)

Furthermore, "... differentiating instruction means "shaking up" what goes on in the classroom so that students have multiple options for taking in information, making sense of ideas, and expressing what they learn" (Tomlinson, 2001, p. 1). Put wisely, addressing learners' needs is the pathway to incrementally engaging learners with no preferences, gifted learners, and those who tend to usually struggle with learning. It advocates education for all kinds of learners. Such a view aligns with Tomlinson and McTighe's (2006) who acknowledge that "Differentiated instruction focuses on whom we teach, where we teach, and how we teach. Its primary goal is ensuring that teachers focus on processes and procedures that ensure effective learning for varied individuals." (p. 3)

More to the point, "Differentiation is a philosophy- a way of thinking about teaching and learning. It is, in fact, a set of principles" (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010, p. 13). In an inclusive setting, DI is a significant underpinning framework that teachers constantly need to address in their classrooms when dealing with diversity. To demonstrate, IE supports all sorts of learners, especially those who show certain SEN. This type of learners have largely been segregated from regular schools claiming that they better receive special schooling that care more about their special needs. Instead of separating disabled learners from studying alongside their normal peers, IE provides support to them through differentiating learning for them so that it reaches out to their needs and interests. (Brown, 2004)

Figure 1. 1*A Model of Differentiation*

Note. Adapted from *Differentiated Instruction: Inclusive Strategies for Standards-Based Learning that Benefit the Whole Class*, by Brown, 2004, p. 38.

As can be noticed from the above diagram, DI is a supporting pedagogy that assists struggling learners and facilitates the attainment of the general curriculum for them. It provides guidance for learners who suffer from certain disabilities, lack motivation, have no sufficient prior knowledge, skills, talents, learning strategies and the list goes on. Such kind of learners is capable of succeeding, yet they cannot do so without additional support. When providing additional support, gifted learners will benefit more while learners with special needs will achieve access to the general curriculum.

In this regard, Tomlinson (1994-1995 as cited in Brown, 2004) argues that “differentiated instruction is at least as important for students with significantly higher ability as for students with significantly lower ability” (p. 46). The enriched curriculum, on the other hand, is the additional high-level tasks and learning opportunities provided for gifted learners within the general curriculum settings. This step is necessary in terms that it cares for gifted learners’ interests and learning level instead of marginalising them while providing support for disabled

learners. The prioritised curriculum is the special education setting provided for disabled learners, so that they benefit from adequate learning that goes hand in hand with their level. (Brown, 2004)

1.5.1.1 Hallmarks of a Differentiated Classroom

A differentiated classroom is one that is, by all accounts, different from those traditional-based classrooms (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003). It provides a supporting framework for all sorts of learners, be them gifted or impaired ones. This is usually achieved through classroom flexibility that is a prerequisite of a differentiated classroom (Tomlinson & Strickland, 2005; Tomlinson & Allen, 2000). Flexibility denotes that all classroom elements namely time, group works, physical space, teaching strategies, assessment and so forth work synergistically for maximising learners' success and access to a variety of learning opportunities. (Tomlinson & Allen, 2000; Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003)

Another significant aspect that embodies differentiated classrooms is acceptance and appreciation of learners' diverse needs that are considered essential for effective planning. Since learners' needs are of focal importance, teachers are constantly required to assess their learners' level. In so doing, teachers will have insights about every learner; how to supply the most adequate instruction, and what possible ways his needs and interests can be fully met. Learners' needs are a great indicator of where learners are in learning; it provides teachers with the starting point (Tomlinson & Allen, 2000). In conjunction with this, Tomlinson (1999) contends that:

In differentiated classrooms, teachers begin where students are, not the front of a curriculum guide. They accept and build upon the premise that learners differ in important ways. Thus, they also accept and act on the premise that teachers must be ready to engage students in instruction through different learning modalities, by appealing to

differing interests, and by using varied rates of instruction along with varied degrees of complexity. In differentiated classrooms, teachers ensure that a student competes against himself as he grows and develops more than he competes against other students. (p. 2)

Moving to the other point, in differentiated classrooms, teachers work on getting every learner inclined about learning. According to Tomlinson (2001) "... a differentiated classroom provides different avenues to acquiring content, to processing or making sense of ideas, and to developing products so that each student can learn effectively" (p. 1). It gratifies learners' interests through providing the most adequate and appealing tasks that go hand in hand with learners' abilities. Put wisely, "A teacher who understands that learner variability is also a factor in student success considers students as carefully as content and plans for their assessment or pre-assessment designed to determine where students stand relative to desired learning goals." (Tomlinson & McTighe, 2006, p. 153)

When acting this way, learners unconsciously find themselves enticed, enthusiastic, and actively engaged in learning. This does not mean that teachers provide every learner with what suits his/her abilities; it, instead, provides flexibility in the complexity of tasks, the working strategy in the classroom, cooperation between learners, and so forth. Accordingly, learners encounter no difficulty in dealing with classroom tasks. (Tomlinson & Allen, 2000; Tomlinson, 1999)

Successful differentiated classroom cannot be achieved without the teacher-learner cooperation since classroom success is a shared endeavour that works ardently on crafting effective planning, knowing very well that learners' feedback about what goes well and what goes wrong, their interests, needs, preferred teaching strategies, is paramount. Teachers should have a solid foundation upon which they provide effective planning, and this foundation is, to a

great extent, provided by learners (Tomlinson et al., 2008). This view is further discussed by Tomlinson and Eidson (2003) who say that “The teacher develops units and lesson plans based on what she learns through pre-assessment and on her accumulating knowledge of her learners” (pp. 6-7). Thus, to better differentiate one’s classroom, learners ought to take part in making decisions that are for classroom benefits. In so doing, learners would feel more autonomous and appreciated. (Tomlinson & Allen, 2000)

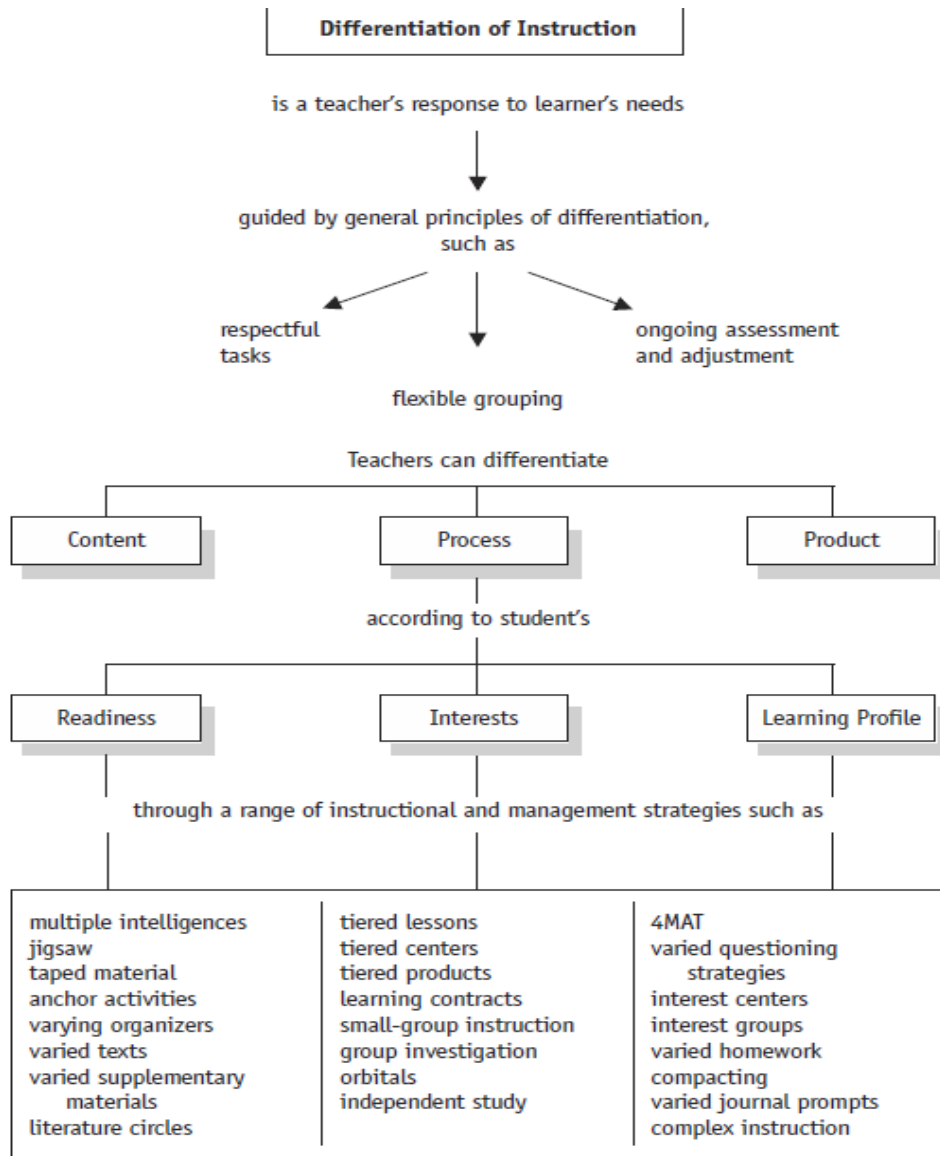
To sum everything up, a differentiated classroom is one of the pertinent areas in IE whose main quest is to offer potential solutions to cope with every learner’s diverse needs and interests. It is the product of many overlapping principles that differ from one teacher to another. It essentially necessitates curriculum adaptation to suit learners’ level and interests, appreciation of learners’ differences, and on-going assessment that is the bedrock of purposeful planning. Needless to say, teachers have to demonstrate competence in all these areas and be skillful enough in handling any undesirable nuances.

1.5.1.2 Differentiated Classroom Elements

Setting out the foundation for differentiation in classrooms inevitably entails many synergistic elements. Of course, “There is no single formula for creating a differentiated classroom” (Tomlinson, 1999, p. 9). However, practitioners and specialists in the field provided a set of workable principles that facilitate and pave the way for a successful implementation of DI in the classroom. In conjunction with this, Tomlinson and Eidson (2003) contend that “...planning for differentiated instruction must involve careful consideration of student characteristics, curricular elements, and instructional strategies” (p. 9). This idea is best illustrated through the following figure:

Figure 1. 2

A Concept Map for Differentiating Instruction



Note. Adapted from *Leadership for Differentiating Schools and Classrooms*, by Tomlinson and Allen, 2000, p. 3.

As can be deduced from figure 1.2, DI is best thought of as the teachers' response to learners' diverse needs and interests. It is markedly framed with respectful tasks, flexible grouping, and on-going assessment and adjustment. For Tomlinson and Imbeau (2010),

“Differentiation can be accurately described as classroom practice with a balanced emphasis on individual students and course content.” (p. 15). That is, teachers can differentiate instruction at the level of content, process, and product in accordance with learners’ readiness, interests, and learning profiles. This can be achieved through a number of instructional and management strategies.

1.5.1.2.1 Elements of the Curriculum that can be differentiated. After the emergence of IE, learners with SEN benefited from normal schooling alongside their age-appropriate peers. Accordingly, classrooms became increasingly diverse as they included gifted and disabled learners. However, impaired learners initially encountered setbacks in normal classrooms that hampered their inclusion and progression. One may assume that their disabilities impeded them from doing their best in regular schools; it is, in fact, not the problem. It is the curriculum that exacerbates the situation. Corbett (2001) prescribed a suitable synopsis for the problem when said that “There has been an inference in the past that inclusion meant bringing those outside (the ‘special’) into the privilege of mainstream without acknowledging that many mainstream learners can feel excluded by a restricted curriculum, inflexible pedagogy and hierarchical ethos.” (p. 1)

To overcome such an obstacle, Teacher have to bear in mind that a well-planned and flexible curriculum is a prerequisite to impactful teaching. Teachers are required to differentiate the curriculum so that it correlates positively with, not only disabled learners, but all learners’ needs and interests. Clearly, “Teaching is a profession of ever changing demands, and to make educational integration a success teachers require skills such as curriculum adaptation ...” (OECD, 1999 as cited in Mitchell, 2005, p. 222). This adaptation or differentiation of the curriculum can appear at the level of: content, process, and product.

Differentiating content is concerned mainly with the way teachers display knowledge, materials, skills, attitudes, and so on, so that learners can fully grasp what they are supposed to learn. It is the way teachers convey meaning and how learners get to comprehend this meaning (Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003; Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010; Tomlinson & Allen, 2000). A lucid example given by Tomlinson and Eidson (2003) is when teaching time to learners. Some learners may show high levels of performance when it comes to telling time while other can even have a deficiency in using numbers correctly. In such a case, teachers should differentiate the teaching strategies, materials, skills and attitude for those learners who differ in the level of readiness. If not, the learning process will miserably backfire on teachers.

In this regard, Tomlinson and McTighe (2006) assert that "... the best-laid plans of the best teachers are just that- plans, subject to change" (p. 13). They go so far as to suggest that the teachers' changes and modifications are generally at the level of the teaching strategies and materials, the attitude towards learners' needs and interests, skills and plans, degree of difficulty instead of the content itself. Learners are required to learn the same content differently. Teachers who understand and value individual differences tend to provide a variety of learning opportunities so that all types of learners are targeted. Indeed, learners' comprehension to important things can be augmented when they are presented in ways that works for them better. (Tomlinson et al., 2008, p. 8)

A differentiated process is the activities designed for learners to get successful access to the content. Tomlinson and Imbeau (2010) go further in clarifying this point by addressing that the use of the term activity to refer to the process of differentiating the content can be misleading. Not all activities can address the learners' needs and the required outcomes from the content. Henceforth, it is better to use 'sense-making activities' to imply that they gratify

learners' needs in learning and help them 'own the content' through its alignment, meaningfulness, and usefulness, not only within the school-based boundaries, but also in the real-world. (p. 15)

Differentiating the product primarily implies what learners received as new input and are able to perform and produce after a certain period of learning. Products can be displayed through group work projects, brochures, providing solution to real-life problems, tests, homework, and so on. Beneficial products usually push learners to think critically when applying what they learned, the thing that would result in expanding their knowledge. (Tomlinson & Allen, 2000; Tomlinson, 1999; Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010)

To get the best out from learners, it is preferred to assign the most suitable strategy when addressing products. One learner may show his best through designing a brochure whereas another may fail at this point miserably. He may instead be better if ever asked to work on a group project. Precisely, learners who perform poorly at a certain type of product do not necessarily mean that they failed; it rather means that they have not been equipped with the right strategy to develop their understanding. On a different note, this stance does not in any way defy the fact that there are learners who fail in revealing their competence at the end of a specific learning period.

There are other writers who suggest 'Affect' as the fourth element in differentiating the curriculum. Affect has mainly to do with "students' emotions and feelings impact their learning" (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010, p. 16). That is, learners' motivation, engagement, participation, self-esteem, working with other peers, etc. all affect learners' learning. Obviously then, affect is not a complementary part of the differentiated curriculum, but rather it represents an important aspect that cannot be disassociated.

Learners who have a positive affect regarding themselves tend to get high scores and excel in learning, and vice versa. Accordingly, expert teachers usually do not only observe learners' behaviours. They go beyond the noticeable behaviour to look for what pushed that specific learner to perform that specific behaviour. When they get the hang of how things go, then they would be able to direct learners' affect at the most positive sides of learning. (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010)

1.5.1.2.2 Learner characteristics that can be differentiated. Notwithstanding the shift from traditional-oriented classrooms to more dynamic and active ones that guarantee the access of all learners, teachers still struggle with the way they should handle learner diversity. They constantly ponder upon ways that enable them to respond to learners' different needs, interests, background knowledge, etc. (Tomlinson, 1999). Treating all students as if they were alike and, in return, waiting for them to excel in learning would rather seem illogical. (Tomlinson et al., 2008)

Every learner is unique with his/her own preferences, learning styles, needs and so forth. Encountering differences amongst learners is quite natural. According to Tomlinson and Allen (2000), there are three areas where most learners tend to differ in: readiness, interests, and learning profiles. It is reasonably fair to differentiate instruction in order for learners' readiness level, interests, and learning profiles to be encompassed. (Hall, 2002 as cited in Singh, 2014; Kalbfleisch, 1998 as cited in Brown, 2004)

1.5.1.2.2.4 Learner Readiness Level

Learners' level of readiness is best thought of as the repertoire of knowledge that demonstrates their current level. Unreservedly, many teachers think that learners' readiness is tantamount to their ability. In fact, ability is most likely to be born with, whereas readiness is a current level that is subjected to change. It is according to the learners' level of readiness that

teachers make the necessary adjustments and modifications regarding the complexity of classroom tasks, materials, teaching strategies, group works, etc. In so doing, every learner will have to deal with adequate tasks in consonance with his/her interests that, in return, will get them effortlessly engaged in learning. (Tomlinson, 2000; Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010)

1.5.1.2.2.5 Learner interests

Differentiating interests has mainly to do with the differentiation of tasks so that they meet learners' interests. Plainly, learners can better learn when triggered by appealing tasks. A very good example is given by Tomlinson and Eidson (2003) about an artist who has got no inclination for reading. When asked by a teacher to give a synopsis of what he read through painting, he excelled. They go further in precisising the teachers' role in gratifying learners' interests as an integral part of successful learning by declaring that an artistic teacher is he who combines the required content with learner needs and interests for the sake of hooking the learners. "A wise teacher links required content to student interests in order to hook the learners." (pp. 9-10)

1.5.1.2.2.6 Learner's Learning Profile

Every learner has a preferred way of learning according to which teachers should differentiate the curriculum. Tomlinson (2001) clarifies this point saying that "... we understood that students have different learning profiles and that there is merit in meeting students where they are and helping them move on from there" (p. 2). In a similar vein, Tomlinson and Imbeau (2010) suggest four elements as the main components of learners' learning profiles. They are: learning style, intelligence preference, gender, and culture. The learning style refers to the preferred way learners can learn better through.

The most dominant learning styles are the VAK (visual, auditory, and kinesthetic). Intelligence preference is the preferable way of thinking and approaching things. There are learners who have musical type of intelligence while there are others who have a mathematical one. Moving to gender, it is about the different ways males and females prefer to learn through. Culture is the last component that shapes the way learners behave with each other. Every learner is a mirror of his/her own culture.

Conclusion

Inclusive education is a teaching philosophy that lays the foundation for more equal schools where learner diversity is highly welcomed, accepted, and appreciated. Not only it cares for disabled learners, but it accentuates the diverse needs and interests of all learners. It is quite noteworthy to state, however, that responding to learners' various needs is such a challenging task fraught with difficulties. Teachers continually encounter setbacks when dealing with this diversity. Integrating learners in regular schools seems to be less of an issue than getting all types of learners inclined about learning in today's increasingly diverse classrooms.

Teaching strategies that underpin inclusion such as DI adjusts the curriculum at the level of content, process, and product as an avenue to creating a classroom for all, not only for gifted or disabled learners. Undoubtedly, all learners have learning difficulties wherein they need constant support. This support varies from one learner to another according to their readiness, interests, and learning profiles. Considerably, the onus is all put on teachers to erase those learning barriers and ascertain a successful inclusion of learners. They ought to reveal high levels of awareness and be adept enough to answer the various classroom demands.

The next chapter stresses primarily learner needs and learning styles issues. It functions as a rich source of knowledge regarding the aforementioned issues so that effective inclusive schooling and differentiation takes place.

Chapter Two: Learners' Diverse Needs in Language Teaching and Learning

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Chapter Two: Learners' Diverse Needs in Language Teaching and Learning

Introduction

Adopting IE in schools reiterates the need to respond to learner diversity and needs. Therefore, this chapter traces the contemporary development of learners' needs, learning styles, and individual differences. Additively, it sheds light on the common learning difficulties that one can encounter in the classroom. Finally, some provisions to handle these issues will be highlighted and expounded at greater length throughout this chapter.

2.1 Understanding Learners' Needs

To prevail inclusive practices in today's schools, it is imperative to recognise and respond to learners' array of needs. Teachers have become accustomed to their classrooms being thoroughly populated by learners who represent myriad of needs that need to be fully met if their classrooms are to be effective. Surely, these needs differ from one learner to another; gifted learners have needs that differ substantially from those of less-able ones, learners with learning difficulties, and those who suffer from some sort of physical impairment.

In conjunction with this, Putri (2017) states that learners differ from each other in so many ways and this is what creates heterogeneity in classes. Inevitably, trying to cope with learner diversity entails from teachers to first comprehend learner needs and provide the suitable provisions, accordingly. More importantly, the individuality that learners possess need to be dealt with in a more 'flexible' way to help them grasp the elicited learning objectives (Bolt & Roach, 2009). Of course, the practical provisions need to outweigh the theoretical considerations.

Though "... the definition of needs was increasingly limited by the resources available..." (Mittler, 2000, p. 9), some comprehensive conceptualisations were provided.

Wearmouth (2009) postulates that needs can be seen from different angles depending on the need

itself and how much it is necessary. Most commonly, it is regarded as a necessity that has to be satisfied otherwise a difficulty would appear. For instance, for someone who is hungry, food is a need. Moving to education, a learner who suffers from visual impairment would feel the need to audio books, Braille texts, or even some kind of encouragement on the part of the teachers to achieve his/her maximum potential and has equal educational chances as his/her same-age peers.

When tackling the issue of needs, Maslow's theory of human needs comes at the forefront of the issue. According to Maltby, Day and Macaskill (2010), Maslow's chief concern was to figure out what exact incentives that push humans to perform certain tasks and go for specific decisions. Throughout his observations, he delineated two theories of human motivational needs namely 'deficiency motives' and 'growth motives'. The former highlights humans' basic needs like food, healthcare, and love that need to be fulfilled. The latter, on the other hand, has to do with individual's different needs that, if ever achieved, would give much impetus to their growth. A good example about growth motives is one's quest for accumulating knowledge.

Wearmouth (2009) asserts that "... the learning difficulty creates the need. The need is 'special' if the provision required to satisfy that need is 'special' " (p. 25). That is, the solutions that are provided to satisfy learners' needs vary according to the needs themselves. Responding to learners' diverse needs can be made possible with the utmost suitable provisions that are deemed to embrace learners' preferences. When looking for beneficial teaching systems for instance, teachers can adopt the ones that have already been used elsewhere and were of great help to the school community. Surely, teachers can make the necessary modifications if ever needed. However, there are teachers who tend to heavily rely on 'ready-made, off-the-shelf system' the thing that ultimately would backfire on them (Rose & Howley, 2007). Applying the

very same provisions of another country on different learners and within different contexts is seemingly unwise action.

It is no exaggeration to say “Teaching is a challenging profession and requires that you develop a wide range of skills in managing your classroom” (Rose & Howley, 2007, p. 5). Responding to learner needs requires from teachers to be well-armed with the necessitated materials, both theoretically and practically. Calling for practices that blueprint every aspect of learner diversity may strike some as overly daunting. Keenly aware, it is the everyday problems that actually exacerbate the situation. In order to develop optimal effectiveness, teachers need to think out of the box and provide provisions that would eventually rid them from every what might hinder the learning process.

2.1.1 Special Educational Needs

Inclusive schools are usually popularised by different kinds of learners. Learners with Special Educational Needs (SEN) are considered part of the class community. They, like any other learners, need to be recognised and valued. Luckily, the publication of the Warnock Report was a major landmark in changing the view about SEN, and highlighting the possible provisions that can enable disabled learners to benefit from normal schooling alongside their same-age peers. Many teachers, however, still marginalise this kind of learners and look at them through disability-lenses considering them as complex issues. (Rose & Howley, 2007)

One plausible explanation to this is that labels like ‘cerebral palsy or Asperger’s syndrome’ tend to frighten teachers and make them think about every possible difficulty they might encounter with the learners before even meeting them (Rose & Howley, 2007). These pre-judges tend often to create boundaries between teachers and learners and hinder the process of

including learners with SEN in the school curriculum. This view aligns with Rose and Howley's (2007) who argue:

Whilst it is undoubtedly true to say that an understanding of factors which might affect access to learning is of considerable help to the teacher, the low expectations which are often fuelled by disabling labels can lead to underachievement and a denial of entitlement to appropriate learning opportunities. (pp. 2-3)

Nowadays, teachers, if compared to the past, are more aware about learners' difficulties in learning. Prior to this, learners who suffer from a certain learning difficulty were viewed as reluctant or inept (Carlson, 2005). At that time, labels such as intelligent for the gifted learners and stupid for the less-able ones were the most used terms. Along the same lines, Ochiai (2003) asserts, "These children ... are not lazy, slacking off, or merely avoiding subjects they dislike. They have trouble learning and need to be taught in special ways that are tailored to their individual needs" (p. 70). Afterwards, labels like stupid were replaced by a more professional term that is learners with Special Educational Needs. The latter was generated to refer to learners who suffer from certain disabilities ranging from mild to severe. SEN is not relatively new; it was used in Britain around thirty years ago as an attempt to rid disabled children from terminologies such as 'handicapped children' to a more appropriate one. (Westwood, 1987)

Precisely enough, its most salient concern is to hone school personnel's attention to the fact that learners with learning difficulties should receive well-fitted provisions that considers their educational needs (Rose & Howley, 2007). If not, this will belittle their self-esteem and lower their levels of achievement. Teachers need to be aware of the capacities of this category of learners when planning for the lessons; otherwise, learners would show unwillingness for learning that would probably last for so long. (Rose & Howley, 2007)

Special educational needs have been widely used and accepted amongst school communities because, on the one hand, there is no other proper label to refer to disabled learners and, on the other one, it is mandated in official papers (Mittler, 2000). It is by the publication of the 1981 Education Act that SEN first entered the educational context as a response to the Warnock Report (DES, 1978 as cited in Jones, 2004). In Britain, the latter is said to be of significant importance in the educational arena where SEN is a central issue. (Croll & Moses, 1985)

The Warnock Report's pivotal concern was to abandon the use of those stereotyping labels that are usually used to refer to disabled individuals, mainly due to the abundant drawbacks they have on learners' performance. More precisely, the report has put labels at a disadvantage since they have been proven to impede learners' effective inclusion in mainstream schools, lower their achievement levels, and mislead teachers when trying to choose the right responsive teaching strategies that best fulfill learners' preferences.

Noticeably, in one classroom, we may find various disability forms amongst children as we may find many disabilities displayed by the same child. Focusing merely on learners' disabilities may distract teachers from the other significant exigencies that are excessively beneficial to learners' learning than their disabilities. As a result, and in order to get rid of learners' categorisation, a more general term should be suggested to encapsulates all possible 'learning difficulties' associated with learning and push learners to a need for extra support. The term does not refer solely to disabled learners, but rather to all learners who have trouble with learning. (Beveridge, 1993)

Coming to understand what makes a child grouped under the label of SEN, the Education Act (1996) states that every child who encounters any difficulty in learning is said to have

‘special educational needs’. To demonstrate, a slow learner, for instance, is regarded in this research as a disabled learner though s/he suffers from no apparent disability. However, Westwood (1993) argues that “Students who have, in the past, been referred to as ‘slow learners’, ‘low achievers’ or simply ‘the hard to teach’, certainly fall within the category ‘learning difficulties’ ” (p. 1). According to the Education Act (1996), a child is said to have a learning difficulty:

... if _ (a) he has a significantly greater difficulty in learning than the majority of children of his age, (b) he has a disability which either prevents or hinders him from making use of educational facilities of a kind generally provided for children of his age in schools within the area of the local education authority, or (c) he is under the age of five and is, or would be if special educational provision were not made for him, likely to fall within paragraph (a) or (b) when of or over that age. A child is not to be taken as having a learning difficulty solely because the language (or form of the language) in which he is, or will be, taught is different from a language (or form of a language) which has at any time been spoken in his home. (p. 178)

Learning difficulties need to be sorted out through the installation of the most suitable provisions. What we mean by a ‘provision’ is “... special educational provision ... described as provision different from provision generally made available to children of the same age.” (Jones, 2004, p. 8)

2.1.1.1 Difference Between Learning Disability and Learning Difficulty

When delving into history, one will find out that learning disability is an old term that can be dated back to the 1800s (Carlson, 2005) and was “... recognised as a category of disability under federal law since 1975” (Reid & Lienemann, 2006, p. 2). It has been defined in different

ways and this is mainly "...due to the highly heterogeneous nature of the students who are defined as LD" (Reid & Lienemann, 2006, p. 2). One of the misconceived interpretations of learning disability is that it is used interchangeably with learning difficulty; whereas, they are two distinct terms with different meaning.

To demonstrate, Carlson (2005) postulates that "There is a vast difference between a learning difficulty and a learning disability; an individual with learning difficulty can learn using conventional teaching techniques while LD requires specialized interventions which depend on the type of disability" (p. 1). This is mainly because learning disability is related to some sorts of brain dysfunction (Carlson, 2005; Reid & Lienemann, 2006). Whereas, learning difficulty is "... not directly related to any specific physical, sensory or intellectual impairment (although in some cases their intelligence may be somewhat below average)." (Westwood, 2008, p. 2)

Usually, learning disabilities that are embodied through brain deficiency lead to learning difficulties. This view aligns with Wearmouth's (2009) who asserts that learning disabilities are prime sources of learning difficulties and this has been cited in the 1996 Education Act. For instance, a child who suffers from visual problems is recognised as having a learning difficulty as far as his impairment deters him from learning the same way as his same age peers do.

Typically, learners categorised as disabled ones will most assuredly encounter problems 'in academic, behavioral, and social-emotional areas'. This does not denote their absolute deficiency in these areas of concern. To demonstrate, there are learners who show skillful competence when mathematics is a central issue. This enthusiasm fades away when it comes to reading-related tasks. Conversely, other children have a great willingness when it comes to reading assignments and fail miserably when it comes to mathematics. This is for academic problems. Moving to behavioural and social-emotional areas, there are learners who exhibit

difficulties with low self-confidence, depression, trust issues, and so forth. On the other hand, other learners may show other problems related to behavioural issues. (Reid & Lienemann, 2006)

Macintyre and McVitty (2004) point out that to adroitly address the suitable provisions to cope with learners' learning difficulties; practitioners are highly recommended to deeply comprehend the prime characteristics associated with this type of learners. Armstrong (2012) declares that 'specific learning disabilities' embody a series of difficulties at the level of 'writing, listening, speaking, reasoning, calculating, sensory-processing, and memory'. There are learners who may have one single disorder from the previous list whilst there are others who may have more than one disorder. Statistically speaking, a high percentage of disabled learners amounted to 80% suffer from many types of reading problems, dyslexia in particular.

2.1.1.2 Common Learning Disabilities

By 1976, the rate of learners with disabilities has seemingly increased. Though a noticeable decrease in the number of disabled learners has been lately registered; the total number of disabled learners showed the opposite (Reid & Lienemann, 2006). Likewise, Westwood (1993) postulates that learners who suffer from learning difficulties make up the biggest portion of learners with SEN. To help these learners achieve their maximum growth, teachers need to put the most appropriate interventions into action.

According to Beveridge (1993), there is almost no child who encountered no learning difficulty during studies where s/he needed special provisions and support on the part of the teacher. Certainly, we have all experienced learning difficulties that, if thought of nowadays, cannot be envisaged. Having experienced a special educational care does not necessarily mean that we once suffered from a learning disability that impaired us from achieving our maximum

potential. It can simply mean that we did not use the right learning style, lack of appropriate materials, the unsuitable teaching strategies adopted by the teacher, etc. In the same class, we may find a child who performs badly in reading tasks and if asked to draw out what s/he read, he excels. Another child may do great if works in pairs using worksheets. Therefore, learning difficulties displayed by learners cannot be always attributed to disabilities. Maybe they just need differentiation in the use of the teaching methods and materials to be sorted out.

Coming to know some fundamental characteristics that learners with learning difficulties usually show, Westwood (2008) points out that learners who tend to have learning difficulties are typified by a number of distinctive features. They usually show a great deficiency when it comes to language skills especially reading and writing. It is throughout this struggle that learners are recognised as having learning difficulties. He further adds that this kind of learners generally fail in dealing with the assigned tasks by their teachers mainly because they find it difficult to develop the appropriate learning styles and strategies necessary for the given tasks.

2.1.1.2.1 Autistic Spectrum Disorder. One of the very common disabilities that cause grater learning difficulties to learners is the Autistic Spectrum Disorder (ASD). According to Pritchard (2009), ASD embodies difficulties at the level of communication and social interaction. Learners with this disorder tend to have a minimised number of preferences and a set of ‘repetitive behaviours’. They tend to have inflexible behaviours and emotional disorders. Additionally, Garner (2009) argues that autistic learners are “... characterised by impairments to all forms of communication and a difficulty in judging the appropriateness of actions in social settings resulting in an inability to develop normal social relationships.” (p. 42)

Autistic learners usually have their own unique way of talking where they tend to struggle with comprehending and articulating speech. Autistic symptoms include the sudden

unplanned change of the topic under discussion, difficulty in initiating or carrying out a conversation, and talking to one's self (Ochiai, 2013). Quite markedly, these symptoms are not generic; they differ from one child to another depending on the situation. In the classroom, a number of conditions such as the way the teacher teaches, the subject being taught, the classroom atmosphere, and so forth, usually affects learners with ASD. Moving from one classroom to another, autistic learners' change in behaviour can be noticed.

When tackling the issue of ASD, it is quite noteworthy to state that problems where language is at issue are not exclusive to autistic learners (though they have proved to have serious problems with the use of language); gifted learners can be suffering from language-related problems as well (Lewis & Norwich, 2005). For Pritchard (2009) ASD does not necessarily mean distorting the development of communication and interaction mechanism for learners. Contrariwise, there is abundant number of learners with ASD who have high IQ levels and excel in learning. In fact, ASD usually hinders the natural way learners learn and causes some learning difficulties.

2.1.1.2.2 Dyslexia. Meeting learners' educational needs once included in regular schools can be fulfilled in so many different ways depending on the need itself. A major step towards meeting those diverse needs is to have background knowledge about the most common learning difficulties teachers might encounter in their classrooms so that the most appropriate provisions are chosen. A very common learning difficulty is what is called dyslexia. (Reid, 2005)

Dyslexia is generally conceived in terms of reading-related struggles. However, other interpretations of dyslexia go beyond this narrow definition to suggest that it is not a mere reading problem. Amidst the wide range of interpretations that surround this learning difficulty, teachers are required to deeply fathom the concept of dyslexia and the teaching strategies that

can delimit its impact on learners. Insisting on teachers to be familiar with dyslexia is mainly because children with dyslexia usually tend to hide their difficulties by being passive learners in reading and writing tasks so that their impairment is not noticed.

Accordingly, they are usually classified as disengaged and reluctant learners. Significantly, dyslexia's symptoms cannot be easily distinguished. Children cannot be claimed to have dyslexia unless they process information or perform tasks related to reading or writing skills (Reid, 2005). In such a case, dyslexia "... can be identified through observation or through the results of routine assessment" (Reid, 2005, p. 8). According to Reid (2005) "Assessment for dyslexia is a process and that process involves much more than the administration of a test ... Specifically, assessment should consider three aspects – difficulties, discrepancies and differences, and these should relate to the classroom environment and the curriculum." (p. 11)

It might seem difficult for teachers to handle situations where they have to deal with learners who suffer from dyslexia and such sort of learning difficulties. Many would claim that this mission is for specialists not teachers, especially that "Some dyslexia children require a degree of individual support and this can put added pressure onto teachers" (Reid, 2005, p. 85). However, teachers can be of great help especially that they receive a pre and in-service training not only about how to teach the subject matter but also about how to deal with learners' diversity and the possible learning difficulties they might encounter.

For better results, it is rather preferable that teachers cooperate with specialists to make the learning process easier and reachable for all learners in general and for the disabled ones in particular (Reid, 2005). To demonstrate, if specialists will take care of individuals with dyslexia within special schools, then this category, though received support and care, will always feel and think that they are different since they have been pulled out from regular schools. They will

always be considered as disabled individuals and will get enormous labels that would, wittingly or unwittingly, affect their educational process. Conversely, if learners with dyslexia are integrated in mainstream schools, interact with other peers, and their needs are welcomed and responded to, this will increasingly boost their endeavour for learning.

2.1.1.2.3 Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder. One of the common sources that possess learning difficulties for the majority of learners is ‘hyperactivity’. It is an endowment of excessive physical movements of learners who cannot keep calm for so long. This kind of learners tend to be impulsive and find their solace in moving their hands, feet, body; standing up and moving around the classroom, etc. the thing that makes it way too difficult to control their behaviour.

This problem is attributed mainly to physical problems instead of being merely an issue of lack of control. Learners who display hyperactivity in the classroom are prone to develop a deficiency in being focused, i.e. they encounter problems in being attentive. Recently, this learning disability is known as ‘Attention-deficit Hyperactivity Disorder’ (ADHD). (Westwood, 2008)

The characteristics associated with ADHD differ from one learner to another. Though there are some common shared characteristics between all learners, it is important to note that syndromes of this disorder range from mild to severe (Reid, 2005). Learners with ADHD tend to have serious behavioural issues in addition to deficits at the level of concentration and attention if ever compared to their same-age peers. This is usually the case whether or not the disorder is coupled with hyperactivity, impulsive reactions and distracted attention (Pritchard, 2009; Reid, 2005). Additionally, “... children with ADHD are likely to have temper tantrums, sleep disorders, general behaviour problems, specific learning difficulties, depression, and anxiety

disorders” (Pritchard, 2009, p. 70). Indeed, “Impaired concentration and restlessness associated with ADHD seriously impair a student’s learning capacity.” (Westwood, 2008, p. 53)

2.2 Individual Learning Differences

Historically speaking, investigations in the area of Individual Differences (ID), is as late as the 19th century. ‘Charles Darwin’s cousin, Sir Frances Galton (1822-1911)’ are said to be pioneering in this field (Dörnyei, 2005). As the name implies, IDs are varied traits and discrepancies that differ from one person to another (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 1). He adds, “ID constructs refer to dimensions of enduring personal characteristics that are assumed to apply to everybody and on which people differ by degree. Or, in other words, they concern stable and systematic deviations from a normative blueprint.” (p. 3)

Psychologically, IDs are tantamount to both ‘intelligence’ and ‘personality’. However, most definitions of this term go beyond this narrow interpretation to more ones that are generic. Another interpretation of IDs, advocated by ‘The International Society for the Study of Individual Differences’, delineates four aspects as the bedrock of IDs namely ‘temperament’, ‘intelligence’, ‘attitudes’ and ‘abilities’. More recently, Cooper (2010) provides other four elements’ compiles to IDs that are ‘abilities’, ‘personality’, ‘mood’ and ‘motivation’. Surely, there are other traits that make up the backbone of IDs because this field is rather a tremendously large one that sets upon some basic components and other non-compulsory ones.

Clearly, each learner in the classroom represents his/her own differences that significantly differ from the others. This ‘individuality’ should be accentuated and considered when planning for lessons. Effective planning entails an assessment of each learner’s preferred learning styles, needs, likes and dislikes, etc. That is, the curriculum and the teaching strategies are differentiated for the sake of encompassing learners’ differences. More importantly, teachers have to be wise

enough when dealing with learners' differences. Teachers should plan for all learners and show respect to individuality. (Rose & Howley, 2007)

2.2.1 Aptitude

In educational contexts, when tackling the issue of ID with a scrutiny, aptitude is regarded as one dominant factor. It is usually used as a generic term that covers learners' bulk of abilities in general and cognitive ones in particular (Dörnyei, 2005). That is, aptitude and ability are two terms that are, though claimed to mean different things, used interchangeably with the former being more general. Ability is usually used to refer to learners' ability and readiness to acquire new input and other language-related skills. It is the point where most learners tend to differ substantially, each to his/her ability. Accordingly, aptitude delineates learners' ability to acquire the new language. (Dörnyei, 2005)

2.2.2 Motivation

Strictly speaking, differences amongst learners spark from different issues. Indeed, "When we think of individual differences among language learners, motivation springs quickly to mind as one of the most important of these variables" (Robinson, 2002, p. 45). Dörnyei (2005) summarises the importance of motivation by saying that

It provides the primary impetus to initiate L2 learning and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process ... Without sufficient motivation, even individuals with the most remarkable abilities cannot accomplish long-term goals, and neither are appropriate curricular and good teaching enough on their own to ensure student achievement. (p. 65)

Of course, motivation and learners' endeavour for learning differ from one learner to another. Some are intrinsically motivated, others are extrinsically motivated, and some others

gather between the two. Even the degree of how much learners are motivated is counted when it comes to IDs.

2.2.3 Type of Intelligence

The way learners process information, interpret and understand things differ considerably. There is always one best way for an individual through which s/he can excel in learning. In this regard, Prichard (2009) avows that learners' type of intelligence has a direct impact on the way they perceive learning. Obviously, learning through social contexts, cooperating with other peers, and maintaining group works would be appealing for learners with an interpersonal type of intelligence that is not the case for learners with an intrapersonal type of intelligence. For the latter, individual works would perfectly fit their learning preferences.

2.2.3.1 Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligences

Traditionally, when people are generally asked about intelligence, they directly relate it to gifted pupils who excel in learning, especially in mathematics. This view discards the existence of other types of intelligence that have nothing to do with mathematics. In educational contexts, we may find learners who are excellent at drawing, music; hand-on projects, etc. but tend to fail in other subjects. We cannot attribute their failure to intelligence because if we think wisely, we will find out that they are intelligent. They have their own type of intelligence. Gardner who came up with the theory of multiple intelligences forcefully argued this view. The theory denotes individuals' multiple areas of strength that differ from one person to another. Accordingly, when delivering a task to learners, everyone will deal with it in a way that matches his/her type of intelligence. (Pritchard, 2009)

Gardner (2006) proclaims that intelligence is endowed with one's 'abilities'. However, the extent to which individuals manifest in these skills differ, they all share these factors that

shape up their intelligence. Saying that the abilities differ from one person to another, Gardner classified human's abilities into eight basic types of intelligence namely linguistic, logical-mathematical, special, bodily-kinesthetic; musical, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and naturalist. (Armstrong, 2009)

According to Pritchard (2009), Gardner advocates that, though our type of intelligence differ, we are all intelligent in some special way. This fact is usually ignored and hidied due to those common intelligence tests that tend to deter testees from showing their best according to their type of intelligence. In so doing, individuals' abilities and talents may be affected in a negative way.

Practically, teachers ought to transact the curriculum in ways that meet learner multiple intelligences. The assigned tasks should be flexible enough in a way that encircles learners' needs and interests and be in parallel with their level. Working on addressing all the individuals' strengths in every single lesson will not be easily achieved. Indeed, an arduous task adds more pressure on all teachers. However, practice makes perfection, i.e.; this difficulty will fade away through time and, in return, an effective learning environment where learners' needs, intelligences, interests, and learning styles are wholly accentuated. (Pritchard, 2009)

It is worth mentioning that multiple intelligences and learning styles are two interrelated issues. Henceforth, teachers are highly recommended to "Give opportunities for learners to respond in a range of different ways; writing prose responses is not the only way to record events _ indeed there are many ways other than writing in which new learning can be dealt with." (Pritchard, 2009, p. 40)

2.2.4 Personality

Personality is an integral part that demarcates IDs. To some psychologists, personality epitomises the significant part of IDs (John, Robins & Pervin, 2008). According to Dörnyei (2005), “Without any doubt, personality is the most individual characteristic of a human being...” (p. 10). Similarly, Cervone and Pervin (2013) declare that for specialists in the field, personality indicates the distinctive psychological features that encapsulate ‘feeling’, ‘thinking’ and ‘behaving’. These personality patterns are not easily subjected to change, at least for a long time. They make up one’s personality that is why it is hard for them to be changed. Claiming that changing one’s personality characteristics does not in any way ascertain their static nature. Actually, they can be changed and accommodated depending on life situations. For example, there are certain cases in which a sociable person turns out to be an extremely introvert one, and vice versa.

Indeed, every individual is endowed with traits that shape up his/her personality. By traits, we do not mean those displayed by all people like showing grief in sad moments and content in good ones. These universal patterns, by far, cannot create individuality between people. What makes people different are those showed uniquely by individuals in special occasions and can be noticed through time. Investigating the shared tendencies between individuals is, though, beneficial for personality psychologists in that they are provide the very foundation of knowing about the other distinctive features that make up their personality.

‘Individual differences’ is a generic term that embraces a wide range of principle and optional traits. Teaching learners with different learning styles, type of intelligence, needs and interests necessitates a dramatic departure from overly routinised classrooms to differentiated classrooms that provide multiple opportunities for all learners no matter how different they are.

2.2.5 Styles of Learning

Learning styles is another issue where learners differ. Each learner has his own best way of processing information. In contrary, Dörnyei (2005) argues that "... unlike abilities and aptitudes – they do not reflect innate endowment that automatically leads to success. That is, styles are not yet another metaphor for distinguishing the gifted from the untalented but rather they refer to personal preferences" (p. 122). Therefore, it is discussed separated from IDs issue.

Learning styles have been defined in so many different ways. In this respect, Pritchard (2009) defines it as the most appropriate intellectual way through which learners perform greatly in the learning process. To illustrate, there are learners who prefer the use of audio-driven materials over pictures. Others prefer group works rather than individual ones, etc. Factors related to the physical space and personal issues are also considered in learning styles. Some learners reach their maximum growth if they interact inside the classroom using the whole space instead of just sitting on chairs, and vice versa. For some others, learning is at its high levels when the classroom is plentiful with pictures, colours, light; and when they put their fingers on projects, leaflets, brochures, etc. whereas, others function better when the classroom is void. That is, some children are visual oriented, some are auditory, and others are kinesthetic learners who learn best through touching. (Tomlinson, 2001; Tomlinson & Eidson, 2003)

Additionally, Reid (2005) postulates that learning styles and inclusion both share the same endeavour regarding learners' differences. One problem with inclusion is that it does not wholly meet learners' various needs. Henceforth, learning styles can add much help to sort out this problem and give in-depth understanding about learners' needs and how could they be successfully met in an inclusive context. Likewise, D'Amico and Gallaway (2010) assert, "Identifying the learning style of your learners is important when you are planning differentiated

teaching strategies. Knowing their styles allows you to group students effectively for small group or station instruction.” (p. 18)

According to Macintyre and McVitty (2004), as long as children differ in their way of learning, it is imperative for teachers to differentiate their teaching strategies so that it fosters learners’ learning and addresses all their preferences. Put wise, Ochiai (2003) acknowledges that it is unpractical to teach the same lessons to learners in the same particular way. This way of teaching may strike some as overly facile, while for others it may result in a great difficulty in learning simply because it does not relate to their learning styles.

Children learn differently and function way too better if their learning styles are effectively manifested. Most importantly, teachers should make a balance between all learning styles displayed by learners. No learning style should outweigh the other types. If ever done, some learners would excel in learning whilst others would encounter enormous difficulties. Accordingly, teachers ought to demonstrate competence in addressing all learners’ learning styles equitably. This step helps in directing learning to a more learner-centered approach, profoundly comprehend learners’ needs and to differentiate teaching so that it meets those identified needs. The differentiation then is not done solely at the level of tasks’ difficulty, but also at the level of learners’ various styles of learning. (Pritchard, 2009)

Having said all this, though, it is quite noteworthy to state that learning styles are non-static. Learners may overlap the use of more than one learning style. An auditory-oriented learner does not mean that he learns only through auditory materials; however, he can consolidate learning using other learning styles. That is to say, learning styles should work as vehicles that direct learning to a more flexible productive process based on learners’ preferred ways of learning (Reid, 2005). Quite similar, Rose and Howley (2007) declare that eliciting

learners' learning styles should not make boundaries that hinder learners from experiencing learning from different angles.

2.2.5.1 The VAK Learning Style Model

It would seem erroneous to say that learners learn in the same way. They, in fact, differ in how they approach the classroom activities using the most suitable learning style that makes them feel at ease when learning and fosters their comprehension. In this sense, the emergence of learning difficulties would significantly be lowered (Pritchard, 2009). Kronberg et al., (1997) advocate that "All students have preferred ways of learning, further reinforce such view. Some students learn best by listening, some by seeing, and others by doing." (p. 21)

Teachers have to consider learners' myriad learning styles if the learning process is to be effective. The most common learning style modal is the VAK model (visual, auditory, and kinesthetic). It is quite noteworthy to state, however, that learners may learn using more than one learning style. Thinking that learners learn through one same learning style is fatal. Visual learners, for instance, should not be restricted solely to visual aids. They should be supported through visual and kinesthetic learning materials. (Pritchard, 2009)

2.2.5.1.1 Visual Learners. Visual learners are able to grasp information way too better if displayed through visual demonstrations such as pictures, flashcards, realia, videos, films, etc. They use colourful highlighters to emphasise important information. If teachers overuse the lecturing mode, visual learners will lose concentration and face a difficulty in understanding. In such cases, it is more preferred to incorporate additional visual aids like the data projector, handouts, etc. (Dörnyei, 2005). Quite similar, Pritchard (2009) acknowledges that visual learners can learn and remember information better if it is presented visually.

Visual inputs such as brochures, drawings, films, flashcards, and so forth serve as stepping-stones in enhancing learners' effective learning. When recalling information, visual learners tend to envisage it in their minds and use hand movements to explain their ideas. In fact, "They are better able to listen when they have eye contact. Employing advanced organizers or planners, graphic organizers, which map information in a succinct format, review guides, and highlighting important facts, are good strategies to aid visual learners." (D'Amico & Gallaway, 2010, p. 18)

2.2.5.1.2 Auditory Learners. The other type of learners is those who learn better through auditory stimuli. Audiobooks, audiotapes, talking out loud and discussing information are appealing input to them. If this type of learners wants to memorise a chunk of information, they recite it aloud and, in many cases, they register it to be heard to later (Dörnyei, 2005; Pritchard, 2009). According to D'Amico and Gallaway (2010), auditory learners are "... strong interpreters of meaning through body language, voice inflection, tone, rhythm, and rate of a speaker." (p. 18)

2.2.5.1.3 Kinesthetic/Tactile Learners. Kinesthetic learners are usually referred to as tactile learners though the two terms are not identical. Kinesthetic learners rely most heavily on learning through body movement. Tactile, however, entails the use of hands (making a project, for example). For kinesthetic learners to be actively actuated, motivated and engaged in the learning process, teachers should provide them with classroom activities that require standing up from chairs and moving through rows. If not, learners will feel bored and disengaged. They enjoy moving around when revising since it helps in ameliorating the memorisation of information quickly.

On the other hand, for tactile learners, physical activities such as hands-on projects, making posters, brochures, manipulating objects and so on is of great benefits since they allow learners to manifest in their area of strength and makes memorising and recalling information an

effortless process (Dörnyei, 2005; Pritchard, 2009). According to D'Amico and Gallaway (2010), kinesthetic learners "... learn best through using multisensory strategies or a hands-on approach, because they interpret information through their sense of self in space. They benefit from manipulatives, small group assignments, role playing, building, games, moving around, and project-based learning." (p. 18)

To conclude the discussion about the VAK learning style model, it is worth mentioning that giving importance to the myriad learning styles displayed by learners is essential, albeit challenging. In this sense, learners will be well aware about themselves as learners and about their needs and preferences as well. Learners then will be autonomous learners who know very well what effective ways helps them learn better (Reid, 2005). Additionally, it is firmly believed that the components of the VAK style are complimentary, i.e.; the existence of one component (visual, for example) does not exclude the other components.

To illustrate, gifted learners are usually claimed to make use of one basic style coupled with other styles. This type of learners tends to excel in learning through time because they get the best out of every learning style instead of being restricted with one single modality. That is, information can be processed differently according to the way it was displayed (Kinsella, 1995 as cited in Dörnyei, 2005). Pritchard (2009) who argues that learners who make benefits from all sensory modalities will pave the way to a more effective learning further reinforces this view. Information can be fully grasped through putting the appropriate style into practice.

Conversely, learners who show insufficient competence in making use of the different sensory modalities are most likely to encounter learning difficulties. Of course, teachers will not present their lessons focusing solely on auditory materials or visual ones, for example. They will differentiate the use of the teaching materials as possible as they can so that all learning styles

are included. As teachers differentiate the content, learners are required to differentiate their learning styles if they are to be successful learners.

2.2.5.2 The Honey-Mumford Model

The Honey-Mumford learning style model comprises four main types of learners namely activists, reflectors, theorists, and pragmatists (Pritchard, 2009). For Honey and Mumford (1986 as cited in Pritchard, 2009), learners need to belong to one of the four aforementioned categories in order to achieve their maximum potential whilst dealing with classroom activities otherwise they will encounter abundant learning difficulties that will impede their learning from being effective and fruitful.

The first category in the Honey-Mumford learning style model is the Activists. They enjoy going through new educational experience and give a huge priority to learning through physical movements than any other learning style. Group works are much to their likes where they feel privileged exchanging ideas with their mates. In this manner, activists will not be disengaged or bored, but rather they will constantly show a fervent desire for learning. It is worth mentioning that activists easily lose interest in learning if it is traditional-oriented or so.

The second type is reflectors. This type can be described as ardent observers who are continually keen on collecting information and being well-armed with arguments before giving their point of views or ideas. The collected data are generally matched with their own knowledge the thing that makes their ideas worthwhile. The fact that they collect, analyse and synthesise information always gauges them towards coming up with plausible conclusions. The process of observing and collecting information usually takes time, but when done, it pays great dividends.

Moving to the other point, theorists are the third type in the Honey-Mumford learning style model that warrants much discussion as well. This type of learners relies heavily on

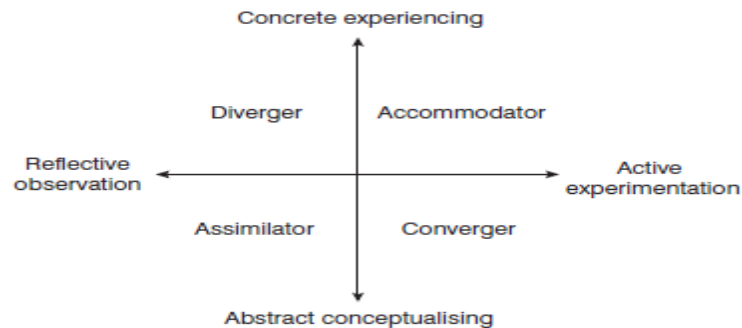
‘problem-solving’ mechanism and prefers logical, comprehensible, and objective information. They like accumulating new information through observations and try to find a linkage between their prior knowledge and the new input. Their construction of knowledge is done through asking questions, attesting the new learned information, and finding out whether it suits their existing knowledge.

Pragmatists are the last type of learners in the model under discussion. This type is typified with high levels of confidence in making actual use of the new input. They prefer putting the new ideas in practice before judging their worthiness. Afterwards, they add those new ideas and thoughts to their current knowledge. They manifest on what they deem useful and spend less efforts and time on what does not attract their attention. Pragmatists are very keen on putting themselves or coming across problem-solving situations. (Pritchard, 2009)

2.2.5.3 Kolb’s Learning Styles and Experiential Learning Model

Kolb’s model is placed along a continuum; on the one hand there is ‘concrete vs. abstract thinking’ and on the other hand is ‘active vs. reflective information processing’. For the first dichotomy, ‘concrete thinking’ implies dealing with on-the-spot situations by integrating one’s emotions, whereas ‘abstract conceptualisation’ has to do with logical thinking instead of emotions. The second dichotomy, however, there is ‘active experimentation’ that put much emphasise on making change through providing practical solutions to certain situations. Conversely, ‘reflective observation’ priorities the deep comprehension and description of situations and thoughts. (Dörnyei, 2005)

In Kolb’s style, we find four main types of learning styles (as illustrated in Figure 2.1) namely: divergers, convergers, assimilators, and accommodators.

Figure 2. 1*Learners' Learning Styles in Kolb's Model*

Note. Adapted from *Ways of Learning: Learning Theories and Learning Styles in the Classroom*, by Pritchard, 2009, p. 50.

Divergers are those who combine between concrete and reflective orientations. They prefer observable situations through which they can craft meaningful ideas and thoughts. Saying they are akin in reflective situations does not in any way imply that they are 'abstract thinkers'. In fact, they excel in learning through generating ideas from concrete situations. Mostly, they are emotional learners who care for others and like to socialize through cooperative works.

The second type of learners in Kolb's model is those who combine between abstract and active orientations. Being abstract thinkers does not imply that they are 'detached' from the real world. Convergers like to be surrounded by experimental situations where they invest in providing practical solutions based on their deep thinking and analysis. This kind of learners likes to be occupied by practical situations like laboratory experimentations.

Assimilators are those who combine between abstract and reflective orientations. Unlike convergers, assimilators embody processing observable information deeply before putting them into immediate practice. They are much more concerned with thoughts, ideas, and theories that sound logical.

Accommodators are the fourth and last type of learners in Kolb's model. They intertwine both concrete and active orientations. That is, they are much into physical activities where they have to deal with concrete experiments. In this regard, they are risk-takers; experimentations are attention-grabbing tools for accommodators. This type of learners is so much into group works where they are assigned project works and hands-on activities. (Dörnyei, 2005; Pritchard, 2009)

2.2.5.4 The Dunn and Dunn Learning Style Model

When tackling the issue of learners whose potential for learning is usually hampered because of their learning difficulties, the Dunn and Dunn learning style model (1993, 1999) received the approval of many practitioners amongst all the other learning style models (Landrum & McDuffie, 2010). In this regard, "Dunn posited that learning styles could be established for at least two distinct groups of exceptional students: those who are gifted and talented and those who are underachieving." (Dunn, 1983 as cited in Landrum & McDuffie, 2010, p. 11)

Historically speaking, the Dunn and Dunn learning style model is rooted in two main learning theories namely the "cognitive-style theory" and the "brain-lateralization theory" (Dunn & Griggs, 2000). The former implies that "... individuals process information differently on the basis of learned or inherent traits" whereas the latter suggests that the two brain hemispheres function differently. People are no exception. When processing information at the level of the brain hemispheres, people go through various conditions.

Henceforth, the Dunn and Dunn Learning-Style Model stands on the following assumption. First, learning is attainable for every learner. Second, the teaching methods, approaches, and materials chosen by teachers are generally geared towards understanding

learners learning styles and responding to their educational needs. In addition to that, all learners have abilities, skills, and talents but they differ from one learner to another.

2.3 Provisions to Embrace Learners' Diverse Needs

After getting to grips with learners' needs, it is imperative to shed light on suitable interventions to respond to those needs and include learners in regular schools where all of them are alike, whether or not they have some learning difficulties. Fullan (2007) put it wise when said, "Aside from being inevitable, change is needed" (p. 138). For Tomlinson (2001) despite the fact that "... there is no single way of ensuring that students get to learn in ways that work best for them, some guidelines are broadly useful in establishing classrooms responsive to a wide range of learning preferences." (p. 63)

Wearmouth (2009) asserts that one of the developed provisions in British and Welsh schools was the publication of the 'Code of Practice for the Identification and Assessment of Special Educational Needs' in 1994 that aims at providing guidance and effective steps about how to successfully encourage and deal with learners with learning difficulties. Surely enough, the process of inclusion cannot be achieved overnight. The fact that this category of learners was segregated right from the beginning exacerbates the situation.

The process of inclusion would seem more successful if those learners were part of the regular school community right from the outset (Dean, 1996). Some learners who will demonstrate competence in coping with the new curriculum; whereas, there are others will face a great deficiency in adapting to the new situation that is far cry from the one they got used to in special schools. (Dean, 1996)

Therefore, effective change starts from searching for the right responsive interventions that considers all learners' needs and learning difficulties. Of course, the selected interventions

vary from one school to another and from one teacher to another depending on the learners' needs.

2.3.1 Changing Everyone's Attitude Towards SEN

It is undeniable that changing attitude is more difficult than ever anticipated. A long-term process cannot be achieved overnight. Meeting learners' diverse educational needs requires supporting, valuing, and appreciating their diversity instead of marginalising and putting them under categories with meaningless labels (Forest & Pearpoint, 1992 as cited in Jones, 2004). Fortunately, "The labels given to children perceived as different from the majority of children the same age have changed over time. However, we need to be sure that the attitudes towards the labels have also changed" (Jones, 2004, p. 5). This is mainly because the use of labels to refer to disabled learners who suffer from learning difficulties or disabilities will affect both teachers and learners. The latter will, through time, behave according to the label they received. (Dean, 1996)

Quite similar, it is well documented that "Children are powerfully influenced by the adults they see in their daily lives" (Bandura, 1986 as cited in Armstrong, 2012, p. 15) and this is what affects their self-esteem if ever labeled with terms such as SEN by elder people surrounding them. Not only children who are affected but also their teachers because teachers are not mere purveyors of information, instead they work on the success of learners' inclusion that is peculiar to learners' social development and equity inside and outside school boundaries (Gibson & Blandford, 2005). Therefore, if not abolished, these labels will certainly demean the achievement of this group of learners known as SEN.

Changing labels and moving learners with SEN from special to regular schools to be equally educated as their same age peers may strike some as necessary and pivotal to the success of this category of learners. Teachers and school personnel may happily adopt the principles of

inclusion in their schools. However, this change demands legislating laws that denote equity between learners no matter how greatly different their learning difficulties are, and a change in the attitude of how learners' needs and discrepancies are perceived. This change should be clear when designing the curriculum, and in teaching practices as well. It entails mobilising more resources, in and pre-service teacher training about the fundamentals of inclusion and responding to learners' needs, and enthusiasm on the part of teachers. (Jones, 2004)

2.3.2 Creating more Inclusive and Differentiated Schools

Learners who have mild or severe learning difficulties are usually taught in special schools where they receive special care. The reason why they are not taught in normal schools is the lack of the appropriate teaching strategies, approaches and provisions that embrace their needs. Teaching learners with learning difficulties requires new methods of teaching whose most salient concern is to include them in the school curriculum considering their preferences, talents, discrepancies, likes and dislikes, etc.

This view aligns with Armstrong's (2012) who asserts that "... if we truly want to help these kids succeed in school and in life, it seems to me that we need to make a comprehensive, all-out inventory of their strengths, interests, and capabilities" (p. 9). For instance, a child who suffers from Down syndrome and keen on music would greatly benefit from mastering the reading skill through songs. (Armstrong, 2012)

Sadly, teachers are still dealing with learners as if they are alike. Though learners do not share the same abilities, skills, needs and so on, teachers insist on planning for them, as they are one same person who has the same cultural, linguistic, and ethnical backgrounds. (Tomlinson & Strickland, 2005)

In fact, “Teaching and learning approaches should accommodate the diverse skills, abilities, and prior knowledge of young adolescents; cultivate multiple intelligences; draw upon students’ individual learning styles; and utilize digital tools” (Tomlinson & Imbeau, 2010, p. 6). Needless to say, “... all students with a degree of special educational needs deserve that there should be a specific individual plan in place” (Hanks, 2011, p. 22). In a similar vein, Westwood (2008) advocates those learners’ various needs and learning difficulties insist on teachers to opt for the appropriate interventions that make learning way too easy for them. For instance, teachers can adjust the programme so that it suits those learners’ readiness level, use group works, provide extra explanation if ever needed, and so forth.

Inclusive education is a paradigm shift in how we approach learners’ diversity, be them gifted or disabled. It entails from teachers to think out of the box and opt for strategies (DI in our case) to encapsulate learners’ varied needs. In this regard, Armstrong (2012) posits that “Rather than putting kids into separate disability categories and using outmoded tools and language to work with them, educators can use tools and language inspired by the ecology movement to differentiate learning and help kids succeed in the classroom.” (p. 11)

One effective way of including and valuing all learners is to differentiate the lesson so that it embraces the different needs available in the classroom. Effective teachers have to bear in mind that successful inclusion does not mean including learners in regular schools, but it rather means establishing the norms of fairness, respect, and appreciation of learners’ differences and needs (Rose & Howley, 2007; Gibson & Blandford, 2005; Reid, 2005). In this regard, Rose and Howley (2007) say that similar to teachers who develop their own preferred teaching styles, it is important to take account of learner differences and learning styles. Inclusive classrooms are in favour of flexible teaching practices that appreciate and support learners’ differences and needs.

Effective differentiation depends primarily on the teacher's ability on matching the classroom activities to learners' needs and learning styles as an attempt to sustain their engagement and boost their motivation. Similarly, Reid (2005) adds that effective inclusion needs to put into consideration learner needs, differences, and diversity.

2.3.3 Working with Teachers

Teachers are of focal importance in the process of responding to learners' needs and including learners with SEN in regular schools. When tackling the issue of change in education, many teachers are prone to show resistance to new teaching perspectives. However, they have to bear in mind that with the changing profiles and demands of learners, opting for new teaching methods and approaches becomes necessary. If not, they would "... continue to be victimized by the relentless intrusion of external change forces" (Fullan, 2007, p. 138).

Effective change is, by all means, a tedious task that stems from changing teachers to their attitudes, teaching strategies, and materials. This can be made possible when they are constantly updated, ready for change whenever needed, and install their resources in the right learning situations (Rose & Howley, 2007; Fullan, 2007). Effective teachers should not look at learners' differences and needs as a challenge that they cannot put up with; it is rather preferable that they perceive them as effective teaching situations where they ought to put their teaching skills and abilities into practice. That is, they look for the most suitable teaching strategies and techniques that can address the needs of, not only learners with learning difficulties, but of all the learners in the classroom. (Rose & Howley, 2007)

One way to develop teachers' competences in dealing with change in the classroom especially for the case of responding to learners' needs is to take part in teachers' trainings, workshops, conferences, group discussions with each other, etc. In so doing, they acquire the

ability to judge the reliability and effectiveness of the selected provisions based on convincing and logical judges (Fullan, 2007). According to Dean (1996) “Teachers need to share a view that they are concerned with children as individuals and that children who have special needs are a challenging problem” (p. 15). He further adds, “Successful teachers of children with learning problems somehow manage to convey to pupils their belief in them and their ability to achieve. Teacher expectation is a very important part of this work.” (p. 16)

2.3.4 Working with Parents

The responsibility of addressing learners’ diverse needs falls partly on teachers and partly on parents because teachers are unable to do the entire job alone especially with the insufficient information they have about the learners. Parents who are considered as a credible source of information can only bridge this gap of information. They are ready to give as much information about their children as possible just at the cost of their children’s success (Fullan, 2007; Dean, 1996; Mitchell, 2008). In a similar vein, Farrell (2006) postulates that:

Parents’ contributions are considered as information, for example about the child’s strengths (which all parents can provide); collaboration, for example with behaviour programmes or supporting a pupil’s individual education plans (to which most parents could contribute); resources, such as being a classroom aid (which many could contribute); and helping develop policy, for example being a parent governor of the school (which some could contribute). (p. 15)

It is because of this that “... the research over the years has become more forceful about the need for parent and community involvement” (Fullan, 2007, p.191). More recently, parents’ involvement in the process of their children’s learning has quickened its steps due to the urgent need to the valuable information and the amount of aid they can provide to teachers that is of

immense effectiveness for all learners, not only those categorised as disabled learners. In so doing, parents will be constantly updated about their children's learning. (Jones, 2004)

When placing learners from special to regular schools, it is pivotal for their parents to be included as well. They should get informed about what their children are experiencing in their new educational life. Of course, parents have the right to ascertain the absolute adequacy of the place where their children are educated and that their children will get their fair share of equity, care, and appreciation; they will not be marginalized because of their needs and differences (Bailey, 1998). Precisely, "Parents have the right to have access to information, advice and support during assessment and any decision-making processes about their child's special educational provision." (Jones, 2004, p. 93; Dean, 1996, p. 20)

2.3.5 Hearing Learners' Voices

Learners are an integral part in the school community who, if ever included in the decision-making process, responding to their needs, including them in mainstream schools, and supporting them to overcome the encountered learning difficulties would be effectively achieved. Indeed, "It is effective that teachers listen to the voices of pupils" (Gibson & Blandford, 2005, p. 22). To demonstrate, learners with learning difficulties and educational needs are well aware about their needs, difficulties, preferences, and even the sort of provisions that would best bridge their gap in learning. Therefore, teachers should consider learners' ideas and give them chances to head away their own learning the way that best suits their educational needs. (DfES, 2001a, as cited in Gibson & Blandford, 2005)

In the same vein, Kronberg et al. (1997) point out that the teacher-learner kind of relationships is immensely efficacious in terms that they ameliorate learners' engagement and

willingness for learning, and give a comprehensive image about the learning results and how learners envisage themselves as accumulators of knowledge.

Assisting learners with learning difficulties should never push teachers to overlook gifted learners. Having them outperforming in class tasks in comparison to low achievers is no guarantee that they suffer from no learning difficulty. In fact, they also need to be valued and recognised. It may contradict our knowledge that talented learners who mostly perform well in their studies can also be disabled, yet it is quite possible (Liddle & Porath, 2002 as cited in Westwood, 2008). For this reason, “Concern has been voiced in recent years over the plight of such students, because often they are overlooked and under-served by the system” (Stewart, 2002 as cited in Westwood, 2008, p. 5). Additionally, Westwood (2008) advocates that “... these students require the same intensive and effective teaching methods recommended for use with other students with learning problems.” (p. 5)

Conclusion

Learners come to schools from different backgrounds. Not only they differ in the linguistic, cultural and ethnicity issues (just to name a few), but they vary also at the level of their learning styles, learning needs, etc. There are even learners who come from special schools allied with special needs. The issue of learner needs, when not well considered in schools, tends to impinge on learners’ learning. Obviously then, understanding learners’ array of needs to provide the most suitable provisions is an offset to their segregation from normal schools.

Changing the way we view disabled learners, installing the most suitable provisions such as DI, working with pupils, teachers, and parents are thought of as best ways to bypassing problems associated with SEN. Additionally, labels such as SEN should be abolished because learning difficulties are not encountered solely by disabled learners but by all learners, be them

gifted or less-able. Key to doing this is moving from overly routinised classrooms to more constructive-driven ones. Typically, teachers should consider learners' preferred ways of learning and provide varied teaching materials and methods that go hand in hand with learners' learning styles. In so doing, learners would achieve their optimum potential in learning the new language and forget about their disabilities. Put wise, responding to learners' array of needs is a shared endeavour between the school community, learners and their parents who are considered a valuable resource of worthy information about learners with special needs.

The following chapter will elaborate the importance of vocabulary in language teaching and learning in addition to the steps and strategies widely used in this regard.

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Chapter Three: Vocabulary Teaching and Learning

Introduction

The role of vocabulary in learning the language is unequivocal. However, during the 1940s or so, vocabulary learning was one of the sidelined areas of the foreign language. It was the publication of ‘Linguistics in Language Teaching’ (Wilkins 1978) and ‘The Lexical Approach’ (Lewis 1993) that relegated the importance of vocabulary in the teaching/learning arena. Ever since then, a great deal of emphasis has been documented in the teaching/learning of vocabulary. This chapter, therefore, concerns itself with the historical background of vocabulary teaching/learning. It seeks to provide comprehensive conceptualisations of ‘word’ and ‘word knowledge’. Moreover, the main orientation of this chapter is discussing the main steps learners usually go through when learning the vocabulary items of the foreign language and a bulk of techniques deemed fruitful in the teaching of vocabulary.

3.1 Vocabulary Knowledge

Vocabulary knowledge, also known as “lexical knowledge” (Laufer & Goldstein, 2004, p. 400) or “word knowledge” (Laufer, 1990, p. 148) is not limited to mastering long lists of words. Quite obviously, words have multiple meanings, forms, and use. It is necessary then to contemplate all possible usage of words. Ma (2009) asserts that vocabulary knowledge is about knowing the word meaning and how to use it accurately in various contexts. Authors interested in the field of second language learning, especially second language vocabulary learning believe that word knowledge includes a variety of aspects that need to be known when learning new words.

Significantly, vocabulary knowledge is not restricted to the comprehension of words in specific situations. It instead implies the complete and clear understanding of the word and its

related underlying meanings. In so doing, one will be able to understand the different meanings of the word regardless of the situation it is used in, and to use the word skillfully as well (Nation, 2001; Hiebert & Kamil, 2005). Clearly enough, “Vocabulary serves as the bridge between the word-level processes of phonics and the cognitive processes of comprehension.” (p. 4)

Unquestionably, expanding and solidifying learners’ repertoire of vocabulary has been well documented in linguistic research and proved to be of vital importance for their academic success (Richards et al., 2009). For Hiebert and Kamil (2005) “Vocabulary is not a developmental skill or one that can ever be seen as fully mastered. The expansion and elaboration of vocabularies is something that extends across a lifetime.” (p. 2)

In this spectrum, Allen (1999) proclaims that “As teachers we not only feel responsible for our own use of language, we also feel compelled to focus on vocabulary study so that our students are exposed to rich, expressive language” (p. 1). Furthermore, he adds, “They want to involve their students in productive vocabulary instruction because they know the value of well-chosen words.” (p.1)

Ur (1991) postulates that vocabulary is usually interpreted in terms of the words taught in the foreign language. However, to maintain optimal success, teachers are required to look beyond this narrow interpretation because what we call a word may be composed of two or three words and still conveys one single meaning such as ‘*post office*’ and ‘*mother-in-law*’. Another best example would be idioms (e.g., *call a day*) that are usually made up of more than one word to express one single meaning. Therefore, it is preferable and more accurate to talk about vocabulary items instead of vocabulary words.

3.1.1 Definition of a Word

It is critical to keep in mind that “Vocabulary is all about words. When we use language, we use words all the time, thousands of them” (McCarthy, O’Keeffe & Walsh, 2010, p. 1). In this respect, Thornbury (2002) postulates that “The coining of new words never stops. Nor does the acquisition of words. Even in our first language we are continually learning new words, and learning new meanings of old words.” (p. 1)

Keenly aware, Schmitt (2000) proclaims that many people restrict the definition of words to the one presented in dictionaries; though, if studied with scrutiny, things may differ. He further adds, “To describe the meaning of a word, then, we need to describe the concept it represents” (p. 23). Put clear, defining words is no easy matter. Some scholars claim that words are freestanding. However, words like ‘a’ and ‘my’ cannot stand-alone and still are considered as words. Others believe that a word conveys one single meaning. This view can be claimed as true if we consider words like ‘car’ or ‘snow’. However, there are words that imply different meanings. If we take words like ‘cow’, ‘bull’ and ‘calf’, we have to bear in mind that these words can be interpreted differently as follows:

cow => + noun	bull => + noun	calf => + noun
+ bovine	+ bovine	+ bovine
+ female	+ male	+ unmarked sex

Accordingly, it is safe to say that “... there is no one totally satisfactory definition, but that we can isolate four of the most frequently implied meanings of ‘word’: the orthographic word, the morphological word, the lexical word and the semantic word” (Todd, 1987, p. 49). For Carter (1998) ‘word’ can be defined either orthographically as “... any sequence of letters (and a limited number of other characteristics such as hyphen and apostrophe) bounded on either side

by a space or punctuation mark” (p. 4), or semantically as “... the minimum meaningful unit of language.” (p. 5)

For Nation (2001), “Words are not isolated units of the language, but fit into many interlocking systems and levels” (p. 36). Indeed, it is difficult to agree upon one definition of ‘word’ since “words represent complex and, often, multiple meanings.” (Hiebert & Kamil, 2005, p. 1)

Due to the lack of one satisfactory and universally accepted definition of a word Takać (2008) postulates that vocabulary is made up of an infinite number of lexical forms. Accordingly, linguists and specialists in the field of second/foreign language delineated the kind of these forms as follows:

... morphemes, both free and bound (e.g. laugh, or the prefix un-), their combinations, i.e. derivatives (e.g. laughter, unbelievable), compounds (e.g. bus conductor), idioms, i.e. units that cannot be reduced or changed, and whose meaning cannot be retrieved from individual meanings of their components (e.g. to bite the dust), and other fixed expressions, such as binomials and trinomials (e.g. sick and tired; ready, willing and able), catchphrases (e.g. they don’t make them like that anymore), prefabricated routines or prefabs (e.g. if I were you), greetings (e.g. How do you do?) and proverbs (e.g. it never rains but it pours). (Takać, 2008, p. 6)

Of course, the heterogeneity of vocabulary forms cannot be restricted to the ones mentioned above. It actually encompasses other items. Inevitably, all these vocabulary forms are intricately intertwined. As a result, vocabulary is placed on the boundaries between morphology, syntax and semantics.

3.1.2 Receptive and Productive Vocabulary

Generally, language is divided into four main skills namely, listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Historically speaking, the two skills listening and reading were referred to as passive skills in contrast to speaking and writing that were commonly known as active skills. This terminology has been claimed on the basis that it is quite erroneous to consider listening as a passive skill. It in fact can be a very tiresome and daunting task. Therefore, a more accurate terminology was coined: receptive for listening and reading, and productive for speaking and writing. (Lewis, 1993)

According to Nation (2001), the receptive/productive dichotomy encapsulates different language knowledge and utility. For vocabulary, the aforementioned dichotomy refers to all knowledge concerned with knowing a word. Put clear, vocabulary knowledge is divided into: receptive – that we can comprehend and retrieve its meaning when receiving the input through listening or reading, and productive – that we use to express our thoughts and ideas mainly through writing and speaking.

Typically, productive vocabulary includes familiar words that are most often used. Contrariwise, receptive vocabulary usually encapsulates unfamiliar words that learners can comprehend through listening or reading. Generally, these words are used with some degree of difficulty. Moreover, it is worth mentioning that receptive vocabulary is larger in comparison to productive vocabulary (Hiebert & Kamil, 2005; Nation, 2001; Schmitt, 2000). The latter point is further reinforced by Milton (2009) who declares that a scrutiny to the receptive/productive dichotomy reveals that the words that learners can recognise are enormously greater than those categorized as productive skills are.

In conjunction with the latter point, Lewis (1993) asserts that it is more evident that receptive skills are of prominent role in the realm of learning than the productive ones. Henceforth, designing an efficacious curriculum entails placing more emphasis on listening and speaking before moving to more advanced steps of learning where learners are asked to produce language. Sadly, in today's teaching programmes learners find themselves faced with situations where they have to use their productive vocabulary. This can be one reason behind the poor performance of EFL learners.

Significantly, the dichotomy receptive/productive vocabulary implies that learners can always learn words from different sources. The words learned through receptive skills may in one way or another seem enough to head in the learning process with no difficulties. However, when dealing with a task that needs one of the productive skills, one will notice that the previously acquired knowledge are by no means sufficient. On a different note, the literature surrounding the receptive/productive vocabulary seems to exclude the 'personal choice' of words.

To exemplify, there are different words we know but deliberately do not use them like taboos, for instance, we understand and know them but avoid using them due to the negative effect they have on one's social status. This inevitably indicates that poor performance at the level of the productive vocabulary can be attributed to the person's choice of words instead of the insufficient amount of knowledge. (Hatch & Brown, 1995)

3.2 Vocabulary Learning

According to Schmitt (2000), vocabulary learning is by no means an easy task to accomplish especially that the process or the mechanics second/foreign language learners undertake to acquire certain lexical items are not yet clearly delineated. It is usually obtained

through a long-time exposure to the target language. In this regard, Milton (2009) asserts that achieving an advanced level of communicative competence when learning a foreign language entails a rich and a widely expanded repertoire of vocabulary items. Indeed, if the chief aim behind learning a foreign language is enhancing one's communicative skills, having expanded vocabulary knowledge is necessary.

He further argues that an effective learning of vocabulary items is far cry from being the introduction of dozens of new words that should be learned in a certain period. Successful learning is rather endowed in the presentation of varied items that work on getting learners energetic and actively engaged in the learning process. Building an advanced level of vocabulary knowledge necessitates EFL courses that are based on teaching new words at expanded intervals through different teaching strategies.

Words are mutable in nature. They can differ at the level of sounds, letters, length, similarity of the sounds and letters to that of learners' native language, and the list goes on. Tenses, forming the plural, adding prefixes and suffixes to generate nouns and adjectives, for instance, are just other points where words are said to vary significantly. All these cases and the different meanings that one word can convey depending on the situation plus the frequency of occurring all influence the extent to which words can be learned. The last point is perhaps the most important factor where words tend to differ. The more frequent words are generally learned first whereas the less frequent one are left for later. (Milton, 2009)

According to Hatch and Brown (1995), Vocabulary learning is placed alongside a continuum: on the one end is intentional learning and on the other end is the incidental learning. These two elements are further discussed at an extended length in the following part.

3.2.1 Intentional and Incidental Learning

Generally, intentional learning (also referred to as explicit learning) happens when there is any sort of preparation or planning on the part of teachers or learners (Hatch & Brown, 1995). In addition, Schmitt (2000) claims that this type of learning places much emphasis on what to be learned so that it is acquired as fast as possible. It is worth mentioning that this type of learning is much more suitable for rigorous type of learners who show enthusiasm and attention to all knowledge. For learners who display some levels of casual attitude to learning an adequately sized lexicon, however, intentional learning would seem tedious and tiresome.

It is suggested that there are some cases wherein learners are able to acquire new vocabulary unconsciously without investing much efforts (e.g., through listening to music, watching films, reading books, and so forth). In fact, research findings suggested that learning about vocabulary does not come out of the scratch. It actually demands some efforts and consciousness even if the tasks where vocabulary is at issue are informal like the aforementioned ones. Consequently, it is safe to suggest that learners can acquire an infinite number of vocabulary items and transpire an adequate functional fluency when a good classroom practice is coupled with well-directed efforts outside the classroom. (Milton, 2009)

Unlike intentional learning, incidental learning is defined as the unconscious type of learning to things. To illustrate, a learners may learn many new words when watching a film or listening to a song (Hatch & Brown, 1995). For Schmitt (2000), “Incidental learning can occur when one is using language for communication purposes, and so gives a double benefit for time expended. But it is slower and more gradual, lacking the focused attention of explicit learning.” (p. 120)

Linguists and first language vocabulary experts acknowledge that to maximise learners' learning, both intentional and incidental learning ought to be of great concern. Intentional learning has been proved to foster the process of vocabulary learning but research findings claim that direct instruction impedes, in one way or another, learning the adequate sized lexicon. Of course, the same goes for second/foreign language learning.

Significantly, intentional and incidental learning are both of pivotal importance in second/foreign language learning arena. They are intricately interwoven; one cannot stand without the other. Important words are better learned through direct instruction; whereas, incidental learning can be of great help in consolidating some words and acquiring some new others effortlessly. (Hatch & Brown, 1995; Schmitt, 2000)

3.2.2 Essential Steps in Vocabulary Learning

One fundamentally significant way to help learners expand their lexical items is to know about the process learners go through when learning new words. Teachers should be enlightened about what works well and what does not work in order to avoid it. In so doing, teachers' instructions will be directed towards the way that best suits learners' learning strategies and ultimately learning will be more fruitful and effective. (Hatch & Brown, 1995)

3.2.2.1 Encountering New Words

Learning vocabulary commences first with getting in touch with the primary source of words. Depending on learners' ways of learning new words, the source can be a film, magazine, song, book, and the list goes on (Payne, 1988 as cited in Hatch & Brown, 1995). That is, incidental learning whereby learners can learn new words while practising some tasks of interest for other purposes is of focal importance. Generally, second/foreign language learners, when

trying to sound like natives by having a rich repertoire of vocabulary knowledge, they listen and read a lot, meanwhile they acquire new words.

Encountering words may seem to be a long phase as it may take a short time; it actually depends on some factors like learners' motivation, needs, interests, and so forth. Learners may excel in learning specific words that perfectly suit their needs over other words. Likewise, diligent learners may learn words quickly while laborious ones need much time and effort to achieve their objectives. Motivation is another factor that delineates the learnability of words. When learners are actively motivated and eager about learning, words will be learned easily and effortlessly.

Another factor, that may boost word learning, is the frequency of meeting words. As long as learners keep meeting unfamiliar words, their need to learn these words escalates. The same is true for familiar words. Learners are sensitive to words they constantly encounter, be they familiar or unfamiliar. (Hatch & Brown, 1995)

3.2.2.2 Getting the Word Form and Meaning

In this regard, Thornbury (2002) claims that "... knowing a word involves knowing: its form, and its meaning" (p. 15). Getting the form of the word is another significant step in learning words. For Milton (2009) "Knowledge of word form might involve knowing what a word looks like, the written form of a word, or of what it sounds like, the phonological form" (p. 14). Getting a clear visual, auditory, or phonological form of words helps in minimising the number of mistakes learners usually make whenever asked to define a given word. (Hatch & Brown, 1995)

They further add, "Problems for learners arising from words similar in form have been identified as a major problem for language learners and given the name synophones by Laufer

(1981)” (p. 379). Presenting both the spoken and written forms of new words to learners is a standard of good teaching practice. The evidence of real learners highlights the focal importance of both the phonological and orthographic word form awareness for later academic success. (Milton, 2009)

According to Schmitt (2000), word meaning has long been considered as substantial in enlarging one’s vocabulary knowledge. However, there is an increasing awareness about written form of words that is tantamount to word meaning in their importance. They both play a vital role, not only in enriching vocabulary knowledge, but also in language processing in general.

Milton (2009) proclaims that when tackling the issue of word meaning, some divisions come to the mind. To begin with, ‘form and meaning’ is the part where one can associate the meaning of the word to its form whenever encountered. It also denotes the ability to provide equivalent meaning of foreign words in the native language. ‘Concepts, referents, and associations’ are the other sub-division that implies that words in one language may have different meanings and connotations in another language.

For example, if a woman from south Nigeria is called ‘fat’ this would be so much to her liking because it carries the meaning of a beautiful lady. Conversely, English people would feel insulted if ever described with the adjective ‘fat’. Therefore, learners should pay attention to the choice of words and learn the different meanings one word can carry in order to avoid any future confusion or misuse of a certain word. In a similar spectrum Thornbury (2002) argues that “... knowing the meaning of a word is not just knowing its dictionary meaning (or meanings) – it also means knowing the words commonly associated with it (its collocations) as well as its connotations, including its register and its cultural accretions.” (p. 15)

For Hatch and Brown (1995), word meaning varies according to the task instruction and learners' level. That is, there are tasks that do not need deep understanding of words to be solved; quite general definitions would do the job greatly. In a similar vein, providing beginning learners with general meanings of words would satisfy their needs; whereas, more advanced learners would demand more detailed and precise definitions so that they can differentiate between words and their synonyms.

At the end, it is crucially important to know that knowing a word is no guarantee of acquiring it. In fact, acquiring vocabulary entails not only knowing and labelling words but also categorising skills. To illustrate, children in their first language start knowing words used for labelling. Like the word dog to label the four legged animal. However, not all animals with four legs are dogs; they might be cats or whatsoever. In this case, the child needs to develop and extend the concept of dog to include nothing but dogs. The latter can be the neighbour's dog, as it can be seen in a picture or a toy store. (Thornbury, 2002)

3.2.2.3 Consolidating Word Form and Meaning

After encountering words and knowing about their form and meaning, then comes the need to solidify the word in the memory so that it is used later. Some of the suggested activities that help in memorising words are worksheets, games, puzzles, etc. (Hatch & Brown, 1995). Likewise, Takać (2008) claims that "The teacher's task is to provide learners with opportunities for practicing and connecting words in various ways and to stimulate them to retrieve words from memory and use them for all language skills." (p. 21)

3.2.2.4 Using the Word

Word use is considered insignificant if the last aim behind learning words is strengthening receptive skills. In this sense, learners can recognise words from the context while

listening or reading even though they do not have enough information about their meaning. However, to help learners reach overly expanded vocabulary knowledge; word use is undoubtedly of great importance. Moreover, using words goes an extra mile in their memorisation so that they are easily recalled whenever needed. Most importantly, learners can only be sure about their comprehension to words through using them in different situations. (Hatch & Brown, 1995)

3.2.2.5 Repetition

Repetition is a critical factor in learning vocabulary. One meeting with a word is insufficient to comprehend the myriad information it represents. Knowing a word does not boost enlarging one's vocabulary knowledge. The latter is boosted through repetition that leads to knowing vocabulary items very well and henceforth using them accurately and fluently (Nation, 2000). As stated by Thornbury (2002) new encountered words are likely to be remembered when accompanied with repeated rehearsal while it is still in the working memory. Of course, the repetition should occur over spaced intervals.

According to Nation (2000), research on effective types or repetition delineated that spaced repetition of new words is of potential benefits than massed one. Massed repetition involves the repetition of a word over a continuous period of time, fifteen minutes for instance. Spaced repetition, on the other hand, spaces the repetition of a word over long periods of time or large intervals. To clarify, when introducing a new word, repetition might be emphasised for three minutes during the first contact with that word. Few hours later, the word might be emphasised for other three minutes. The same procedure is followed for the next day, the next three days, the next week, and the next month. The total allotted time for studying the word is

fifteen minutes, but they are spread across a long period of time. This type of repetitive engagement hastens learning and consolidates the word in learners' minds for a long time.

It is not only spaced repetition that is counted in learning vocabulary; the nature of repetition is also of focal importance. Whenever there is a delay between the word presentation and meaning, learners will have the chance to guess the meaning. The efforts invested in recalling the meaning will eventually deepen and faster the learning of the target word. However, teacher should bear in mind that guessing the meaning cannot always be successful. The guessing is claimed to be successful if the foreign word affords a good clue to its meaning. Experimental evidence claims that presenting the word simultaneously with its meaning is beneficial in the first encounter, and delayed presentation is far better as it implies manifesting effort in learning that yields positive results.

3.3 Teaching Vocabulary

The late 1940s witnessed a closed scrutiny to linguistic research on syntax, phonology, and the teaching of grammar structures. Though vocabulary is crucial in the learning of the second/foreign language, grammar took precedence. Most of the teaching methods at that time were geared towards the teaching of grammar whereas vocabulary items were left later. Carter (2004) claims that linguistic research on syntax and phonology was mainly the reason behind the ignorance of vocabulary importance. Strictly speaking, it was firmly believed that acquiring the necessary grammar structures would ultimately result in acquiring the necessitated lexis. This is mainly done through the exposure the target language and communicative situations.

Moving to teaching vocabulary, Lewis (1993) asserts that learners when exposed to the target language will find a kind of difficulty when trying to make out meaning. Building up a rich vocabulary repertoire is tremendously important in the early stages since it will easily and

successfully run out the other activities where language is a central issue. Nowadays, it is self-evident that acquiring lexis has quite a lot to do with mastering the target language that was not the case some sixty years ago where vocabulary was rather accentuated and valued in comparison to vocabulary learning/teaching. Vocabulary has always been regarded as a Cinderella.

Ur (1991) postulates that learning vocabulary entails from learners to have both phonological and orthographic word form knowledge. Two elements that have to do with pronunciation and spelling have to be emphasised by teachers when introducing new vocabulary items for learners' benefits. This is actually what good teaching practice sounds like (Ur, 1991; Milton, 2009). Ur (1991) further adds that learners should be provided by the grammar of words at the same time when those words are first encountered or introduced to them.

We know that words are changeable i.e., an item may change its form to get a noun, adjective, synonym, antonym, or even to connect with another word in a sentence. Learners should develop this kind of word knowledge too right from the outset. To illustrate, when teaching verbs, irregular ones for instance, it is preferable to provide the past form (drive, drove), and to state whether this verb is transitive or intransitive. They can also be introduced with the verb form that usually follows them (interested in, enjoy – ing). In addition, verbs/adjectives can be presented together with their prepositions (responsible for, think of, talk to, etc.). The same thing goes for teaching nouns.

The introduction of new nouns should be accompanied with the plural form (house, houses) if regular, (tooth, teeth) if irregular, (information, information) if it has no plural form. Nation (2000) summed it all up when said, "Knowing a word involves knowing how to use it in

sentences” (p. 178). Knowing all grammatical changes of words in addition to their phonological and orthographic forms enable learners to have a solid communicative competence skills.

3.3.1 History of Vocabulary in Language Teaching

Due to the focal importance of vocabulary in language learning, one would think that it would be treated in a more principled way. When tracing back the history of language teaching, however, one will find out that vocabulary has largely been sidelined, especially during the period 1940-1970. In this regard, McCarthy (1990) argues that it is through words that meaning can be comprehensively conveyed; there is little can be communicated if the sounds and grammar rules of the L1 are well mastered. However, vocabulary has always been treated as the Cinderella in language teaching/learning (p. *ibid*). This neglect is mainly the “...product of the structural and other approaches to language teaching.” (Milton, 2009, p. 1)

During the Grammar Translation Method, grammar was put at the epicenter of the language; meanwhile, vocabulary was taught in a form of isolated lists. This method fall out of favour since it focuses much more on analysing the language rather than studying the language and henceforth, it was the beginning of the Direct Method. The latter focuses on developing learners’ aural proficiency through intensive exposure to the target language with no translation. Vocabulary was taught through interaction during lessons. Concrete vocabulary was mainly related to real world and it was only for the case of the abstract words that traditional ways of teaching were used.

Since excessive exposure to the target language was not possible to learners of the second language and that focusing on the listening and speaking skills was not sufficient to develop the aural proficiency, the Direct Method fall at disadvantage. Afterwards, Audiolingualism was introduced as the new teaching method. Its origins were rooted in the behaviourism approach. It

pays close attention to memorisation, intensive drilling, and pronunciation. This approach has no clear teaching method for expanding learners' vocabulary; only simple items of vocabulary were introduced. During the late 1950s, Chomsky's criticisms to behaviourism led to the fall of the Audiolingualism. CLT was the approach that placed more emphasis on meaning and communication rather than mastering grammar rules. However, little guidance was provided about how to handle vocabulary mainly because of the heavy focus on functional language-related issues. (Schmitt, 2000)

Fries (1945 as cited in Carter & McCarthy, 1988) is one of a long line of scholars who defended and enriched the structural approach with his contributions. He believed that the most basic elements that foreign learners ought to master are the sound system and grammatical structures. It was enough to master some lexis that would help in practicing the syntactic structure. Vocabulary was raised to a prominent level "The shift to transformational linguistics in the 1960s under Chomsky's banner only served to reinforce the idea that lexis was somewhat peripheral, an irritating irregularity in an otherwise ordered grammar." (Carter & McCarthy, 1988, p. 41)

This neglect did not last so longer. By the 1970s, much emphasis was thoroughly directed to vocabulary learning and teaching (Carter, 1998). By 1972, David Wilkins wrote his book "Linguistics in Language Teaching" that was a milestone in teaching/learning vocabulary in a FL. In the same vein, Rubin and Thompson (2004 as cited in Haixia & Zhaohui, 2015) argue, "One can't speak, understand, read or write a foreign language without knowing a lot of words. Therefore, vocabulary is at the heart of mastering a foreign language" (p. 394). Accordingly, research in this realm began to shift its focus to teaching/learning vocabulary. Wilkins (1972) asserts that "While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without

vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (pp. 111-112). Along the same line, Lewis (1993) goes further in clarifying the importance of vocabulary by denoting that “language consists of grammaticalised lexis, not lexicalised grammar.” (p. 89)

3.3.2 Vocabulary Selection

Generally, teachers are slaves of the course book. They teach the lexis suggested by syllabus designers no matter if they are difficult to explain, unsuitable for some situations, beyond learners’ needs and level, etc. However, teachers should have a clear idea about the criteria used in the selection of the vocabulary items. How is the syllabus designed, why certain items are included, and on what basis they are suggested to be transmitted to learners? Such type of questions enables teachers to evaluate the syllabus and henceforth understand why certain items are included in the programme whereas others are not. (McCarthy, 1990)

Similarly, Gairns and Redman (1986) postulate that for the selection of the vocabulary items to be useful we have first to acknowledge that the teaching situations are different from each other and that every situation entails specific vocabulary that may seem useless in another situation. Therefore, vocabulary should be selected based on relevant and reliable criteria. Teachers are required to adapt the course books to learners’ needs and level instead of accepting it uncritically. The fact that syllabus designers select vocabulary items is no guarantee of usefulness. Some suggested criteria are discussed below.

3.3.2.1 Frequency and Learnability

It is advocated in most coursebooks that the regularly used words in the language are better to be taught in the early stages of language teaching. This crucial decision is useful in a sense that it helps the learner to build up a rich vocabulary repertoire for comprehension and production (McCarthy, 1990). Notably, the frequent words in the language are not necessarily

useful. In this regard, Gairns and Redman (1986) contend that “The high frequency of an item is no guarantee of usefulness, but there is obviously a significant correlation between the two ...” (p. 58). They further argue, “An item of low frequency may be vital if it is the only word that expresses a particular semantic value and cannot be paraphrased easily.” (p. 59)

On the other hand, learnability of the new vocabulary is most commonly connected with the notion of frequency in the sense that the regularly used words tend to be learned quite easily. It needs to be noted though that there are other factors that determine the ease or difficulty of learning vocabulary. Those factors need to be accentuated in teaching. In fact, we cannot ascertain the learnability of an item just because it is frequent. Conversely, infrequent words are not always hard to teach or difficult to learn. Decisions to whether a word is to be taught or postponed to coming levels is mostly based on the difficulty a particular word represents. That is, frequency is no guarantee that an item is learnable. However, it is critical to state that the presentation of vocabulary items is affected by the two factors namely frequency and learnability. (McCarthy, 1990)

3.3.2.2 Cultural Factors

Word-count should not be coupled with frequency as an indicator of appropriateness. One of the marked pitfalls associated with word-count is that it reflects the most frequent words used by native speakers in their own specific communicative situations and neglects the words second/foreign language learners need to communicate and express their own experiences and thoughts that undoubtedly differ from those of native speakers.

The word-count of native speakers reflects their culture that differs from learners' culture (Gairns & Redman, 1986). Henceforth, selecting vocabulary should regard the issue of cultural differences. Selecting words to be included in the syllabus should never be affected by native

speakers' word-count because one most frequent word for them may be of less importance in learners' culture.

3.3.2.3 Needs and Level

Learners quite often have a keen need to be equipped with the vocabulary items that goes hand in hand with their level and need. Quite obvious, the vocabulary needed by a learner who studies English for business or travel purposes in countries where English is the dominant language differs than the vocabulary needed by a learner who studies English in his native country. In the same sense, an advanced learner would feel the need to know more vocabulary than those at elementary levels. The more learners' level develops, the more complex vocabulary they need to quench their thirst and give answers to their queries. (Gairns & Redman, 1986)

Indeed, "Predicting what learners will need in the way of vocabulary is important in selecting what to teach ..." (McCarthy, 1990, p.87). The selection of the right vocabulary items has a positive influence on learning, and vice versa. Providing learners with useless vocabulary would curb their enthusiasm. That is, relevant vocabulary input contributes positively to the effectiveness of the syllabus.

McCarthy (1990) delineates three focal points to be considered as they have a noticeable effect on the selection of the lexical items namely the course book or the predictions of syllabus designers, learners' needs boosted by teachers' predictions, and learners' personal needs that may differ from the ones pinpointed by the teacher.

3.3.3 Techniques for Teaching English Vocabulary

Teaching vocabulary is usually planned on the basis that the teacher chooses what items to be taught. Planned vocabulary has mainly to do with explicit teaching of vocabulary where teachers use teaching strategies: "... ways in which teachers introduce and present the meaning

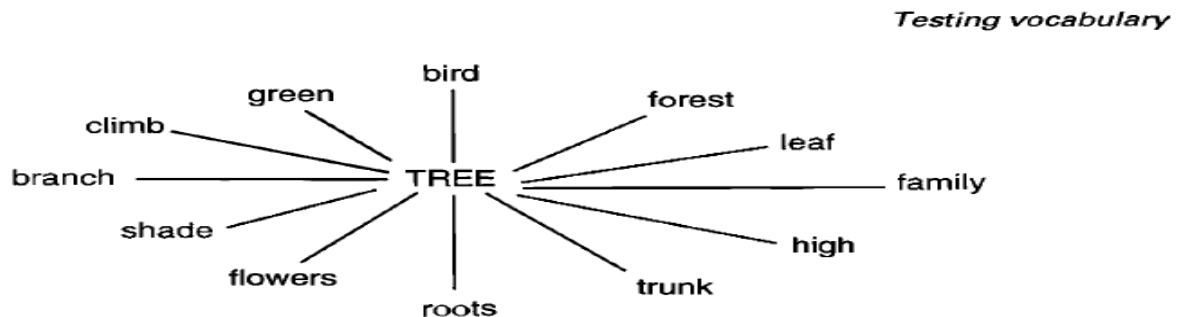
and form of new lexical items, encourage learners to review and practice, i.e. recycle what is known, and monitor and evaluate the level of acquisition of various components of lexical knowledge.” (Tabač, 2008, p. 19)

On the other hand, vocabulary teaching can be unplanned, too. In this sense, Tabač (2008) claims that “Unplanned teaching strategies relate to teachers’ spontaneous reactions with the aim to help learners when the need arises, in which case teachers improvise.” (p. 19). Most commonly, “... teachers appear to automatically monitor their vocabulary choice, selecting high frequency words, using little slang, and few idioms. They offer definitions either explicitly (e.g., “This means X”) or implicitly by intonation (e.g., “a triangle?” “It’s got three sides?”).” (Hatch & Brown, 1995, p. 401)

Gairns and Redman (1986) delineated two main strategies for teaching vocabulary: visual and verbal techniques.

3.3.3.1 Visual Techniques

‘Visuals’ encapsulate what learners can see ranging from diagrammes, flashcards, pictures, videos, realia, photographs, drawings, and the list goes on. They can be of immense usefulness when teaching concrete items. Another useful feature that goes under visual techniques is ‘mime and gesture’. They are other ways of easily transmitting and consolidating meaning. For instance, when teaching describing physical appearance or describing one’s house, the teacher can use gestures to communicate adjectives such as ‘giant’, ‘small’, ‘spacious’, ‘slanted eyes’, etc. Alternatively, the teacher can simply brainstorm round an idea by writing the new word to be taught on the center of the board and ask the learners to brainstorm all words they know that are related to the one written on the board.

Figure 3. 1*Brainstorming Round an Idea*

Note. Adapted from *A Course in Language Teaching: Practice and Theory*, by Ur, 1991, p. 69.

3.3.3.2 Verbal Techniques

One effective verbal technique would be ‘illustrative situations’ where teachers provide more than one situation to explain a concept, especially abstract words. To illustrate, to teach learners what ‘you are welcome’ means, the teacher can create a situation: Adem borrowed a book from his friend Ali because he forgot his book at home. When the session finished, Adem returned the book to his friend and said ‘Thank you’; Ali answered ‘you are welcome, Adem’. Afterwards, the teacher can initiate a series of questions to check on learners’ understanding of the new concept, or he can simply put them in a somehow similar situation for better understanding.

Synonyms and antonyms are just other ways of conveying meaning where new meaning of words is illustrated through presenting other words that are similar or opposite in meaning to the original ones.

In addition to the aforementioned techniques, there are plenty other techniques that can be used under the title of verbal techniques such as ‘translation’ where teachers translate meaning in the native language of the learners, and ‘scales’ where meaning is expressed starting from two

contrasting items (e.g. always and never). In this case, adverbs of frequency can be taught through a scale ranging from always to never.

Teaching vocabulary is not limited to visual and verbal techniques. It can also be done through (but not only):

3.3.3.3 Making Full Use of Context

Loaded of words are contextually based; henceforth, learners can understand the meaning of a word excessively better when put in a sentence or a situation. For instance, the word ‘loud’ in loud music means ‘noisy’. However, when used in a quite different context, meaning changes; ‘I won’t buy it’ means ‘believe’ (Haixia & Zhaohui, 2015). Context is of pervasive importance when it comes to comprehending new encountered words and enlarging one’s lexical items. Teachers can facilitate the vocabulary-learning burden for learners by contextualising words and they, in return, will be consolidated in learners’ memory.

3.3.3.4 Collocations

Confining learners’ attention that acquiring vocabulary through collocations is an immense task. Learners should enlarge their word knowledge beyond vocabulary items. Indeed, “... choosing words carefully in certain situations is more important than choosing grammatical structures” (Harmer, 1991 as cited in Haixia & Zhaohui, 2015). To exemplify, when learning the word “look”, it is preferable to know about the prepositions it collocates with (look for, look after, look out, look up, etc.). By so doing, learners would have learned a great deal of words.

3.3.3.5 Connotations

One key developmental milestone in learning and enlarging lexical items is to know more than the definitions provided by dictionaries as the latter do not fit to all situations. Words have “connotative meanings except the denotative meanings”. One word can be of multiple usages

depending on the speaker's feelings, attitude, situation, circumstances, context, etc. Learners have to be aware of as much connotations as possible so that they can distinguish meaning and synonyms. (Haixia & Zhaohui, 2015)

One best example would be "I prefer the rose dress" and "I am keen on gathering rose". The word "rose" is used in both sentences but implies different meanings: in the first sentence "rose" means the colour whereas in the second sentence it means the flower. To illustrate, the words "see", "look", and "watch" have the same meaning of perceiving things with your eyes. However, "see" is usually used when talking about the sense of seeing, "look" is used to direct someone's vision to something, and "watch" is generally used when talking about something that you are directing your vision to for a period. The same thing goes for the words "hear" and "listen". The former has to do with the sense of hearing itself whereas the latter has to do with the action of listening to something.

Conclusion

To conclude, it is erroneous to believe that developing grammar accuracy and syntax will, in return, ameliorate learners' learning of the target language. This is partially attributed to the deficiency generally encountered in learners' communicative skills. It has been henceforth documented over the past decades that successful communication of meaning requires swinging focus from mastering basic grammar structures to enlarging and solidifying learners' vocabulary in the teaching/learning mainstream. This should not be taken to mean that grammar, syntax, and phonology do not have much to offer.

Quite obviously, today's teachers endeavour to help learners to be far more than just good learners of English. They, in fact, strive to help them master the four skills of the language, initiate successful and meaningful communications, etc. After vocabulary learning gained

momentum, and by way of attempting to solve the vocabulary learning problem, a host of teaching techniques was introduced as cornerstone to learning vocabulary. One of these techniques is DI that seeks to provide assistance and guidance to all kinds of learners during the learning process. It wholly considers learners' needs, interests, differences, learning styles and so forth when planning for learning. Techniques that can be used for the sake of differentiation are visuals, consideration of the context, knowing about collocations and connotations.

The following chapter presents a general overview of the methodological considerations that constitute this research project. Then, it specifies the discussed aspect in relation to the methodology of this research along with the data collection procedures, significance and rationale of choices.

**Chapter Four: The Research Methodology for this Study: Conceptual Framework,
Theoretical Background, Rationale and Choices**

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Chapter Four: The Research Methodology for this Study: Conceptual Framework, Theoretical Background, Rationale and Choices

Introduction

This chapter attempts to give an in-depth highlight about the general framework underlying the current research. A number of methodological considerations are presented moving from the research paradigm and approach to the data collection tools, procedures, and sampling techniques used in this study. Moreover, it illustrates the overall study design. Technically, this chapter comprises two parts: The first part is a thorough theoretical background of the research methodology; whereas, the second part is a typical outline of the procedures whereby this research was conducted.

4.1 Research Methodology: A Conceptual framework and Theoretical Background

This study aims at gauging teachers' attention to the potential importance of IE and how far its implementation might support the field of teaching and learning the English language. In so doing, both the qualitative and quantitative approaches were deemed to be appropriate to this study. This study was approached as a case study since the chief purpose is far from reaching generalisation. It strives; however, to provide a profound comprehension on how deep could IE strategies such as DI improve middle school pupils' level in learning the English language (the English vocabulary in particular).

4.1.1 Research Paradigms in Educational Research

Research paradigms are key components of social research. They help disclosing legitimate perspectives about how research ought to be best organised and approached. Scholars and specialists in the field of social research have provided different definitions. For Richards (2003) the term paradigm indicates "... a set of basic beliefs" (p. 12). Patton (2002) endorsed this

view and postulates that “A paradigm is a worldview – a way of thinking about and making sense of the complexities of the real world.” (p 69)

That is, paradigms picture the philosophical views, assumptions, and standard beliefs about how the world is conceived. Truth is never absolute and reality is approached and analysed differently by people. Each has his/her own view to factual events that are taken for granted because they are mostly based on faith. There is mounting evidence on the potential importance of paradigms in social research. The fact that paradigms are essential for an organised and insightful research does not necessarily mean that they drive the research. The latter is generally guided by the research aims. Paradigms are there merely to frame the nature of the research and pave the way for the other research element to proceed. (Guba & Lincoln, 1994 as cited in Richards, 2003)

The paradigmatic stance of the researcher can be represented in terms of epistemology, ontology, and philosophy of science. New to researchers, novice ones in particular, are these words, however, they help in defining the philosophical position of the researcher, guiding the social research, and clarifying the nature of reality. Leaving social research aside, these beliefs have a direct impact on our lives (Patton, 2002; Richards, 2003). Each epistemological stance functions as a tool that uncovers reality and legitimately underlies the amount of the attained understandings. (Crotty, 1998)

Despite the fact that there are various research paradigms that structure modern social research, they all have some shared commonalities. Apart from their shared philosophical nature, they have common assumptions about axiology, ontology, epistemology, and methodology.

Axiology is mainly about ethical issues in research; ontology is an attempt to understand the nature of reality and how it existed; epistemology is a sum of assumptions related to knowing

the world and how we go about attaining knowledge. It delineates the way of approaching the world and making sense of it. It embodies a clear understanding of how we know what we know. And methodology discloses views about different means deemed accurate for obtaining knowledge about the world. Sometimes, rhetoric is included in the philosophical underpinning of research paradigms to refer to the language of research mostly common amongst social researchers. Notwithstanding that research paradigms share the same philosophical underpinning; every paradigm has a unique perspective on each aforementioned element. (Creswell, 2009 as cited in Kaushik, Walsh and Lai, 2019; Crotty, 1998)

Method is another component of research paradigms. It is the procedures the researcher goes through in order to gather and analyse the data in accordance to the research question or hypothesis. Methodology is conceptualised as the plan of actions or the design that ascribe the choice of particular methods and how these selected methods are linked to the desired outcomes. Technically, it is the study of methods. Inevitably, the selected paradigm would impinge on the methodology of the research that, in return, would influence the technical aspects of the study, i.e. the selected methods. (Crotty, 1998; Jason & Glenwick, 2016)

As Dörnyei (2007) rightly points out, there is no correct answer of this question. Scholars approach the world from a different angle and through different lenses; each to his own beliefs, research objectives and questions, paradigm, etc. This is never meant to be a support for ‘anything goes’ disposition; the issue is that researchers ought to develop consistency in their choice of the research paradigm, methodology, and interpretation of knowledge. In so doing, more high quality, valid, and reliable researches are to be conducted both qualitatively and quantitatively.

4.1.1.1 Positivism

Positivism is a philosophical position that was first introduced by the French philosopher ‘Auguste Comte’ during the nineteenth-century. It espouses the view that features of social environment have independent reality and that knowledge are mainly accumulated through observation and experiment, i.e. positivism is based on empiricism (Crotty, 1998; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2018; Gall, Gall, and Borg, 2003). Of course, the way positivism was first introduced has typically changed. One thing that is certain about positivism is that it continues to adhere to empirical science. Positivists are claimed to be infatuated with science. (Crotty, 1998)

The general doctrine of this epistemological ideology is that the only source of facts and knowledge is science. It is deeply rooted in the scientific method that represents a set of rules that assure legitimate representation of reality and how it is represented in knowledge (Scott & Usher, 1999). Similarly, Richards (2003) asserts that positivism is a philosophical view that recognises only scientifically verified truth. It is based on an objectivist assumption that denotes the role of science in discovering laws that explain, not only the past and present, but also predict future developments.

4.1.1.2 Post-positivism

Post-positivism is based on the limitations markedly noticed in the positivist paradigm. While positivism excludes any external effect on reality that is regarded as absolute and objective, post-positivists believe that reality cannot be perfectly viewed. To demonstrate, the researcher’s background knowledge, theories and values can influence the findings obtained from experiments and observations. Surely enough, researchers who conduct similar studies may not obtain the same results simply because their personal profiles differ. This fact defies the stance that research explains the past, present, and predicts the future. Accordingly, the reached

knowledge are always open to falsification because generalisations cannot be claimed to be always true. (Richards, 2003)

In the same spectrum, Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) assert that post-positivist research is grounded in the assumption that researchers conceive the reached knowledge about features of the social environment as mere interpretations. Of course, these interpretations vary according to the situation, researcher's background knowledge, personal viewpoint to reality, values, etc. In post-positivism research, knowledge are first accumulated through intensive case study research and afterwards the data are subjected to analytic induction. To illustrate, "... in the scientific method –the accepted approach to research by postpositivists- a researcher begins with a theory, collects data that either supports or refutes the theory, and then makes necessary revisions and conducts additional tests." (Creswell, 2014, p. 6)

Quantitative research is originally grounded in positivism/post-positivism worldviews. Inquiry is viewed as logically flow of well-designed steps that strive to gather data based on deductive reasoning and careful observation and measurement of the objective reality (Jason & Glenwick, 2016; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Creswell, 2014). Researchers following the positivist/post-positivist research paradigms have always been infatuated with science and empirical investigations to uncover the truth.

4.1.1.3 Constructivism

In its broadest sense, constructivism implies that reality is contingent upon human practices. It stems from interaction of humans with their world, and then it inevitably develops within a social context. (Crotty, 1998; Creswell, 2014)

According to Creswell (2007) people adhering to this stance attempt to construe logic out of the social and cultural context wherein they live and work. Subjective interpretations and

meanings are generated from their experiences. Technically, these meanings vary according to the participants, leading the researchers to focus much more on the complexity of views instead of breaking them down into categories. Several factors impinge on the interpretation of the obtained views. So, rather than being adhered to individuals, social, cultural, and historical norms are usually considered. Unlike post-positivists who start with a theory, constructivists inductively develop a theory or meaning that is usually forged in interactions with others.

According to Richards (2003), “The fundamental tenet of this position is that reality is socially constructed, so the focus of research should be on an understanding of this construction and the multiple perspectives it implies” (p. 38). Interestingly, constructivism/interpretivism underpins qualitative research. That is, quantitative research (positivism/post-positivism worldview) and qualitative (constructivism/interpretivism) are distinct at the level of ontology, axiology, epistemology, methodology, and method. (Jason & Glenwick, 2016; Creswell, 2014)

4.1.1.4 Pragmatism

Pragmatism is best conceptualised as a school of thought that is, in fact, a result of the works of three American thinkers: the natural scientist and philosopher Charles Sanders Peirce (1839 – 1914), the psychologist and philosopher William James (1842 – 1910), and the philosopher, psychologist, and educationalist John Dewey (1859 – 1952). They were the first to bring out this philosophical view to light. (Biesta & Burbules, 2003)

Unlike positivism and post-positivism, the pragmatist research paradigm does not limit itself with the metaphysical concepts like ‘truth’ and ‘reality’ (Kaushik, Walsh and Lai, 2019). This view aligns with Creswell’s (2007) who describe pragmatism as an analytical paradigm that widens its scope of interest to encompass views on what works best for a research based on its formulated questions that this research tends to explore. Significantly, pragmatism goes beyond

the choices associated with paradigm wars, supports the use of mixed methods approach in research, and goes for the idea that the values of the researcher do influence the analysis of the data and therefore the interpretation of the results. The general doctrine of this view is that “...decisions regarding the use of either (or both) methods depend on the current statement of the research questions and the ongoing phase of the inductive-deductive research cycle.” (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009, p. 82)

According to Ormerod (2006), pragmatism is a worldview that is originally dated back to the academic sceptics of classical antiquity. Denscombe (2010) postulates that pragmatism goes hand in hand with the mixed methods approach to research. It is premised on the idea that knowledge is best accumulated through the mixed methods approach that amalgamates the strengths of both qualitative approach that is based on the interpretivism/constructivism stance and quantitative approach that is based on the positivism/post-positivism stance. In terms of practice, pragmatism markedly brings into focus that knowledge are gathered using the utmost suitable and practical procedures and judged on how far they could be practical and workable when used to solving problems. That is, it supports what works best for the research. In addition, there is no best ‘scientific method’ that paves the way towards valid and truthful outcomes. Methods vary according to the nature and objectives of the research. Besides, knowledge is never absolute. What is accepted as true today may be conceived as invalid in the future.

4.1.2 Research Approaches

When digging deep in the literature of social research, one will notice that terms like positivism and post-positivism are generally used to refer to the philosophical orientation of the researcher and his view about how knowledge are best accumulated. When it comes to practice, however, terms like quantitative and qualitative research, respectively, are most commonly used

to precise the data collection tools suitable for the research. Virtually, quantitative research goes hand in hand with positivist research and qualitative research is paralleled with post-positivist research (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003). Significantly, mixing the two aforementioned research approaches namely qualitative and quantitative results in the emergence of the mixed-methods approach that is synonymous with the pragmatist research.

4.1.2.1 The Qualitative Approach

According to Wallace (1998) “Qualitative is used to describe data which are not amenable to being counted or measured in an objective way, and are therefore ‘subjective’ ” (p. 38). In the same vein, Dörnyei (2007) postulates that qualitative research necessitates research tools that most commonly provide non-numerical and open-ended data. Accordingly, non-statistical methods are used in the analysis of the obtained data. Best example in this case would be interview research wherein the gathered data are generally analysed through qualitative content analysis.

According to Dörnyei (2007), qualitative research concerns itself with describing individuals’ opinions, feelings, and their perceptions and views in accordance with a certain phenomenon. It seeks to investigate and describe social phenomenon in their natural context without any sort of manipulation of the study variables. Qualitative research encompasses various types of data such as recorded interviews, texts, and images. Because the qualitative analysis is quite often done with words, data get transformed into textual forms before starting the analysis phase.

4.1.2.2 The Quantitative Approach

According to Wallace (1998) “Quantitative is broadly used to describe what can be counted or measured and can therefore be considered ‘objective’ ” (p. 38). Similarly, Dörnyei

(2007) declares that “Quantitative research involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analysed primarily by statistical methods. Typical example: survey research using a questionnaire, analysed by statistical software such as SPSS” (p. 24). When tracing back the history of quantitative social research, one will figure out that this approach was originally known as the scientific method since it was influenced and fueled by the progress witnessed in the natural sciences during the nineteenth century. Western philosophers and scholars like Copernicus, Bacon, Galilei, etc. were pioneers in evolving this field since the mid-sixteenth century.

Essentially, this scientific method is divided into three main stages: first, the researcher has to identify the problem. Then, he generates a hypothesis, that will be tested in the third stage through appropriate data collection tools and analysis. In case the hypothesis is confirmed, it becomes accepted as a scientific theory or law. That is, the scientific method offers researchers the opportunity to work objectively on investigating questions and problems, eliminating any possible influence or bias of external or internal factors. The obtained results are acknowledged to be best and most accurate descriptions of the world. (Dörnyei, 2007)

The quantitative research has gained the approval of numerous researchers. Proponents of this approach acknowledge its effectiveness in providing reliable and replicable data that can be generalised to other similar contexts. It provides systematic, focused, rigorous, and controlled data. (Dörnyei, 2007)

4.1.2.3 The Mixed- Methods Approach

Mixed methods approach is simply defined as the combination of both quantitative and qualitative data at the level of data collection and data analysis procedures (Dörnyei, 2007). Its essential premise is that the advanced mixing of methods is what brings an in-depth

comprehension of the research question and strengthens the study findings (Creswell, 2012). He wisely points out that "... mixed methods research is not simply collecting two distinct "strands" of research- qualitative and quantitative. It consists of merging, integrating, linking, or embedding the two "strands". In short, the data are "mixed" in a mixed methods study." (p. 535)

Different reasons can be listed behind the use of the mixed methods approach. Generally, the mixed methods approach is employed when having both qualitative and quantitative data that, together, contribute to providing a profound understanding of the research problem than either method by itself. Mixed methods research affords researchers the opportunity of getting the best out of qualitative and quantitative methods. Quantitative data is chiefly concerned with numbers that can be statistically analysed. The obtained results are useful when assessing the frequency of trends and/or providing significant knowledge to describe trends about a large sample.

On the other hand, qualitative data (e.g., open-ended interviews) supply researchers with actual words of participants and enriches the research with variant perspectives regarding the study topic. Merging these two methods provide a powerful research methodology (Miles & Huberman, 1994, as cited in Creswell, 2012). This view has been endorsed by Creswell (2012) who is one of the most influential scholars in research methodology. He postulates that mixed methods approach is usually opted for when one type of research is insufficient in giving specific and plausible answers and explanations to the research questions and problem. In this case, a qualitative study, for instance, should better be followed up by a quantitative study to obtain more data for better elaboration of the first database.

4.1.3 Research Design (s) / Strategy (ies)

A research design is a justification of the decisions related to the research project. Planning the design of a social research is one best way of having control of the whole research. Simply put, a research design is "... the process of making all decisions related to the research project before they are carried out. This involves anticipating all aspects of the research, then planning for them to occur in an integrated manner. (Blaikie, 2000, p. 21)

The concept of 'research design' can be placed along a continuum ranging from narrow to broad. The experiment is put along the narrow extreme. Reviewing the literature of social research methods, one will notice that research design has been paralleled to some common types such as experiments, surveys, and ethnography. Recently, it has become a common practice to group different research designs under two major categories, qualitative and quantitative. In each category different designs can be found. (Blaikie, 2000)

4.1.3.1 Experimental Design

Experiments are generally regarded as the bedrock of research either in physical science or social research and this importance is well-deserved. It strives to bring out the relationship between different factors under controlled conditions. The aim behind experiments is threefold: First, experiments are usually conducted to confirm the link between two variables and to figure out which of these variables is exactly the cause of the changes subjected to the study. Not only this, but it also urges the researchers to discriminate between what is the dependent variable and what is the independent variable so that they can easily know the cause of changes.

Second, it is deemed insufficient to provide a mere description of the correlational relation between the study variables. Such findings should be followed by statistical justifications in order to assure its reliability and validity. It is through experiments that

researchers can spot out the reasons behind any change of the study variables. It discloses the specific factors that are responsible for any change. Of course, it is vital to make a clear distinction between the study variables; which is the dependent variable and which is the independent variable. (Denscombe, 2010; Creswell, 2012)

In essence, experiments are based on the intentional manipulation of the conditions in which investigators are interested. Wisely put, experiments require a change in the value of one variable namely the independent variable that, in return, would result in an observable change at the level of the dependent variable. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Scott & Usher, 1999)

Between-Group Designs: comparing two or more groups is a strong experimental design that is widely used in education. It primarily focuses on random assignment when equating the groups. Participants are assigned to various conditions of the experimental variable at random. Groups are divided into an experimental group and a control group that resembles the experimental group. Participants in the experimental group receive the experimental treatment; however, individuals in the control group do not receive any treatment.

After the treatment takes place, participants sit for a posttest. The investigator gathers the scores to calculate the mean and see if the posttest and pretest scores are statistically similar. The latter usually takes place before the experimental treatment, and both control and experimental groups are concerned with the pretest. Alternatively, the pretest scores are generally compared to see if the control and the experimental groups are in any way similar, and then compare the posttest scores.

True experiments are usually sought for in case sufficient number of participants or intact groups is available. In such conditions, the researcher can create the control and the experimental groups easily. In case the control group cannot be created then researchers opt for quasi-

experimental design. The latter requires no random assignment of individuals to groups or manipulation of the independent variable. (Creswell, 2012)

Within-Group or Individual Designs: sometimes, researchers cannot have access to a large number of participants. In this case when having more than one group is impossible, researchers find themselves obliged to conduct their study following the ‘within-group experimental design’ or ‘within-individual design’ where only one group or one individual is studied, respectively. Such designs assume various forms: ‘time series, repeated measures, and single-subject designs’. (Creswell, 2012)

In a similar spectrum, Campbell and Stanley (1963) distinguish two major parts in the experimental design: X that refers to the treatment phase wherein a group is exposed to experimental variables and O that is the code for observation and measurement of the effects of the treatment. This leads to two focal designs: the one-shot design (XO) and the pretest-posttest design (O1 X O2). In the former, only one group or single instance is put under investigation followed by an observation, testing, etc. In the latter, a pretest (O1) and posttest (O2) are done on different days and the obtained results are compared to see the difference caused by the treatment (X).

4.1.3.2 Correlational Design

Correlational designs are significantly fundamental to social research in the sense that they enable investigators to measure two or more variables and find out how they influence each other simultaneously. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Creswell, 2012; Anderson & Arsenault, 1998)

Investigators who opt for correlational designs describe the relationship amongst variables or sets of scores through the use of ‘correlation statistical test’. Unlike the experiment

where researchers manipulate the variables, investigators using the correlational design use the correlational statistics to relate different scores for every person (Creswell, 2012). Alternatively, Anderson and Arsenault (1998) acknowledge that

Correlational research involves the calculation of a *correlation coefficient* which is a measure of the extent to which variables vary in the same way. Correlation coefficients range from -1.0 to +1.0 with 0 meaning no relationship, between the variables, and 1.0 meaning a perfect relationship, one to the other. A positive correlation is one in which a higher score on one variable is related to a higher score on the other. This is expressed by a positive value for the correlation coefficient. When there is a negative sign, as one variable increases, scores on the other decreases. (p. 118)

Research method writers have always categorised correlational research as a quantitative design. Explanation and prediction are two major designs that go under the correlational design. Researchers predict scores and explain the relation between variables (Creswell, 2012). Similarly, Anderson and Arsenault (1998) state that “Correlation research is one way of describing in quantitative terms the degree to which variables are related.” (p. 118)

4.1.3.3 Descriptive Design

According to Gall, Gall and Borg (2003) descriptive studies are qualitative in nature and seek to describe certain educational phenomena. Although most studies are technically concerned with testing new methods and programmes and investigating causal relationships, it is mandatory to first have an accurate description of the target phenomena in its natural context that would in return help explaining or changing it. In essence, descriptive studies strive primarily at identifying ‘what is’.

Descriptive research is more than what its name denotes. It is thought of to be the mere collection and computing of data to get opinions and facts of the investigated phenomena. It, in fact, requires elements of comparison and relationships between the variables at issue (Verma & Mallick, 1999). Most commonly, descriptive studies opt for interviews and questionnaires (also called survey research) as an attempt to gather valuable and accurate data regarding attitudes and opinions of participants (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003). Similarly, Anderson and Arsenault state that “The most commonly used instruments for descriptive research are reports, texts, questionnaires, scales and observation schedules; however, film and video also have their place.” (p. 111)

When digging deep in the research literature regarding descriptive research, one will find out two main types that differ primarily at the level of the measurement time of the study variables. In the first type, the sample is measured in a single point of time, whereas in the second type the sample is followed over time. The latter is called longitudinal research. (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003)

4.1.3.4 Ethnography

According to Richards (2003), ethnography is a qualitative research design that aims primarily at gathering data about particular social or cultural groups mainly through direct exposure to the field. This would help in providing comprehensive accounts of those target groups (p. 14). Denscombe (2010) rightly points out that

The purpose of the ethnographic research is to produce detailed pictures of events or cultures – descriptions which stand in their own right without the need to worry about how representative the situation is or what the broader implications might be in terms of other events or cultures of the type, or of contributing to wider theories. (p. 84)

Alternatively, opinions about the purpose behind ethnography research can be put along a continuum. At the one end are people who believe that the fundamental aim is to provide insightful and valuable descriptions of situations as they really are in real contexts. At the other end are those who specify the role of ethnography research in developing and testing theories in small-scale scenarios. (Denscombe, 2010)

Researchers following the ethnography design have first to guarantee their entry to the fieldwork that is vital to all ethnography. They need to move from being outsiders to insiders. It is not preferable however to be a complete insider so that the observations and descriptions would be free from all sorts of opinions and attitudes that the researcher need to be detached from. Researchers may get access to the research site as part-time teachers, for instance, to be participant observers and gather the data concerning the issue subjected to the study. Common sources of data are field notes, interviews, and documents. The analysis of data is highly related to the identification and categorisation of key themes. Traditionally, results are displayed in a textual form. More recently, however, ethnographies encapsulate other forms such as the dramatic, poetic and visual. (Richards, 2003)

Ethnographers usually sought for triangulation in order to assure variedness in the gathered data. They always use different methods, theories, and procedures to get an array of perspectives regarding the situation at issue instead of the one-sided views. You may occasionally hear people referring to the variety of data with *thick description*, an expression that was coined by Clifford Geertz to refer to accounts that encompass various perspectives and that are rich in details. (Richards, 2003)

Observing events at their natural habitat is regarded as the bedrock of ethnographic design as it helps in providing first-hand detailed knowledge. It is fundamental for ethnographers

to preserve the natural setting from research tools and even from their presence as observers. In so doing, ethnographers would obtain valuable and rich perspectives about the investigated events. This is why naturalism lies at the heart of ethnography. (Denscombe, 2010)

4.1.3.5 Case Study

According to Hays (as cited in Marrais & Lapan, 2004), case study research seeks to investigate the unique characteristics of a particular phenomenon, group of people, programmes, etc. Unlike ethnography studies, case study research provides a profound description and analysis to the case under examination in a limited period of time. The unique characteristics that differentiate one group of people (for example) from another group are generally what arouse the need to conduct a study in which those characteristics and differences are studied. Of course, the obtained results cannot be statistically generalised to the whole population from which the target sample was selected. (Wallace, 1998)

To illustrate, one group of learners may not share the same characteristics and conditions with the other groups of the whole population. In a similar vein, Wallace (1998) posits that case studies can be used to refute generalisation. The examination of one single characteristic/exception of a group of learners who are supposed to behave in a similar way could be enough to prove how much it is erroneous to predict generalisability in social science. Generalisations are most likely made in relation to probability instead of universal laws, and that is what diminishes the ability to refute the results through one or two experiences. That is why the role of generalisations in social science is less accentuated in comparison to natural science studies like physics and chemistry. (Wallace, 1998)

Many researchers would question the usefulness of case studies especially that they provide no generalisations. Generally, action researchers are interested in providing better

understanding and interpretation of their own unique situations: their learners, syllabus, lessons, classes, etc. The nature of case study research being focused on examining particular characteristics makes it more advantageous in providing the necessary data than empirical research. (Wallace, 1998)

It is apparent that case study research can be conducted through the use of various tools. The most common ones would be the observation, interview, questionnaire, verbal report, and the list goes on (Wallace, 1998, p. 168). Actually, “The decision as to which technique to use will partly depend on the precise nature of the case study.” (Wallace, 1998, p. 169)

4.1.3.6 Longitudinal Research Design

Longitudinal research is a concept that encompasses different methods. Gathering knowledge about the target sample during multiple points in time is what is common between these methods (Dörnyei, 2007). Simply put, it is “... the ongoing examination of people or phenomena over time” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 78). Similarly, Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000) declare that “The term ‘longitudinal’ is used to describe a variety of studies that are conducted over a period of time” (p. 174). In fact, “Longitudinal research serves two primary purposes: to describe patterns of change, and to explain causal relationships.” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 79)

It is rather advisable to define longitudinal research in terms of research data and design. Menard (2002 as cited in Dörnyei, 2007) acknowledges that in a longitudinal research, data are gathered through two or more different point in time, the investigated subjects are similar (i.e. drawn from the same population); and the analysis necessitates comparing data between periods.

Traditionally, longitudinal research has always been associated with the quantitative approach. Its aim was to provide statistical interpretations of social trends. Recently, however, longitudinal research has become qualitative-oriented. It strives to provide a detailed and

comprehensive picture of social life change through time within temporal and cultural dimensions. (Dörnyei, 2007)

Four types can be distinguished in longitudinal research design. The first one is *prospective longitudinal studies* or *panel studies*. It was the sociologist Paul Lazarsfeld who first coined this name in the US in the 1940s. Panel studies gained momentum for the fact that it permits researchers to gather knowledge about change at first-hand at the micro level. Unfortunately, they are expensive and time consuming to conduct and they necessitate a committed research team during the whole period of research.

Repeated cross-sectional studies or *trend studies* is another type of longitudinal research that fits researches at the macro level (e.g., examining the change of a whole community's evolving beliefs). Trend studies are in essence based on the administration of repeated questionnaire surveys to various samples. The fact that this type enables researches to examine and compare different sub-groups (e.g. males and females) makes it cheaper and easier to conduct.

Retrospective longitudinal studies are thought of to be a time-consuming design in the sense that data are collected during a single investigation. Participants are asked to think back and respond to questions related to the past. Of course, this is not without a cost. Many studies have revealed a huge gap in the collected data. Usually, respondents forget, omit, or provide incorrect retrospective accounts. To put it wise, retrospective data tend to be unreliable unless the researcher investigates a short period of time (weeks and months instead of years) then the retrospective study would be an appropriate design especially when the researcher examines events rather than attitudes and beliefs.

Simultaneous cross-sectional studies are partially longitudinal in the sense that it examines change across age groups instead of repeated points in time. In this case, age is the key sampling factor. This design is economical; however, it may lead to some misconceptions and unreliable knowledge. Sometimes, change is attributed to experiences of a cohort instead of age. Besides, this type of longitudinal studies involves the administration of the same questionnaire to all subgroups, that may entail the planning of comprehensive items that would seem imprecise for certain cohort (Dörnyei, 2007). Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000) define ‘cohort’ as “... a group of people with some common characteristics.” (p. 174)

4.1.4 Data Collection Methods

To conduct a research and gather the necessitated data, the researcher should opt for a number of data collection tools. These tools may underpin the qualitative approach, the quantitative approach, or the mixed-methods approaches in which the two aforementioned approaches are combined. Follows are the most common data collection methods that are widely used to make better decisions about a certain investigated phenomenon.

4.1.4.1 Questionnaires

The term questionnaire is usually approached as an umbrella term under which different conceptualisations are found. For some practitioners, questionnaire goes for face-to-face or telephone interviews, whereas for others it delineates self-administered questionnaires. Simply put, the term questionnaire is used to discriminate open-ended and flexible questions from those rigid and restricted ones that are usually found in tests and exams (Oppenheim, 1992). According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003) questionnaires are documents that direct the same questions to all participants in the sample, no matter how large the sample is. When filling out the questionnaire

either in a written or typed form, respondents have, to some extents, some kind of control and flexibility, i.e.; they can skip questions, answer in any order, make marginal comments, etc.

Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000) identify three key stages to developing a questionnaire. The first stage is planning. Using a flow chart in this early stage is deemed beneficial in the organisation and sequencing of questions. The general aim of the questionnaire must be clear, concrete, and reachable. If not, the process of data gathering would be swirled by an array of barriers. After planning comes the operationalisation of questions. Typically, it has to do with itemising and setting out subsidiary topics about which data can be gathered. Of course, the subsidiary topics must have a direct relation with the general purpose of the questionnaire. Then comes the third stage in which questions are formulated in accordance with the identified and itemized subsidiary topics.

Most questionnaires are divided as either open or closed. Closed questionnaire generally consist of the questions accompanied with alternative responses. Respondents have to choose answers from the set of choices provided in the questionnaire by mostly ticking, crossing, or underlying the answer that best represent their thoughts. Questionnaires of this type usually offer questions with simple alternatives like Yes and No. On the other hand, open or free-response questionnaires do not provide alternative answers; the space or the number of lines provided to each question usually determine the length of the obtained answers and participants have to record the answers in full. Perhaps, this free space that open questionnaires give to the respondents may be regarded as an essential advantageous criterion. This free space is not found in closed questionnaires where the questions are straightforward, easy, and quick to be answered. As such, a lot of questions can be answered in a given length of time and with a given some of money. (Oppenheim, 1992)

Another distinguishing feature than can be marked when tackling the issue of questionnaires is structured, unstructured, and semi-structured questionnaires. Closed questionnaires are generally structured ones as they limit the respondents' freedom to write what they exactly think. They have to choose from the provided alternatives. Open questionnaires, however, are unstructured. They give a free space to the participants to write what really goes in their minds. It is misleading though to describe open questionnaires as unstructured because there is always structure in any kind of questionnaire to which respondents have to adhere. Between a completely open questionnaire and a totally closed one comes what is known as the semi-structured questionnaire. It consists of open-ended questions with a clear structure and sequence, i.e.; respondents are asked to answer or comment on the items in a way they think is best. It is for this reason the answers gathered by a semi-structured questionnaire are never presupposed. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000)

Admittedly, it is way better to use structured questionnaires with large samples as the type of questions does not entail a large amount of time. The closed questionnaire is beneficial in that it provides frequencies that can be statistically analyzed. If ever the sample size is a small one, then the unstructured questionnaire can be the best choice. Of course the choice of which type to be selected depends largely on the nature and aims of the study. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000 as cited in Oppenheim, 1992)

4.1.4.2 Observation

The observation is a qualitative data collection tool that enables the researcher to gather live data from live situations. In this case, the researcher is fortunate to record what is really taking place firsthand. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000 as cited in Patton, 1990)

Creswell (2012) talked about two types of a research observer: participant and non-participant observer. A participant observer is the one who takes part in classroom activities and observes the classroom settings simultaneously. It is sometimes hard to engage in the classroom activities and be an inside observer who has to take notes now and then of the research site. Before conducting your observation, you have first to get the permission to enter to the classroom and take part in the activities. Then, you may need to stop every while to take notes or check the observation checklist and cross some items or record information if ever needed. Some researchers prefer to stay after the sessions are ended to write down what has been taking place in the study site so that they do not interrupt the smooth flow of the lesson nor they leave it later so that they do not forget details. A nonparticipant observer, on the other hand is simply an outsider who needs less access to the research site in comparison to the participant observer. That is, he visits the study site to record information without getting involved in the classroom activities. This type of observer usually sits in an advantageous place such as the back of the classroom to observe the issue under investigation and write down what is taking place. It is worth mentioning in this case that the gathered data may not be as concrete as they would be if the researcher is a participant observer. Usually, nonparticipant observers are deprived from actual experiences.

The available observations that are at the researchers' disposal lie on a continuum from structured to unstructured, pre-ordinate to responsive, respectively. The pre-ordinate or structured observation sets in advance its purpose and subsidiary aims. The observer goes to the study site with an agenda of structured and well-organised issues. The unstructured observation, however, is generally undecided in what it exactly looks for. The researcher in this case, and as an attempt to identify the significance of the observation, tries to get some information through

observing the research site beforehand and then decides on what to focus on. Between these two types of observation comes what is known as the semi-structured observation. This kind tends to have an agenda of issues but still need some more information to better structure the items in a systematic and more workable manner.

Put wisely, the structured observation is typically a hypothesis-testing data collection tool because it always has its hypothesis there waiting for being confirmed or refuted; whereas, the semi-structured and unstructured observations are widely regarded as hypothesis-generating because they seek review to the observational data before providing an explanation to the phenomena under investigation. Significantly, a structured observation is systematic in that it provides the researcher with numerical data that are generated from the observation to facilitate the interpretation and analysis of the results and to compare the frequencies, settings, and situations. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000)

4.1.4.3 Interviews

The interview is a popular data collection tool in qualitative research. It is primarily based on a question-answer relationship between the interviewer and the interviewees. The interviewer is always in control of the responses and directs the interview to fit the objectives of the study. Either individually or in a large group, participants give oral responses that are recorded through audiotapes or videotapes, via handwritten or computer-generated notes. Sometimes, the interviewer relies on his/her short-term memory for later notes. The interviewer makes sure the time and place of the interview are suitable for participants. (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003)

Notwithstanding the similarities that the interview and the conversation share, interviews are broader than conversations in the sense that they require a set of assumptions and understandings about the situation (Silverman 1985 as cited in Denscombe 2010). Interviews are

an expedient option for, not only gathering straightforward factual knowledge, but also in investigating complex phenomena. In case the researcher is interested in investigating and collecting data about simple uncontroversial facts, then questionnaires would be more appropriate tools for gathering the data. Contrariwise, if the researcher seeks to get in-depth and detailed information about people's opinions, experiences, and attitudes, then interviews would serve as the best data collection tool in this regard. (Denscombe, 2010)

According to Denscombe (2010), structured interviews are similar to questionnaires that are administered hand to hand. The researcher prepares the questions beforehand to which participants have to give limited option responses. That is, in structured interviews researchers have control over the format of questions and answers. They control the wording and the sequencing of questions and the answers that have the advantage of 'standardisation'. Typically, respondents receive identical questions and the obtained answers are potentially coded. In this respect, the structured interview is concerned with collecting quantitative data. Structured interviews are seemingly viewed as social surveys that seek to collect a large volume of data from a large sized sample.

Semi-structured interviews are not very different from structured interviews. The interviewer still has a predetermined list of themes and questions with control over the wording of questions, but can be flexible in the order of asking questions and the received answers. Respondents will have some space for developing their thoughts and ideas. That is, the interviewer accepts open-ended answers with more emphasis on the participants developing the target topics of interest.

The other type is unstructured interviews. This type rather accentuates the respondents' ideas. The researcher's role is to start the ball rolling through initiating a discussion regarding a

topic of interests and gives the interviewees the complete freedom to express their thoughts. Unstructured and semi-structured interviews can be placed along a continuum and, in practice, interviewers will likely slide back and forth on both extremes. The free space they both give to interviewees to express their thoughts using their own words is what distinguishes them from the structured interview. When participants ‘speak their mind’, interviewers can discover insightful ideas about complex issues especially that the prime aim of semi-structured and unstructured interviews is discovering rather than checking.

4.1.5 Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis is a systematic process whereby data are prepared and calculated in order to get appropriate findings that are reported and discussed later (Creswell, 2012). According to Dörnyei (2007) the utmost suitable data analysis procedures are mostly selected based on the research questions and data collection tools. After the analysis phase, the obtained results will give ample evidence and information that would help in answering the research questions and confirm or refute the research hypotheses.

4.1.5.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

Quantitative data are usually collected through a number of mathematical procedures (statistics). These statistics are put along a continuum. On the one end, there are simple descriptive statistics like the mean, and on the other end there are complex statistics like ‘structural equation modeling’ (Dörnyei, 2007). Following are some major stages that quantitative data analysis procedure goes through.

4.1.5.1.1 Preparing the data for analysis. After the process of gathering the data that is described by Davidson (1996 as cited in Dörnyei, 2007) as a “... painful experience of going from a stack of disorganized hard copy to online data that are trustworthy” (p. 198) comes the

step of preparing the data. Preparing quantitative data begins with a systematic coding that is necessary for storing the data into a computer file. Technically, softwares that are specialised in the analysis of quantitative data accept data that are in a numerical instead of alphabetic form (Creswell, 2012; Dörnyei, 2007). After the storage of the data, the researcher needs to select the appropriate statistical programme. The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) is one of the most commonly used programmes by researchers in social sciences. After the computer programme is selected, the researcher transfers the data from the instrument used for the data collection to that programme. (Creswell, 2012)

As Dörnyei (2007) rightly points out, “With numerical variables such as test scores, the coding is simple because the value range of the variable will be the same as the possible scores for the test” (p. 199). Scoring or coding data gathered from a checklist ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree requires from the researcher to assign numerical values to each response; e.g.: 5 = strongly agree, 4 = agree, 3 = undecided/neutral, 2 = disagree, and 1 = strongly disagree. (Creswell, 2012)

After preparing and organising the data, comes the step of analysing the data. Clearly, the statistics are either analysed descriptively (if the research aims at describing trends) or inferentially (if the research aims at comparing two or more groups, relating two or more variables, or testing hypotheses). Making a clear distinction between these two types is crucial for statistics. (Creswell, 2012; Dörnyei, 2007)

4.1.5.1.2 Descriptive Statistics. Data are quantitatively summarised to describe the sample under study through calculating the mean, range, and standard deviation. In so doing, the research will save time and space and provide an in-depth description to the participants’ responses. This is surely way too better than listing all the obtained scores. Notwithstanding that

descriptive statistics provide a tidy way of displaying the data, it is quite noteworthy to state that the obtained findings cannot be generalised from the sample back to the entire population. It is advisable to refer each time when reporting descriptive results to the fact that these findings are peculiar to the study sample. If ever the results need to be generalised then it is better to opt for inferential statistics.

To illustrate, in a study where second language learners' achievement is described, with girls' performance outperforming boys, descriptive statistics can only report the fact that in this particular class girls did better than boys. No general conclusion like 'girls are better language learners' can be stated. This is only possible in case inferential statistics are used in the analysis of the data. By this, the difference can be made clear and significant in a statistical sense. (Dörnyei, 2007)

4.1.5.1.3 Inferential Statistics. Generally speaking; inferential statistics are similar to descriptive statistics with one varying factor; softwares that compute the inferential statistics go far beyond the calculation of the data to attest their generalisability (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 209). The main salient concern of inferential statistics is to test 'statistical significance'. The latter acknowledges whether or not the observed results can be claimed as true for the entire population and henceforth generalisable. In case the observed results are non-significant, then we cannot ascertain the generalizability of the results. The fact that they occurred in this sample can be attributed to chance. (Dörnyei, 2007)

4.1.5.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

Broadly speaking, scholars use the term 'qualitative data analysis' to refer to the wide range of activities "from imaginative and artful speculation to following well-defined analytical moves, from deductive categorization to inductive pattern finding" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 242).

Qualitative data analysis procedures are deemed to be more straightforward in the sense that they are "... well defined procedures, guided by universally accepted canons, to address research issues and the computer will do the most of the detailed mathematical work for us, producing relatively straightforward results" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 197). Analysing qualitative data predominantly involves making meaning out of texts, talks, and images as an attempt to find comprehensible answers to the research question and problem. (Creswell, 2012; Denscombe, 2010)

Needless to say, "Qualitative data need to be prepared and organized before they can be analysed. It is important to appreciate that in a 'raw' condition qualitative data are likely to be difficult to interrogate in any systematic and meaningful fashion." (Denscombe, 2010, p. 274)

4.1.5.2.1 Computer assisted qualitative data analysis. The analysis of qualitative data has witnessed the emergence of a number of computer assisted softwares (commonly known as CAQDAS that refers to *computer assisted qualitative data analysis* software) that eases the researchers' work. Some are widely used and well-known amongst researchers and some others are rather difficult to afford. NVivo is the best known software. Of course, there are other useful softwares and online sites that review the many alternatives. It is advisable to resort to these computers assisted softwares for the analysis of data since they are designed to ascertain the appropriate organisation and storage of the qualitative data. (Denscombe, 2010)

4.1.5.2.2 Qualitative content analysis. According to Denscombe (2010), "Content analysis can be used with any text, whether it is in the form of writing, sounds or pictures. It is used as a way of quantifying the contents of the text" (p. 281). It was first introduced as a quantitative analytical method used mainly with written texts to count words, phrases, or grammatical structures within specific categories. More recently, and because qualitative data is

typically textual, it became a qualitative analytical method with one significant change: the qualitative categories are inductively sorted out from the data analysis instead of being predetermined that was the case in the quantitative content analysis. (Dörnyei, 2007)

Apart from the wide range purposes that content analysis can be used for, it most commonly follows a logical and straightforward procedure. First, *choose an appropriate sample of texts or images*. The reason behind choosing a certain sample ought to be explicitly stated. Besides, the sampling technique should also be mentioned if ever used. Second, *break the text down into smaller component units*. These component units can be a word, a sentence, a paragraph, or even a picture. Third, *develop relevant categories for analysing the data*. After having decided on what categories to have, the researcher may use key words to refer to each category's theme. After that, *code the units in line with the categories*. Coding is either done on the written text or entered via the computer programme. Then, *count the frequency with which these units occur*. And at the end you *analyse the text in terms of frequency of the units and their relationship with other units that occur in the text*. Coding the units enables the research to get a more practical analysis and explanation to the issue under investigation and draw conclusions. (Denscombe, 2007)

4.1.5.2.3 Grounded Theory. Grounded theory is a common term in qualitative research literature. It is sometimes used synonymously with qualitative research. It is, despite its name, a qualitative research method and not a theory (Dörnyei, 2007). The 'theory' label refers to "... the explicit goal of the method to develop a new theory", whereas 'grounded' refers to "the new theoretical insights were to be generated on the basis of empirical data". In fact, 'theory' denotes the fact that "... researchers should go beyond merely describing or categorizing the target

phenomena and should offer some basic understanding of the principles, relationships, causes and/or motives underlying it.” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 259-260)

According to Denscombe (2010), grounded theory primarily focuses on the analysis and interpretation of interview scripts. It can also be used for the analysis of different qualitative data. Texts are put under a close scrutiny, and then a gradual process of coding and categorising the obtained data is undertaken. The salient concern of the analysis is to develop concepts and theories that embody the meaning depicted by the data. That is, the grounded theory approach is ‘inductive’ since it strives to use the obtained outcomes as the foundation for sustaining theories and statements that are workable and applicable at a general level.

This view aligns with Richards’ (2003) who argues that the grounded theory methodology is markedly known by the interrelatedness of theory and data gathering. Following the inductive approach, the researcher develops theories starting from the obtained data. Researchers using the grounded theory approach do never begin with a particular theoretical framework in mind. The procedures of data analysis start with coding and categorising the data that ultimately help writing theoretical memos. (Richards, 2003)

4.1.5.2.4 Discourse analysis. Discourse analysis is a qualitative data analysis tool that is interested in the implicit meaning of texts, images, or any semiotic event instead of the explicit meaning. It espouses the assumption that words and images, in addition to conveying meaning, can create and sustain reality. In order to figure out how texts and images create and sustain certain aspects of social life, discourse analysis requires a deconstruction of the data. The chief tenet of discourse analysis is that the words used in a given text are not necessarily determined by the thing they were used to represent. In fact, words are *chosen* for the sake of influencing the target readers (Denscombe, 2010). It is noteworthy to state that there are other types of discourse

analysis that can be used for the analysis of texts and pictures such as text analysis, conversation analysis, narrative analysis, etc. They all go under the generic term discourse analysis.

4.1.5.3 Mixed Methods Data Analysis

A Mixed- methods research is generally recognised as the combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches. This methodology provides a synergistic use of the data. Previously, researchers believed that the mixing of data should appear at the very final stages of data interpretation. This might sound partially true. Many scholars, however, have argued that the integration should start as earlier as the collection of the data begins resulting in what is called mixed methods data analysis. (Dörnyei, 2007, Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Creswell, 2002)

Mixing data primarily requires transforming one data genre into the other. In so doing, both data will be analysed using statistical and thematic analysis. This process is generally called ‘data transformation’. Quantitising data is when the data are transformed from qualitative to quantitative and qualitisng data is when data are converted from quantitative to qualitative. It all depends on the direction of the transformation. (Dörnyei, 2007)

After the transformation of the data comes the selection of the appropriate strategy for analysis. Parallel mixed data analysis is one commonly used analysis technique in social research. It is partially associated with triangulation and convergence. It involves two distinct procedures. First, analysis of quantitative data using descriptive/inferential statistics, and second analysis of qualitative data using thematic analysis.

Conversion mixed data analysis is another type of mixed methods analysis that occurs when quantitising and qualitisng the collected data. In data transformation analysis, data are collected at the same point in time because there is one single source of data. Moreover,

‘sequential mixed data analysis’ is another data analysis procedure that appears in case the collection of the qualitative and quantitative data occurs in a chronological order.

In addition to the aforementioned types of mixed data analysis, ‘multilevel mixed data analysis’ is another type in which the researcher uses qualitative and quantitative techniques at different levels to provide valuable answers to the research questions and problem. To illustrate, one type of analysis could be used to investigate one variable (pupils for instance), whilst the other types could be used for another variant variable (programms, classrooms, teachers, etc.). (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009)

Of course, choosing the most appropriate data analysis procedure is primarily based on the type of the data to be gathered, the objectives of the study, and the time needed for the collection of the data.

4.1.6 Sampling Techniques

Creswell (2012) states that a sample is a subset of the predetermined target population that is put under study in order to generalise the final findings on the whole population. Similarly, Dörnyei (2007) declares that a good sample ought to be representative enough. That is, it shares similar characteristics with the target population either general ones like gender and age or specific ones like learning background.

The selection of the study sample is divided into two major approaches: ‘probability sampling’: necessitates complex and expensive procedures that most linguists cannot afford, or ‘non-probability sampling’: underpins a number of practical strategies that ordinary researchers can use. (Denscombe, 2010; Dörnyei, 2007; Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003)

4.1.6.1 Probability Sampling Technique

Probability sampling is grounded in a statistical theory related to the ‘normal distribution’. This sampling technique is primarily based on random selection of the participants. All the individuals or items in the target population have equal chances to be selected. It is one best way of obtaining a representative sample since the researcher has no influence on the selection. Probability sampling is convenient when employed with large numbers. It works best with large-scale surveys using quantitative data (Denscombe, 2010). In a similar vein, Creswell (2012) postulates that “This is the most rigorous form of sampling in quantitative research because the investigator can claim that the sample is representative of the population and, as such, can make generalizations to the population.” (p. 142)

Probability sampling yields a number of scientific procedures that assure the selection of best representative samples when conducting quantitative researches. It includes four main types: *Simple random sampling* is a sampling procedure where individuals are selected by chance from the target population. Generally, data gathered through this sampling technique are representative and can henceforth be generalised from the selected subset group back to the entire population.

Stratified random sampling is one effective sampling procedure that combines randomisation and categorisation. To put it clear, the target population is divided into homogeneous groups (strata) from each a sample is chosen randomly. Of course, the population is stratified in relation to different variables.

Systematic sampling is highly preferred if the researcher is willing to choose a large sample and in case a list of the entire population is available. In this case, the researcher ought to divide the population on the needed number of participants (e.g. $1000/100=10$). Then choose at

random a smaller number than the obtained number (any number smaller than 10; it could be 4). The selection starts from the 4th individual and continues to encompass every 10th member from the list (4th, 14th, 24th, etc.). In so doing, the researcher could save a significant amount of time.

Cluster sampling is usually sought for when the target population is widely disbursed. It essentially entails dividing the entire population into groups and then examining those groups instead of individuals. (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; Denscombe, 2010)

4.1.6.2 Non-Probability Sampling Technique

According to Dörnyei (2007) non-probability sampling techniques are frequently used in applied linguistics. In qualitative research, researchers who opt for this sampling technique usually face no problem regarding representativeness of the study sample. In quantitative research that commonly strives for representativeness, however, non-probability sampling may be perceived as a useless sampling technique. He claims that “No matter how principled a non-probability sample strives to be, the extent of generalizability in this type of sample is often negligible.” (p. 99)

In non-probability sampling, researchers do not seek generalisability. They usually select participants who are available, convenient, and who display certain characteristics that suit the study. Sometimes, researchers go for accepting individuals who volunteer and agree to be under investigation because the issue here is that researchers using non-probability sampling do not look for generalisable findings; they just need to describe the sample subjected to the study with its own properties and characteristics. (Creswell, 2012)

Non-probability sampling underpins different sampling procedures through whereby the researcher can select his/her study sample. The followings are some of the major non-probability sampling techniques:

Quota sampling functions much closely to the stratified sampling. They differ at the level of randomisation. To illustrate, the selection of the study sample is done according to a number of strata. After dividing the target population into subgroups with similar characteristics; thereafter, the sample is chosen, not randomly, but in relation to the predetermined quotas. It is up to the researcher to choose the individuals that make up the study sample and represent all the necessary characteristics for the research. Since the sample represents the whole population, the results can be accepted to be generalisable.

Snowball sampling involves the identification of few people who meet the proportions of the study and then these people select other members who are deemed significant for the study. In so doing, the study sample grows like a snowball. This type of sampling is usually opted for when it is difficult to get access to some groups for certain reasons.

Convenience sampling is disclosed as the selection of the sample that best suits the objectives of the study. For example, a researcher might choose a school to conduct his study simply because he can easily get access to it or because it is nearer than the other schools. It is a widely used sampling procedure especially in pilot studies since it simplifies things on researchers and makes data collection a quick and easy task. (Dörnyei, 2007; Denscombe, 2010)

4.2 Research Methodology for this Study: Choices and Rationale

The following section specifies the fundamental methodological choices in relevance to our research project. It portrays the selected paradigm, research approach, design, and strategies that are deemed appropriate for this research work. In addition to the sampling technique used to choose a study sample, it depicts the procedures through which data were collected and analysed, along with the treatment implementation stages and process.

4.2.1 Research Paradigms

There is a unanimous agreement about the fact that research paradigms are one of the most interesting and potentially valuable developments in educational research. Their importance occurs in framing the nature of enquiry and guiding the methodological consideration of the research. The philosophical orientation underlying this study comes mainly from pragmatism. The latter gives the researcher greater scope to address the issues of impact and influence from different perspectives. To illustrate, the chief objective of this study is to explore the impact of IE on ameliorating the vocabulary knowledge of second-year middle school pupils who encounter the English language for their first time. To determine potential clarifications, and according to the complex nature of the study, a combination of both qualitative and quantitative data gathering tools were sought for. In so doing, both the validity and reliability of the research findings will be strengthened and, henceforth adequate pedagogical implications and conclusions will be drawn.

4.2.2 Research Approach (es)

This study seeks to examine the effectiveness of inclusionary practices on boosting middle school pupils learning to the English vocabulary language, it became apparent to the researcher that the mixed methods approach is the most suitable for this study. Relying solely on the quantitative or the qualitative methods of research would provide less significant results. It is widely agreed amongst scholars that combining the strengths of the two research methods will result in more reliable and informative data. The comparative study would potentially enable the researcher to collect rich information for the stated purposes.

The quantitative part of this study seeks to determine whether or not the implementation of inclusive strategies affect the learning of the English language vocabulary. It also attempts to

explore the relation between pupils' learning styles and how taking them into consideration when planning lessons would help meeting pupils' needs and henceforth ameliorate their potential for learning.

On the other hand, the qualitative part of this research is descriptive; it gives a detailed account on the attitude of pupils in conjunction to the use of IE and DI and the extent to which they helped them learn the target language.

4.2.3 Research Design (s) / Strategy (ies)

It is well documented that an effective research encompasses not only the amount of knowledge the researcher has to write in regard to the research question, but it also necessitates a clear understanding of the steps the research has to undertake. Incited by the nature of the study that seeks to investigate the effectiveness of implementing IE in EFL classes to enhance pupils' learning of the English language vocabulary in addition to meeting their diverse needs, the mixed-methods approach was adopted with the implementation of its different research strategies. More specifically, to provide a more comprehensible analysis of the research problem, a mixture of two research strategies was adopted: the case study and quasi-experimental designs.

For the qualitative side of the research, the case study design is presumably deemed the most appropriate, and the reason behind this choice is threefold. First, the case study design strives at investigating a limited sample in a limited period of time. Second, it does not necessitate the generalisation of the findings on the whole population. It only examines a target issue under certain factors, and this is in fact what the current research aims at reaching. Third, this research is considered more feasible if conducted in the classroom (original context), the case study design was selected since it advocates the investigation of the studied phenomena in its original environment.

In addition to the case study design, and aligned with the research nature and the outlined objectives, the quasi-experimental design was also adopted. Unlike the true experimental design that strives for generalisability. The participants are assigned into control and experimental groups with an accurate controlling of the extraneous variables.

Since none of the aforesaid factors serve the aim of the research under investigation, the quasi-experimental design was rather selected, especially that the generalisability of the findings is not a priority in this study.

4.2.4 Data Collection Methods

To achieve the purpose of this research, four data collection tools were selected for the process of gathering the necessitated data. This incorporated the pre-treatment questionnaire of learning styles, the pre and post-tests, the classroom observation, and the post-treatment pupils' questionnaire.

4.2.4.1 The Pre-Treatment Questionnaire

The pre-treatment questionnaire (adopted from the work of Reid, 1987) was distributed for the target sample mainly to get deep insights about pupils' preferred learning styles and to conjure up an idea about their level in English. The questionnaire constitutes of thirty questions that are divided upon six learning styles namely visual, tactile, auditory, group, kinesthetic, and individual. The questionnaire was adapted to fit the demanding needs of the current research since this study relies on the VAKT style. Accordingly only twenty questions out of thirty were kept.

4.2.4.1.1 Structure and Aim. Pupils differ in the way they approach learning. There is always one best way through which a pupil might excel at learning. One best way to ensure that classroom learning encapsulates all pupils' interests is to know every pupil's preferred learning

style. The aim of the pre-treatment structured questionnaire was to collect sufficient and valuable data about second grade pupils' learning styles. It seeks to help teachers differentiate learning in respect to pupils' learning styles, and henceforth making the classroom more inclusive-oriented. The questionnaire consists of four learning styles with 20 items to which pupils have to answer with a scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Every learning style consists of five questions that seek to determine the pupils' preferences.

4.2.4.1.2 Validation and Piloting. Reliability and validity are two essential research components that researchers have to consider. In this regard, Bassey (1999) posits that "... reliability is the extent to which a research fact or finding can be repeated, given the same circumstances, and validity is the extent to which a research fact or finding is what it is claimed to be" (p. 75). Substantially, to ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire, the researcher ought to try it out beforehand to make sure that things will go as intended. Creswell (2012) sums it wisely when reports that "Data collection should be ethical and it should respect individuals and sites. Obtaining permission before starting to collect data is not only part of the informed consent process but is also an ethical practice." (p. 169)

Correspondingly, the researcher selected a number of 22 second graders who share the same characteristics of the study sample in order to fill in the pre-treatment questionnaire. Afterwards, they were asked to complete the opinionnaire wherein they have to give their view point about the structure, length, and adequacy of the questionnaire. In fact, this step enabled the researcher to see whether or not there are any repeated, difficult, or meaningless questions so that a better version of the questionnaire could be made for the study sample. According to the pupils' answers, the text was shortened. One column in task one in reading comprehension was removed. The number of questions in task two was revised and adjusted respectively. For

mastery of language, the number of sentences in task two was reduced to two sentences instead of four due to time constraints (45 min instead of 1 hour).

4.2.4.2 The Tests

To provide a detailed and more accurate description to the research problem that is mainly about learning English vocabulary knowledge in an inclusive differentiated classroom, the test was used as a chief data collection tool in this research. The pre-test took place before the treatment phase whereas the post-test took place after the treatment phase.

4.2.4.2.1 Structure and Aim. The aim behind the pretest is twofold. Firstly, it served as a proficiency test that helped in determining the current level of the two groups that would take part in the experiment phase. Second, it sought to measure the participants' prior knowledge. It strives to find out the amount of vocabulary the pupils subjected to this study got from their first year although they did not finish their studies because of Covid 19.

This test was designed according to the testing grid norms usually followed by middle school teachers, i.e., it is divided into two main parts. The first part is divided into two sections: reading comprehension and mastery of language. In the former part the pupils are asked to read a short text about the last sequence they have seen in the previous year and do some reading tasks. Whereas, in the latter part they are supposed to do some tasks that have a relation to the grammar points they have covered previously, in addition to pronunciation points. The second part is a situation of integration in which the pupils have to integrate all the skills and information they learned during the term and put them down in a form of a paragraph.

The posttest, on the other hand, was sought for to discern the impact of IE and DI on how far the pupils excelled at learning the English language vocabulary knowledge. Clearly, it seeks to bring to light the difference between a traditional-oriented classroom and an inclusive-oriented

one. The test consists of different vocabulary-based tasks that strive at measuring the amount of vocabulary knowledge the pupils have learned after the treatment phase that lasted for one month and a half (six weeks). Moreover, the test was deliberately designed on a form of a de-contextualised test because "... it has been argued that de-contextualised tests encourage learners simply to learn long lists of words ... de-contextualised tests are usually easy to compile and mark, so they are therefore very practicable" (Thronbury, 2002, p. 131). In some tasks, however, the target vocabulary items were put into sentences in order to provide help to the pupils.

4.2.4.2.2 Validation and Piloting. To assure the credibility of the tests, they were first administered to a group of pupils that share similar characteristics of the target sample. According to the opinionnaire answered by the pupils after they finished answering the proficiency test, the time allocated for the completion of the test was insufficient. Because of the educational interventions imposed by Corona virus, sessions' timing was limited to 45 minutes only instead of one hour. Henceforth, the researcher adjusted the test text and questions to fit the allocated time.

Additively, the revised version was given to two other teachers of English to cross check content validity. For the post test, that aims at measuring the extent to which the pupils learned new vocabulary knowledge related to sequence one of the textbook, the researcher went through the same steps. It was first administered to a group of pupils who gave no comments regarding the time and the type of questions. The two teachers of English also showed positive attitude towards the test and maintained that the instructions were appropriate and clear.

4.2.4.3 The Classroom Observation

It is quite noticeable that observations are used by case study researchers who are keen on collecting first-hand and truthful information from their natural settings. As stated by Hancock &

Algozzine (2006), “Unlike interviews, which rely on people’s sometimes biased perceptions and recollections of events, observations of the setting by a case study researcher may provide more objective information related to the research topic” (p. 46). Observations help in providing firsthand data that are far from the misinterpretation of both the observer and the individuals being observed.

4.2.4.3.1 Structure and Aim. The observation is another data collection tool that was selected to provide live data about the pupils and the teacher in an inclusive setting. That is, it strives to portray the way the teacher differentiates instruction to meet the needs and interests of all the pupils, in addition to finding out whether or not the pupils have enjoyed this teaching method. The observation checklist was developed by the researcher after extensive readings to the criteria of inclusive classrooms and teachers. It comprises four chief parts: the teacher, the pupils, the teaching materials, and the classroom environment. The researcher is required to evaluate the treatment sessions by ticking the box when she feels that any statement relates to what she has done or achieved with the experimental group.

4.2.4.3.2 Validation and Piloting. The classroom observation was carried out during the six weeks of the treatment phase, early in the 2020/2021 school year (from November 2020 to January 2021). The central aim of the classroom observation was to collect truthful data about the pupils’ performance and engagement in the classroom activities when integrating IE practices in the teaching/learning process. That is, it aims at envisaging the actual use of IE and how deep it affects the pupils’ potential for learning. It also seeks to depict pupils’ perceptions and opinions in conjunction with the implementation of the inclusive strategy namely DI. Fortunately, the task of observing middle school pupils was rather easy and attainable because the researcher is, at the same time, a teacher at the school where the experiment was conducted.

However, and for ethical issues, it was compulsory for the researcher to go through some administrative procedures. First, the researcher needed to obtain permission from both the pupils that form the sample of the study and the school principal. Consent from both of them was obtained through informed consent letters that explained the nature of the current study and the purpose behind conducting it. The only shortage that the researcher encountered was the impossible use of video-taping. Indeed, pointing the camera on pupils would make them feel aware that they are being observed and this may lead to substantial changes in their behaviour. Henceforward, the researcher relied on an observation grid in the process of observing.

Moving to the issue of piloting and validating the observation tool, a number of systematic stages was followed. The teacher researcher schedules the observed sessions beforehand. To ascertain the validity and reliability of the observation, the researcher asked three other teachers at the same school to take part in the observation. This step is beneficial in comparing the field notes obtained by the researcher and the other teachers. There should be no big difference in the data collected by the researcher and the other teachers. Of course, the observation grid and the process of observing were detailedly explained to them.

4.2.4.5 The Post-Treatment Questionnaire

A semi-structured post-treatment questionnaire was administered to the participants in the experimental group in order to get deep insights about the usefulness of IE in meeting the pupils' needs and facilitating the learning process. Of course, it was first translated into Arabic before it was handed to the pupils. The researcher sought for some colleagues who teach the Arabic language to revise and refine the translated version of the questionnaire.

4.2.4.5.1 Structure and Aim. The post-treatment questionnaire consists of nine questions divided into three sections:

➤ **Section One:** Lesson Presentation (Q1 to Q4)

It enquires about how far the teacher succeeded in transforming the classroom into an inclusive-oriented one. Pupils were asked to give their personal views about whether or not the delivered lessons and tasks match their learning styles and interests, and if this inclusive and differentiated context helped in diminishing their learning difficulties and boosted their potential for learning the English vocabulary.

➤ **Section Two:** Pupils' Attitude towards Inclusive Education (Q5 to Q7)

It addresses, in a broad sense, the participants' views about IE. Pupils in this section are asked about the effectiveness of IE in enriching their vocabulary repertoire and fostering the process of learning the English language with fewer obstacles.

➤ **Section Three:** Challenges and Further Suggestions (Q8 to Q9)

It seeks to get valuable insights about the difficulties that pupils might have faced during the use of IE. So, pupils were asked to talk about the challenges they faced up and to provide any further suggestions to ameliorate the use of IE.

4.2.4.5.2 Validation and Piloting. To come up with the final version of the post treatment pupils' questionnaire, it was first administered to a group of pupils to ascertain that it is appropriate in regard to the wording, question formulation, timing, and so forth. Based on the opinionnaire, the post treatment questionnaire was not modified.

4.2.5 Data Collection Procedures

Data were collected for statistical analysis following accurate protocols. The researcher used stepwise procedures for every selected data collection tool to obtain substantially insightful information about the investigated phenomenon and therefore proffer answers to the raised research questions.

4.2.5.1 Data Collection Procedures for the Questionnaires

Before distributing the questionnaires, the researcher translated them into Arabic to diminish any ambiguity that the respondents may encounter. For the pre-treatment questionnaire, the pupils were informed that the questionnaire aims at disclosing everyone's preferred learning style. This would help in making learning more interesting and meaningful for them all. For the post-treatment questionnaire, the researcher informed the pupils that their opinions and attitudes towards the integration of IE and DI (that were already explained in the treatment phase) are crucial to the present research.

4.2.5.2 Data Collection Procedures for the Tests

The pupils were informed that they would set for a test about things they already dealt with in the classroom. The test will be graded but the grades have nothing to do with the school tests and exams. To make sure that the pupils will show seriousness in answering the tests, the researcher told them that the tests are part of the continuous assessment. Before answering the tests, the researcher clarified the directions and told the pupils that they have the right to ask questions if anything is not clear.

4.2.5.3 Data collection Procedures for the Classroom Observation

Data were gathered from the classroom observation along the six weeks of the treatment phase. The fact that the researcher is herself the teacher who worked on the implementation of IE with her pupils who are the sample subjected to the study, helped in the collection of firsthand data in a very natural setting. Of course, the pupils were not informed about the observation so that they act normal. The attendance of the two teachers was contributed to administrative reasons. For ethical considerations, the researcher informed the two teachers who helped her in

the classroom observation that they had the right to have a look at the notes she had taken and that they would be supplied by a summary of the obtained results.

4.2.6 Data Analysis Procedures

Data analysis is an integral part in the accomplishment of any inquiry. Arguably, it is one of the arduous tasks that the researcher goes through. It is the process of making out meaning from a wide range of collected data through reducing, summarising, and organising them (Kawulich, 2004). In accordance to the study nature, the mixed methods approach was sought for in the collection of the data. Henceforward, both qualitative and quantitative analytical procedures were incorporated for the analysis of the gathered data. In so doing, the reliability of the findings will be enhanced.

The quantitative data that are presented in a form of numerical data were analysed statistically by descriptive and inferential statistics. This denotes that the researcher relied on some measurement methods like the mean.

The qualitative data, on the other hand, were analysed descriptively relying on the content-based analysis procedure to interpret and analyse the data gathered from the observation. Hence, data were categorised and put under different coded themes in order to facilitate the analysis procedure.

4.2.7 Population / Sampling Technique

In congruence with the aim of the study, the population of this study comprised second year pupils at ‘Ahmed Boussena’ middle school in Mila Province. Based on a convenient sampling technique, a small group that was made up of 44 pupils was chosen to conduct the study. This choice is thought convenient on the account that the chief aim of the current research is not to get generalisable findings on a larger scope. Instead, this research sought to get in-depth

insights about how effective is the impact of IE strategies on meeting the needs of diverse pupils and enhancing their learning of the English vocabulary knowledge.

To put it clear, the target participants were not selected at random. Rather, they were purposefully chosen based on the non-probability purposive sampling technique. As a result, a total number of 44 second-year pupils was conveniently selected to represent the sample of the current investigation. The reason behind this choice is twofold: first, second-year pupils are supposed to have some background knowledge about the English language that they have already dealt with in their first-year. Hence, testing their level through a proficiency test would be attainable. Second, pupils in their first year at the middle school show excellent performance. Learning barriers start appearing by the second year. Implementing inclusive practices at that level is meant to eradicate those barriers and help the pupils attain their maximum growth.

It is worth mentioning, however, that the pupils of the school year 2019/2020 did not complete their studies because of Covid-19. That is, they did not have enough exposure to the English language the thing that caused some problems at their upcoming year. Second, we deliberately chose very young pupils who are still considered beginners to make the effect of IE crystal clear. Besides, language learners need to develop a rich vocabulary repertoire due to the significant importance of the latter in ensuring successful communications (of course in addition to other language mechanics).

4.3 Study Description and Rationale

This study is thought to be significant in the sense that it addresses the needs of middle school pupils. The researcher has been a teacher of English at the middle level for four years. She observed that every single pupil in the classroom has a variety of needs and interests. Pupils also come to schools from various cultural backgrounds, and with different skills, strengths,

weaknesses, learning difficulties, and learning styles. Following the same teaching methods and strategies with all those different pupils will certainly make learning an arduous task for them. Differentiating instruction, however, would meet their needs and encapsulate their interests. Terms like ‘less-able pupils will be minimally used as all pupils will encounter what arises their engagement and boosts their motivation.

Consequently, this study endeavours to implement DI as a precursor to meeting the needs of all pupils and make them feel that their interests are valued. This is in fact the philosophy of IE. It works on providing the same content to pupils but in different ways. Equally, this study would yield useful findings that help both EFL teachers and pupils towards better professional growth and academic gains.

4.3.1 The Educational Phenomenon Description

In order to deliver interesting and intelligible lessons that would accommodate the pupils’ various proficiency level, the researcher sought for different sources of knowledge. To illustrate, the lesson plans prepared by the researcher were verified by the inspectress of English in order to be more credible. Different instructional tools were utilised (such as the data projector, flashcards, worksheets, whiteboard, ...) in order to make the English sessions more harmonious, effective, and pupil-centered. It is quite noteworthy to state that group work, as an essential technique of DI, was marginalised because of Covid-19. Social gatherings were abandoned and pupils were set in distanced tables. The teacher tried her best to plan pupil-centered sessions mainly through using the classroom space, fan activities that go hand in hand with the lessons’ objectives, the data projector, etc. Most importantly, the designed sessions strived to make clear the impact of differentiated classrooms on the pupils’ outcomes and their potential for learning.

4.3.2 The Procedures

In order to get the data needed for this research, and after finishing the pilot study, the researcher designed a plan to pursue. The research project was undertaken in a period of one month and a half. That is, 12 sessions were devoted to deliver seven lessons (some lessons took more than one session to be finished). The sessions were conducted during regular class time because the treatment was about what the pupils have dealt with in the classroom. Time constrains deterred the researcher from designing additional classes for the pupils with a mini-designed syllabus. Of course, before all the aforementioned steps, the researcher went through the informed consent process to gain the permission of the school headmistress and the participants as well.

First, we began this process by distributing the pre-treatment questionnaire to the respondents after being translated into Arabic. Since the researcher is the teacher herself, she had the opportunity to explain the aim of the study and the process of completing the questionnaire. After that, comes the treatment phase where the researcher delivered some lessons that are part of the school programme. The researcher did her best in planning differentiated lesson plans that go hand in hand with the pupils' various learning styles and needs. To ensure the validity and reliability of the lesson plans, the research sought for the inspectress of English to verify them and supply the researcher with comments and further suggestions, if there are any.

Lesson One: November 26th 2020 (09:30 – 10:15)

The chief objective of the first lesson is to get the pupils know about the different parts of the body and describe their physical appearance using the adequate adjectives. First, during the warm up stage, the teacher introduced different parts of the body through the data projector. Some listening drills were deployed in order to help the pupils memorise, consolidate, and

remember the learned words. After that, and during the pre-listening phase, the teacher elicited different adjectives needed for the description of physical appearance. During listening, the pupils were asked to listen to some audio scripts and do some tasks on the book. Next, in the post listening stage, pupils were given charts wherein they classify the provided adjectives and then they use the words in the chart to describe their own physical appearance. When drafting, the teacher moves through rows and helps/guides the pupils if ever needed.

The time allocated for every lesson was 45 minutes only. Therefore, it was impossible for the researcher to complete the first lesson in this short time, especially that the pupils are young. That is, they need more practice. Henceforth, the second session (December 01st 2020 from 10:15 to 11:00) was a followed-up lesson of “I listen and do 1”. The teacher started the session with a game called “Find someone who ...” whereby the pupils interact with each other about the previous lesson and try to remember as much vocabulary knowledge as possible. Next, they moved to the provided tasks.

Lesson Two: December 03rd 2020 (09:30 – 10:15)

The aim that was targeted in the second lesson was that the pupils will be able to describe the physical appearance of one member of their family by the end of the lesson. In the warm-up, the teacher made a quick review about family members and relatives; a lesson that the pupils have already seen in their first year. To consolidate the family members, pupils were asked to work on task 18 page 33 following the “Think-Pair-Share” strategy. They first work individually on the task. Then, they share their answers with their pairs to encourage peer tutoring. After that, they share their answers to the whole class. Next, in the pre-listening stage, the teacher pinned a picture of a boy and asked the pupils to describe his physical appearance and clothes. After that, in the practice phase, the pupils were asked to listen to some audio scripts and do some tasks on

the book in addition to another adapted task about dress. Later in the post listening phase, the pupils were asked to choose one member of their family and describe his/her physical appearance including clothes of course.

Lesson Three: December 08th 2020 (10:15 – 11:00)

The aim that the teacher worked on achieving through this lesson is that the pupils will be able to name the different parts of the house and the furniture available in each room. For the starting, the teacher pinned a picture on the white board representing a house and asked the pupils to describe what they see. After listening to all the answers, the teachers presents the core vocabulary needed for the description of a house. During the while listening stage, the pupils were instructed to listen to a dialogue between two brothers and do the tasks on the book. Later in the post listening stage, the teacher puts the pupils in a real-life situation in which they are supposed to describe briefly their houses to their friends.

A part of “I Pronounce” lesson that tackles the silent letter “h” was presented during the current lesson. The inspectress always stresses the idea that “I Pronounce” lessons should never be delivered as separate lessons, but should rather be integrated in other lessons. Whenever the teacher encounters words that consist of the silent letter “h”, she draws the pupils’ attention to it, equips them with the right pronunciation, and then guides them to state the rule. Then, they do some practice. Another session was dedicated to reach the learning objectives of this lesson in December 10th 2020 from 09:30 to 10:15.

Lesson Four: December 15th 2020 (10:15 – 11:00)

In the warm-up, the teacher reviews the previous lesson of the house and its different parts. Then, in the pre-listening phase, the teacher shows the pupils a house plan and tries to elicit and explain the new lexis in addition to the preposition and adverbs of place. During

listening, the pupils listen to the provided audio scripts and do some tasks on the book. Meanwhile the teacher highlights the use of the possessive pronouns (PIASP lesson: presentation, isolation, analysis, stating the rule, and practice). After the listening phase is finished, the pupils were provided with some consolidating tasks regarding the possessive pronouns and locating places in a house plan of course in a form of a situation.

Time was too short to finish the post listening phase of this lesson; henceforth another session was devoted to accomplish the learning objective of the lesson in December 17th 2020 from 09:30 to 10:15. Surely, the session begins with a brainstorming to what has already been tackled previously.

Lesson Five: December 22nd 2020 (10:15 – 11:00)

In this lesson, the pupils were supposed to read a text and do some tasks that tackle different issues presented in the text. The main aim was to help the pupils interpret a written message that deals with people's description. The teacher began the warming-up stage with "Find someone who ..." game. The pupils were provided with small worksheets and were supposed to stand up and use the classroom space to interact with their classmates and ask them questions related to what is written on the worksheets. This game is meant to refresh the pupils' minds about the kind of games and activities they prefer to do in their spare time. Next, in the pre-reading phase, the teacher tried to present all the new words that the pupils will find in the text. This stage is useful in the sense that it facilitates reading the text individually on behalf of the pupils. The teacher showed the pupils a magic cube and asked them if they have ever solved it, and how quick they were. After that, the teacher explained what a magic cube is and supplied the pupils with some additional information about it. Moreover, the teacher explained through

pictures presented via the data projector what the word “blog” means, and for what purposes it is usually used.

After that, the pupils were asked to read the text silently for some minutes and do the tasks on the book (Tasks 1, 2, 4, 6 pages 37 – 38) together with other adapted tasks on worksheets. Before every task, the teacher clarifies the instruction and sets adequate timing for finishing the task. At the end, the teachers asked the pupils to complete a paragraph about the personage represented in the text relying on the information extracted from both the tasks and the text. Pupils were given the choice to either work in pairs or individually.

Lesson Six: December 24th 2020 (09:30 – 10:15)

In this lesson, the pupils are supposed to write the “Best Personal Profile” in which they talk about their physical appearance, house, and family members. The teacher sets up the situation presented on the book and helps the pupils to fill in the KSA table ((Knowledge, Skills, and Attitude). After forming groups of five members, the pupils start drafting their profiles; meanwhile the teacher moves around and guides/helps them whenever they are in need to. After editing and finishing the profile, the pupils choose one representative for each group to go to the board and read their profile. After that, the teacher selects the best production to be written and corrected on the white board. Of course, the teacher gives constructive feedback to all the presented works.

Drafting, editing, and refining the profile that addresses different issues requires time, especially that the pupils are still young and need time to process information. This is why one session was insufficient to finish the profiles. Consequently, another session was devoted to realise the learning objective of the lesson (December 29th 2020 from 10:15 to 11:00).

Lesson Seven: December 31st 2020 (9:30 – 10:15)

The underlined aim of the teacher in this lesson is to enable the pupils to write an e-mail in which they give a detailed description of their houses. In the warm-up stage, the teacher makes a quick review to the lesson of house. Then, in the pre-writing stage, the teacher explains to the pupils what they are supposed to do and helps them fill in the KSA table on the book. Afterwards, the pupils start individually drafting their e-mails. After finalising their e-mails, the teacher asks each pupil to read his/her e-mail and then they vote on the best profile to be written and corrected on the board. Of course, the teacher takes all the e-mails to be corrected and marked. It is noteworthy to state that two sessions were devoted to this lesson.

It is worth mentioning that the prepared lesson plans were modified and refined according to the sessions and pupils' requirements. Notably, the teacher ought to prepare flexible lessons, i.e., different parts can be omitted, added, adjusted, and so forth. When finishing the treatment stage, the pupils were set for a post-test to attest their knowledge and see the effect of DI and IE on widening their vocabulary knowledge. Later, the study participants were asked to fill in the pretreatment questionnaire that aims at investigating the pupils' viewpoints about IE and differentiated classes of English. Another session was devoted to complete the learning objective of this lesson in (January 05th 2021 from 10:15 – 11:00).

Conclusion

This chapter has primarily depicted, in a broad sense, a literature review to some pertinent philosophical notions that are essential to well ground any research. Methodological issues like research paradigm, research approach and design, data analysis procedures and sampling techniques were outlined. Afterwards, a more precise description to the methodological considerations followed throughout this study framework and the rationale behind every choice

were made clear. To provide a better understanding of the investigated research problem, this chapter depicted the different stages followed in the gathering of the data starting from the most appropriate research design to the sampling technique used in the selection of the study sample. Of course, credibility issues were also highlighted throughout this chapter.

The following chapter is intended to show the extent to which the study hypothesis is valid and accurate mainly through the analysis, synthesis, and interpretation of the obtained results. Briefly, the study findings will provide answers to the study questions outlined at the outset of the research and give a clear image about how philosophy was put into actual practice.

Chapter Five: Results and Data Analysis

Introduction

5.1 Results of the Study

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Chapter Five: Results and Data Analysis

Introduction

This chapter is intended to give a detailed presentation, analysis, and interpretation to the data gathered through the selected data collection tools mentioned earlier in chapter four. It starts by discussing the pre-treatment pupils’ questionnaire (PLSQ) results to know about every pupil preferred learning style. Afterwards, and through the analysis and interpretation of the tests’ results, it examines the effectiveness of IE and differentiated classroom on enhancing the pupils’ learning of the English vocabulary as well as meeting their various needs. Then, the pupils’ views regarding IE are spotted through the analysis of the post-treatment pupils’ questionnaire. A summary of the findings is provided at the end of the chapter.

5.1 Results of the Study

5.1.1 Analysis and Interpretation of the Pupils’ Pre-treatment Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of 20 questions. There are five questions for every learning style and each question has a numerical value as follows:

SA	A	U	D	SD
Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5	4	3	2	1

Results are analysed according to the Self-Scoring Sheet developed by Reid:

- Major Learning Style Preference 38-50
- Minor Learning Style Preference 25-37
- Negligible 0-24

Table 5. 1*Major and Minor Learning Style Preferences for every Pupil*

	Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic	Tactile
Pupil 1	42	44	50	48
Pupil 2	36	36	50	42
Pupil 3	40	38	44	38
Pupil 4	40	28	40	44
Pupil 5	34	30	44	40
Pupil 6	30	38	44	36
Pupil 7	40	42	48	30
Pupil 8	46	30	42	48
Pupil 9	32	42	38	40
Pupil 10	46	40	40	38
Pupil 11	44	42	48	36
Pupil 12	44	48	44	46
Pupil 13	44	40	50	42
Pupil 14	40	46	40	28
Pupil 15	32	44	40	28
Pupil 16	42	46	50	46
Pupil 17	36	44	50	44
Pupil 18	42	50	46	36
Pupil 19	44	38	44	46
Pupil 20	36	36	42	32

Pupil 21	46	36	44	40
Pupil 22	34	40	44	40

From the scores eminently demonstrated in the table above, it can be noticed that the pupils have more than one preferred learning style. As for the first pupil, s/he markedly interacts with new information relying on the four learning styles with much more focus on the Kinesthetic style (the major learning style preference in this case). That is processing and retaining the perceived input for such kind of pupils necessitates the combination of the VAKT style. Some of the ways to support such kind of pupils is to use pictures, diagrams, handouts (Visual), display some songs, audio scripts, recordings, and videos (Auditory), act out roles and plays (Kinesthetic), and work on class projects (Tactile). That is, the cardinal key here is differentiating the teaching materials.

The same goes for the second pupil who relies on more than one learning style, as well. The prevalent learning styles are both Kinesthetic (50) and Tactile (42) that noticeably denotes that learning by doing projects, experiences, using one's hands, using the classroom space instead of sitting all the time are some favourable ways of comprehension for this kind of pupils. Visual and Auditory learning styles are considered as minor learning style preferences in this case (both scores are 36).

The results of the 5th pupil conspicuously denotes that the major learning style preference for this pupil is Kinesthetic (44) and that the minor learning style is Visual (30). According to the self-scoring sheet, both Auditory and Tactile learning styles are also regarded as major learning preferences. Consequently, learning is much more effective when the pupil is exposed to tangible materials, physically based activities, recordings, videos, verbal instructions, etc.

Through the answers illustrated in the table for the 8th pupil, the dominant learning style preference is Tactile (48) in which the preferred way of learning is to be actively engaged in doing new things instead of merely staying in the table and listening to the teacher. Other major learning styles are Visual (46) and Kinesthetic (42). Substantially, lesson presentation should be paralleled with the various learning styles used by pupils and henceforth it should be rich with different teaching materials. In the same stream, Auditory (30) is considered as a minor learning style preference.

What can be deduced from the scores obtained from the 19th pupil is that this pupil follows different ways to learn, with an emphasis on the Tactile style (46). Such kind of pupils enjoys participating in hands-on experiences, touching, building, and working with materials, doing experiments in laboratories, and so forth.

As illustrated in the table above, Auditory (36) is the only minor learning style preference, whereas the other three learning styles are all regarded as major styles. Notably, the pupil tends to focus more on the Visual style (46). That is to say, comprehension can be supported and consolidated through the use of demonstratives, pictures, realia, etc. Of course, the kinesthetic and the tactile styles should also be put into consideration for similar kind of pupils who opt for different learning styles.

The data obtained from the last pupil reveal that the most prevalent learning style is Kinesthetic (44). In addition, there are two other dominant learning styles that are Auditory (40) and Tactile (40). Only one learning style is left as a minor learning style (Visual, 34).

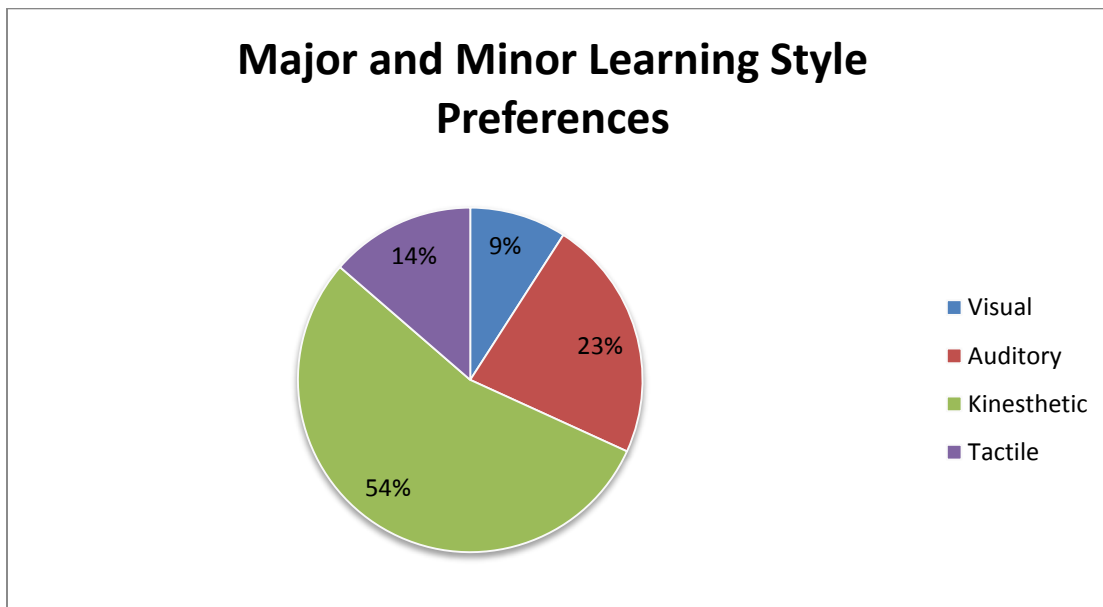
Table 5.2

Percentage of Major and Minor Learning Style Preferences

	Number of Pupils	Frequency (%)
Visual	02	09,09
Auditory	05	22,72
Kinesthetic	12	54,55
Tactile	03	13,64
Total	22	100

Figure 5.1

Pie Chart Revealing the Percentage of Learning Style Preferences



Depending on the revealed results in Table 5.2, it can be claimed that different learning styles are preferred by the pupils. Essentially, a considerable majority of the pupils (54,55%) are Kinesthetically-oriented. That is, learning for them is effective and meaningful if they do things

by themselves, go through new experiences, participate in class projects, use the classroom space, etc. Sitting in tables and listening to the teacher or seeing things without being involved in the learning process would be utterly boring for them. However, it is quite noteworthy to state that being kinesthetic does not disregard the other learning styles. To demonstrate, a kinesthetic pupil may often feel the need to see things (picture, realia, worksheets, etc.) and here he is relying on the Visual style.

At other times, pupils may face learning situations where the listening skill is mandatory to perform certain tasks, and here comes the role of the Auditory learning style. There are tasks, on the other hand, in which the pupils need to do things by their hands rather than just listening or looking at things (Tactile learning style). Substantially, effective and ardent pupils are those who usually get the best out of the four learning styles even though they have one major learning style preference to which they sought for most of times. This has been proven through the pre-treatment pupils' questionnaire that showed that the majority of pupils have more than one learning style preference. This is, in fact, how optimum success in learning is achieved.

In a similar vein, teachers are crucially recommended to recognise every pupil's preferential way of learning. This step serves as guidance for providing effective differentiated lessons. Indeed, lesson contents ought to be paralleled with the pupil diversity and learning needs. In so doing, the teacher will discard the cardinal obstacles that impeded the pupils from properly perceive the target input.

5.1.2 Results of the Tests

5.1.2.1 Results of the Pre-Test

Before starting the treatment phase, the pupils were set for a proficiency test to attest their background knowledge and see whether or not they have the same level. The test is composed of

two major parts and it was designed according to the regular test plan. The results are illustrated in the table below.

Table 5.3

Results of the Proficiency Test

Control Group	Experimental group
12	16,5
05,5	09
09,5	08,5
12,5	05
06	04
14	04
07	09
08	11
11	06
06	12
04,5	08
06,5	06
11,5	10
03	08,5
08	11
15	10
09	03
10,5	03,5

15	14
14,5	10,5
08	10,5
07	13,5
$\Sigma X_1 = 204$	$\Sigma X_2 = 203,5$

$$\bar{X}_1 = \frac{\Sigma X_1}{N_1} \Rightarrow \bar{X}_1 = \frac{204}{22} \Rightarrow \bar{X}_1 = 09,27$$

$$\bar{X}_2 = \frac{\Sigma X_2}{N_2} \Rightarrow \bar{X}_2 = \frac{203,5}{22} \Rightarrow \bar{X}_2 = 09,25$$

It is conspicuous from Table 5.24 that the scores gained from the test were low, ranging from 16,5 to 03. This is mainly due to the fact that the pupils were not told that they have a test and henceforth they did not prepare themselves. Another point to be mentioned is that the pupils did not finish the programme of first year and were set out from schools for nearly seven months because of Covid-19 pandemic. This denotes that the process of retrieving the necessitated knowledge was somewhat hard for the pupils.

Of course, and after the piloting stage, the test was refined and designed according to the new timing protocol set by the Ministry of National Education, and surely the circumstances that the pupils went through during the quarantine were put into consideration. In fact, the chief aim of the test was not to prove the high level of pupils. It was, however, primarily designed to affirm that the pupils in both groups have the same level. Indeed, the data gathered from the proficiency test confirm that pupils in the two groups have approximately the same level and this is illustrated through an arithmetic mean of $X_1 = 09,27$ and $X_2 = 09,25$ for both the control and the experimental group, respectively. Henceforth, the changes that might be marked at the level

of the pupils, especially at the level of vocabulary knowledge, will be attributed to the adoption of the IE approach.

,5.1.2.2 Results of the Post-test

The scores obtained in the post-test for both the control and the experimental groups were compared and analysed to identify to which extent the pupils have learned the lexis presented during the treatment phase after being taught in an inclusive-oriented classroom, and after considering their learning styles in lesson content and presentation.

I. I tick (✓) the word that is closest in meaning to the word in bold

1. **Skinny** means ...

a- Very fat

b- Very slim

c- Well-built

Table 5. 4

Answers to the Word “Skinny”

Word	Answer	CG		EG	
		N	%	N	%
Skinny	Very fat	06	27,27	01	04,55
	Very slim	10	45,45	14	63,64
	Well-built	06	27,27	07	31,81
	No answer	22	100	22	100

As can be noticed from the table above, the answers of the pupils in both groups differ substantially. The vast majority of the respondents (63,64%) in the experimental group identified

the word “Skinny” as being synonymous to “Very slim”. This percentage can be attributed to knowing the pupils’ preferred learning styles and putting them into consideration during lesson presentation. Visual pupils were able to get the meaning of the word through pictures, and Auditory pupils were lucky to see and hear the word through a video representing the physical appearance of an adult. For the Kinesthetic and Tactile pupils, they were asked to move around the classroom and count the skinny pupils available in the classroom (without humiliating their classmates). Presenting the word in different ways helped all the pupils to store and consolidate the input for later usage. On the other spectrum, the high percentage marked in the experimental group was lowered in the control group; only (45,45%) of the participants who got the right answer. Still the answer “very slim” gets the highest percentage though.

2. The lady standing over there is really **elegant**.

- a- Classy
- b- Ugly
- c- Unfriendly

Table 5. 5

Answers to the Word “Elegant”

Word	Answer	CG		EG	
		N	%	N	%
Elegant	Classy	08	36,36	13	59,09
	Ugly	06	27,27	04	18,18
	Unfriendly	08	36,36	05	22,73
	No answer	22	100	22	100

Table 5.5 points out that the pupils in the control group did not succeed in guessing the proper meaning of the target word. That is, learning new lexis in a traditional learning environment that does not consider pupils’ differences and needs cannot be claimed to be effective. Pupils learn in different ways, and displaying all kinds of information in the same way brings nothing but boredom to the classroom. Conversely, this was not the case for the experimental group. 59,09% of the pupils opted for option (a- Classy) that is the right answer. This result reveals that differentiating the lesson content and presenting vocabulary in varied ways using various teaching materials contributed to the learning of the word “Elegant”.

3. Inside the school there are two **storeys**.

a- Classrooms

b- Floors

c- Labs

Table 5. 6

Answers to the Word “Storeys”

Word	Answer	CG		EG	
		N	%	N	%
Storeys	Classrooms	07	31,82	03	13,64
	Floors	11	50	18	81,82
	Labs	03	13,64	01	4,54
	No answer	01	4,54	00	00
	Total	22	100	22	100

The results indicate that participants in the experimental group outperformed participants in the control group. 50% of the respondents in the control group got the right answer, whereas a very high percentage of the pupils (81,82%) in the experimental group chose the suitable word “Floors” for the third question. This leads us to notice that differentiating instruction in relation to the pupils’ learning style preferences has enhanced the learning of the new vocabulary.

Equally important, it is worth mentioning that guessing the meaning of the word “Storeys” was somewhat effectively done by the pupils in the control group. A percentage of 50% cannot be neglected or regarded as minor. A logical explanation to that is the teachers’ teaching style that always tends to focus more on DI and technology-based learning.

4. The bus station is **close to** the post office.

- a- Near
- b- Between
- c- In front of

Table 5. 7

Answers to the Word “Close to”

Word	Answer	CG		EG	
		N	%	N	%
Close to	Near	05	22,73	12	54,55
	Between	06	27,27	06	27,27
	In front of	11	50	04	18,18
	No answer	22	100	22	100

As clearly seen in the table above, few pupils (27,27%) selected “Between” as a synonym for the word “Close to” and (18,18%) chose “In front of”. Nevertheless, a percentage of 54,55% succeeded in guessing the correct meaning of the target word. On the other hand, only 22,73% of the participants in the control group got the correct answer. The effect of DI is markedly noticed on the pupils’ ability to learn new vocabulary in comparison to the other learning environment where lessons are not differentiated and pupils’ preferred learning styles are disregarded.

5. I study at a **spacious** school.

- a- Huge
- b- Small
- c- Big

Table 5. 8

Answers to the Word “Spacious”

Word	Answer	CG		EG	
		N	%	N	%
Spacious	Huge	03	13,64	13	59,09
	Small	04	18,18	03	13,64
	Big	15	68,18	06	27,27
	Total	22	100	22	100

Based on the information presented in the Table 5.8, the majority of the pupils (68,18%) in the control group opted for “Big” as being the synonym of the word “Spacious”. Although the right answer is “Huge”, the pupils’ answer was influenced by the close meaning of “Big” to the word “Spacious”, and this can be considered as a positive point. Moving to the answers obtained

by the pupils in the experimental group, we see that, as usual, the high percentage always goes to the right answer, i.e. (59,09%) of the pupils chose “Huge” that is indeed the synonym of “Spacious”.

II. I match the words with their synonyms

1. Beautiful

2. Different

3. Thin

4. Love

a. Slim

b. Wear

c. Like

d. Various

Table 5. 9

Synonym of the words “Beautiful, Different, Thin, Short, Put on”

	Slim		Wear		Small		Various		Pretty		Total													
	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG												
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%										
Beautiful	01	04,54	00	00	07	31,82	02	09,09	01	04,54	00	00	00	00	03	13,64	13	59,09	17	77,27	22	100	22	100
Different	02	09,09	00	00	02	09,09	00	00	01	04,54	00	00	15	68,18	17	77,27	02	09,09	05	22,72	22	100	22	100
Thin	17	77,27	18	81,81	00	00	02	09,09	01	04,54	02	09,09	02	09,09	00	00	02	09,09	00	00	22	100	22	100
Short	00	00	02	09,09	03	13,64	01	04,54	16	72,72	19	86,36	02	09,09	00	00	01	04,54	00	00	22	100	22	100
Put on	02	09,09	01	04,55	10	45,45	17	77,27	03	13,64	01	04,55	03	13,64	01	04,54	04	18,18	02	09,09	22	100	22	100

In view of these results, it appears that both the control and the experimental groups excelled at this task. However, it can be noticed from the scores demonstrated above that the experimental group outperformed the control group. For the word “Beautiful”, the majority of the respondents in the experimental group (77,27%) matched it with its proper synonym “Pretty”. On the other hand, only 59,09% of the participants in the control group who got the right answer. In fact, it is a high percentage if compared to the other answers in the same group; however, when it is compared to the percentage of the pupils who got the right meaning of the target word, then it can be declared that it is a low percentage. The same thing goes for the other words. The highest percentage is always detected in the experimental group.

III. Fill in the gaps with the right word

“family – straight – tall – slanted - siblings”

I am Lauren. I am a girl. I have ahair and eyes. I live in a large
..... with my parents and

Table 5. 10

Answers of the Words “Family, Straight, Tall, Slanted, Siblings”

	Family		Straight		Tall		Slanted		Siblings		Total													
	CG		EG		CG		EG		CG		EG		CG		EG									
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%								
Gap 1	06	27,27	04	18,18	02	09,09	00	00	14	63,64	16	72,73	00	00	02	09,09	00	00	00	00	22	100	22	100
Gap 2	00	00	00	00	11	50	15	68,18	02	09,09	05	22,73	09	40,91	02	09,09	00	00	00	00	22	100	22	100
Gap 3	00	00	02	09,09	04	18,18	02	09,09	02	09,09	01	04,54	12	54,55	13	59,09	04	18,18	04	18,18	22	100	22	100
Gap 4	13	59,09	15	68,18	04	18,18	03	13,64	00	00	00	00	02	09,09	02	09,09	03	13,64	02	09,09	22	100	22	100
Gap 5	03	13,64	01	04,54	00	00	02	09,09	04	18,18	00	00	00	00	03	13,64	15	68,18	16	72,73	22	100	22	100

As illustrated in Table 5.10, the scores recorded in the control group are remarkable (Tall 63,64%, Straight 50%, Slanted 54,55%, Family 59,09% and Siblings 68,18%). However, the percentages are regarded insufficient when compared to the results obtained from the experimental group. The majority of the respondents in the experimental group succeeded in filling the gaps with the appropriate words: Tall (72,73 %), Straight (68,18 %), Slanted (59,09 %), Family (68,18 %), and Siblings (72,73 %). A clear understanding of the target lexis enables the pupils to meaningfully use the words in the suitable contexts. Differentiating instruction in an inclusive context is something like this. It works on providing suitable learning environment that parallel with pupils' learning style preferences. In so doing, pupils' engagement level will be boosted and so does their achievement level.

IV. I match the words with their antonyms/opposites.

1. Beautiful

2. Far

3. In front of

4. Short

a. Near

b. Ugly

c. Tall

d. At the back of

Table 5. 11

Answers to the Words “Beautiful, Far, In front of, Short, Easy”

	Near		Ugly				Tall		At the back of		Difficult		Total											
	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG		
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Beautiful	01	04,54	00	00	07	31,82	11	50	00	00	00	00	05	22,72	04	18,18	09	40,91	07	31,82	22	100	22	100
Far	18	81,82	17	77,27	00	00	02	09,09	00	00	02	09,09	01	04,54	01	04,54	03	13,64	00	00	22	100	22	100
In front of	03	13,64	01	04,54	03	13,64	02	09,09	01	04,54	00	00	12	54,54	16	72,73	03	13,64	03	13,64	22	100	22	100
Short	00	00	00	00	01	04,55	01	04,54	20	90,90	18	81,82	00	00	00	00	01	04,55	03	13,64	22	100	22	100
Easy	00	00	04	18,18	11	50	06	27,27	01	04,54	02	09,09	04	18,18	02	09,09	06	27,27	08	36,36	22	100	22	100

It is shown in the table above that half of the pupils (50%) in the experimental group identified “Ugly” as the antonym of “Beautiful” when only 31,82% of the participants in the control group got the correct answer. For the second word “Far”, the results are nearly the same for both groups with a slightly high score for the control group (81,82%). Similarly, it is to be noted that 20 out of 22 pupils (90,90%) in the control group identified “Tall” as the opposite of the word “Short” whereas only 81,82% of the pupils in the experimental group got the correct answer. Although it is a high percentage, the pupils in the control group outperformed the pupils in the experimental group. For the last word, it can be seen that the majority of the pupils in both groups could not get the exact opposite of the adjective “Easy” (27,27% for the control group and 36,36% for the experimental group). This result does not reveal any substantial gain in the understanding of this adjective. This could be related to the nature of adjective or to the pupils needed a context where this word is used.

It is worth mentioning that, in some cases (adjectives Far and Short), pupils in the control group got better scores than pupils in the experimental group. This fact can be attributed to the remediation provided for the pupils in the control group after the below-average performance they showed in the classroom, in addition to the regular use of these two adjectives in the classroom.

V. I name the following clothing items

“hat, sweeter, suit, sandals, belt”



.....

Table 5. 12

Answers to the Words “Hat, Sweeter, Suit, Sandals, Belt”

	Hat		Sweeter		Suit		Sandals		Belt		Total													
	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG												
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%						
Pic 1	04	18,18	00	00	05	22,73	06	27,27	08	36,36	12	54,55	00	00	01	04,54	05	22,73	03	13,64	22	100	22	100
Pic 2	16	72,73	15	68,18	04	18,18	01	04,54	02	09,09	02	09,09	00	00	00	00	00	00	04	18,18	22	100	22	100
Pic 3	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	00	04	18,18	00	00	16	72,73	22	100	02	09,09	00	00	22	100	22	100
Pic 4	00	00	02	09,09	03	13,64	03	13,64	07	31,82	03	13,64	05	22,73	00	00	07	31,81	14	63,63	22	100	22	100
Pic 5	02	09,09	02	09,09	10	45,45	17	77,27	01	04,55	03	13,64	01	04,55	00	00	08	36,36	00	00	22	100	22	100

It can be seen that only eight pupils out of 22 (36,36%) in the control group who thought that the first picture represents a “Suit” whereas more than half of the pupils in the experimental group (54,55%) succeeded in getting the right answer. For the second picture that represents a “Hat”, the majority of the pupils in both groups provided the correct answer. All pupils in the experimental group (100%) chose “Sandals” as the appropriate answer for picture three. This percentage was lowered to 63,64% in the fourth picture and 77,27% in the last picture. The various teaching materials that the teacher used in the presentation of these clothing items have undoubtedly helped the pupils to comprehend and memorise them.

VI. Put the following words in clear meaningful sentences from your own

“Handsome – send – spacious – relatives – opposite to”

Scores were put based on the meaningful and correct use of the provided words. Sentences where the words are misused are surely not counted.

Table 5. 13

Answers to the Words “Handsome, Send, Spacious, Relatives, Opposite to”

	Control Group				Experimental Group				Total			
	Correct		Incorrect		Correct		Incorrect		CG		EG	
Words	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Handsome	09	40,91	13	59,09	13	59,09	09	40,91	22	100	22	100
Send	08	36,36	14	63,64	10	45,45	12	54,55	22	100	22	100
Spacious	08	36,36	14	63,64	12	54,55	10	45,45	22	100	22	100
Relatives	07	31,82	15	68,18	09	40,91	13	59,09	22	100	22	100
Opposite to	12	54,55	10	45,45	14	63,64	08	36,36	22	100	22	100

Regarding sentence writing, better results were observed in the experimental group. Concerning the word “Handsome” 59,09% of the pupils in the experimental group could put it in correct meaningful sentences whereas only 09 (40,91%) pupils in the control group could write correct sentences. The highest average goes for the preposition of place “Opposite to” (63,64% for the experimental group and 54,55% for the control group) and the lowest average goes for the word “Relatives” (40,91% for the experimental group and 31,82% for the control group). The word “Relatives” is generally misconceived by the pupils although they know all family member names like aunt, uncle, cousins, etc. This is attributed to the rare use of the word “Relatives” and relying much more on naming those relatives.

VII. Match the following words with their equivalent translation in Arabic

- | | |
|-------------------|-------|
| 1. At the back of | جذابة |
| 2. Comfortable | سقف |
| 3. Location | موقع |
| 4. Charming | وراء |
| 5. Ceiling | مريح |

Table 5. 14

Translations to the Words “At the back of, Comfortable, Location, Charming, Ceiling”

	جذابة		سقف		موقع		وراء		مريح		Total													
	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG	CG	EG												
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%												
At the back of	02	09,09	01	04,54	02	09,09	00	00	04	18,18	01	04,54	12	54,55	18	81,82	02	09,09	02	09,09	22	100	22	100
Comfortable	04	18,18	00	00	05	22,73	02	09,09	02	09,09	04	18,18	01	04,54	01	04,54	10	45,45	15	68,18	22	100	22	100
Location	03	13,64	03	13,64	00	00	04	18,18	12	54,54	13	59,09	05	22,73	02	09,09	02	09,09	00	00	22	100	22	100
Charming	10	45,45	15	68,18	03	13,64	02	09,09	02	09,09	01	04,54	01	04,54	00	00	06	27,27	04	18,18	22	100	22	100
Ceiling	03	13,64	03	13,64	12	54,54	13	59,09	02	09,09	03	13,64	03	13,64	01	04,54	02	09,09	02	09,09	22	100	22	100

Concerning the translation to the words in Arabic, it appears that the high majority of pupils in the experimental group provided the right answers (At the back of 81,82%, Comfortable 68,18%, Location 59,09%, Charming 68,18%, and Ceiling 59,09%). Scores in the control group depict that the pupils lack a considerable basic lexical knowledge in English. This fact hampered them from providing the suitable translations to the target words (At the back of 54,55%, Comfortable 45,45%, Location 54,54%, Charming 45,45%, and Ceiling 54,09%).

VIII. Translate the following words into Arabic

1. مختبر العلوم
2. نحيف
3. قاعة الاساتذة
4. بريد الكتروني
5. المدير

Table 5. 15*Translations to the Word “مختبر العلوم”*

Word	Control Group		Experimental Group			
	Answer	N	%	Answer	N	%
Biology Lab	03	13,63	Biology Lab	08	36,36	
Lab	05	22,72	Lab	01	04,55	
Science Lab	01	04,54	Science Lab	01	04,55	
Ceiling	01	04,55	Phisics	03	13,63	
Classroom	01	04,55	Physics Laboratory	01	04,55	
مختبر العلوم	Biologic room	01	04,55	Biology	02	09,09
Room	02	09,09	Physics Science	01	04,55	
Class of Physics	01	04,55	/	/	/	
Head master's office	01	04,55	/	/	/	
No Answer	06	27,27	No Answer	05	22,72	
Total	22	100	Total	22	100	

The table above portrays the different words the pupils in both groups gave as a translation to the Arabic word “مختبر العلوم”. In the control group, “Biology Lab”, “Lab”, and “Science Lab” are the correct answers that were provided by 9 pupils (40,89%). In the experimental group, the same correct words were given by 10 pupils (45,44%). The subtle difference in the results – that are both below the average – is due to the scarce use of the word “Biology lab/Laboratory” in the classroom. The teacher usually uses the abbreviated form “Lab” instead. Besides, the pupils always have a difficulty in writing mistake-free words, let alone if the word is composed of two words.

Table 5. 16*Translations to the Word “ نحيف ”*

Control Group			Experimental Group		
Answer	N	%	Answer	N	%
Slim	15	68,18	Slim	15	68,18
Thin	02	09,09	Thin	02	09,09
نحيف	/	/	Big	01	04,55
/	/	/	Small	02	09,09
No Answer	05	22,73	No Answer	02	09,09
Total	22	100	Total	22	100

The results are the same in both groups. 17 pupils (77,27%) provided the right translations to the word “ نحيف ”. This high percentage is due to the frequent use of the word. Furthermore, the teacher noticed that most pupils are familiar with this word before encountering it in the classroom.

Table 5. 17*Translations to the Word “قاعة الاساتذة”*

Word	Control Group		Experimental Group			
	Answer	N	%	Answer	N	%
	Head Teacher	01	04,55	Staff Room	06	27,27
	Staff Room	06	27,27	Teachers’ Room	02	09,09
قاعة الاساتذة	Teacher Room	02	09,09	Classroom	05	22,72
	Classroom de teacher	01	04,55	The Headmaster’s Office	02	09,09
	Office	01	04,55	Sport	01	04,55
	Headmaster’s Office	01	04,55	Office	01	04,55
	Comfortable	01	04,54	Room Teacher	01	04,55
	Classroom	01	04,54	Physic lab	01	04,55
	No Answer	08	36,36	No Answer	03	13,63
	Total	22	100	Total	22	100

The results above show that the correct answers in both groups are paralleled. 08 pupils (36,36%) from each group wrote “Staff Room” and “Teachers’ Room” as the equivalent English word to the Arabic word “قاعة الاساتذة”. Statistically speaking, the obtained percentage is rather low although there are other suggested answers that are somewhat close in meaning to the target Arabic word (e.g.: classroom de teacher, room teacher). This denotes the difficulty that most EFL pupils have regarding the writing skill. In writing assignments, pupils’ productions are most likely to be littered with spelling mistakes albeit the good ideas they have.

Table 5. 18*Translations to the Word “بريد الكتروني”*

Word	Control Group			Experimental Group		
	Answer	N	%	Answer	N	%
	Blog	01	04,54	G-mail	02	09,09
	G-mail	02	09,09	E-mail	10	45,45
	E-mail	08	36,36	Barid iliktroni	01	04,55
بريد الكتروني	Post Office	01	04,55	Send electronic	01	04,55
	Post	01	04,55	Computer	01	04,55
	Computer	01	04,55	www.com	01	04,54
	No Answer	08	36,36	No Answer	06	27,27
	Total	22	100	Total	22	100

More than half of the pupils in the experimental group (54,54%) wrote “G-mail” and “E-mail” as the translation to the Arabic word “بريد الكتروني”. On the other hand, a percentage of 45,45% of the pupils in the control group. With regard to the other suggestions provided by pupils in both groups, it can be noticed that a high majority of participants were close to the correct meaning of the Arabic word. In this era where technology is almost found in all houses, e-mail seems to be a familiar thing amongst youngsters.

Table 5. 19*Translations to the Word “المدير”*

Word	Control Group			Experimental Group		
	Answer	N	%	Answer	N	%
	Master	04	18,18	Office	02	09,09
	Headmaster	03	13,64	Headmaster	11	50
	Office	03	13,64	The Boss	03	13,64
المدير	Location	01	04,54	Modir	01	04,54
	Classroom	01	04,54	School	01	04,54
	Chef	01	04,54	Headmasters office	01	04,54
	No Answer	09	40,91	No Answer	03	13,64
	Total	22	100	Total	22	100

Almost all words that were suggested by the control group pupils were wrong. Only three pupils out of 22 provided the right translation to the Arabic word “المدير”. This number was increased to 14 pupils (63,64%) in the experimental group. Although the word is put in no context, the pupils could get the meaning and provide the right translation. This is due to the extensive use of the word during the first sequence with apt illustrative materials.

5.1.3 Results of the Classroom Observation

Section One: The Teacher

This section encompasses eight statements of the classroom observation checklist. They all investigate the teacher’s role in establishing an inclusive setting through the DI method, and whether or not the teacher differentiates the lesson content in accordance to the pupils’ learning styles and learning needs.

Table 5. 20

Observation Checklist Statements from 01 to 08

		S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8
	N	03	04	03	03	03	04	04	02
Yes	%	75	100	75	75	75	100	100	50
	N	1	00	01	01	01	00	00	02
No	%	25	00	25	25	25	00	00	50
	N	4	04	04	04	04	04	04	04
Total	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

As can be seen from Table 5.20 and based on the notes that we took, nearly the four teachers showed agreement to all the statement accept the eighth statement to which two teachers disagreed with. The first statement asserts that the teacher announces the learning objective of each lesson she presents right at the beginning of the session. For instance, if the lesson tackles the “Body Parts”, the teacher states that her pupils will be able to name different body parts by the end of the lesson.

It is mandatory for teachers to state clear and SMART (Specific, Measurable, Achievable, Relevant, Time-bound) learning objectives and to communicate them to the pupils so that they will conjure up a plausible idea about what they are supposed to be able to do by the end of every lesson. This is helpful in assessing pupils’ comprehension to know whether the target objectives have been realised or not. If not, some sort of remediation to specific language points is then sought for. In the same vein, the second statement was agreed with since the stated objectives parallel with the content of the lessons and this is mainly attained through the preparation of the

lesson plans and the most appropriate teaching materials. Continuity and interrelatedness can be observed in the presentation of the different steps of the lesson.

Moving to the third statement that was also agreed on by three teachers, it can be claimed that the teacher always looks for differentiation both at the level of lesson presentation and lesson content. In listening lessons, the pupils usually work in pairs and try to answer different kinds of tasks based on their listening to some audio materials. In writing sessions, group work and sometimes individual work are relied on. This is just to name a few. What is important is that the teacher considers the pupils' learning styles when differentiating the lessons.

To illustrate, even when the lesson is based on the listening skill, you can see, in addition to listening scripts, some pictures, videos, songs, role play, modelling, and games just to consolidate the pupils' understanding and ensure that every pupil's needs are fully, if possible, accommodated. In so doing, the teacher simplifies the difficult and the new lexis that the pupils will later need in writing sessions. The teacher places more weight on learning styles so that various types of pupils are triggered. Shifting towards IE imposes different pedagogical practices on teachers. One of these is that the teacher ought to be at the center of the classroom always facing the pupils and providing positive reinforcement and constructive feedback to the pupils, in addition to transmitting knowledge for sure.

Remarkably, two teachers disagreed with the last statement that says that the teacher checks on the pupils' understanding by asking questions. Occasionally, the teacher does ask questions about different parts of the lesson to make sure the learning objective has been successfully achieved. Purposefully, this is not the way the teacher generally opts for to check on her pupils' comprehension. Instead, she prefers to assign some real-life tasks that urge the pupils to link their prior knowledge with the information they recently learned to solve some problems.

Depending on the answers given the teacher can evaluate her pupils’ comprehension level and see whether or not the target objective has been achieved.

Section Two: The Pupils

This part examines the attitude of the pupils in an inclusive-oriented classroom. The six statements shed light on the pupils’ participation, engagement level, and interaction. Furthermore, this section seeks to figure out how are the pupils’ responses and understanding checked on by the teacher.

Table 5. 21

Observation Checklist Statements from 09 to 14

		S9	S10	S11	S12	S13	S14
	N	03	03	03	04	03	04
Yes	%	75	75	75	100	75	100
	N	01	01	01	00	01	00
No	%	25	25	25	00	25	00
	N	04	04	04	04	04	04
Total	%	100	100	100	100	100	100

Three teachers out of four agreed with the fact that pupil marginalisation is put aside and that pupils are all treated equally although they do not share enough commonalities. The information gleaned from the observation affirm that the teachers appreciate and value every pupil’s strengths and weaknesses. Indeed, equity is a prerequisite for developing an effective inclusive setting that encourages diversity. This point correlates positively with the second statement in that the teacher optimises pupil autonomy through initiating a welcoming and supportive learning environment regardless of the individuals’ differences. When the pupils feel

that their differences are appreciated and valued, the affective filter will be lowered and engagement will ultimately be boosted.

Not only this, but the pupils will start take part in making decisions that are related to their learning (e.g.: the teaching materials, the points of the lesson to be more stressed, etc.). When the pupils are no more afraid of their presence in the classroom, their participation will be increased. Due to their differences and needs, you will encounter various ways of communicating knowledge in the classroom. One teacher out of four disagreed with this statement claiming that the pupils were all participating in one similar way. Creativity in conveying meaning was not noticed in their responses. This is attributed to the fact that they are, most of the times, guided by the teacher and constrained by the tasks' instructions. Since there is a variety in the kind of the assigned tasks then there are different ways of communicating knowledge by the pupils. It is safe to state however that the teacher is not really behaving as a facilitator or a mentor. Instead, and since this is the first time she tries to be inclusive, some essential practices are still missing.

The four teachers acknowledge that the responses provided by the pupils are all appreciated, valued, and encouraged. In so doing, pupils will not feel afraid or ashamed of making mistakes and this is one critical pillar of IE. It pushes the pupils to be more enthusiastic, self-confident, and to learn from their mistakes.

Section Three: The Teaching Materials

The seven statements attempt to evaluate the teaching materials the teacher regularly uses to display the lessons to all kinds of pupils. That is, whether the teaching materials used are differentiated enough to encapsulate all learning styles and learning needs available in the classroom.

Table 5. 22

Observation Checklist Statements from 15 to 21

		S15	S16	S17	S18	S19	S20	S21
	N	04	04	02	03	04	04	01
Yes	%	100	100	50	75	100	100	25
	N	00	00	02	01	00	00	03
No	%	00	00	50	25	00	00	75
	N	04	04	04	04	04	04	04
Total	%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Teachers show strong agreement to the 1st statement. They see that the teacher ensures a meaningful perception of knowledge through presenting information in multiple ways. This is essential in grabbing the pupils’ attention during the lesson presentation and henceforth sustaining their engagement. A visual pupil who best comprehends things when exposed to pictures and videos will not be able to follow the development of the lesson if the teacher is a mere lecturer. The same is true for the other styles of learning.

What is observed in the classroom is that different teaching materials are often used especially when new lexis are presented. Instead of being a translator who gives the equivalent of the English words in Arabic, the teacher instead uses pictures, worksheets, flashcards, the projector, and even modelling to give the meaning/synonym/opposite of the target words. This step is substantially important in learning new vocabulary knowledge.

Moving to the aspect of ICTs, it is observed that they are an integral part in delivering any lesson. The teacher is digitally literate and she relies much more on the lap-top, the projector, and the smart phone. However, the pupils are increasingly at a disadvantage, i.e., they

are not allowed to use their smart phones, tablets, or any other technology-based device inside the classroom. The reason behind this decision is that the pupils are still young and most of them do not have smart phones and/or lap-tops. Besides, some parents do not allow their children to take their phones to the school. This is rather possible with university students. Another reason is that the pupils are less familiar with digital culture. For them, the phones are just devices for chatting, playing, and having fun.

Three teachers agreed that the teacher most frequently makes the objective of every task clear and limits the pupils with a time to be respected. Only one teacher disagreed with this statement claiming that the time allotted is not always mentioned and respected. This is true. The pupils generally exceed the time. This is seen mostly in difficult tasks. The assigned tasks start from the easiest to the most difficult, and this was strongly agreed on by the four teachers (statement 19). With easy tasks, the teacher limits the pupils with time. However, in difficult tasks where the pupils need more time to think, process information, and link what they have learned with what their prior knowledge, the teacher tends to neglect the timing aspect and gives more freedom to the pupils.

To boost the pupils' social and problem-solving skills, the teacher provides pupils with real life situations wherein they are supposed to make a linkage between their previous knowledge and recent information to solve the target problem. This kind of situations entails higher order of critical thinking and social skills. The more the pupils are put in such situations, the better their problem-solving and social skills will be. This was clearly noticed in the observed sessions and strongly agreed on by the four teachers. On the other hand, most teachers (75%) showed disagreement to the last statement. For them, the teacher uses no project-based learning.

This is quite true. Although the pupils are supposed to deal with some projects during the academic year, the teacher canceled all projects because of Covid-19. Projects are generally done in tutorial sessions where the pupils work in groups and share knowledge and skills to accomplish their projects. This year, tutorial sessions were not scheduled and the sessions timing has been minimised to 45 minutes. However, group works and cooperative work are abundantly used in the classroom as a step towards fostering the pupils’ critical thinking and social skills.

Section Four: The Classroom Environment

The last part of the observation checklist comprises four statements that strive to highlight the classroom surrounding and how it contributes to the establishment of an inclusive setting. It further stresses the critical importance of a safe and supportive learning environment for all pupils and all cultures in the adoption of the inclusive teaching/learning.

Table 5. 23

Observation Checklist Statements from 22 to 25

		S22	S23	S24	S25
	N	03	02	03	04
Yes	%	75	50	75	100
	N	01	02	01	00
No	%	25	50	25	00
	N	04	04	04	04
Total	%	100	100	100	100

Three teachers agreed with the statement and only one teacher showed disagreement claiming that the classroom is not completely pupil-centered and that the teacher is still having the biggest role in the classroom. The fact that the pupils are still young and had less practice in

their first year (due to Covid-19 pandemic) inevitably raised several hurdles for the teacher to cope with. The teacher was thoroughly urged to provide more guidance and explanations to the pupils. However, and moving to the view of the three teachers who agreed with the statement, it is quite noteworthy to state that the pupils were not passively receiving information; they instead were actively engaged in the classroom activities throughout the entire lesson.

Besides, all pupils were targeted. The teacher did not focus merely on the excellent members. This step led to creating a culturally responsive classroom that considers all pupils' needs and interests. As for the second statement, two teachers disagreed. The setting arrangements are rarely changed due to time constraints. Changing sitting arrangement can be seen when the pupils work in groups, and it can be emphasised that it is a time consuming activity. Instead of changing the setting arrangements, the teacher provides the pupils with tasks in which they need to stand and use the physical surrounding of the classroom to perform certain tasks as a step towards prompting social interaction amongst the pupils.

Moving to the last statement, all teachers agreed that the teacher created a safe, effective, and culturally responsive environment for the pupils. All pupils, even the less-able ones, are encouraged to take part in the learning process, their responses are usually praised and appreciated, and their endeavour is always high. No one is afraid to make mistakes and that the classroom is such a place where mistakes are allowed. Let alone the fun learning that the teacher always brings to the classroom to spark the pupils' curiosity, skills, and zealously for learning, and also to instill a passion for learning the English language in the pupils.

5.1.4 Analysis and Interpretation of the Pupils’ Post-treatment Questionnaire

Section One: Lesson Presentation

Q1: An inclusive classroom is the one where all pupils’ needs and learning difficulties are considered and appreciated. Do you think that the teacher succeeded in making your classroom inclusive?

Yes No

- Whatever your answer, please explain.

Table 5. 24

The Extent to which the Teacher Created an Inclusive Classroom

Options	Experimental Group	
	N	%
Yes	20	90,91
No	02	09,09
Total	22	100

The obtained results show that the majority of the respondents in the experimental group (90,91%) agreed that the teacher succeeded in making the classroom inclusive-oriented. They confirmed so by advocating that the teacher considers their needs and interests and most importantly appreciates their differences and learning difficulties. This statement was denied by 09,09% of the participants. When asked to justify their answers, the pupils who disagreed with the statement said that the fact that they still cannot write and speak English fluently and accurately means that the teacher did not succeed in making the classroom inclusive. For the others they justified their answers saying that the teacher does her best in explaining the lesson in different ways no matter how hard some concepts are. She works on simplifying the difficult

words and situations through various techniques putting into consideration every pupil's preferred learning style.

Q2: When the teacher differentiates instruction, do you feel that the classroom tasks meet your preferred learning style?

Yes No

Table 5. 25

The Pupils' Views Concerning Differentiated Instruction

Options	Experimental Group	
	N	%
Yes	19	86,36
No	03	13,64
Total	22	100

Table 5.25 shows that the vast majority of the participants (86,36%) agree that the way the teacher differentiates the lesson goes hand in hand with their preferred learning styles, i.e., the way the teacher presents the lesson meets and satisfies the needs of the pupils albeit their various differences. Only 13,64% of the pupils disagreed with the statement. It goes without saying that the VAKT style is not the only style that best describes the way that one approaches learning. There are other learning style models mentioned in the literature review that portray the way how people best reach their potential for learning. In addition to that, the teaching techniques used by the teacher might not be at their favour even if they support the VAKT style.

Q3: Inclusive education helps diminishing pupils' learning difficulties.

Yes No

Table 5. 26*The Usefulness of Inclusive Education*

Options	Experimental Group	
	N	%
Yes	18	81,82
No	04	18,18
Total	22	100

Once again, most pupils (81,82%) support the fact that IE minimises learning difficulties that one can encounter in any language classroom. It is in fact one of the significantly important tenets of IE that the teacher works on making the input comprehensible for all pupils following a variety of teaching materials. In so doing, teachers will guarantee a successful and fruitful learning process for the majority of the learning. Indeed, the little learning difficulties are there, the better pupils' understanding and interaction would be. On the other hand, a percentage of 18,18% of the participants declare that an inclusive class does not certainly mean that there are no learning difficulties, and this is true to certain extents.

Inclusive education is just one way of getting things right in the classroom. It works on pupils' needs and interests and making them all feel equal through appreciating their differences and working on their learning difficulties. However, it is safe to say that this way can seem workable for some and useless for some others. Differentiating instruction and considering individual's learning styles does not ensure the total understanding of knowledge being taught in the classroom. Certain pupils possess different styles of learning and get along very well with

other methods and approaches of teaching the language. Therefore, getting across pupils who disagree with IE principals is quite normal.

Q4: Did inclusive education help in learning the English language (vocabulary in particular)?

Yes No

- Please explain how?

Table 5. 27

Inclusive Education and Vocabulary Learning

Options	Experimental Group	
	N	%
Yes	20	90,91
No	02	09,09
Total	22	100

The emphasis in this research has been directed to vocabulary learning, and henceforth a high percentage of the pupils (90,91%), after getting introduced to different vocabulary knowledge through the first sequence of the course book, see that IE boosted their learning to the English vocabulary. Of course, this view cannot be claimed to be true for all the pupils. Accordingly, 09,09 % of the respondents show disagreement to the idea that IE fostered their learning to the English vocabulary.

Section Two: Pupils’ Attitude Towards Inclusive Education

Q1: In what ways did inclusive education boost your learning of the English language vocabulary?

Most pupils appreciated the various ways the teacher usually relies on when delivering lessons. They pointed out the significant use of different teaching materials such as the data

projector, worksheets, audio scripts, pictures, realia, videos, songs, class projects, group works, games, and so forth. New and/or difficult terms are most commonly displayed in a variety of ways. Giving the chance to pupils to take part in the lessons and share their ideas with their classmates does not only affect and raise their potential for learning, but it also helps in shaping up their confidence and personality inside the classroom towards being an autonomous pupil who can be an effective member in taking the right decisions regarding his/her learning.

Q2: How do you perceive the use of inclusive education?

Generally speaking, the pupils, either with or without disabilities, revealed positive attitude towards the implementation of IE. In alignment with this attitude, they said that it considers every individual's learning style, appreciates their differences, and works on overcoming their difficulties. That is inclusive classroom is a place where pupils are treated equally. Additively, it contributes in developing their communicative competence through getting the pupils actively involved in the learning process. One pupil asserts that “... *in an inclusive classroom all pupils are concerned with learning no matter how brilliant or less-able they are. Their IQs are not important. Inclusive education addresses all kind of pupils.*”

Correspondingly, accommodating pupil diversity and interests goes extra miles in removing the barriers that deter the pupils from showing their best in the classroom.

On the other hand, there are two pupils who acknowledged their negative attitude towards the use of IE declaring that they witnessed no improvement in their level.

Q3: Do you think that inclusive education is useful in teaching of the English vocabulary?

Yes No

- Please justify your answer.

Table 5. 28*Inclusive Education and Teaching the English Vocabulary*

Options	Experimental Group	
	N	%
Yes	20	90,91
No	02	09,09
Total	22	100

Pupils' answers thoroughly revealed that they held positive attitudes towards the use of IE in the teaching/learning of the English vocabulary. Statistically speaking, a sum of 90,91% of the questioned pupils see that it helps in maximising their vocabulary repertoire. According to the justification they provided, this is effectively done mainly through the use of different teaching techniques that work on simplifying things for the pupils and consolidating the received input for later use. Conversely related, a percentage of 09,09% of the participants disapprove of

Section Three: Challenges and Further Suggestions

Q1: What are the impediments you have encountered during the sessions?

Some pupils mentioned that their shyness was a great impediment during their journey to learn the English vocabulary. Their fear from the teacher –as some of them said- and the fear of making mistakes deterred them from asking questions or taking part in classroom discussions. When integral parts of the lesson are left vague and incomprehensible, pupils will certainly face difficulties in understanding the following lessons too. This can be observed in the case where lessons are related and tackle the same general topic or strive to reach the same objectives. When pupils do not get things clear right from the beginning of the sequence, they will encounter difficulties in the coming lessons, especially in writing-based lessons. Some others stated that the

absence of the first language (Arabic language) makes things difficult to be well grasped albeit the use of different teaching materials.

Another mentioned obstacle is the attention deficit disorder that most today's pupils suffer from. When they lose concentration, they miss parts of the lesson. There is one pupil who mentioned that the teacher's pace of talking, that he describes as fast, renders him unable to understand things well. Two other pupils said that the teacher's handwriting is small and it is the thing that they mostly hate about the English class. Moreover, the last comment was about the noise the other pupils make in the yard when they practice sport that results in lack of concentration.

Q2: If you have any further suggestions in respect to the better implementation of inclusive education to enhance middle school pupils learning of the English language vocabulary, please notify them underneath.

There are four principal suggestions that were mentioned by all the pupils. Firstly, they see that consolidating the teacher-pupil relationship is a must for getting better outcomes concerning the English language learning. Teachers are not supposed only to teach, but to understand the individuals they teach. Being an inclusive and flexible teacher is something like this. Secondly, dedicating sessions for reading, be it reading for a purpose or reading for pleasure, where the pupils are provided for instance with short stories. In so doing, pupils will inevitably build up a rich lexical knowledge repertoire.

Thirdly, project-based learning that enables the pupils to take responsibility over their learning. The teacher is a mere mentor and guide in this case. Finally, promoting role play, peer interaction, and group works to consolidate and support pupil-pupil classroom discussion in addition to the use of the first language now and then are other outlined suggestions that the

pupils deem compulsory for equipping them with the necessary skills of the English language and self-reliance.

5.2 Discussion and Summary of the Findings

This part is intended to provide a comprehensive discussion and interpretation of the key findings obtained using three data collection methods. This study was conducted to foster the EFL pupils' learning of the English vocabulary. More specifically, it aimed at improving the English language learning amongst Algerian middle school pupils (2nd graders in this case) throughout the establishment of inclusive-oriented classrooms. Furthermore, DI - the incarnation of schools' attempts to address the needs and interests of a diversity of pupils - was employed as an inclusive-driven teaching method. Differentiation was sought for following Tomlinson's (2003) model wherein the lesson is differentiated at the level of content, process, and product. Of course, the pupils' learning styles together with the teaching materials were also put into consideration when individualising the instruction. Additionally, this part seeks to provide a better understanding of the participants' attitudes towards the implementation of IE in learning and teaching.

In general terms, and according to the results obtained from the pre-test that assured the similar level of the pupils in the control and experimental group, the analysis of the gathered data showed the significant improvement at the level of pupils' vocabulary repertoire (an evident aspect in learning the English language) when IE was incorporated in the English class, particularly with the pupils in the experimental group. Indeed, knowing and appreciating pupils' various learning styles through the PLSQ was a milestone to establishing an inclusive context. It makes a great sense to differentiate the lessons according to the pupils' learning styles, needs, and interests.

The research has been carried out through different stages and data were gathered using various data collection tools starting from the PLSQ to the post-treatment questionnaire. The obtained data were descriptively and statistically analysed with the general aim of giving a detailed description and understanding to the practical implementation of IE and its underpinning method (differentiated instruction) in mainstream schools amidst a high variability of pupils. During the process of implementing inclusive policy in the classroom, and in order to get the data relevant for this study, the researcher chose to be a participant observer. This is due to the constant contact with the pupils when delivering lessons. An observation checklist was prepared beforehand covering the focal inclusive points to be observed in the class. The intuitive appeal of creating an inclusive and differentiated classroom was observed in the teachers' practices as well as in the pupils' (be them gifted or less-able) enthusiasm and interaction. The lessons' content was differentiated so that it triggers the pupils' needs and interests, the teaching materials were varied according to the pupils' learning styles, and the class tasks and projects were also presented in different forms.

The classroom observation highlighted the impact of IE on pupils' endeavour to learn the English language. The results gathered are considered indispensable to understand the inclusive practices that best consolidated teaching/learning process as well as the obstacles that hampered the total effective implementation of IE. These outcomes concur the results obtained from the post-test.

The main findings that were deduced from the post-test include the evidence that the majority of the participants' level was significantly enhanced after the implementation of IE. Pupils most often tend to struggle with learning new words and using them for communicative purposes. To discard such an impediment, and following DI that is one principal pillar of IE,

pupils' word knowledge has significantly increased. During the treatment phase, the teacher made sure that every lesson constitutes of varied knowledge that encircle the pupils' interests and, of course, related to the lesson theme. The lesson content is usually presented employing a variety of teaching materials and learning games. The latter is sought for to ensure the fun aspect in learning and make sure that the pupils are fully engaged. Some examples of the widely used strategies that attempted to activate the pupils' participation in the classroom activities and discussions are: group works, peer interaction, think-pair-share, and one-on-one interaction. Different concept and new words were presented in different ways to ascertain pupil comprehension no matter what style of learning they adhere to. It is contributive and effective to deploy teaching strategies of sterling quality to accommodate pupils' needs and ensure powerful pupil understanding. This was acknowledged through the results gained from the post-test. The pupils in the experimental group showed high levels of understanding to the target vocabulary items. Remembering and retrieving the necessitated words was much easier if compared to the pupils in the control group.

With regard to the pupils' attitude concerning the effect of IE on the English vocabulary learning, the results obtained from the post-treatment questionnaire indicated that most pupils acknowledged the significant importance of IE and its positive effect on enhancing their learning of the English language in general and the lexical knowledge in particular. The fact that both talented and less-able pupils were treated equally and both were supported to reach their maximum growth is what boosted their interaction and social skills in the classroom. This positive perception is a result of equity and appreciation to pupils' needs, interests, learning styles, learning difficulties, and so forth. Creating such a competitive environment where only pupils' competencies and skills are counted payed great dividends in diminishing the learning

hurdles that pupils usually encounter in the classroom. Additionally, the questionnaire helped in outlining the major obstacles that deter the pupils advancing in learning the English language. At the end, it is worth stating that the praxis of inclusive pedagogy is a central issue for promoting professional growth and bettering the actual teaching practices. Correspondingly, and in light of the above stated findings, IE is depicted as a demanding practice in today's heterogeneous classrooms. This is mainly because IE concerns itself with finding suitable and practical solutions to pupil-related issues.

Conclusion

This chapter was confined to displaying the data originally gathered from the selected data collection tools. The analysis and interpretation of the obtained data revealed that teaching/learning in an inclusive classroom where lessons are differentiated according to the pupils' learning styles helps learning different language related issues mainly the English language vocabulary. Additionally, establishing an inclusive-oriented context ends up diminishing the difficulties that stagnate pupils from achieving their maximum potential for learning. Not only this, but it also contributes to meeting the pupils' diverse needs and interests.

The findings therefore corroborate the first research hypothesis that states that if teachers adopt inclusive strategies as an underlying framework to meet pupils' different needs, this would foster pupils' rate of learning English vocabulary. It is then concluded that suitable provision for enhancing the English language learning can be made possible in mainstream schools, not only for the pupils who have been identified as disabled but for every single pupil. Nevertheless, and based on the results gained from the posttest, it is noticeable that the pupils still need to have more practice on how to get the best out of their learning styles and how to be fully engaged in the learning process. Pupil centeredness is one pivotal issue in inclusive pedagogy.

That is, pupils ought to get rid of the lethargic style if their performance and understanding skills are to be improved. Teacher's thinking should therefore go beyond the narrow idea of dealing with the specificities of diversity following one single way. There is ample evidence that this traditional teaching method alienated pupils from regular schools. Teachers have to make a significant contribution to the field of teaching/learning through finding workable practices associated with inclusive pedagogy that encompasses pupil needs and diversity.

The next chapter strives to provide an upshot of IE adopted in this study, followed with suggested implications for pedagogy that help clarifying the indispensable role of IE and DI in triggering pupils' engagement and enhancing their academic outcomes and performance. The mentioned implications are directed to the teachers, pupils, parents, syllabus-designers, all stakeholders, and society at large. At the end, a number of research limitations are listed to be considered in future research.

**Chapter Six: Conclusions of the Thesis, a Review of Inclusive Education in this Study,
Implications for Pedagogy, and Limitations**

Introduction

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Chapter Six: Conclusions of the Thesis, a Review of Inclusive Education in this Study, Implications for Pedagogy, and Limitations

Introduction

This chapter culminates the research based on what has been discussed in both the theoretical and practical parts. It is made up of three focal sections. The first one is chiefly dedicated to the synthesis of the study findings. It also takes into account answering the research questions raised by the nature of this research and stated in the introduction of the thesis in light of the research findings. The second section is devoted to some insightful implications and pedagogical recommendations that are meant to be guideposts when working at inclusive schools. Accordingly, a review of the major points discussed in this study will be provided. The last section stands as a review to IE, the teaching approach that was sought for in this study as an attempt to enhance middle school pupils' learning of the English vocabulary. Lastly, this chapter ends by stating and discussing some study limitations.

6.1 Synthesis of the Study Findings and Answering the Research Questions

The aim behind conducting this research was to examine the effectiveness of IE, a teaching approach largely adopted by Western countries that seek pupil inclusion in mainstream schools, on Algerian middle school pupils' (2nd graders) learning of the English vocabulary. This was planned to take place through differentiating classroom instructions as an attempt to accommodate pupil diversity and needs. The ultimate objective was to provide answers to the raised research questions:

RQ1: To what extent is the implementation of Inclusive Education in Algerian middle schools effective in meeting pupils' diverse needs?

RQ2: Does differentiated instruction promote learners' English vocabulary learning amidst middle school pupils?

RQ3: How do middle school pupils perceive the integration of Inclusive Education in the teaching/learning of English vocabulary?

The first research question seeks to get relevant information about the impact of IE on meeting pupils' needs. This question raised the hypothesis that if teachers structure more inclusive-oriented classrooms, pupils' needs and interests will inevitably be accommodated. To get more reliable and sound answers, a pre and post-tests were designed for a sample of 44 second-year pupils to attest the impact of IE in meeting the pupils' needs and henceforth helping them perform satisfactorily in academic activities.

Firstly, they were set for a pre-treatment achievement test to ascertain that they approximately share the same level and that any improvement at the level of pupils in the experimental group will be contributed to the adopted inclusive practices. The teacher afterwards worked on structuring the classroom so that it supports and appreciates every pupil's needs and individual differences. The idea of an inclusive-oriented classroom is all about creating a responsive learning environment for talented and less-able pupils and getting them to share the same endeavour. Promoting inclusive practices entails differentiating instruction. To accommodate all pupils' needs, the teacher tried to differentiate the curriculum at the level of content, process, and product so that all types of pupils are targeted. Different strategies and teaching techniques were used when presenting lessons and new vocabulary items.

After the treatment phase that lasted for two months, the research sample were set for the post-test that aims at examining how far did they excel at learning the target vocabulary items. Considering the vocabulary test scores, it appears that pupils of the experimental group

outperformed pupils in the control group. Notably, retrieving and recalling the necessitated vocabulary was rather easy for pupils in the experimental group and this was well-documented through the high percentages they got in the post-test. Let alone the high level of engagement and participation in the classroom activities. A remarkable improvement has also been noticed in the performance of those pupils categorised as less-able. Logically, when the lessons are designed according to their interests and when the teaching materials are differentiated, pupils feel comfortable and take part in the learning process. Accordingly, the hypothesis was confirmed since the created inclusive classroom succeeded in meeting the pupils' needs and henceforth enhanced their performance.

The findings obtained from the designed tests were also valid in providing practical answers to the second research question that investigates the effectiveness of DI in promoting pupils' vocabulary knowledge. The generated hypothesis for this question denotes that the more teachers differentiate instruction in the classroom, the larger pupils' vocabulary repertoire will be. For this sake, teachers are required to be equipped with an exhaustive range of teaching materials. The aim of these teaching materials should be gauged to not only deliver the target lessons, but also to care for every individual in the classroom; they should consider every pupil needs, interests, individual differences, learning difficulties, learning styles, and so forth. In our case, DI was used on the basis that it encompasses all the aforementioned pupil-related issues.

Practically, when the teacher differentiates the lessons according to the pupils' needs, learning styles, learning differences and cultural backgrounds this will trigger their engagement and empower and improve their comprehension skills. More precisely, when the teacher presents the new vocabulary items in different ways, nearly all sorts of pupils will succeed in comprehending and storing the input.

The questionnaire provided additional information to answer the fourth research question that examines pupils' perceptions and attitudes towards the implementation of IE in the English class. At that time, pupils were put in educational problem-solving situations that sustained their critical thinking, social interaction skills, and learning styles. The results gathered through the questionnaire revealed the positive attitude of the pupils towards IE. They see that it reaches out to all pupils through making learning fun, facilitated, and more accessible. Moreover, it contributed to determine the common learning barriers that deter the pupils from reaching their maximum potential for learning. To instill the necessary competencies and language skills, the teacher provided more flexible resources, DI, and varied lesson contents that parallel with the pupils' needs and learning styles. Moreover, pupils' contributions were valued, appreciated, and supported the thing that encouraged them to be active members.

6.2 Pedagogical Implications

In reliance on the available research-based evidence, we have culled some implications that we deem are necessary for the effective implementation of inclusive practices in the Algerian regular schools. These implications are suggested for the following key participants: teachers, pupils, parents, curriculum makers, and whoever this work might concern.

6.2.1 Implications for Teachers

Teachers are an integral part in the establishment of inclusive schools in Algeria. They are the ones who are going to put the theory and philosophy of IE into practice. They can help in minimising underachievement amongst pupils and ameliorate engagement and active participation. Therefore, they need to develop a positive attitude towards IE and show preparedness and readiness to work in inclusive settings and accept the diverse pupil needs and learning difficulties they encounter in their classrooms. It has been widely acknowledged that

teachers' negative perception could undermine the establishment of inclusive schools. Accordingly, they need to consider some essential aspects.

- Teachers are required to receive support and formal training on IE. In so doing, they will be equipped with the appropriate skills and instructions needed for the effective adoption of the target teaching approach.
- Priority in cultivating pupils' word knowledge through providing explicit understanding to the different meaning associated with every word should be taken as a critical element in learning the English language. As stated in the literature review of this study in chapter three, vocabulary is an integral part that should be stressed in language teaching and learning.
- Teachers should develop individual plans with their pupils through one-on-one teaching strategy. It is one best way of knowing much information about your pupils' needs, weaknesses, and strengths. It is also preferred that teachers keep updated and bring into class innovative strategies that seek to understand, aide, and respond to pupils' diversity and needs.
- Teachers' work in accommodating the needs of all pupils and providing adequate education for them all should be recognised and applauded.
- Teachers need to develop a positive attitude towards the use of IE in their classes. This can be achieved through having sufficient background knowledge about what inclusion is and how it works. Reading previously conducted researches in this field may be of greater help.
- Teachers should accept change instead of sticking to the traditional teaching methods. They need to be updated with the technological revolution that is witnessed in the

educational realm and reflect upon the effective inclusionary practices that help in understanding barriers to learning.

- Teachers should transmit information to all pupils in the classrooms instead of working with the elites. Put precise, they ought to differentiate instruction. Differentiating instruction may evoke pupils' motivation to get involved in the learning process.
- It is kindly recommended from teachers to establish positive teacher-pupil and teacher-parent relationship. This will help in providing the teachers with authentic information about the disabilities and learning difficulties their pupils suffer from. Knowing the problem helps in providing the suitable provisions.
- Teachers are kindly required to put their pupils in problem-solving situations that trigger their emotional and social interaction skills. This would also help in developing their critical thinking skills and promote peer interaction in the classroom.
- Teachers should bear in mind that providing pupils with real life situations would enhance their social and communicative skills.
- Teachers should be active researchers and observers in their classrooms. They need to conduct researches to know about their pupils' needs, interests, learning styles, learning difficulties, weaknesses and strengths. This step will supply teachers with additional options and ideas when differentiating the lessons and the teaching materials.
- In some cases, there are teachers who differentiate the tests and exams for some pupils claiming that they have mental retardation and setting for the same test as their same-age peers would seem unfair. In this case, it is noteworthy to state that if the teacher differentiates the lesson content, process, and product effectively s/he will not feel the need to differentiate the test. In an inclusive educational setting where the teacher

differentiates the lesson, most pupils are supposed to comprehend the delivered knowledge. Henceforth, there is no need for a differentiated test.

- Teachers should provide their pupils with appropriate content tailored to their needs in addition to adequate learning opportunities for practice followed with accurate feedback and assessment to their knowledge and performance.
- It is highly recommended that teachers collaborate with their fellow teachers to brainstorm new strategies adequate for addressing the needs of the diversity they have in the classroom.
- It needs to be noted that the teachers will not be able to handle the workload when working in inclusive settings. In light of the oversized classrooms available in most Algerian educational institutions together with the insufficient timing allotted to the English subject and the lack of adequate teacher training and teaching materials suitable for inclusion, it is rather tiring and time consuming to be responsive to all the pupils. Consequently, the Ministry of National Education should provide opportunities for professional development to equip teachers with suitable inclusive skills and fundamental competencies. In addition, rethinking the class groupings and the time allocated for the English language in Algerian schools is mandatory for a successful shift towards inclusion system.

6.2.2 Implications for Pupils

Different recommendations can be stated for pupils based on the results gained from this study. For instance,

- Pupils should never feel ashamed to communicate their learning difficulties to their teachers. Although there are various views that question the appropriateness of pupil-

teacher kind of relationships, the healthy and effective pupil-teacher relationship inevitably leads to outstanding performance in academic activities. It is one effective way that helps teachers cater for their pupils' needs and interests.

- Pupils should ask questions and ask for further clarifications whenever they feel they did not get a certain point in the lesson. Lessons are interrelated and missing one part of the lesson may lead to serious difficulties in comprehending the next lessons.
- Pupils should express their opinions whenever they feel that the used teaching materials and classroom instructions do not meet their needs and interests.
- According to the findings of this study, pupils are required to maintain a positive pupil-teacher relationship that is based on mutual respect.
- Pupils' interaction and performance in the classroom is very indispensable. Therefore, they are required to be fully engaged and motivated in the learning process.
- Pupils should take down barriers to learning through taking advantage over every single learning opportunity and constructive feedback provided by their teachers. They are supposed to see inclusionary practices as an opportunity and not a problem.
- It is widely advocated and enshrined in various international policy documents such as the Declaration on Education for All (1990) and the Salamanca Report (1994) that every pupil should be appreciated and treated with equity irrespective of needs, learning difficulties, gender, disability, weaknesses, and strengths.

6.2.3 Implications for Parents

For IE to take hold in Algerian schools, parental involvement is compulsory. Their role as a trustworthy source of valuable information about pupils has never been in doubt. Interestingly,

there is a plethora of literature that document the parent-school collaboration as a critical factor for positively advancing children's emotional and academic achievement inside the school.

- Parents are required to have a decidedly positive attitude towards inclusion. In so doing, they would send their children to regular schools even if they have learning difficulties. They will not feel afraid from any kind of exclusion.
- Parents need to assist their children and provide help and guidance for home learning.
- Parents are a valuable source of information about their children. Thereby, they should be an integral part in decision making issues that are related to their children.
- Parents should not see learning as a content based but rather a process through which individuals acquire skills not only subject knowledge.
- Parent-school partnership often connotes an underlying fear on behalf of the parents. Different factors such as poverty and literacy affect the parents' attitude towards their participation in school activities. They start feeling that their engagement is unwelcomed. Therefore, it is centrally significant to orient school administrations and principals to promote and facilitate parental involvement in school committees. Interestingly, pupils are also required to share their concern regarding learning with their parents in order to prompt and consolidate parents' participation in the schooling life of their children.
- It is advocated that family engagement in schools continuously influences pupils' educational advancement and growth in the long run. Therefore, home-school collaboration should be well thought-out in the educational constitutions.
- Training courses that support parents' insertion in schools are greatly advocated. This step is intended to limit the parents' role in helping their children and guiding teachers with valuable knowledge and insights about the pupils, leaving no chance to interfering in

the teachers' work. The chief aim of parental involvement is far from questioning and doubting the teachers' teaching strategies, plans, and decisions. Briefly, the relation between the parents and school personal have to be based on mutual respect and understanding.

6.2.4 Implications for Curriculum-Makers

- The need to extend education to all requires serious reforms in education to comply with pupil needs and diversity. This starts from designing more accessible syllabus that considers those needs and diversity.
- They should design flexible curriculum that reaches out to all pupils and strives to boost their intellectual growth and overall wellbeing. / harmony
- Reducing pupils' number in the class and grouping them homogeneously in order to make the inclusive practices easier for the teachers.
- Ensure adequate teacher training programmes that equip teachers with appropriate inclusive skills for setting appropriate inclusive classes.
- Syllabus designers should cope with the changing demands of the pupils through supporting and providing a differentiated syllabus. In so doing, the pupils will experience a sense of belongingness and appreciation. Moreover, pupil categorising and labeling will disappear; terms such as stupid pupils and weak pupils will be excluded from our schools. Consequently, a profound change in the attitude of the less-able and disabled pupils will be witnessed.
- The curriculum should consider the pupils' needs and individual differences. As enshrined in many international conventions such as the Salamanca Statement, a designed

curriculum that serves the needs of a diversity of pupils appear to make a significant contribution to their academic goals.

- It is globally acknowledged that a flexible and responsive curriculum that goes with the demanding needs of the pupils and the society at large is what helps in developing relevant skills and competencies.

Barriers to inclusion can be reduced through full collaboration between teachers, pupils, parents, syllabus designers, all stakeholders, and society at large. They are the ones who facilitate pupil inclusion in school life and pave the way to the systematic change towards education for all through ongoing observations and refining the apartheid curriculum. The shift towards inclusion might be perceived as a herculean task that requires much efforts and preparation. However, it seems plausible to assume that schools with an inclusive view are more likely to provide meaningful learning for all. They equip pupils with core academic content and relevant skills to face different life challenges. More importantly, and since inclusive policies are emanated from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, inclusive schools enable its pupils to respect and defend human right issues and ameliorate their respect for different cultures and individual differences.

6.3 A Review of Inclusive Education in this Thesis

The findings of this study provide ample evidence about the applicability and practicality of IE as a teaching policy that advocates pupil needs and diversity. It has been stated earlier in Chapter One of the thesis that IE provides effective alternatives to traditional or non-inclusive classrooms that proved to be less effective in today's schools. It first appeared as a human right movement that calls for the rights of disabled pupils. In previous years, inclusion was associated merely with pupils with SEN. It concerns itself with finding solutions to accommodate the needs

and interests of disabled pupils and find suitable provisions that reduce their exclusion from regular schools. Then it narrowed its focus to call for the right of all pupils to be educated in regular schools alongside their same-age peers despite their weaknesses and strengths. Its endeavour is also to instill necessary competencies to ensure that teachers are skilled with adequate inclusive knowledge. Inclusive classrooms operate on the premise that all pupils are equal regardless of any individual differences they handle. It works on exploring any potential pitfalls that may deter the pupils to make great academic gains.

The literature in the realm of IE is quite rich. Therefore, it is easy for EFL teachers to explore its benefits in creating more effective and fruitful language classes. Different inclusive teaching strategies are at their disposal. Differentiated instruction, the teaching strategy used in this study, is one of the core inclusive strategies that consider pupils' needs, learning styles, individual differences, and other pupil-related issues when planning for learning. Henceforth, teachers are required to be well-equipped with the most suitable teaching strategies for their classes and pupils. They need to dig deep in this fertile area of research in order to adeptly install the pillars of IE.

6.4 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Seemingly, this study has certain limitations that are quite noteworthy to be pointed out. Firstly, this study primarily focuses on the VAKT learning style mainly because it is the mostly used one at the Algerian middle schools. Materials are generally prepared with a great emphasise on visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile styles. Further studies can include other learning styles to ascertain the practicality of addressing learners' learning styles in meeting their needs and help them reach their maximum growth. Second, the researcher conducted the study in one single middle school due to the easy access. However, research can be done in more than one

middle school to get more valid results. Another limitation that worth mentioning is the focus on one inclusive strategy, that is DI, in responding to learners' needs and enhancing vocabulary learning, though other strategies can be used to assure getting better results. The reason behind this is the miscellaneous techniques that underpin DI that fulfills our aim behind the use of IE. Additively, future longitudinal research with different proficiency levels of pupils may yield profound insights regarding the applicability of IE through assigning in-context instead of de-contextualised vocabulary tests.

In the same spectrum, Covid-19 is one of the hurdles that put extra pressure on the researcher due to the new interventions it posed. The timing aspect and the lack of parental involvement were the hardest part to cope with. Moreover, the teacher is not qualified to adeptly manage diversity and inclusion practices. Henceforth, teacher training programmes need to provide rigorous courses on working in inclusive settings.

Inclusive education is a fertile area of research. In Algeria, a vast amount of information about IE is still undiscovered. Researchers may conduct different studies depending on the variables they want to investigate. Inclusive schools can support different teaching interventions not only vocabulary learning. This has been proven through the rich studies conducted in Western countries that advocate the adoption of IE. However, it receives little interest albeit its fundamental importance in promoting the potential of academic gains.

This is partly due to the teachers who tend to resist change and stick to their routinised teaching practices. English is the world's lingua franca, and due to its importance, it is high time for teachers to explore the area of IE as an attempt to better the teaching practices at middle schools; the place where pupils first get contact with the English language. Future studies may examine the importance of adding IE in teacher training programmes, the impact of other

inclusive teaching strategies on pupils' listening, writing, speaking or reading skills, as it may probe any area of interest within an educational setting.

Conclusion

To conclude, this chapter attempted to provide sound answers to the raised research questions. Significantly, IE has been proved to be effective in addressing EFL pupils' needs and henceforth several implications and pedagogical recommendations for improving the inclusive policy in the Algerian schools have been identified. Delivering lessons to a diversity of pupils following the same way is what alienated pupils from being active individuals in the classroom.

Accordingly, the onus is partly on teachers to create adaptive classes to the specificities of diversity. Of course, parents, pupils, and syllabus designers share the same endeavour with the teachers. To achieve this aim, it is advantageous to opt for DI; an inclusive-based teaching method that works as an addendum to the teaching strategies whose most salient concern is to accommodate pupils' needs. Most importantly, the findings emanated from this study confirm the research hypotheses and certify that inclusive teaching is an empowering practice that is based on the convergence of the hope to bring fruitful change to the Algerian educational system that suffers from various ailments and the need to consider EFL pupils' needs and individual differences.

General Conclusion

As the 1900s drew to a close, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act put an end to child segregation from regular schools as an attempt to prevailing equity and, henceforth, bettering disabled learners' academic outcomes. Moreover, the term disabled learners was replaced by learning difficulties and started being used, not only for those who suffer from certain types of impairment, but it furthered up to encompass all learners who encounter difficulties throughout their academic endeavour.

Accordingly, disabled learners started studying alongside their same-age peers in regular schools. However, most of the teaching approaches adopted by teachers do not consider the significant diverse needs of those learners. The challenging educational settings made learners experience a sense of discomfort because of their unmet needs. Inclusive education is a teaching approach that works as a catalyst to respond to learners' needs and interests; it mainly strives for potential solutions for those who have been pulled out from normal schools for so long. Essentially, its most salient concern is to amalgamate learners of different needs and backgrounds inside one classroom.

Clearly, adopting IE in schools reiterates the need to respond to the diverse needs of learners who are allied with different learning difficulties and needs. They all have the right to be listened and heard to, however many are missed out. The way teachers respond to their learners' needs ought to vary considerably to ensure all learners successful access to the curriculum. This can only be made possible through a profound understanding of individual differences, needs, and learning difficulties.

The chief reason behind choosing this research subject is the poor performance observed amongst Algerian EFL pupils when they first encounter the English language at middle schools.

Although the role of vocabulary in initiating a successful and comprehensible communication is unequivocal, most of them spend their four years at the middle school suffering from a poor English vocabulary knowledge that, in return, impact their interaction in the classroom and ultimately their academic outcomes. My four-year teaching experience with middle school pupils together with my academic knowledge and my interest in IE helped me realise the importance of bringing change to our schools. In reliance to the literature review of this study, teachers need to develop more efficacious teaching strategies that go hand in hand with their pupils' interests and learning styles.

Consequently, this study set out to explore the impact of IE on accommodating pupil needs and diversity in mixed-ability classes. More specifically, we attempted to identify the effect of DI on expediting pupils' learning of the English vocabulary. It is noteworthy to pinpoint that DI is regarded as an inclusive teaching strategy in this research. Moreover, this research project intended to gather information about pupils' beliefs and perceptions concerning the use of IE together with the main impediments they usually encounter in the class. Besides, we were concerned with checking out the hypothesis that IE enhances pupils' learning of the English vocabulary and that it helps in addressing their needs.

Methodologically, this research opted for the mixed methods approach and this allowed a quantitative and qualitative analysis to the gathered data. Based on the data gained from the tests and the pre-treatment questionnaire, the quantitative side of this research revealed the positive correlation between pupils' preferred learning styles and their performance in the classroom and in later examinations. When the teacher differentiates the lesson's content, process and product together with the teaching materials, this promotes pupil comprehension and professional growth. It is hard for a kinesthetic pupil, for instance, to continually cope up with a lecture-based

lesson. In the same spectrum, the qualitative part that relies on the classroom observation and the post-treatment questionnaire provided valuable data concerning the inclusive policy adopted by the teacher and the pupils' attitude towards it. It is observed that the teacher places emphasis on pupils' needs and individual differences. This was affirmed by the pupils' questionnaire through which the high majority of pupils acknowledged the significant role the teacher gives them. Markedly, the pupils showed positive attitude towards the inclusive practices adopted by the teacher.

The findings of this study led us to draw several conclusions. Firstly, it is noteworthy to state that the adoption of IE is not that easy. It is not just a teaching approach, but rather a social phenomenon that entails various attitudes, feelings, and practices from teachers, pupils, parents, practitioners, decision-makers, curriculum makers, and the society as a whole. For IE to take hold in the Algerian schools, it is paramount to warrant the right of equal education to all pupils irrespective of their various needs. Secondly, teachers are proclaimed to competently provide access to education for all pupils with no form of discrimination. In so doing, no child will be left behind for exclusionary practices. Thirdly, parents alongside their children are regarded as an integral part that fastens the implementation process. Fourthly, the Ministry of National Education should assist and support teachers to reach connectedness between policy of IE and actual practice. It is hoped that significant steps towards the implementation of IE would be accentuated and more attention would be directed to pre and in-service teacher training courses since teachers are the frontline implementers of the inclusive policy. Lastly, collaboration between school principals, teachers, parents, inspectors, parents, and policy makers is also required as a key factor for successful inclusionary practices.

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Appendices

Appendix 01: Informed Consent Letter for the School Principal

Dear the School Principal,

I am currently working on a research project about the implementation of inclusive education in the Algerian middle schools. Throughout my study, I seek to investigate how far can the implementation of inclusive education strategies like differentiated instruction enhance middle school pupils learning of the English language vocabulary. Accordingly, I am seeking your approval to carry out my research with my second year pupils that will last for two months. During these two months, I will first start with a piloting stage to my data collection tools. Afterwards, the participants will be asked to fill in a pre and post-treatment questionnaires, take part in a treatment phase of 12 sessions where the pupils' interaction will be observed following an observation grid, and then they will set for a pre and post-tests. Kindly note that, during the treatment phase the researcher will deliver the lessons outlined in the syllabus. That is, no delay will be marked in the process of teaching.

I hereby guarantee the confidentiality, anonymity and privacy of the pupils and the school personal information. Further, I assure you that my research carries no risks or discomfort neither to the pupils nor to the school as a whole.

If you consent to the participation of second year pupils in my research, please provide your personal information, signature, and stamp to the following consent letter. Your approval and cooperation will be profoundly appreciated.

Thank you.

For further details and questions, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher.

Researcher Contact Details:

Khadidja LATRECHE

Email: khadidja.latreche@univ-biskra.dz

Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of Foreign Languages

Section of English

I hereby ascertain that I have read, understood, and consent the researcher’s request. The research Miss Khadidja LATRECHE can undertake her research at any time with whatever group of learners she wants.

Name:

E-mail:

Phone number:

School:

District:

Date:

Signature:

Appendix 02: Participant Informed Consent Letter

Dear Second Grade Pupils,

I am undertaking a research project on the effect of inclusive education strategies on promoting middle school pupils' vocabulary repertoire. The process of gathering the necessitated data requires your participation. Henceforth, this consent letter is provided to help you decide if you would like to take part in my research. Surely, you have all the right either to participate or to withdraw at any time. Either way, bear in mind that your relationship with the teacher, staff workers, and the school will not be affected.

The chief purpose that this study strives to achieve is to prove the correlation between the implementation of inclusive education in the Algerian middle schools and the pupils' learning to the English language vocabulary. In this respect, data will be gathered through a pre-treatment questionnaire that attempts to find out your preferred learning styles. Afterwards, you will set for a vocabulary pre-test about things you have already done in the classroom. Then, and after a treatment of 12 sessions, you will set for a post-test. During the treatment phase, your interaction in the classroom will be observed, as well. At the end, you will be asked to fill in a post-treatment questionnaire. Please, do not hesitate to ask questions during the study. I will gladly answer all your questions and comments.

Your participation in this study is completely anonymous. Your names and identity will not be revealed or provided in any paper. Additionally, you will not be put at any discomfort when taking part in this research. In case this study is later submitted for publication, your participation will certainly be acknowledged.

Read the consent letter carefully and, if you are interested in being part of this research project, please write down your names provided with your signature in the table below.

Thank you in advance.

Researcher Contact Details:

Khadidja LATRECHE

Email: khadidja.latreche@univ-biskra.dz

Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages

Department of Foreign Languages

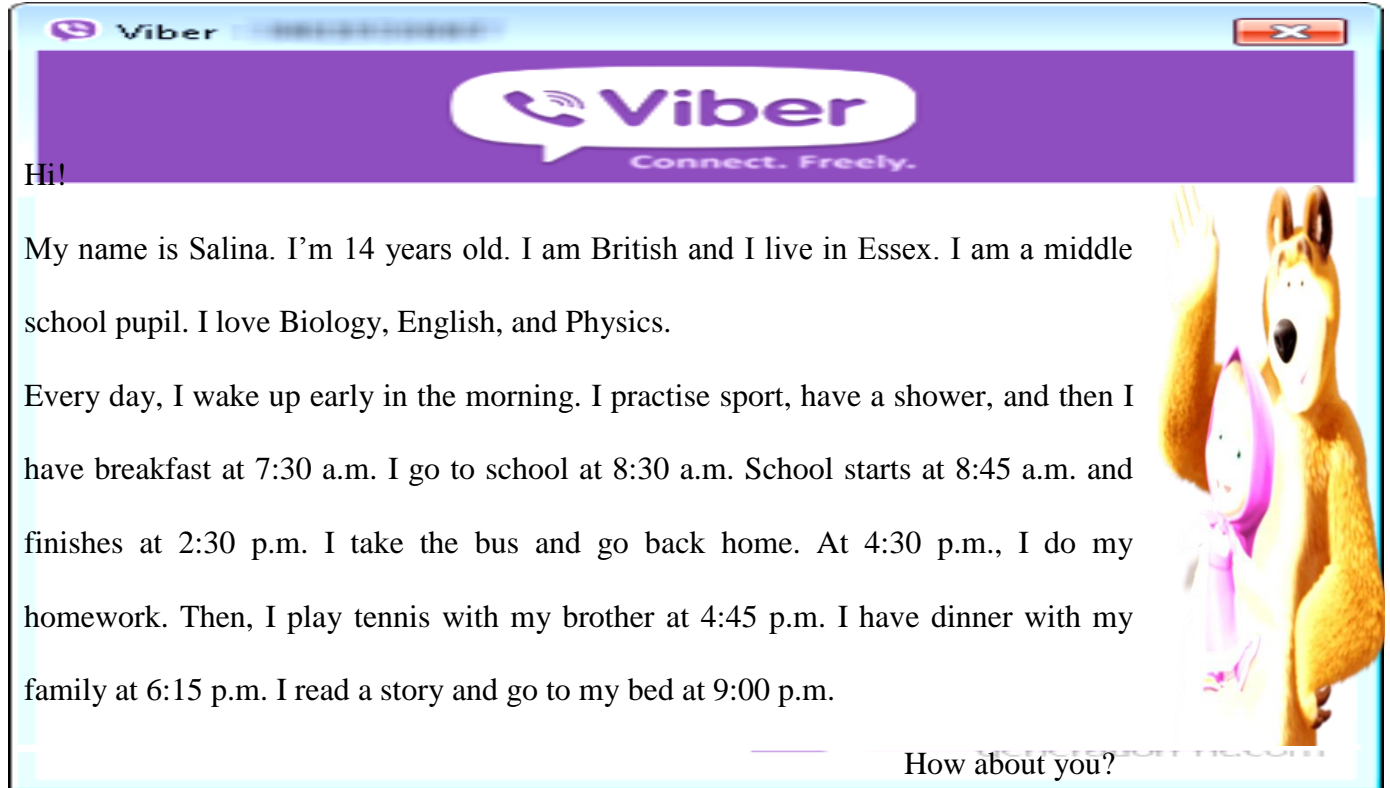
Section of English

Participant's full name	Class	Signature
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Appendix 03: The Pre-test (The Proficiency Test)

Implementing Inclusive Education in Mixed-Ability Classrooms to Meet Learners' Needs and Enhance

The text:



Part One (14 pts.)

A/ Reading Comprehension (07 pts.)

Task One: I read the text and fill in the table below: (03 pts.)

Daily Activities
.....
.....

Task Two: I read the text again and answer the following questions: (02 pts.)

1/ Where does Salina live?

.....

2/ At what time does she practise sport?

.....

Task Three: I find in the text words that are closest/opposite in meaning to: (02 pts.)

Ends =

Get up =

Late ≠

Afternoon ≠

B/ Mastery of Language (07 pts.)

Task One: I circle the correct answer: (03 pts.)

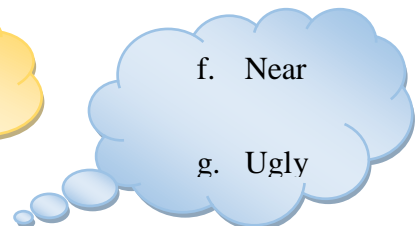
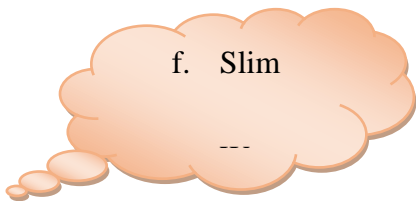
(On/ At) weekends, my father (wake ups/ wakes up) at 6:30 a.m. He (pray/ prays) and then he goes. (On/ In) the afternoon, dad and mum (wash/washes) the car, and clean the garden. (In/ At) night my father reads a book and goes to bed at 9:00 p.m.

Task Two: I turn the following sentences into the negative form: (02 pts.)

1. Amine goes to school by bus.
2. Marry is a nurse.

Task Three: Classify the words according to the pronunciation of their final “s”: (02 pts.)

Finishes _ looks _ helps _ prepares



Part Two: Situation of Integration (06 pts.)

I write a letter to respond to Salina’s viber message. I inform her about my daily activities

using the following hints:

- (To wake up) at 06:30 a.m.
- (To have) breakfast at 07:00 a.m.
- (To go) to school at 07:45.
- In the afternoon, (to do) homework and (to watch) TV at 5:00 p.m.
- (To go) to bed at 9:00 p.m.



6. Beautiful
 7. Far
 8. In front of
 9. Short
 10. easy

Best of Luck dear pupils 😊

Appendix 04: The PLSQ

Dear Pupils,

I kindly request you to fill in the following questionnaire about your preferred learning style exclusively in the English class. The Perceptual Learning-Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ), that was developed by Reid, 1984 is part of my PhD research project that seeks to investigate the implementation of Inclusive Education practices in EFL classrooms to meet learners' diverse needs in relation to their learning styles.

This questionnaire is completely anonymous; you do not have to mention your names. Of course, there is no wrong or right answer so try to provide truthful answers as this will contribute to the success of my research project.

Please, put (X) in the column that best describes your opinion just like the example below:

Strongly agree (SA)	Agree (A)	Undecided (U)	Disagree (D)	Strongly Disagree (SD)
X				

Thank you in advance for your cooperation

Miss LATRECHE Khadidja

PhD student

Faculty of Arts and Foreign Languages

Department of English, University of Biskra

Items	SA	A	U	D	SD
1. When the teacher tells me the instructions I understand better.					
2. I prefer to learn by doing something in class.					
3. I learn better by reading what the teacher writes on the chalkboard.					
4. When someone tells me how to do something in class, I learn it better.					
5. When I do things in class, I learn better.					
6. I remember things I have heard in class better than things I have read.					
7. When I read instructions, I remember them better.					
8. I learn more when I can make a model of something.					
9. I understand better when I read instructions.					
10. I learn more when I make something for a class project.					
11. I enjoy learning in class by doing experiments.					
12. I learn better when I make drawings as I study.					
13. I learn better in class when the teacher gives a lecture.					
14. I understand things better in class when I participate in role-playing.					
15. I learn better in class when I listen to someone.					
16. When I build something, I remember what I have learned better.					

17. I learn better by reading than by listening to someone.					
18. I enjoy making something for a class project.					
19. I learn best in class when I can participate in related activities.					
20. I learn more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.					

The Opinionnaire

1. Is there any encountered redundancy in the questionnaire?

Yes No

- If yes, please state it down.

.....

.....

2. Did you find any mistakes regarding spelling/grammar and language mechanics?

Yes No

- If yes, please notify them underneath.

.....

.....

3. Did you come across irrelevant questions that ought to be removed or reformulated?

Yes No

- If yes, please write down the number of the question (s).

.....

4. Do you think that the questions are significant for gathering the information we want?

Yes No

5. Are the questions of reasonable length?

Yes No

6. Are the questions clear and understandable?

Yes No

7. What can you add about the layout, content, and organisation of the questionnaire items?

Yes No

.....

.....

.....

Appendix 05: The Self-Scoring Sheet

VISUAL

6 - _____

10 - _____

12 - _____

24 - _____

29 - _____

Total _____ x 2 = _____(Score)

TACTILE

11 - _____

14 - _____

16 - _____

22 - _____

25 - _____

Total _____ x 2 = _____(Score)

AUDITORY

1 - _____

7 - _____

9 - _____

17 - _____

20 - _____

Total _____ x 2 = _____(Score)

KINESTHETIC

2 - _____

8 - _____

15 - _____

19 - _____

26 - _____

Total _____ x 2 = _____(Score)

Major Learning Style Preference 38-50

Minor Learning Style Preference 25-37

Negligible 0-24

Appendix 06: Lesson Plans Validation Form

I hereby ascertain that I have thoroughly read the lesson plans prepared by Miss Khadidja LATRECHE as a part of her Ph.D. research that is conducted at Biskra University. I have provided the researcher with remarks and comments with respect to the contents of the lesson plans.

Background Information on the Expert:

Full Name:

Present Occupation:

Degree:

Telephone Number:

Email Address:

Signature:

Date:

Researcher Contact Details:

Khadidja LATRECHE

Email: khadidja.latreche@univ-biskra.dz

Mohamed Kheider University of Biskra

Faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages





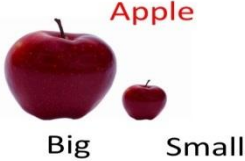
Department of Foreign Languages

Section of English

Appendix 07: The Lesson Plans

LESSON PLAN 01

Teacher: LATRECHE Khadidja	School: Ahmed Boussena	Level : MS2
Sequence 1: Me, my Friends and my Family	Lesson 01: I listen and do	Framework: PDP
LEARNING OBJECTIVES : <u>By the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to:</u> Describe their physical appearance.		
Competency (ies) targeted: <u>Interact / Interpret/ Produce</u>		
Domain: Oral / Written / <u>Both</u>		
Language tools (target structures): simple present (to be/ have got)		
Material (s): Flashcards- Lap-top - textbook - WB.		
Cross- curricular Competencies: Intel Comp: ✓ L can interpret and use verbal and non-verbal messages. Metho Comp: ✓ L can use listening strategies in interpreting messages. ✓ L can work in pairs and get involved in groups. Commu Comp: ✓ L can use role plays to communicate appropriately. Perso'n Social Comp: ✓ L can socialize through oral exchanges.		Core Values: ✓ Respecting differences. ✓ Openness to the world.

Time	Framework	Procedure	Focus	Learning Objectives
5 min	WARM-UP	 T. reviews the colours with Ls (colours song/pictures/realia).	T  Ls	● Refresh Ls' minds. ● Produce the target vocabulary.
10 min	PRE-LISTENING	 T. presents the new lexis related to "height, build, eyes, hairstyle" through flashcards:  		

15 min	POST-LISTENING	<p> Task: classify the following adj. on the chart below. <i>Green - straight - short - slim - brown - wavy - tall - black - long - fair - small - frizzy - fat - blue.</i></p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; text-align: center;"> <tr style="background-color: #4a7ebb; color: white;"> <th style="width: 25%;">Height</th> <th style="width: 25%;">Build</th> <th style="width: 25%;">Hairstyle</th> <th style="width: 25%;">Eyes</th> </tr> <tr style="background-color: #d9e1f2;"> <td> </td> <td> </td> <td> </td> <td> </td> </tr> </table> <p> Use the information above to describe yourself (Ls can express themselves through drawings as well). T. chooses the best production to be written on the WB. Song of physical appearance 😊</p>	Height	Build	Hairstyle	Eyes					<p>Ls</p> <p>Ls</p>
Height	Build	Hairstyle	Eyes								

What Worked?

.....

.....

What hindered?

.....

.....

Remarks

.....

.....

LESSON PLAN 02

Teacher: LATRECHE Khadidja	School: Ahmed Boussena	Level : MS2
Sequence 1: Me, my Friends and my Family	Lesson 02: I Practice	Framework: PPU

LEARNING OBJECTIVES : By the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to:
 Describe their relatives' physical appearance and name clothes.

Competency (ies) targeted: Interact / Interpret/ Produce











Domain: Oral / Written / **Both**

Language tools (target structures): simple present

Material (s): Flashcards- Lap-top - textbook - WB.

- Cross- curricular Competencies:**
- Intel Comp:**
- ✓ L can be able to interpret and use verbal and non-verbal messages.
- Metho Comp:**
- ✓ L can use listening strategies in interpreting messages.
 - ✓ L can work in pairs and get involved in groups.
- Commu Comp:**
- ✓ L can use role plays to communicate appropriately.
- Perso'n Social Comp:**
- ✓ L can socialize through oral exchanges.

- Core Values:**
- ✓ Respecting differences.
 - ✓ Valuing family.
 - ✓ Openness to the world.

Time	Framework	Procedure	Focus	Learning Objectives
5 min	WARM-UP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quick review of family members. Task 18 p 33. (introduce other members of the family) T. sticks a pic of a boy and asks Ls some questions: 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Refresh Ls' minds.
15 min	PRESENTATION	 <div style="border: 1px solid blue; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; margin: 10px 0;"> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What does he look like? (Ls describe eyes, hair, height, build, etc) ➤ What is he wearing? ➤ Is he wearing glasses? </div>	T ↓ Ls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Produce the target vocabulary.
10 min	PRACTICE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ls listen to the 2nd part of the phone conversation and do task 7 p 13. Ls listen again and check their answers in pairs or in groups. Task (adapted): classify the following pictures in the right column (other pics are on pp. 27-28 tasks 1 & 3) 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Reinforce learning the target vocabulary.
		<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; align-items: center;"> <div style="text-align: center;"> <p>blouse</p>  </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> </div> <div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; align-items: center; margin-top: 10px;"> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> <div style="text-align: center;">  </div> </div>	T ↓ Ls	
		<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around; border-bottom: 1px solid blue; padding-bottom: 5px;"> Boy's Clothes Girl's clothes </div> <div style="background-color: #e0e0e0; height: 40px; width: 100%; margin-top: 5px;"></div>		
15 min	USE	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Task 9 p. 13 Task (adapted): T. asks Ls to draw their family tree with all members and relatives. Ls choose one family member to describe (build, height, 	T ↓ Ls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Consolidation.

	hairstyle, eyes, mouth, nose, face, clothes, etc.) 📌 When finished, T asks Ls to share their productions and correct each other's mistakes. 📌 T chooses the best descriptive paragraph and writes it on the WB.		
--	---	--	--

What Worked?	What hindered?	Remarks
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LESSON PLAN 03

Teacher: LATRECHE Khadidja	School: Ahmed Bousena	Level : MS2
Sequence 1: Me, my Friends and my Family	Lesson 03: I listen and do	Framework: PDP

LEARNING OBJECTIVES : By the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to:
 Describe one's house and the furniture of each room.










Competency (ies) targeted: Interact / Interpret/ Produce

Domain: Oral / Written / **Both**

Language tools (target structures): simple present / silent letter "h"

Material (s): Flashcards - textbook - WB.

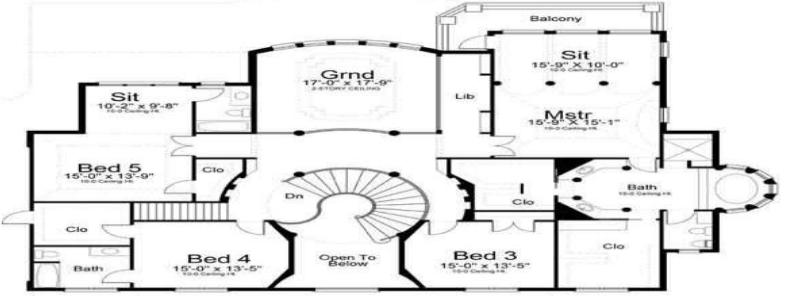
<p>Cross- curricular Competencies:</p> <p>Intel Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can be able to interpret and use verbal and non-verbal messages. <p>Metho Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can use listening strategies in interpreting messages. ✓ L can work in pairs and get involved in groups. <p>Commu Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can use role plays to communicate appropriately. <p>Perso'n Social Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can socialize through oral exchanges. 	<p>Core Values:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Respecting differences. ✓ Openness to the world. ✓ Valuing one's place of living.
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Time	Frame work	Procedure	Focus	Learning Objectives
5 mn	WARM-UP	<p> Quick review about the previous lesson.</p> <p> T. pins a pic of a house and asks Ls the following Qs:</p>	T	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Refresh Ls' minds.
10 min	PRE-LISTENING	<p></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ What is this? ➤ Is it big or small? Is it nice or horrible? ➤ What can you find in it? 	T ↓ Ls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Produce the target vocabulary.
20 min	DURING LISTENING	<p> Ls listen to the dialogue between Samir and his brother and do task 19 p 17.</p> <p> Ls listen to another dialogue and do task 21 p 18.</p> <p><u>I pronounce: silent letter "h"</u></p> <p> The T writes the following paragraph on the WB and asks Ls to sort out all words with the letter "h" and find out the silent ones: (Ls are provided with the paragraph written in small worksheets)</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; text-align: center;"> <p>My neighbour is a mechanic. He is an honest person. He usually wears a white coverall. In his free time, he goes to his father's field of wheat and spends some hours there. His favourite animal is the blue whale.</p> </div>	T ↓ Ls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Listening for a purpose.
10 min	POST-LISTENING	<p> The T highlights the rule of the silent "h".</p> <p> Task 6 p 2</p> <p> Task: Sara is your new friend. She wants you to tell her about the place where you live. In a short paragraph describe your house.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ You may start like this: <div style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px;"> <p>Hello Sara. I am glad to hear from you. Let me tell you a little bit about my house. My house is located in ... It is (big/ small, spacious "large", lovely, apartment/ house) with ... (number) bedrooms,</p> </div>	Ls ↓ Ls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Reinforce and consolidate the new vocabulary.

<p>What Worked?</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>	<p>What hindered?</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>	<p>Remarks</p> <p>.....</p> <p>.....</p>
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LESSON PLAN 04

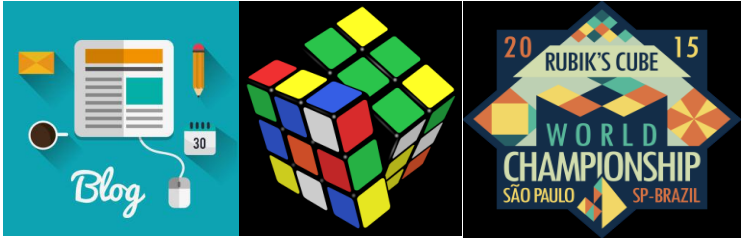
Teacher: LATRECHE Khadidja	School: Ahmed Bousena	Level : MS2
Sequence 1: Me, my Friends and my Family	Lesson 04: I listen and do	Framework: PDP/ PIASP
LEARNING OBJECTIVES : <u>By the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to:</u>		
Locate rooms and places in the house.		
Competency (ies) targeted: <u>Interact / Interpret/ Produce</u>		
Domain: Oral / Written / <u>Both</u>		
Language tools (target structures): simple present / prepositions / possessive pronouns		
Material (s): Flashcards - textbook - WB.		
<p>Cross- curricular Competencies:</p> <p>Intel Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can be able to interpret and use verbal and non-verbal messages. <p>Metho Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can use listening strategies in interpreting messages. ✓ L can work in pairs and get involved in groups. <p>Commu Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can use role plays to communicate appropriately. <p>Perso'n Social Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can socialize through oral exchanges. 		<p>Core Values:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Respecting differences. ✓ Openness to the world. ✓ Valuing one's place of living.

Time	Framework	Procedure	Focus	Learning Objectives
5 min	WARM-UP	<p>📖 Quick review about the previous lesson.</p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Refresh Ls' minds.
10 min	PRE-LISTENING	<p>📖 T. pins a pic of a house plan and explains the new lexis: (cottage – storeys – flat – stairs – downstairs – upstairs – the first floor – the ground floor) and how to use prepositions (next to – between – opposite – on the left – on the right) to describe rooms in the plan.</p>	T ↓ Ls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Produce the target vocabulary.
10 min	DURING LISTENING	 <p>📖 Ls do Task 23 p. 19.</p> <p>📖 Ls do Task 25 p 19.</p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Listening for a purpose.
20 min	POST-LISTENING	<p><u>PIASP: Possessive Pronouns</u></p> <p>📖 The T writes the following dialogue (part of the listening scripts) on the WB:</p> <div style="border: 1px solid black; border-radius: 15px; padding: 10px; margin: 10px 0;"> <p>Razane: Which one is (your) bedroom, Liz?</p> <p>Liz: It's the one with two balconies. The one next to (mine) is Mike's, my elder brother.</p> </div> <p>📖 The T. makes a short revision of the "possessive adjectives" and then introduces the "possessive pronouns".</p> <p>✓ This is my room, not your room. (Possessive adjectives).</p>	T ↓ Ls	

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ This is mine, not yours. (Possessive pronouns). <p> The T. highlights the rule of the possessive pronouns.</p> <p> Task: I complete with the right poss. Pron.:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ It is my parent's room. It is ... (theirs). ✓ This is our house. This is ... (ours). ✓ It is my T-shirt. It is ... (mine). ✓ This is Sara's bed. This is ... (hers). <p>Task: T. asks Ls. Tow draw their house's plan and locate the rooms.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ The Ls read their works in front of their classmates. ✓ They may correct their mistakes and choose the best one to be written. ✓ The T. invites the Ls to copy down in their copybooks. 	<p>Ls</p>  <p>Ls</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Reinforce and consolidate the new vocabulary. ● Check Ls' understanding.
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LESSON PLAN 05

Teacher: LATRECHE Khadidja	School: Ahmed Boussena	Level : MS2
Sequence 1: Me, my Friends and my Family	Lesson 05: I read and do	Framework: PDP
LEARNING OBJECTIVES : <u>By the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to:</u>		
Interpret a written message that tackles people's decription.		
Competency (ies) targeted: <u>Interact / Interpret/ Produce</u>		
Domain: Oral / Written / Both		
Language tools (target structures): simple present		
Material (s): Flashcards - textbook - WB.		
<p>Cross- curricular Competencies:</p> <p>Intel Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can be able to interpret and use verbal and non-verbal messages. <p>Metho Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can use listening strategies in interpreting messages. ✓ L can work in pairs and get involved in groups. <p>Commu Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can describe and use information and communication technologies to communicate appropriately. <p>Perso'n Social Comp:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ L can socialize through oral exchanges. 	<p>Core Values:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Respecting differences. ✓ Openness to the world. ✓ Valuing time, talents, and encouraging sports. 	

Time	Framework	Procedure	Focus	Learning Objectives
5 min	WARM-UP	<p>Find someone who.</p>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Refresh Ls' minds.
15 min	PRE-READING	<p>The T. writes the keywords on the WB and tries to explain them by showing pictures or using them in context. The keywords are (Blog - Magic Cube "Rubik's Cube" - Championship).</p>	<p>T ↓ Ls</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Produce the target vocabulary.
				
		<p>The T. may ask the following questions about the cube and asks the Ls to guess the topic of the lesson.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Who likes playing with the Magic Cube? ✓ How many faces are there in it? 6 or 9? ✓ Who invented this wonderful game? <p>NB: (Rubik's Cube is a 3-D combination puzzle invented in 1974 by Hungarian sculptor and professor of architecture Ernő Rubik).</p>	<p>T ↓ Ls</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Promote Ls critical thinking.
10 min	DURING READING	<p>The T. invites the learners to read the text "Me and My Magic Cube" (page 37) and do (Task 1, 2, 4, 6 page 37 – 38). They may work in pairs.</p>	<p>Ls</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Using reading technics like scanning and skimming for getting details.
15 min	POST-READING	<p>Task: Find in the text words that are closest in meaning to:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Hi = ... (Hello) ✓ speak = ... (talk) ✓ thin = ... (slim) ✓ grandfather and grandmother = ... (grandparents) ✓ like = ... (love) ✓ everyone = ... (everybody) ✓ a lot of = ... (many) ✓ black = ... (dark) <p>Task: Find in the text words that opposite in the meaning to the following:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ last ≠ ... (first) ✓ fat ≠ ... (slim) ✓ small ≠ ... (tall) ✓ move ≠ ... (live) 	<p>Ls</p>	

		<p>Task: Read the text again and complete the missing words:</p> <p>Mohamed (Islam) Bouhafs is (12) years old. He is from (Batna). His father is a (journalist) and his mother is a (teacher). He has got (one)</p>	<p>Ls ↓ Ls</p>	<p>● Consolidation.</p>
--	--	--	------------------------	-------------------------

What Worked?

.....

.....

What hindered?

.....

.....

Remarks

.....

.....

LESSON PLAN 06

Teacher: LATRECHE Khadidja	School: Ahmed Boussena	Level : MS2
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Sequence 1: Me, my Friends and my Family	Lesson 06: I learn to integrate	Framework: PDP
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LEARNING OBJECTIVES : By the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to:
 Write about their profiles.

Competency (ies) targeted: Interact / Interpret/ Produce

Domain: Oral / Written / Both

Language tools (target structures): simple present

Material (s): Flashcards - textbook - WB.

- Cross- curricular Competencies:**
- Intel Comp:**
- ✓ L can show autonomy and creativity in writing.
- Metho Comp:**
- ✓ L can use listening strategies in interpreting messages.
 - ✓ L can work in pairs and get involved in groups.
- Commu Comp:**
- ✓ L can describe and use information and communication technologies to communicate appropriately.
- Perso'n Social Comp:**
- ✓ L can socialize through oral exchanges.

- Core Values:**
- ✓ Being positive and respectfultowards oneself/other people.
 - ✓ Openness to the world.
 - ✓ Valuing time, talents, and encouraging sports.

Time	Framework	Procedure	Focus	Learning Objectives
5 min	WARM-UP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Find someone who. 	T	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Refresh Ls' minds.
10 min	PRE-WRITING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The T. asks Ls about what they usually do at weekends (Ls may talk about daily/leisure activities, sports, etc.) The T. introduces the word "competition" and asks the Ls if they have ever participated in a competition before. 	T	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Ls can use their prior knowledge.
20 min	DURING WRITING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The T. sets up the situation on p. 39 and helps Ls remember what they have seen so far in sequence 1 through completing the KSA table on p 39. T. splits the Ls into groups in order to start the drafting stage. Based on the layout and profile form on p 40, Ls write the profile about one member of the group. During the drafting and the editing stages, the T. helps Ls through guiding them and correcting their mistakes (spelling, grammar, styles, etc.) 	Ls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Prepare the Ls for the writing phase.
10 min	POST-WRITING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ls read their productions. The T. selects the best profile to be written and corrected on the WB. Ls copy down the profile on their copybooks. 	Ls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Counseling and guiding the Ls.

What Worked?

.....

.....

What hindered?

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.....

Remarks

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LESSON PLAN 07

Teacher: LATRECHE Khadidja	School: Ahmed Boussena	Level : MS2
Sequence 1: Me, my Friends and my Family	Lesson 07: I think and write	Framework: PDP
LEARNING OBJECTIVES : <u>By the end of the lesson, the learners will be able to:</u> Write an e-mail in which they give a detailed description of their houses.		
Competency (ies) targeted: <u>Interact / Interpret/ Produce</u>		
Domain: Oral / Written / <u>Both</u>		
Language tools (target structures): simple present / markers of location		
Material (s): Flashcards - textbook - WB.		
Cross- curricular Competencies: Intel Comp: ✓ L can show autonomy and creativity in writing. Metho Comp: ✓ Ls can mobilize their resources to produce a written message. Commu Comp: ✓ L can describe and use information and communication technologies to communicate appropriately. Perso'n Social Comp: ✓ L can socialize through oral exchanges.		Core Values: ✓ Valuing the place where they live. ✓ Being polite and proud of belonging to a family. ✓ Openness to the world.

Time	Framework	Procedure	Focus	Learning Objectives
5 min	WARM-UP	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Quick review about the lesson of "house". 	T Ls	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Refresh Ls' minds. ● Pave the way for the next stage.
10 min	PRE-WRITING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Task 1 p. 41: Ls, with the help of the T, answer the key questions. The T. introduces the situation on p. 41. 		
20 min	DURING WRITING	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> The T. asks Ls to work individually on their e-mails relying on what they have already seen in previous lessons. Ls start first drafting their emails and then they 		

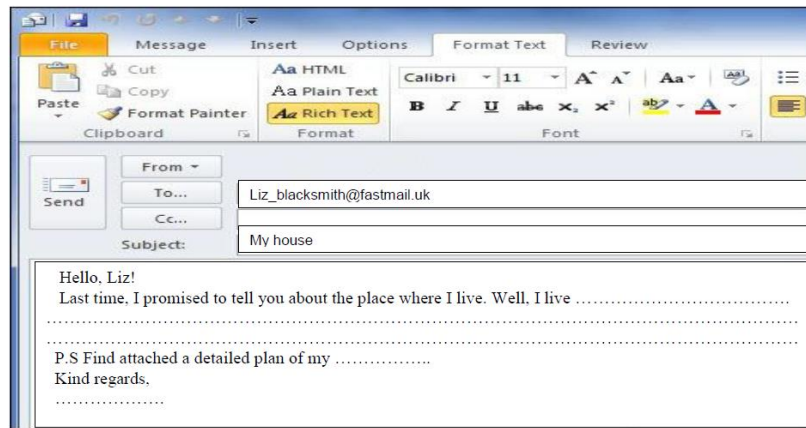
10
min

**POST-
WRITING**

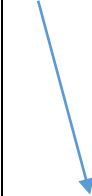
edit them and draw the plans of their houses.

- 👤 Ls read their productions.
- 👤 The T. selects the best profile to be written and corrected on the WB.
- 👤 Ls copy down the profile on their copybooks.

The e-mail:



Ls



Ls

Appendix 08: The Inclusive Classroom Observation Checklist

Teacher: **Lesson:** **Date:**

Statements	Yes	No
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The Teacher

1. The teacher announces the objective of the lesson right from the outset.
2. The objective of the lesson aligns with the lesson content.
3. Uses multiple ways to present and differentiate the lesson content (lecture, group work, pair work, individual work, etc.).
4. Lessons are differentiated in accordance to the VAKT learning style preferences.
5. The teacher does her best to accommodate the learning needs of all pupils.
6. The teacher is at the center of the classroom facing all pupils.
7. The teacher provides the pupils with constructive feedback and positive reinforcements.
8. The teacher checks on the pupils’ understanding by asking questions.

The Pupils

9. Pupils are treated equally albeit their differences.
 10. Pupils are autonomous, fully engaged in the learning process, and involved in making lesson-related decisions.
 11. Pupils demonstrate their information and communicate their knowledge in various ways.
 12. All responses are appreciated and valued.
 13. Pupils participate without being afraid or ashamed to make mistakes.
 14. Pupils are assessed at the end of every lesson to check whether or not the learning objectives are met.
-

The Teaching Materials

15. Different multi-sensory (tangible, visual, auditory, etc.) teaching materials and instructions are frequently used.
16. The teacher prepares power-point presentations, flashcards, worksheets, pictures, etc. to help the pupils better understand the new lexis and the lessons as a whole.
17. The teacher uses different ICTs that go hand in hand with the pupils' learning styles.
18. The objectives of the assigned tasks along with the allotted time are always made clear at the beginning.
19. Tasks progression commences from the easiest to the most difficult.
20. Tasks that help the pupils make connection between what they learn in the classroom and real-life situations are frequently used to improve their social and problem-solving skills.
21. Project-based learning is used to trigger pupils' critical thinking and cooperative work.

The Classroom Environment

22. The classroom is pupil centered.
 23. Flexible setting arrangements that help achieve the intended outcomes.
 24. The classroom physical surrounding is used to prompt learners' social interaction.
 25. The learning environment is safe, effective, and supportive for all cultures.
-

Appendix 09: The Post-Test

Dear pupils,

This test is part of a research project that aims at investigating the effect of inclusive-driven classes on expanding middle school learners' lexical items. Read the instructions carefully and answer the following questions. Do not hesitate to ask any question if you did not get any instruction. Please, do not answer if you do not know the answer.

Thank you for your cooperation

I. I tick (✓) the word that is closest in meaning to the word in bold:

1. **Skinny** means ...

d- Very fat

e- Very slim

f- Well-built

2. The lady standing over there is really **elegant**.

d- Classy

e- Ugly

f- Unfriendly

3. Inside the school there are two **storeys**.

d- Classrooms

e- Floors

f- Labs

4. The bus station is **close to** the post office.

d- Near

e- Between

f- In front of

5. I study at a **spacious** school.

d- Huge

e- Small

f- Big

II. I match the words with their synonyms

11. Beautiful

12. Different

13. Thin

14. Love

15. Put on

k. Slim

l. Wear

m. Like

n. Various

o. Pretty



Fill in the gaps with the write word:

“family – straight – tall – slanted - siblings”

I am Lauren. I am a girl. I have ahair and eyes. I live in a large with my parents and



I match the words with their antonyms/opposites.

- 11. Beautiful
- 12. Far
- 13. In front of
- 14. Short
- 15. easy

- k. Near
- l. Ugly
- m. Tall
- n. At the back of
- o. Difficult

III. I name the following clothing items.

“hat, sweater, suit, sandals, belt”



.....

IV. Match the following words with their equivalent translation in Arabic:

- 6. At the back of
- 7. Comfortable
- 8. Location
- 9. Charming
- 10. Ceiling

- جذابة
- سقف
- موقع
- وراء
- مريح

 **Translate the following words in Arabic:**

6. مختبر العلوم
7. نحيف
8. قاعة الاساتذة
9. بريد الكتروني
10. المدير

 **Put the following words in clear meaningful sentences**

Handsome – send – spacious – relatives – opposite to

-
-
-
-
-

Good Luck, dear learners 😊

Appendix 10: The Post-Treatment Pupils' Questionnaire

Dear pupils,

You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire whose chief aim is to determine your attitudes towards the implementation of inclusive education in respect to your learning styles. Your answers will enlighten us with an in-depth understanding of how far has inclusive education affected your learning of the English language vocabulary. Your answers are of significant importance for the reliability of the research we are undertaking. Henceforth, we hope that you will provide honest answers.

Please, read every question carefully then tick (✓) the appropriate box (es) and/or complete sentences where necessary. Whenever you face ambiguity please do not hesitate to ask for help.

May I thank you in advance for your time and cooperation

Miss LATRECHE Khadidja

PhD student

Faculty of Arts and Foreign Languages

Department of English, University of Biskra

Section One: Lesson Presentation

1. An inclusive classroom is the one where all pupils’ needs and learning difficulties are considered and appreciated. Do you think that the teacher succeeded in making your classroom inclusive?

Yes No

- Whatever your answer, please explain.

.....

2. When the teacher differentiates instruction, do you feel that the classroom tasks meet your preferred learning style?

Yes No

3. Inclusive education helps diminishing pupils’ learning difficulties.

Yes No

4. Did inclusive education help in learning the English language (vocabulary in particular)?

Yes No

- Please explain how?

.....

Section Two: Learners’ Attitude towards Inclusive Education

1. In what ways did inclusive education boost your learning of the English language vocabulary?

.....

.....

.....

2. How do you perceive the use of inclusive education?

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3. Do you think that inclusive education is useful in the teaching of the English vocabulary?

Yes No

Please justify your answer.

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.....

Section Three: Challenges and Further Suggestions

1. What are the impediments you have encountered during the sessions?

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.....

.....

2. If you have any further suggestions in respect to the better implementation of inclusive education to enhance middle school pupils learning of the English language vocabulary, please notify them underneath.

.....

.....

.....

The Opinionnaire

8. Is there any encountered redundancy in the questionnaire?

Yes No

- If yes, please state it down.

.....

.....

9. Did you find any mistakes regarding spelling/grammar and language mechanics?

Yes No

- If yes, please notify them underneath.

.....

.....

10. Did you come across irrelevant questions that ought to be removed or reformulated?

Yes No

- If yes, please write down the number of the question (s).

.....

11. Do you think that the questions are significant for gathering the information we want?

Yes No

12. Are the questions of reasonable length?

Yes No

13. Are the questions clear and understandable?

Yes No

14. What can you add about the layout, content, and organisation of the questionnaire items?

Yes No

.....

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.....

ملخص الدراسة

الأساس المنطقي لهذه الدراسة ذو شقين. أولاً، يبدأ التلاميذ الجزائريون في دراسة اللغة الإنجليزية في المدرسة المتوسطة حيث من المفترض أن يتعلموا أكبر قدر ممكن من المفردات. مساعدتهم في القيام بذلك من شأنه أن يعزز أدائهم في الفصل الإنجليزي. ثانياً، لم يتم التحقيق في مجال التعليم الشامل إلى حد كبير في المؤسسات التعليمية الجزائرية. يهدف هذا البحث من الآن فصاعداً إلى التحقيق في فعالية التعليم الشامل في تلبية احتياجات تلاميذ المدارس المتوسطة الجزائرية. ولهذا فإن هذا البحث يهدف لاستكشاف مدى فعالية التعليم المتباين التي يمكن أن تعزز تعلم التلاميذ للمفردات الإنجليزية في المدارس المتوسطة. من الناحية المنهجية، اعتمدت هذه الدراسة على منهج المقارنة المختلطة الذي تضمن دراسة حالة و شبه تجربة. وفقاً لذلك، تم استخدام ثلاث أدوات بحثية لجمع البيانات اللازمة: الاستبيانات و الاختبارات و الملاحظة. لإجراء هذه الدراسة، تم اختيار عينة مكونة من 44 تلميذاً في السنة الثانية متوسط من مجموعة تلاميذ المدارس الإعدادية في مقاطعة ميله. و في الأخير، دعمت النتائج التي تم الحصول عليها فرضيات البحث و اوضحت مدى فعالية التعليم الشامل في تعزيز اكتساب التلاميذ لمفردات اللغة الإنجليزية كما تم قياسها ومراجعتها من خلال الاختبارات واستبيان التلاميذ. وبالتالي، تقترح الدراسة الحالية تنفيذ التعليم الشامل في المدارس الجزائرية كمحاولة لتلبية احتياجات التلاميذ وتحسين أدائهم. كما يدعو إلى دمج التعليم الشامل في تدريب المعلمين قبل و اثناء الخدمة كمحفز لتلبية احتياجات التلاميذ و تحقيق المساواة في المدارس الجزائرية و اقسام اللغة الإنجليزية.

الكلمات الرئيسية: التعليم المتميز، التعليم الشامل، احتياجات المتعلمين، أساليب التعلم، تعليم/التعلم المفردات