Hassan Belhiah · Ikbal Zeddari ·
Nourddine Amrous · Jamal Bahmad ·
Nourdin Bejjit *Editors*

English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education

Springer

English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education

Hassan Belhiah · Ikbal Zeddari ·
Nourddine Amrous · Jamal Bahmad ·
Nourdin Bejjit
Editors

English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education

Editors
Hassan Belhiah
Mohammed V University in Rabat
Rabat, Morocco

Nourddine Amrous
Mohammed V University in Rabat
Rabat, Morocco

Nourdin Bejjit
Mohammed V University in Rabat
Rabat, Morocco

Ikbal Zeddari
Mohammed V University in Rabat
Rabat, Morocco

Jamal Bahmad
Mohammed V University in Rabat
Rabat, Morocco

ISBN 978-981-15-3804-9 ISBN 978-981-15-3805-6 (eBook)
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020
This work is subject to copyright. All rights are reserved by the Publisher, whether the whole or part of the material is concerned, specifically the rights of translation, reprinting, reuse of illustrations, recitation, broadcasting, reproduction on microfilms or in any other physical way, and transmission or information storage and retrieval, electronic adaptation, computer software, or by similar or dissimilar methodology now known or hereafter developed.
The use of general descriptive names, registered names, trademarks, service marks, etc. in this publication does not imply, even in the absence of a specific statement, that such names are exempt from the relevant protective laws and regulations and therefore free for general use.
The publisher, the authors and the editors are safe to assume that the advice and information in this book are believed to be true and accurate at the date of publication. Neither the publisher nor the authors or the editors give a warranty, expressed or implied, with respect to the material contained herein or for any errors or omissions that may have been made. The publisher remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

This Springer imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd.
The registered company address is: 152 Beach Road, #21-01/04 Gateway East, Singapore 189721, Singapore

Foreword

Why teach English in Moroccan universities? First, there was the need for teachers of English in Moroccan schools, and then came the demand for English in the new universities in the 80s and 90s. The more recent perspectives are concerned with the global character of English as a lingua franca of world affairs and with the place of English in the educational system as a medium of instruction beside, or instead of, Arabic and French.

Social and political motivation in the country also kept changing. British and American cultures and their important place in world affairs piqued curiosity and raised interest. Stories, tales, and legends about the English from the "distant" Tangiers international enclave entered popular urban lore. American GIs landing in Casablanca in the early 1940s and the fruitful "business" transactions with military personnel during the Second World War years brought English closer to daily reality mostly in areas where American bases were established. Social attitudes were generally positive, and English had friendly connotations; it was not the language of the colonizers. The 1960s and 1970s saw the baby boom generations coming of age and eyes turning to European music and cinema with American and English stars gaining more and more fans among the youth. American cultural influence became so preponderant in Europe that France started calling for a "cultural exception" which they ended up introducing as a concept in the 1993 GATT treaties. In Morocco, the popularity of US music and movies kept increasing, demonstrating clearly why the French and other Europeans needed *l'exception culturelle.*

Nowadays, the program of such major cultural events as the annual *Mawazine* in the capital city of Rabat leaves no room for doubt as to the place of US musical genres in the country. The World Wide Web and social media have now made English more vital for access to information and to well sought cultural products, and they brought them closer to a much wider section of the population in urban and rural areas. As a result, calls for using English as a medium of instruction in schools and in universities seem quite natural and surprise no one. Young people's attitude toward the switch from French to English is generally positive as their proficiency in English is getting better and better. 90% of the candidates for

admission to Al Akhawayn University in Ifrane (the first English medium university in the country) needed preparation at the Language Center in 1990s; nowadays, less than 50% need EFL preparation before they start their academic program, all in English.

The present volume comes at the right time to shed light on the situation of English in higher education. Oddly enough, little research has dealt with the evolution and development of English in Morocco. A few publications, dissertations, and theses have chosen to deal with multilingualism and attitudes toward languages, including English, with the process of Arabization and its challenges, and with students' language attitudes and motivation. The chapters of this book all start from English as the main focus, relating their study to the English department as an institutional unit, to student motivation, to pedagogy and effective instruction and learning, to challenges to good practices, and to employability of students of English. In our messy multilingual environment, what is implicit in the discussions is the competition for linguistic capital and the symbolic power that goes with it.

Looking forward, we should be considering new approaches to teaching English that would benefit from the global power, symbolic and other, that comes to us with English. Moroccan teachers of English, as a professional body, have produced excellent results. We should keep up the good work by enabling our students to attain enough English language mastery, in fluency and accuracy. We should also make sure that the same students take away with them knowledge, preferably taught in English, that all modern citizens need to have. They should learn about their country and their identity, and their place in the world. They should also take away with them the bases for a professional career in business, in law, in the social sciences, in the arts, in the physical sciences, or in whatever discipline or domain that could get them started as active citizens. This should also open the way for them to pursue the same interests at a higher level of study to gain mastery and expertise. Nascent ideas for a reform of English studies seem to be going in that direction. Let us keep an eye out for any such developments and reserve a volume like this one to describe and evaluate.

Ifrane, Morocco Mohammed Dahbi
June 2019

Mohammed Dahbi is an educator with a long career in teaching and scholarship and with a long experience in higher educational management. He holds a Ph.D. in Linguistics from Georgetown University (1984). His academic expertise is in language, linguistics, and literacy with special research focus in educational linguistics, sociolinguistics, and discourse analysis. He taught high school in England and in Morocco, and spent the earlier part of his career teaching at Mohammed V University in Rabat, Morocco. He was involved in teacher training and in many educational policy reform efforts within the Faculty of Letters and at the university level. He participated as a consultant in the design of Al Akhawayn University and was appointed as the first dean of Humanities and Social Sciences (1994). He also

directed the Center for Academic Development and the Social Science Research Institute and served as the Chief Academic Officer (Provost) of Al Akhawayn University. This long career has helped him develop expertise in research design, project management, and human resource management, and gave him access to an extensive professional network in Morocco and internationally.

Contents

1 English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education 1
Hassan Belhiah, Nourdin Bejjit, Jamal Bahmad, Ikbal Zeddari and Nourddine Amrous

Part I English: Evolution and Spread

2 The Making of an English Department (1975–1982): A Personal Account 13
Hassan Mekouar

3 English as a Global Language in Morocco: A Qualitative Study of Students' Motivations for Studying English 33
Hassan Belhiah

4 The Evolution of the LMD Reform: The Case of the Department of English at Mohammed V University in Rabat 49
Yamina El Kirat El Allame and Youssef Laaraj

Part II Motivation Towards English

5 English as an Alternative Cultural Capital for University EFL Students in Morocco 65
Adil Azhar

6 University Teachers' Perspectives on Adopting EMI in Morocco 83
Youssef Nadri and Malika Haoucha

7 L2 Motivational Self and English Department Students' Intended Effort 95
Nourddine Amrous

8 Motivations, Attitudes, and Introspections of Moroccan Undergraduate Students Towards Major Selection 109
Abdellatif Bouhlal

Part III Teaching Practices

9 Beliefs on English Language Teaching Effectiveness in Moroccan Higher Education 123
Amina Ichebah

10 Teaching Translation to Moroccan University Students: Challenges and Perspectives 143
Abderrazak Gharafi

11 Final Year Research Supervision in the English Department: Attributes, Challenges, and Supervisory Practices 161
Ikbal Zeddari

Part IV Curricular Innovations

12 A Citizenship Approach to Learning and Engagement in Moroccan Higher Education 185
Said Zaidoune

13 Teaching and Learning English Through Digitized Curricula: Challenges and Prospects 201
Mohamed Dellal

Part V Challenges and Future Prospects

14 Challenges to the Mission of the English Department in Morocco 213
Hssein Khtou

15 Scientific Research and Human National Development in Moroccan Universities: Toward the Implementation of a Glocalized Scientific Research Culture 223
Abdelghanie Ennam

16 The Challenges and Future of the English Department in Neoliberal Morocco 247
Jamal Bahmad

Editors and Contributors

About the Editors

Hassan Belhiah holds a Ph.D. (2005) and an MA (1998) in English from the University of Wisconsin in Madison. He is Associate Professor of English and Linguistics at Mohammed V University in Rabat. Previously, he held the positions of Chair of the Department of English Language and Literature at Mohammed V University in Rabat (2016–2018), Associate Professor of English and Education Studies at Alhosn University in Abu Dhabi, UAE (2009–2013), Assistant Professor at Al Akhawayn University in Morocco (2005–2009), and Lecturer/Teaching Assistant (1997–2005) at the University of Wisconsin in Madison. He has presented his research at conferences in the UK, Spain, Switzerland, Germany, Turkey, Morocco, UAE, and the US. His publications have appeared in Classroom Discourse (Taylor & Francis), Journal of Pragmatics (Elsevier), The Modern Language Journal (Wiley), Language Policy (Springer), and Applied Linguistics (Oxford University Press).

Ikbal Zeddari is Associate Professor and Chair of the English Department at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Mohammed V University in Rabat. He holds a doctorate in Applied Linguistics and TEFL. His main research interests lie in the area of second language acquisition. More particularly, he investigates lexico-semantic phenomena at the syntax-semantics interface. He is also interested in higher education pedagogy, with a focus on student experience and teaching methodology.

Nourddine Amrous is Associate Professor at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities at Mohammed V University in Rabat. He is holder of a doctorate degree in Education (2006). From 2007 to 2009, he worked as a Researcher at the Royal Institute of the Amazigh Culture, where he was mainly involved in textbook design and teacher training. In 2009, he assumed his teaching and research activities at the Department of English at the Faculty of Letters, where he continues to teach

various courses such as syntax, stylistics, composition, and spoken English. His main research interests include second language acquisition, language teaching, teacher training and theoretical linguistics, mainly phonology and syntax. He has supervised a number of Master's and Doctoral theses.

Jamal Bahmad is Assistant Professor of Literature and Cultural Studies in the Department of English at Mohammed V University in Rabat. He earned his Ph.D. degree from the University of Stirling (UK, 2014) with a dissertation on contemporary Moroccan urban cinema. He has held a British Academy Postdoctoral Fellowship at the University of Leeds and, prior to that, was a Research Fellow at Philipps-Universität Marburg (Germany). He was most recently a Research Fellow at the University of Exeter on the AHRC-funded project: "Transnational Moroccan Cinema." He specializes and has published widely in the field of North African cultural studies with a focus on cinema, cities, literature, memory, and youth cultures. He recently co-edited a special issue of French Cultural Studies (SAGE, August 2017) on trash cultures in the Francophone world. He is also the Co-Editor of a special issue of The Moroccan Cultural Studies Journal on Moroccan cinema (November 2017). In addition to working on his first monograph on Moroccan cinema and globalization, he has recently finished a book (co-authored with Will Higbee and Florence Martin) on Moroccan transnational cinema to be published by Edinburgh University Press in 2020.

Nourdin Bejjit is Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Letters, Mohammed V University in Rabat, Morocco, where he teaches courses on print culture, British culture and history, and Third World literatures. He earned a Ph.D. (2009) in Colonial and Postcolonial Book History from the Open University and previously received his MA (2004) in National and International Literatures in English from the Institute of English Studies, University of London. His research interests include book history, postcolonial literature, and travel writing.

Contributors

Nourddine Amrous Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Adil Azhar Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Jamal Bahmad Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Nourdin Bejjit Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Hassan Belhiah Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Abdellatif Bouhlal Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Mohamed Dellal Mohamed I University, Oujda, Morocco

Yamina El Kirat El Allame Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Abdelghanie Ennam Ibn Tofail University, Kenitra, Morocco

Abderrazak Gharafi Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Malika Haoucha Hassan II University, Casablanca, Morocco

Amina Ichebah Faculty of Education, Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Hssein Khtou Dar El Hadith El Hassania Institution, Rabat, Morocco

Youssef Laaraj Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Hassan Mekouar Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Youssef Nadri Hassan II University, Casablanca, Morocco

Said Zaidoune Faculty of Arts and Humanities Benmsik, University Hassan II, Casablanca, Morocco

Ikbal Zeddari Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco

Chapter 1
English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education

Hassan Belhiah, Nourdin Bejjit, Jamal Bahmad, Ikbal Zeddari and Nourddine Amrous

Abstract This introductory chapter provides a survey of the history and current situation of English as a medium of instruction and research production in Moroccan higher education. It opens with a historical account of the diplomatic relations between Morocco and the English-speaking world. English made its entry into the Moroccan university in the 1960s, and its influence has grown apace especially in the era of globalization. The second part of the chapter outlines a series of challenges facing the departments of English in Moroccan higher education institutions. Finally, we preview the sixteen chapters in this volume, which consists of extensive and empirical studies by experienced Moroccan faculty members.

Keywords English in Morocco · Diplomacy · Moroccan university · Teacher training · Globalization

Morocco's first major documented encounter with the English-speaking world can be traced back to the thirteenth century, when King John of England (r. 1199–1216) solicited Sultan Mohamed Ennassir's (r. 1199–1213) support against France. Three centuries later, the diplomatic ties culminated in decrees issued by Sultan Abd al-Malik (r. 1575–1578) allowing English merchants to conduct their commercial activities with their Moroccan counterparts. The Moroccan victory over the Portuguese at the Battle of the Three Kings in August 1578 established the reputation of Morocco, induced European courts to solicit their friendship with the Saadis, and encouraged

H. Belhiah (✉) · N. Bejjit · J. Bahmad · I. Zeddari · N. Amrous
Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: hbelhiah@uwalumni.com

N. Bejjit
e-mail: nbejjit@yahoo.com

J. Bahmad
e-mail: jamalbahmad@gmail.com

I. Zeddari
e-mail: ikbal.zeddari@yahoo.com

N. Amrous
e-mail: amrous10@yahoo.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_1

Sultan Ahmed al-Mansur (r. 1578–1603) to restructure Moroccan ports and develop trade with England (Bovill, 1958). The Anglo-Moroccan relations were strengthened after the creation of the Barbary Company in London in 1585 and the exchange of envoys between Queen Elizabeth I and Sultan al-Mansur. The occupation of Tangier by the English (1661–1684) brought further awareness and contact between the Moroccans and the English. Though strained at times, diplomatic ties were never severed, and treaties that were consecutively signed over the next three centuries fostered much desired diplomatic, economic, and trade relations between Great Britain and Morocco. These details reveal the extent to which Moroccans' contact with the English people—and their language—is deeply rooted in history. British-Moroccan relations have always been vibrant and in a state of flux. In recent decades, cultural ties have been instrumental in strengthening the economic and political ones. The British Council office was first founded in Morocco in 1960 and now has centers in Rabat and Casablanca offering courses in English, information on educational opportunities in the UK, and organizes cultural events. In 2018, an education agreement was signed between the UK and Morocco to allow British schools to open in Morocco in the fall of 2019.

Across the Atlantic, Morocco's relations with the United States date back to the late eighteenth century when Sultan Sidi Muhammad Ben Abdullah signified his intention to establish diplomatic and economic ties with the United States. His overtures were part of a general policy to encourage trade with the Christian world. The Treaty of Peace and Friendship between the Kingdom of Morocco and the United States—the longest unbroken pact in the US diplomatic history and the first of its kind between the United States and an Arab, Muslim, or African state—was signed in Marrakech in 1786 and paved the ground for future military and economic relations. During World War II, Morocco was a zone for much interaction between Americans and Moroccans since the country was part of the North African Landing and Operation Torch. A decade later, US airbases were established in 1951 in the Moroccan towns of Nouasseur, Ben Guerir, Sidi Slimane, and Kenitra as part of the American military strategy to position its air force within striking distance of the Soviet Union. Morocco proved to be a strong ally in the fight against communism over the following decades.

Americans' presence seems to have had a strong effect on local populations and encouraged Moroccans to acquire good working knowledge of English. American cultural diplomacy dictated that Americans deploy every means to sustain their cultural influence in the country to combat the advance of communist ideologies that were on the rise in many newly independent countries and were perceived as a potentially menacing factor in international politics. This included exercising soft power through cultural and educational exchange opportunities, and appeasing sentiments of the Moroccan youth, who found in the American—and the liberal world at large—much of what they had been yearning for. Language and cultural institutions were founded in the country to maintain the cordial relationship between the two countries. American Language Centers were created in the late 1950s and multiplied to 11 centers; the Peace Corps organization started its volunteering work in early 1960s;

Amideast opened its branch in Rabat in 1960; and the American schools were established in Tangier (1950), Rabat (1955), Casablanca (1973), and Marrakesh (1995), to name a few initiatives that the US governments launched and sponsored in Morocco to foster cultural links with Moroccans and a better understanding of the United States and its people.

Against this background, Moroccans seem to have grown used to—and influenced by—an Anglo-Saxon culture for which they seem to have much respect and admiration. English as a language gained popularity over the years to become one of the most important foreign languages that shape the linguistic landscape in Morocco. According to Ennaji (1991), this popularity is the result of two reasons: along with its emergence as an international language of science, technology, diplomacy, business, publishing, entertainment, and communication, English is untainted by the colonial connotations often associated with French in Moroccan collective consciousness. Sadiqi (1991) adds that educational policies of successive Moroccan governments have also been favorable to English.

In line with the general political tendencies of Morocco, educational decision makers have integrated the teaching of English in higher education since independence. Thus, by 1963, a section of English studies was started at the faculty of letters in Rabat, offering an English program leading to a *License* (BA) in English studies. Once a full-fledged department in the mid-1970s, the presence of English language in Moroccan higher education was not only secured but also desired. English departments increased from two in the early 1970s (Rabat and Fez) to six in 1984 (Casablanca, Oujda, Marrakesh, Meknes, Rabat, and Fez) while student numbers witnessed a significant rise (fewer than 500 in 1973 and over 6,000 in 1984) (Ouakrime, 1986). The strong demand for English studies led to the establishment of English departments elsewhere. Thus, by the end of the 1980s, faculties of letters in Tetouan, Kenitra, Mohammadia, Casablanca (Ben M'sik), Al Jadida, and Agadir had their own English departments. In all these faculties, English has become the most desired subject, thus surpassing Arabic and French. These departments have contributed to the spread of English by training instructors, teaching aspects of British and American cultures, and offering master and doctoral degrees in English language, literature, and the nascent cultural studies stream.

The 1990s brought further changes to Moroccan life. Following the 1987 General Agreement on Tariffs and Trade, Morocco started to liberalize its monetary sector and privatize state-owned enterprises. This openness translated into various aspects of Moroccan political, economic, social, and cultural life. Most relevant to us here is the change that occurred within the educational landscape as scores of private institutions began to open doors for Moroccan students. This was spearheaded by the founding of Al Akhawayn University in 1995, the first English-medium institution of higher education. Several other private higher education institutions have followed suit and provided academic programs entirely or partially through the English medium.

However, these private institutions cater to the needs of a very small portion of the Moroccan student population, often from an upper social background. The majority of Moroccan students enroll in public higher institutions. They start to learn English in their 9th grade through the next three years leading to their Baccalaureate. At the

university level, they are allocated a 38-course curriculum extended over 3 years. With the exception of the English department, which uses English as a medium of instruction, all other departments and institutions use either French or Arabic. The main challenge that students face at this level, therefore, is their inability to read references relevant to their academic field in English (Ennaji, 1991). Belhiah and Abdelatif (2016) have found that university students are strongly in favor of using English as a medium of instruction due to the necessity to read and cite indexed journal articles in their assignments and dissertations, their intention to pursue post-graduate studies abroad, and their desire to have an edge in the job market. In another study, the majority of students think that English will supersede French in the future although French will continue to hold ground in the short term (Marley, 2004). It is most likely that, overtime, the status of English in Morocco will be consolidated as English becomes indexed with prestige, socio-economic mobility, and globalization (Boukous, 2009; Buckner, 2011; Errihani, 2017).

Due in no small part to the growing reach of English as a medium of education and business across different areas of social and economic life in Morocco today, the English department at the Moroccan university is faced with enormous challenges. The first major challenge has to do with the increasing appeal of English and its study among Moroccan students. English studies is the first choice of these students even though the existing numbers of instructional faculty as well as the facilities at the disposal of the English department are not adequate to accommodate the increasing enrolment numbers. When the students graduate from high school, those among them who decide to go to university (usually after failing to get enrolled at one of the country's prestigious schools offering specialized training and a guaranteed job in medicine, business administration, computer science, journalism, and so on) head to the university with their eyes set on attractive subjects such as law, economics, and English. English studies departments have found themselves with increasing student populations enrolled in the first year (see Dellal in this book). The trouble is that the Moroccan public universities are not allowed by law to control the number of students desiring to enroll in each department. This has led to an overwhelming number of students being taught by a very limited number of professors; for example, this has reached a ratio of 587 students per teacher at Ibn Zohr University in Agadir. Only the English department in Rabat is still allowed to administer an entrance exam for its incoming students. The results are often abysmal, showing the students' lack of readiness to earn a place in the department due to their inadequate language skills. However, the university administration inflates the lists every year to make sure *enough* students are admitted regardless of their proficiency in English. Once in the department, the students' low proficiency haunts most of them, and they find it difficult to address their skill shortages in overcrowded classrooms with a very small number of instructors having to teach hundreds of students. This makes it challenging for the instructors to offer help to students on an individual basis even when it is what they need most. The problem of overcrowding and its consequences are thus a thorny issue in the side of the English department today. Unfortunately, the situation is getting worse in the absence of concrete measures by the government to tackle this issue.

The second major challenge lies in the lack of research infrastructure and incentives for faculty members in the English department. The first cause of this research drought is extrinsic. The Moroccan Ministry of Higher Education has always seen the university as a place for teaching first and foremost. Generations of Moroccan researchers hired to work as instructors of English have thus found themselves unable to fulfill their research potential and hence contribute to the development of the national university and the country at large. This unbecoming situation manifests itself today in the low rates of publishing output and conference participation among English department faculty. This is not at all the case in other departments at the Moroccan university. In fact, the departments of Arabic, philosophy, history, geography, among others, eclipse the English department by far in terms of academic publications and research output (Dahbi, 2003). This goes to show that low research capacity among English department members has intrinsic causes to do with their inability to devote enough time and attention to academic production. This problem cuts across the different generations of academic faculty, who often blame the status quo on the exhausting teaching duties in a department with high student numbers. Another explanation in this regard lies in the fact that a large number of faculty teach in the private sector to supplement their incomes, thus leaving them with hardly enough time to read widely and continuously in their fields and produce cutting-edge research. This situation also transpires in the lack of MA degrees at many English departments in Moroccan universities whereas other departments offer plenty of such programs every year.

The last pivotal challenge to the English department is a consequence of the intensive neoliberalization of the Moroccan education sector in the new century. While the market reforms introduced in the country at the behest of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund since 1983 were late and relatively slow in affecting education unlike other areas of public policy (Bahmad, 2013), the marketization of the education sector has intensified in recent years. Hundreds of private schools and over two-dozen private higher education institutions have been created with economic incentives from the government such as tax breaks and the conferring of equality of degrees between the public and private sector institutions of education. The public university, which is the traditional home of the English Department in Morocco, has thus come under pressure from the government and the general public to deliver better results even in the absence of prerequisites like adequate faculty numbers and decent running and research budgets. Another face of this competition from the private sector, which has been given preference by recent Moroccan governments in their annual budgets and strategic planning, is the changing attitude to the value of education in society. Whereas students and their parents in the past looked up to the university as a place of acquiring knowledge and learnedly discovering oneself and the world, the dominant perception today is that the university should prepare students for the job market. The university has thus been reduced to a training centre and supplier of labor for the marketplace. This has translated in the decreasing interest in core humanities subjects such as literature and philosophy, on the one hand, and, on the other, the rise of marketable subjects like communication and business English. The government has supported putting the public university,

and the English department by extension, at the service of the job market without much thought or consideration for the fundamental role of the English Department and the Moroccan university at large in educating the young in the cause of good citizenship, critical thinking, and the pursuit of social and climate justice.

It is unequivocal that the afore-mentioned challenges are likely to boggle down the English department for many long years and perhaps decades to come. Resolving these challenges will take a lot of good political will accompanied by concrete policies along with adequate budgets and training programs for academic and managerial staff at the Moroccan university. If successive governments continue to encourage the private sector while paying lip service to reforming the public education system, the future can only be uncertain both for the English department and the country's economic and political development.

The contributions in this volume cover various interdisciplinary research areas that touch upon management, teaching and learning practices of English in Moroccan higher education, especially at English departments. Each chapter in the book is a representation of an aspect of the situation of English studies at different universities in Morocco. The book is organized into five parts: (I) English: evolution and spread, (II) motivation toward English, (III) teaching practices, (IV) curricular innovations, and (V) challenges and future prospects.

In order to contextualize ELT in Moroccan higher education, Part I sets the scene for the chapters of this book with historical and empirical accounts of the status of English and English studies in Morocco. In Chap. 2, Hassan Mekouar, who played a major role in the development of English studies at the Moroccan university as a Department Chair and Dean of Faculty in Rabat in the 1970s–1980s, and then as the first president of Mohamed I University in Oujda, brings to the fore the whole gamut of reforms and legal frameworks that underlie the emergence and development of the Faculties of Letters and Humanities and English Departments more particularly since their first creation in post independence Morocco. This personal and institutional perspective touches upon issues relating to curriculum and faculty.

In the same vein, Hassan Belhiah explores the global spread of English and its ramifications on the status of English in Morocco and ELT practice within English Departments in the country (Chap. 3). Using a qualitative approach, Belhiah taps into the motivational profiles of the students opting for English as a field of study. Ten students' motivations are identified, encompassing affective, instrumental, and socio-cultural factors. The results point to the evolving status of English in Morocco and suggest implications for language policy and planning in Morocco.

In Chap. 4, Yamina El Allame El Kirat and Youssef Laaraj make a case for the LMD system (Licence, Master, Doctorate), which remains the most important reform in Moroccan higher education since 2003 when it replaced the old four-year *License* program. Through the accounts of both former and current professors and students, the researchers compare and contrast the merits and shortcomings of both systems inasmuch as they affect faculty's professional careers and students' learning.

Given the key role of motivation in language learning in general, Part II is dedicated to an analysis of various motivational issues in English language teaching and learning in Moroccan higher education. In Chap. 5, Adil Azhar explores how

Moroccan EFL learners invest their resources in learning English as an alternative cultural capital. From a critical and socio-cultural standpoint, the analysis of the student interviews situates English language learning motivation within a network of social macro-level processes that render language learning as a form of identification, recognition and voice for the language learners.

Youssef Nadri and Malika Haoucha, in Chap. 6, examine the prospects of adopting English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in Moroccan higher education. They investigate the perceptions and attitudes of economics instructors at Hassan II University in Casablanca in order to identify the perceived merits of the EMI policy and their potential needs as instructors within an EMI setting. The findings reveal that the participants hold positive attitudes toward the EMI policy, but recognize several challenges that would likely impede its effective implementation. The study ends with reflections and suggestions for EMI to be successfully implemented in tertiary education.

In Chap. 7, Nourddine Amrous takes a motivational approach to the student in his analysis of the impact of the students' ought-to self, cultural interest, and attitude to learning on their intended effort. While the study attributes a positive role to attitudes in the amount of student invested effort, significant differences emerge between typical students in the regular program and their non-traditional peers in the evening program, especially at their early stages. The chapter concludes with pedagogical recommendations and demotivational pitfalls to avoid.

In the course of the three-year license program in English studies, students are faced with the task of major selection in their senior year. Abdellatif Bouhlal examines this issue in Chap. 8 by highlighting the major personal and motivational factors involved in choosing whether to specialize in linguistics or in cultural studies. He also explores students' attitudes toward the literature stream, which seem to have recently fallen into disfavor. Emanating from the findings are a few implications concerning streaming reform implementation in English studies undergraduate programs.

A successful educational experience involves not only the students' motivation and attitude but also effective teaching practices. This is what Part III of the book addresses. It opens with Chap. 9 reporting on a study by Amina Ichbah, where she shows how teachers' beliefs and cognition in the EFL classroom have a powerful impact on their perceptions and pedagogical practices. Comparing teachers and students' perceptions revealed not only a mismatch between the two but also a lack of congruence with the effective teaching practices in the literature. Thus, the research suggests that different conceptions of effectiveness may variously inform teaching practice, an observation that warrants further research. With these conceptions in mind, the author recommends that pedagogy be negotiated between teachers and students.

In Chap. 10, Abderazak Gharafi points to some challenges that hinder the successful teaching of the translation course and impede the achievement of the course objectives. Gharafi notes that the students' poor performance in the course can be attributed to a number of factors, important among which is the status of the course in the overall curriculum, the students' negative attitudes toward translation, their low academic and linguistic profiles, as well as cross-linguistic influences due to

Arabic and French interference. These stumbling blocks seem to prevent students from developing their translation competence. Still within the realm of teaching practices, Ikbal Zeddari, in Chap. 11, considers how final-year undergraduate dissertations offer senior students a culminating learning experience to cap off their educational journey. The study documents how undergraduate supervisors view the supervision process through the lens of good students and supervisors' attributes, students' actual personal and academic profiles, and supervisory practices. A major finding the chapter highlights is that the potential the undergraduate research experience promises may be lost on the students due to their lack of research preparedness. By implication, the extent of structure and autonomy in the supervision relationship need to take into account the needs of the students concerned.

Part IV revolves around the issue of curricular innovation. Said Zaidoun's Chap. 12 is a call for the integration of community service in public higher education in general and the English studies curriculum in particular. Based on a case study at the English department (Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Ben M'sik), Zaidoun argues that community service contributes to the students' personal, academic, and professional development. In fact, not only does this learning experience benefit students, but its dividends extend to all stakeholders involved, including the institution providing service, hosting institutions and beneficiaries, partners, and the community at large.

The next Chap. 13 highlights technology's relevance to higher education and ELT. Mohamed Dellal explores the potential of a curricular digital transformation at English departments in Morocco. In response to the rising demand for English studies programs among incoming students, Dellal offers the digitization of the curriculum as an innovative form of pedagogical provision. Despite its high initial cost, it is argued that this initiative will enhance students' competencies, reduce dropout rates among students, and consequently maximize the institution's internal effectiveness and efficiency.

Part V of the book explores the challenges constraining Moroccan higher education and explores its future prospects. Hssein Khtou's Chap. 14 sheds light on the mission of the Department of English and the major challenges it faces at the level of teaching, training, and research. He argues that a more favorable environment should support learning through reduced class size, provision of teaching materials and support equipment, in addition, to pre-service and in-service pedagogical training. Improving ELT at the level of high schools will also help overcome incoming students' poor language proficiency. To ensure the intellectual growth and professional development of faculty, it is suggested that more research opportunities be provided.

In Chap. 15, Abdelghanie Ennam addresses the status of scientific research in the Moroccan national policies for higher education and explores how sustainable research progress can be achieved through a good governance model. More particularly, he investigates the perceptions and attitudes held by undergraduate and postgraduate Moroccan students toward the employability and functionality of scientific research and its methodology in the Moroccan university context. In the backdrop of the survey results, he provides an analysis of the current situation of research and takes a futurist account of the challenges lying ahead.

The book closes with Jamal Bahmad's Chap. 16, in which he attributes the crisis of the English Department and the Moroccan University to the neo-liberal model of governance that has been adopted since the 1980s. Based on empirical data, Bahmad provides a political economy analysis of the challenges facing the English Department and suggests practical measures to counter its current crisis despite the overwhelming pessimism among instructional faculty and educational policy analysts.

References

Bahmad, J. (2013). Casablanca unbound: The new urban cinema in Morocco. *Francosphères, 2*(1), 73–85.

Belhiah, H., & Abdelatif, A. (2016). English as a medium of instruction in Moroccan higher education. *Arab World English Journal, 7*(3), 227–238.

Boukous, A. (2009). Globalization and sociolinguistic stratification in North Africa: The case of Morocco. In C'Cile B. Vigourous & Salikoko S. Mufwene (Eds.), *Globalization and language vitality: Perspectives from Africa* (pp. 127–141). Continuum International.

Bovill, E. W. (1958). *The golden trade of the moors*. London: Oxford University Press.

Buckner, E. (2011). The growth of English language learning in morocco: Culture, class, and status competition. In A. Al-Issa & L. Dahan (Eds.), *Global English: Issues of language, culture, and identity in the Arab world* (pp. 213–254). New York, NY: Peter Lang Publishers.

Dahbi, M. (2003). The Moroccan department of English. In A. Youssi, M. Dahbi, & L. Haddad (Eds.), *The Moroccan character: Studies in Honor of Mohammed Abu Talib* (pp. 13–23). Rabat: Amapatril.

Ennaji, M. (1991). Aspects of multilingualism in the Maghreb. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 87*(1), 7–26.

Errihani, M. (2017). English education policy and practice in Morocco. In R. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *English language education policy in the Middle East and North Africa* (pp. 115–131). Basel: Springer.

Marley, D. (2004). Language attitudes in Morocco following recent changes in language policy. *Language Policy, 3*(1), 25–46.

Ouakrime, M. (1986). *English language teaching in higher education in morocco: an evaluation of the Fez experience*. Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of London.

Sadiqi, F. (1991). The Spread of English in Morocco. *International Journal of the Sociology of Sociology of Language, 87*(1), 1–20.

Hassan Belhiah holds a Ph.D. (2005) and an MA (1998) in English from the University of Wisconsin in Madison. He is Associate Professor of English and Linguistics at Mohammed V University in Rabat. Previously, he held the positions of Chair of the Department of English Language and Literature at Mohammed V University in Rabat (2016–2018), Associate Professor of English and Education Studies at Alhosn University in Abu Dhabi, UAE (2009–2013), Assistant Professor at Al Akhawayn University in Morocco (2005–2009), and Lecturer/Teaching Assistant (1997–2005) at the University of Wisconsin in Madison. Dr. Belhiah has presented his research in conferences in the UK, Spain, Switzerland, Germany, Turkey, Morocco, UAE, and the United States. His publications have appeared in Classroom Discourse (Taylor & Francis), Journal of Pragmatics (Elsevier), The Modern Language Journal (Wiley), Language Policy (Springer), and Applied Linguistics (Oxford University Press).

Nourdin Bejjit is Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Letters, Mohammed V University in Rabat, Morocco, where he teaches courses on print culture, British culture and history, and Third World literatures. He earned a Ph.D. (2009) in colonial and postcolonial book history from the Open University, and previously received his MA (2004) in national and international literatures in English from the Institute of English Studies, University of London. His research interests include book history, postcolonial literature, and travel writing.

Jamal Bahmad is Assistant Professor of Literature and Cultural Studies in the Department of English at Mohammed V University in Rabat. He earned his Ph.D. degree from the University of Stirling (UK, 2014) with a dissertation on contemporary Moroccan urban cinema. He has held a British Academy postdoctoral fellowship at the University of Leeds and, prior to that, was a research fellow at Philipps-Universität Marburg (Germany). Bahmad was most recently a research fellow at the University of Exeter on the AHRC-funded project: "Transnational Moroccan Cinema." He specializes and has published widely in the field of North African cultural studies with a focus on cinema, cities, literature, memory, and youth cultures. He recently co-edited a special issue of French Cultural Studies (SAGE, August 2017) on trash cultures in the Francophone world. Bahmad is also the co-editor of a special issue of The Moroccan Cultural Studies Journal on Moroccan cinema (November 2017). In addition to working on his first monograph on Moroccan cinema and globalization, Bahmad has recently finished a book (co-authored with Will Higbee and Florence Martin) on Moroccan transnational cinema to be published by Edinburgh University Press in 2020.

Ikbal Zeddari is Associate Professor and Chair of the English Department at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Mohammed V University in Rabat. He holds a doctorate in Applied Linguistics and TEFL. His main research interests lie in the area of second language acquisition. More particularly, he investigates lexico-semantic phenomena at the syntax–semantics interface. He is also interested in higher education pedagogy, with a focus on student experience and teaching methodology.

Nourddine Amrous is Associate Professor at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities at Mohammed V University in Rabat. He is holder of a doctorate degree in Education (2006). From 2007 to 2009, he worked as a researcher at the Royal Institute of the Amazigh Culture, where he was mainly involved in textbook design and teacher training. In 2009, he assumed his teaching and research activities at the Department of English at the Faculty of Letters, where he continues to teach various courses such as syntax, stylistics, composition, and spoken English. His main research interests include second language acquisition, language teaching, teacher training, and theoretical linguistics, mainly phonology and syntax. Dr. Amrous has supervised a number of Master's and Doctoral theses.

Part I
English: Evolution and Spread

Chapter 2
The Making of an English Department (1975–1982): A Personal Account

Hassan Mekouar

Abstract The paper attempts to tell the story of the English department at Mohammed V University in Rabat for the period between 1975 and 1982, a period which roughly corresponds with the author's three terms as chair. After a brief overview on the general background and the situation of higher education in Morocco, the document focuses on the multiple challenges of building and managing a foreign language department that saw enrolment increase at unsustainable rates. Challenges included the transformation of a French-based department of *études anglaises* to a theoretically based four-year EFL program with specializations in literature, linguistics and cultural studies; dealing with a centralized, politicized system and unwieldy curricula; and ensuring academic standards despite the constraints of insufficient teaching and library resources. It further details, in a highly concentrated manner, how the department met the challenges, introduced and generalized new pedagogic practices and made proposals that impacted the on-going debates on curricular reform, particularly the *license* program and the FF/CEUS 10-year experiment whose graduates from our department now constitute the mainstays of English in several Moroccan universities.

Keywords History of the English Department · EFL · Educational reform · Post-colonial university

2.1 Introduction

The first group of students to enroll in a program leading to a national degree in the humanities (the *licence ès-lettres* delivered by the *Université Mohammed V)* arrived in Rabat in October 1963, nearly six years after the official creation of this institution, on the premises of what had been, since the start of the Protectorate, the *Institut des hautes études marocaines*, a colonial social science and language research institute. This "cohort" had been the first to complete a Moroccan *baccalauréat*, as they had been the first group to study under the post-independence secondary

H. Mekouar (✉)
Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: hmekouar@yahoo.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_2

school curriculum for the previous five years. From its official creation in December 1957, and the publication of the *Dahir*[1] establishing the *Université de Rabat*, its branches, the degrees it could deliver with their various requirements, and before a national program was gradually put into place (1959–1960), the *Faculté des lettres* continued to offer in parallel the French *licence* as a kind of annex to the university of Bordeaux. Most programs, faculty and the first dean after independence, as well as administrative staff, were nearly all French.

The system at that time was the same as in pre-1968 France, and was based, in the humanities program, on a *propédeutique*, or preparatory year, which all students had to pass, and the successful completion of three separate *certificats*. Course content and textbooks were no different from those in Bordeaux. Alongside other programs in social studies and languages (French, Arabic and Spanish), the institution offered a *licence* in English studies. Post-graduate programs were possible then in all sections for students who could pass what was called a fourth certificate—chosen from a different department—and a test which allowed registration in a *Diplôme d'études supérieures* (DES), consisting of the writing of a thesis, the main key at the time for an academic career. Doctorates could only be completed in France or elsewhere.

2.2 General Context

The 12 years between the admission at university of this first group of students holding Moroccan secondary school completion certificates and the first major reform of higher education in 1975 were characterized by a situation whose most salient features are outlined as follows:

1. That post-independence context was marked by the continuous struggle for power between the monarchy and the political parties issued from the various liberation groups that had fought French colonial rule, a struggle that played out mostly in the university and among the recently created labor unions, themselves projections of these political forces.[2] Activism and prolonged student and faculty strikes characterized the scene and could only expand with the steady rise in the student population and the creation of new universities in Fes, Marrakesh and in other cities.
2. Higher education was a major challenge for the government as well as for the opposition. For the government, the priority was to train as fast as possible the cadres the country needed in all the sectors (particularly in the education sector) to replace the French who for more than a decade after independence continued

[1]Dahir n° 1-58-390 du 15 moharram 1379 (21 juillet 1959) portant création et organisation de l'Université de Rabat (*Bulletin Officiel* n° 2441 7/8/1959).

[2]The Istiqlal Party and the Union Nationale des Forces Populaires (UNFP), later the Union socialiste des forces populaires (USFP). Cf. *History of Morocco: A Work of Synthesis and Update,* edited by Mohammed Kabli (Rabat: Publications of the Royal Institute for Research on the History of Morocco, 2015, (627–645).

to head the principal government agencies and to teach in secondary and tertiary institutions. For the opposition, the expanding university was fertile ground to recruit and strengthen their hold on educational institutions, a situation that came to constitute a real threat to the regime on several occasions, with the result of considerable conflict and repression.

3. For almost two decades, heated debates between the government and the opposition, and also among the main political opposition forces, centered on the three catchwords of *marocanisation* (the replacement of French personnel in government and in the education system), *arabisation* (the change from French to Arabic for the teaching of social studies and the humanities courses) and *démocratisation* (echoing French student revolts of May 1968), the call for elections—instead of royal nominations—of all university officials, rectors, deans, directors and department chairs.
4. The rapid growth of the student population in the existing universities in Rabat and Casablanca (Faculty of Law), and particularly the fact that politically motivated strikes could and did paralyze the entire system for months at a time, led the government to build new universities, first in Fes and Marrakech, and later in all the major cities in Morocco with the result that the same model was now being replicated across the country and all the problems amplified. Demands for higher student grants, subsidized lodging and curricular reform, together with opposition to government attempts to institute any kind of *numerus clausus* to limit access to open-admission institutions, would cause stoppages and threats of *année blanche,* which actually occurred in 1972–1973.
5. The period immediately preceding the Green March in November 1975 and the resulting political unanimity around the "national cause" provided an opportunity for the regime to end the "State of Exception" and integrate part of the moderate opposition in government. This opened the way for the various compromises and salary increases that enabled acceptance of the first significant reform of higher education. The implementation of the texts of 1975[3] and of the various aspects of the reform allowed the first formal elections of university and institutional councils and of the heads of academic departments, of which ours took place in December 1976.

2.3 The Making of the English Department: Challenges on Many Fronts

The election was more like a cooptation with the unanimous decision taken one evening, in the home of one colleague[4] to choose me as the only official candidate to head the department that had been renamed "Department of Anglo-Saxon Studies,"

[3]Dahir portant loi n° 1-75-102 du 13 safar 1395 (25 février 1975) relatif à l'organisation des universités *et alia. Bulletin officiel* n° 3252 du 26/2/1975.

[4]Assia Bensaleh Alaoui.

in order to include the section of German language and literature that had just been created.

The challenges we faced in that period could only be characterized as immense, and our teaching practice, a constant struggle to deal with countless administrative and pedagogical problems, and the flammable terrain of student activism, where not a week would pass without a handful of students disrupting classes and forcing everyone out.

2.3.1 The challenge of numbers

The 10 years leading up to the creation of the department were characterized by its popularity among students at our Faculty of Letters, particularly because, as has been mentioned, social studies and humanities programs were being "Arabicized." Thus, each year, the number of students who enrolled in our department increased, often at an unsustainable pace, to arrive in 1976–1977 at more than 1000 officially registered students in the first year alone! Only the opening of several new departments in cities elsewhere would somewhat inflect the steep progression.

2.3.2 The challenge of systemic constraints

Throughout much of the history of higher education in Morocco, and until the advent of the three-year system introduced in the year 2000, where some leeway was legally allowed universities, academic programs leading to national degrees were determined sometimes by government decrees (1975), other times by ministerial decisions (1967), and consisted of lists of required courses, numbers of weekly teaching hours for each subject and rules for exams, particularly whether the subject is part of the category of written or oral exams. For decades, only students who passed written exams were allowed to sit for the orals, which meant there was an actual two-tier system for all departments, whereby subjects for the orals "did not count" and could be, and were often, skipped.

Once published in the official gazette, the *Bulletin Officiel du Royaume du Maroc*, programs could be modified only through the same centralized, politicized process, one which became more complicated as the number of institutions grew and all departments of the same nature had to conform to the same requirements. In addition, any proposed modification in the course or exam lists would be a pretext for multiple student strikes and boycotts. Further complications arose with the opening of new institutions in Fes, Marrakesh, Casablanca and other cities throughout the 1970s and early 1980s. When Rabat was the only university, the decision process involved the dean and the government department in charge of higher education. The dean would consult among his colleagues and propose to the minister in charge a revision of the "*régime des études et des examens en vue de l'obtention de la licence es-lettres délivrée par les facultés des lettres et sciences humaines*" (Program of Studies and

Examinations leading to the award of the *licence ès-lettres* conferred by Faculties of Letters). The dean would have to ram the project through, with or without the approval of faculty members who out of principle opposed any reform they did not draw up themselves (which really meant that it did not get the green light from the political forces represented on campus). With the relative détente following the reforms of 1975, the consultation process was now a little more open, and each academic department proposed its own grids of subjects and exams that the dean would transmit to the minister with amendments possible at any government level (e.g., adding an Islamic studies requirement for students of foreign languages). Not only professors within one department had to agree among themselves regarding what to teach, but all the similar ones rising across the country had to agree between themselves, because they were all legally entitled from day one to confer university degrees up to the doctorate.

2.3.3 The challenge of staffing

Unlike Arabic and Humanities departments where all lectures were delivered in amphitheaters, regardless of the number of officially registered students—a situation, to a large extent still prevailing today—the English department, whose purposes, missions and methods were in the process of being redefined, needed smaller classrooms, and limited-seating language laboratories. For our department, we had from the start built our teaching structure on the number of students who can fit in one of the classrooms assigned to us that could seat between 20 in the late 1960s to the maximum of about 60 when new, larger rooms were added to our allotment. Now, because all *baccalauréat*[5] holding students could choose to register in any department they wished, we would not know the number of students we would have to teach until October or November. With every new academic year, we had to figure how many teacher hours we needed for each course and at every one of the four levels, and the maximum number of hours we could cover with existing staff. And even if we took into account the fact that many of our registered students never attended classes, appearing only for exams at the end of the year, we faced huge teaching gaps at the start of each academic year, especially for the new enrollments, a class bloated beyond capacity by the additional constraint that all the students who failed their annual exams were allowed to repeat as often as they wished. Squaring the circle for us meant forcing colleagues including this chairman to teach 14 h per week, making every one cover a portion of the program in the lower sections, introducing a minimum language teaching load (MLTL) for all lecturers who elsewhere in the institution would accept to teach only in their areas of specialization, relying on adjunct teachers (from secondary schools), and finally, resorting to hiring abroad.

[5]The Moroccan *baccalauréat* was delivered in several categories: *lettres modernes*, *sciences*, etc. Faculties of Sciences and Faculties of Medicine could only enroll students with scientific or technical *baccalauréats*. Engineering schools accepted only students with scientific *baccalauréats* who passed the two-year program and competitive exam of *Préparations aux Grandes Ecoles*. But Faculties of Letters were open to all students regardless of their *baccalauréat* specialization.

2.3.4 A patchwork of profiles and academic cultures

An English department that had for about a decade only to follow or adapt the system in force at French universities, and where French lecturers still constituted a majority, now faced a situation characterized by galloping student enrolment and necessity to cover teaching needs for all the registered students, not only within the department but also for all others as well for whom English had become a requirement. Furthermore, a few of us, young Moroccans who started teaching in that transition period alongside our French colleagues, had recognized at once the need to redesign our curriculum entirely, from the system of *études anglaises* that aimed to produce "scholars," to a language-based program whose primary purpose was to prepare EFL teachers for the expanding Moroccan system, whereby students would need to acquire the necessary language skills in the first two years before taking on specialized courses in literature or linguistics. That meant a sharp revision of the proportion of lecturers with backgrounds in literature (a large majority) to others with qualifications in EFL and applied linguistics. At that time, there was no problem with the provision of budgeted teaching positions and the dean could propose to the Ministry for Recruitment any candidate we identified whose highest academic qualification was listed in the government decree on recruitment (DES, Doctorate or "equivalent" qualifications). Thus we were permanently in search for candidates with the right profile.

At any one time, and through the mid-1980s, faculty at the department included lecturers with a wide variety of backgrounds: the senior French professors who taught upper-level courses until their retirement or up to the time in the mid-1970s[6] when the system called "substitution-cooperation" tapered away; younger Moroccan graduates from the 1960s and 1970s who had chosen to continue their post-graduate studies in French universities and who came back with a DES (with dissertations often written in French); others who had been offered grants by the British Council or the Fulbright Program to study in the UK or the US and whose Masters' degrees in literature or linguistics were now recognized by the government as equivalent to the DES; others who showed up with post-graduate degrees from many countries in Europe and Canada; the increasing numbers of expatriates we started hiring in the UK when that avenue was opened by the government in 1976 (even if the salaries proposed were aligned with our very modest ones and considerably beneath the level needed to live on in Rabat); several from countries as diverse as Poland, Haiti and Australia; the occasional spouse of a diplomat that the department was too happy to host; senior secondary school teachers we had invited to join us to "service" other departments and encouraged to enroll in our DES program; and later, the best of our graduates from 1969 to 1979 we had sent on Moroccan government scholarships to

[6]Moroccan institutions of higher education could have as many *coopérants* (paid by both governments) who applied, as they were still needed for positions in science and technology, but also in foreign language departments including English.

study in the UK, and who for the most part took linguistics and applied linguistics courses. Thus the diversity of profiles, lengths of stay at the department (from less than a year to full careers), competencies and abilities, backgrounds, systems of grading exams and motivations for joining provided a considerable challenge for us to ensure the harmony, integrity and continuity we felt responsible for providing.

2.3.5 Redefining the mission of the department

The most important challenge for us in this regard was how to arrive at some form of consensus among the few of us Moroccans now in charge of running our department regarding the principles and objectives that should inform our program. We all recognized that the old French model of a scholarly *licence* in *études anglaises* which most of us had followed (with its emphasis on reading and *explication de texte* drawn from a list of representative works that changes every two years) was adapted neither to the masses we now had to teach nor to the needs of the country. But there were still sharp differences among us on how to proceed with the definition of our mission as an English department. Should we elaborate programs to replicate our own academic itinerary, one that enabled us to get into and succeed in US and UK university Master's and Ph.D. programs with their foundations of scholarship and approaches courses, the emphases on heavy reading, and focus on canonic works from English and American culture including Shakespeare? Should we prepare our students for an ELT career to which at that time nearly all of them aspired, and give them the best tools to enter the competitions required for admission in the *Ecole normale supérieure*, (ENS), the teacher training school that would become in the 1980s the Faculty of Educational Science)? Or should we think "ideologically" or "post-colonially" and make our programs serve the national interest by making our future graduates read works in English on Morocco (and by extension, the Muslim world and Africa), be able to translate them into our language and also be competent in the transmission of our own culture to the English-speaking world?

Despite such conflicting visions and political positions of their proponents, we all agreed on the necessity to provide a solid two-year basic program in English to all our students with emphasis on reading, speaking and writing, before the gradual introduction of courses in literature, linguistics and cultural studies. In these three areas most high-level courses would be taught during the fourth and final year with a research project all students would have to complete and "defend." The difficulties arose about how much to include in these areas of specialization within the limits of teaching hours imposed, and with the scant academic resources on hand. For example, in the case of the upper-level course entitled "The Novel," the late professor Fouzia Rhissassi and I (with the late Professor Mohammed Abu-Talib, the most senior Moroccan faculty in the department at that time) had to propose a reading list which because of numerous factors including all the other courses the students had, and the requirement for a year-long research project, could not exceed two works of fiction

taught by each of us from English and American literature. This was a perpetual preoccupation even if in the end we chose and taught for decades what we considered the major figures behind the "modern renaissance" (James Joyce, Virginia Wool and DH Lawrence that Professor Rhissassi would teach and William Faulkner, Ernest Hemingway and F Scott Fitzgerald that *I* would have to teach changing individual titles every two years). I remember once being invited by the dean to justify my choice of Faulkner's *Light in August* in a Moroccan, Muslim university curriculum having himself been made aware of the cultural and narrative complexities by a relative of his, a student in the department, had discussed with him.

2.3.6 The Library

Heir to the collections that the *Institut des hautes études marocaines* had accumulated over half a century (part of which was unique and attracted researchers worldwide), substantial collections of books, journals and manuscripts not only centered on Morocco naturally but also on Arabic philosophy and related subjects, the library of our Faculty possessed none of the resources necessary for an English department in the modern sense. There were no reference works, encyclopedias, bibliographies or even anthologies of English and American literature. There were none of the resources one would need to conduct even basic research. When my colleagues drafted me in December 1976 to head the department, I checked the library to see what works our students could rely on. Apart from a handful of bilingual dictionaries necessary for translation courses, we found only a few donated paperbacks! Fulbright visiting professors had an allowance for teaching materials they would bring from the United States and leave in the small department office at the end of the year. But these resources, available only to lecturers in that small office called "Room 40," consisted merely of the two-dozen essential texts the visiting professors would need for each of their course assignments and included titles in American literature and "civilization." Our students never consulted the central library that was organized in the traditional manner, like a museum. No open stacks, no book loan was possible. The patron would consult the card catalogue, write a request on a slip of paper, hand it to an employee; wait for an hour or more for the book to be located and brought in and then read it on the spot. The whole process ended at closing time at six when the book had to be handed back. From 1963 on, all of our English department students and lecturers used the good British Council library and the smaller one belonging to the American cultural center. Despite the nature of these foreign cultural institutions, one could easily argue that without the assistance of these two institutions, there would have been no English department.

2.4 The Making of the English Department: Main Contributions

With an exclusive focus now on the period under consideration, the seven years in which all the problems it seems had reached a peak, I shall try to review, from my point of view as one of the actors in the developments at that period, albeit with different emphases and order of presentation, what I think were the principal responses to the various challenges we faced and how we dealt with them, with the understanding that since all the issues were interrelated, a minimal description of the context will always be necessary, often with some relation between the situation before and after, and also, the contrast between us and other departments, with the assumption always that the readers of this document are aware of the basic contours of the Moroccan higher education system.

In this review of the construction of the department, I shall try to outline, within the systemic and cultural constraints we were facing, how we decentralized and took over the administration of own departmental affairs, how we dealt with student numbers and the endemic shortage and unevenness of teaching resources, how we adapted and impacted the centralized system, and how our successes made the government pick among us so many colleagues to lead a number of institutions of higher learning. I shall not omit in this account, even if it is easy to justify at hindsight, what I consider the two major failures in that seven-year record: the appalling attrition rates for students in the first two years and the dearth of published research by members of our department.

2.4.1 Administration of the Department

From the start, in the early 1960s, professors at the Faculty of Letters were responsible for teaching their own areas of specialization, dividing the various duties among themselves in a collegial manner, with considerable deference to seniority in lecturing assignments. Under the responsibility of the dean, himself a senior scholar, plethoric administrative staffs were in charge of everything else, from first-time registration of students to timetabling to the organization of annual exams, all the way until the results were published and the degree certificates signed by the Secretary General. With the multiplication of students, came the multiplication of problems, relating to courses that might go unfilled for most or even for the whole year and particularly the problems of candidates contesting exam results. If a scheduled slot with no one assigned to teach it would rarely matter (the tacit understanding being that a subject not covered is a subject that will *not* be “drawn” for the final exam, in effect a reduction of the study load), it was notorious that the integrity of the entire exam process was more than questionable.

In the English department we took complete charge of all the administrative aspects of running our own department, except for first-time registration and issuance

of students' ID cards. We used English (instead of French and later Arabic) to communicate with our students, about every matter concerning them, from first and second-year assignments to "groups," to course and language laboratory schedules, to the required textbooks they all had to have (compared with the *polycopiés* current in most other departments).[7] We took responsibility for course distribution among ourselves using a different approach, one that was student-oriented, matching the offer with the demand, for example requiring all colleagues to teach courses outside their areas of specialization, among other reasons, to fit with our common objective of building English language competence among all student in the first two levels before introducing them to various literature and linguistics courses.

We listed students in uniform groups for the first two years, assuming that about half the repeaters will not attend classes, particularly after the government decided to stop or halve the grants if the students failed in their exams. We made sure that if on paper the numbers of registered students ranged from 40 to 50 per section, we would have in actuality only about two dozen in each, enough to provide adequate tuition and considerably fewer than all the other humanities departments for whom the capacity (200–500) of the lecture hall was and still is the only measure. We dealt with any questions or requests (and with frequent intermediations) about transferring students from one group to another (for timetable convenience or the sometimes erroneous perception that a colleague is too lenient or too severe in grading or has a good reputation or otherwise), proving quite inflexible in not upsetting the fragile balance we tried to maintain at all times, and the fact that each of the many groups taught by so many different colleagues, with a single exam for all at the end of the year, would have its own mix of good and bad time slots and rooms, native and non-native speakers of English, senior and newly hired professors, and a host of other considerations.

2.4.2 Course description and coordination

In a break from current practice, where the rule is one professor, one subject, one mark for the end-of-the-year exam, we mandated close coordination between all lecturers sharing the same course assignments. We instituted a practice that did not exist before, the writing of detailed course descriptions of each of the headings listed,[8] including

[7] Course materials in medicine, sciences, social sciences and the humanities were typed on stencil and bound into booklets under the professor's name and sold in dedicated shops. In some specializations, these *polycopiés* were the only resources available for students, who all considered at that time that the sole requirement is to memorize the contents.

[8] Examples of headings from the text in effect between 1974 and 1981: "Deuxième Année (second year)/Comprehension and grammar 5/Essay and précis/Translation 2" etc., in Arrêté du ministre de l'éducation nationale n° 297-74 du 3 chaoual 1398 (3 octobre 1973) portant réorganisation du régime des études et des examens en vue de la licence ès lettres (*Bulletin Officiel* n° 3207, page 606).

content of weekly units, reading and writing assignments and periodic quizzes and so on. As the groups continued to increase in numbers and the base of the pyramid was getting wider and wider—a single grammar course came to be taught by up to 12 of us, each assigned an individual group—we realized the importance of coordination and continuous adjustment of our criteria and pedagogic practice. To make sure the intractable scheduling will not prevent any colleague from attending these meetings, we freed everybody from teaching duties one afternoon per week, a Wednesday, reserving that time slot for unifying our approaches, developing and testing teaching tools. In time, these sessions grew into weekly continuous training seminars for all of us considering the unevenness of profiles we represented.

2.4.3 Exam administration

As mentioned, the conditions and requirements for the administration of exams leading to the award of national degrees were all defined in the relevant published government documents. For each program, a list of exams, divided between written and orals, was fixed. The regulations stated that only students who passed the written exams were allowed to sit for the orals, that the pass mark was the average of 10 out of 20 on the combined courses and that only the mark of "Absent" or 0 out of 20 was *éliminatoire* and would disqualify a candidate. (This meant a student could theoretically pass the session if s/he obtains 1 out of 20 in one course, 19 out of 20 in another and 10 out of 20 in a third one). Also, the examination "regime" stated that the proposed subjects would be submitted to the dean who alone can choose which questions will be "drawn" for the two exam sessions and which will remain in his safe for a spare in case of a leak or a material emergency that come during exam time. Not even the lecturers involved knew whether the subject they proposed will be "drawn," with the result that in some departments the rule was if a professor's exam question was selected he would have to read and grade hundreds of exam papers, whereas others could be allowed an early vacation! The entire process had to be carried under the personal supervision of the dean and the vice dean, with a small measure of confidential consultation with the head of the department, but only if he so chooses, during the selection of exam questions.

For more illustration, according to the current rules, each of 10 colleagues or more would have to submit to the dean's office three sealed envelopes, each containing individual proposals for an exam, say for the 3-h course entitled "Grammar." The dean would select three papers and print only one during exam time, leaving another for the second session and one as a spare. Centralization and anonymity were part of the system. From the beginning of the 1970s, the department started to do some of the preliminary work and have all colleagues teaching the same subject agree among themselves before submitting the three proposals. In time though, with the numbers of groups and colleagues teaching in the first year rising from about four to six to twelve (just before Casablanca opened its campus in 1981 and eased some of the

pressure on us). It is during these meetings in which colleagues had to submit to their peers their proposed exam questions and agree on what a correct answer should be that the department found its direction as it were. According to current practice, the exam question could have consisted, for example, of a one-line sentence such as "The Past Perfect." It could also be a 10-sheet package with students required to fill in blanks, answer yes-and-no or multiple-choice questions, or write short paragraphs, the standard fare of ELT handbooks we were using. If the first was like a Russian roulette, the system we had pursued and developed aimed to test most of the language items taught throughout the year. Pre-testing all three proposed exams before submitting them to the dean became a priority. Preparing examination questions for a whole year and for all "written" subjects in the first two levels became a course in curriculum development for all of us and extremely useful to all, with few contesting the time spent or pointing to the colleagues elsewhere who were "sovereign" in whatever they taught or how they examined their students, no matter the grading inconsistencies.

Also, because none of the dean's staff in charge of typing and duplicating exam questions in a kind of safe room could do so in English, we did our own typing, proofreading, and everything else, all on stencils, ready for duplication by the dean on exam day. We were all required to invigilate, whereas elsewhere only the professors whose subjects were "drawn" would need to. Even when numbers had reached unsustainable levels, we continued the requirement of double grading all exam papers to avoid discrepancies. During the deliberation process, in which all exam papers were to be unsealed—at that time exam papers were anonymous—we entered the marks in an official *procès verbal* (PV) or ledger with the columns of student names and tested subjects. Once this phase was completed with all the marks collated, averaged and entered, the deliberations could start. All students with a cumulative 50% and above were *admissibles* automatically and could take their orals about two weeks later. All those with marks below 47% of the possible total failed that session and could go home to cram for the next one. All borderline cases had to be discussed individually by all the teachers of the level, and if there is no disagreement on "giving them a chance," conditionally admitted to take the orals, provided they make up the points needed for their overall averages. I mention all these details to say that all of us had a say on all matters involving the fate of our students for any of the four levels and tried as much as possible to avoid arbitrary evaluations. To forestall the kind of problems endemic elsewhere, we did our own collating of student grades, typed the lists of *admissible* or *admis*. Everyone was aware that the more time between "jury" deliberations and the announcement or posting of the results, the more possibilities for clerical or intentional errors and the less reliable these results. We struggled to maintain 100% credibility at a huge cost to those of who ran the department, including 16-h days when we took responsibility to ensure students heard the results directly from us on the days marked for deliberations and not see them posted on a board a day or more after the "juries" had filed out of the meeting room.

2.4.4 Fourth-year research papers

Two years before the reform of 1975, the government had instituted the obligation for students in their final year in all the departments to write a "30-to-50-page" research paper consisting of a lengthy piece of scholarship, under the supervision of a lecturer or a full professor.[9] It was up to the individual supervisor to submit a mark on the paper, at the end of the year, a mark officially entered in the oral exam column. Standards and requirements for these supposedly yearlong research activities varied wildly from one department to the next, and often within the same department. I remember looking at announcements whereby a professor was informing his 60 supervisees about a deadline for submitting their final papers! Individual meetings with students varied from once a month to once a year and often took place in corridors or the central courtyard since there was no office space at the time. Plagiarism and the "recycling" of topics were rife. Also, students would flock to a few supervisors but would shun many others according to individual reputations for being generous or stingy graders. There was apparently no problem with a professor supervising just one or all of 60 students in the same section. Cronyism and grade inflation on this supposedly major exercise affected most *licence* programs and contributed to the general weakening of academic standards.

What our department introduced was the concept of the seminar. On the basis of detailed, written proposals we selected among our lecturers and full professors the topics that we could supervise in literature, linguistics and cultural studies, topics that would change from year to year, to avoid "recycling" papers. We validated these collectively in the department, creating student sub-groups with minimum and maximum number of slots. We printed the descriptions of these seminars in a booklet (without providing the names of the supervisors) and opened registration for all the sections offered—not only after the academic year had got underway in late October, as was the case for all the others, but immediately after the final exams, to allow our students to do the recommended preliminary reading over the summer, and also for us to be able to order from abroad whatever textbooks or resources would be needed. Only after the students had signed up for their seminar that they would meet their supervisor who would provide guidance and urge the students to study as much as possible before the full academic year begins and all the heavy courses. We instituted weekly two-hour meeting requirements and assigned a time slot in the official schedule and a room for these small group meetings. Since we did not have any formal meeting space for these seminars—the department itself had just one room for the chairperson and another for the secretary—we had to find a solution, which, we did by persuading the dean to add to our list of 16 allotted classrooms a small facility we had identified as a possibility, if it could be repurposed and redone.[10] The dean agreed to our request and we used that room, which we tagged XL, to host up to 10 afternoon seminars sessions per week, and to conduct other department business in the mornings.

---

[9] Arrêté n° 297-74 *op cit*, p. 606.

[10] XL for "ex-loo."

I would conclude this item by stating that thanks to this seminar system (copied later by other foreign-language departments), we managed to teach the small groups of 7–12 students the rudiments of expository writing and scholarly research, and approaches to literary criticism, linguistics and cultural foundation courses through focus on a common topic, reading lists, and, most importantly, weekly homework, and would evaluate their progress from first draft to a final paper ready to be "defended," in front of two examiners, whereas most supervisors elsewhere would only see the 40–50 page work in its final form at exam time. This enabled our better graduates to make it to some of the most sought-after Masters' programs in the US, the UK and Canada. There was enough of a pool of qualified applicants when we managed to ram through new FF (post-graduate) program in 1982.[11]

2.4.5 Impacting curricular reform

As pointed out, the 1967–1968 reform toward the four-year curriculum had seen the shift from the traditional French-inherited system of *études anglaises*, with emphasis on content around the three main "pillars" of Philology, Literature and "Civilization," to an EFL program with up to 18 weekly student hours devoted to speaking, reading and writing skills in the first two years. The next phase before the implementation of the provisions of the 1975 *Dahir* saw curricular revisions that had been imposed in exceptional circumstances that included "aberrations" we had to deal with when we re-structured the department in 1976. For example, the course entitled "Composition," had been placed in the "orals" category. How could we examine our students' writing orally? There was a slot labeled "Islamic civilization," which was supposed to be taught in English with no one in the entire university with the linguistic ability to teach it. We had no option but to insert instead courses like "Introduction to Literature" and then test our students on their writing skills in a written exam under a different heading. Those decisions entailed acrobatics, such as keeping the official Arabic title on the exam ledgers and entering marks on the subjects we had actually taught throughout the year. The students' grade transcripts we issued in English corresponded to what we taught, whereas the official PVs had different headings. In hindsight we were fortunate that not a single failing student or parent—and failure rates then, especially in the first 2 years were abysmal—knew enough about the law to sue the university in the administrative courts in order to annul the results of several exam sessions, simply because what we did had not been in entire accordance with the relevant ministerial *arrêté*.

During the several years after 1976, and amid all the discussion about the "reform" and "reforming the reform," and how to adapt curricula, all departments in Rabat and the other cities where new institutions had opened (Fes, Marrakesh, Oujda,

[11]CEUS. Décret n° 2-82-435 du 16 rebia II 1403 (31 janvier 1983) fixant le régime des études et des examens en vue de l'obtention du certificat d'études universitaires supérieures en langues et sciences humaines. *Bulletin officiel* n° 3666 du 18 rebia II 1403 (2/2/1983).

Casablanca and several others later), had to discuss government propositions for a new structure for the four-year *licence.* Each department debated among their members every detail of course content, teaching loads, the introduction of new "options," the re-distribution of courses at the four levels and many other considerations. At the same time, and from the angle of their own backgrounds, each was trying to impose their own individual academic vision and practice to the proposed program architecture. One rare item of agreement was to unify the number of courses and the total number of hours for each level across all departments, and ensure that students had the same number of exams (written and oral) for each session. These had varied widely, from section to section and often generated frequent problems. Another concerned the degree of detail in the definition of the course headings that would become enshrined in the *décret*. Should one slot for example be "The Novel: 3 hours," "The Modern Novel: 3 hours," or two separate courses "The Victorian Novel: 1 and a ½ hours," and "The American 19th Century Novel: 1 and a ½ hours."

Throughout years of having to live with flaw-filled programs while trying to influence the upcoming reform, our English department had focused on offering more EFL courses, a freer labeling of headings and the elimination of the irrelevant distinction between *Cours magistraux, Travaux pratiques/Travaux dirigés*—a distinction that impacted teaching loads—in order to give all student contact hours the same weight.[12] This also was the time of the introduction of new subjects like African literature, cultural studies and literary survey courses.

Our contribution to the debate was further complicated by the fact that across the three working languages of Arabic, French and English, terms and concepts meant different things to different departments. Between the concept of "course" in English and *cours* (lecture) in French, and between "course" and *madda* (discipline) in Arabic the differences were more than linguistic. The habit for program setting had always been focused on the broader "discipline" with little guidance on actual content. "Philology" or "Literature" or "History" could mean anything the individual lecturer wanted it to be, which in the end did not matter too much since as we pointed out, the professor was "sovereign" in lecturing on whatever topic within the *madda* and examining students on that content.

The compromise curricular "architecture" we contributed to implementing, after months of argumentation and debates, horizontal (across various disciplines) and vertical (involving lecturers within the same or a similar department), was finally built on a series of extraordinary compromises in which it would be the departments who would ultimately define course content and determine the respective importance devoted to each component. There would be 10 units (courses/*matières*/*madda*) for each department at each of the four levels. Departments would be allowed to reserve each unit to a single course, or divide it in two or even three sub-units. Within the agreed-upon cap of 22 h per week, a unit could be covered in 1–4 h per week and would be subject at the end of the year to either a written or an oral examination

[12]Most institutions used the formula to distinguish between lectures delivered in amphitheaters (*cours magistraux* by full professors) and *travaux dirigés/travaux pratiques* taught in smaller rooms and laboratories by *assistants* and *maître assistants.*

depending on its rank in the list. All 10 subjects had to be ranked from 1 to 10, the first 5 being reserved for the written exams, and the others to be evaluated in oral tests. In this category were placed among others ancillary courses like languages for the Humanities, and some Humanities and Arabic language courses in our foreign language departments. Here also, and for all the programs, the not-too-reliable mark given on the final "30–50 research paper" was listed in the orals category and weighted to count for half of the exam, hence it contributed to the level of *mention* or "distinction" on the degree certificate from *Passable* (50% average), to *Très bien* (80%). In the English department, we evaluated the students' papers by both the supervisor and another colleague and those of our students with "*Bien*" or "*Très bien*" were usually admitted on this basis in post-graduate programs here and abroad.

One other set of compromises inspired by the English department's needs for more leeway in designing examinations was the imposition of the 3 + 2 exam subjects. Across all the departments, all lecturers responsible for "units" listed from 1 to 5 would have to submit three exam proposals ("chosen or composed") from the first five and 2 marks for the five oral subjects even if that process involved "drawing lots." The average pass mark for the written would be 30 out of 60 and 50 out 100 after the oral session when the marks on these subjects are figured in.[13]

It must be added here that that reform also witnessed a revision of the system of exam administration: From the two sessions in June and October that would in time and with the steady student increases take up anywhere from 4 to 6 weeks to oversee and administer manually in that pre-computer age. The total amount of time needed to administer exams came to equal or take up more than that spent teaching! The awkward compromise proposals that were finally accepted kept two sessions still, one "written exam" session in early May, followed 6 weeks later by a second written session, and a common oral exam period for all *admissibles* that would be scheduled as soon as the results of the second session were published and would continue through the entire month of July. Another compromise allowed the students with general averages under the *admissible* level to keep the marks on the course or courses they would have passed, marks that would be recorded for the June session.

Although awkward and constraining, this curricular architecture allowed the department to define precisely the English-language competence all our students needed to master in order to move from one level to the next, and we had built as pointed out, the two higher-level options around the general objective of enabling any of our graduates the acquire the knowledge and linguistic skills that could get them accepted in an MA program in the UK or the US, with more specialized courses and considerable written work during the seminar. The consequence was failing students who could not reach the minimum academic level we considered necessary.

---

[13]Décret n° 2-82-472 du 16 rebia II 1403 (31 janvier 1983) portant réforme du régime des études et des examens en vue de l'obtention du diplôme de la licence ès lettres *Bulletin Officiel n°*: 3666 (02/02/1983).

2.4.6 The new FF program

That period of vertiginous expansion of higher education in Morocco, and after the political class had retreated on several timid attempts to channel enrolment and allow departments to decide how many new students they could admit based on their available resources, the government had no choice then but to continue expanding the map of higher education, with new faculties of letters being built or planned for opening at the rate of one or even two each year. Where the existing minimum three-year DES program could only produce a trickle of qualified lecturers, and nearly none in English, the Ministry mandated our Faculty and the one in Fes (the two "senior" faculties at the time) to elaborate and propose a new program that could "guarantee" the "training" – hence the French term of *formation des formateurs* (FF) applied to the program – of a number of graduates with the minimum academic skills to teach in the institutions soon to receive students.

After endless convoluted debates again, arguments and counterarguments with government legislators for whom the proposed program to be introduced, since it will lead to the award of a national degree that automatically entitles the holder to enter government service in universities, it had to confirm in all ways to their current standards and criteria. Generally inspired by our experience of the universities in the US and the UK where we had done our work, we designed and proposed an entirely new architecture that would apply to all the other departments as well. Here are the main outlines.

For "political" reasons, the DES would remain the principal degree for hiring assistant lecturers or *Maîtres-assistants*. That qualification had always been equivalent to the French *Doctorat de 3ème cycle* of which the main requirement was a one-year lecture course with a final written exam at the end of the year that enables the successful candidate to officially register the topic of a thesis under the supervision of a full professor. There was no limit to the number of years for submission and for the defense. The DES diploma allowed automatic hiring in any institution of higher learning and needed only approval of the dean, who may or may not have to consult the department in question.

However, the compromise DES that we proposed would now have two separate tracks: the first would be to maintain the old bottle-neck open-admission CEC that could produce at the end of the long line only a trickle of qualified candidates for academic positions, two or three per year at most for the larger departments, and only one in the entire period under consideration for our English Department. The second, because government planners insisted on providing a minimum number of *assistants* for all the institutions being build, would be a totally different, full-time, two-year program with the award of a certificate we conceived as roughly equivalent to the UK/US Master of Arts we named CEUS (*Certificat d'études universitaires spécialisées*) to distinguish it from the CEC.

The new two-year avenue would differ from the *licence* and run the full course before a new cohort is enrolled.[14] No student would be allowed to repeat and the average pass mark was raised. Each program would have a different disciplinary emphasis to allow for some diversity, under the professorship of a senior, highly noted academic. The purpose was to alternate fields and areas of research and cover some of the range of fields in the official programs. Admission would be based on a highly selective national competition that any holder of a first degree who aspires for an academic career and who commits to the objectives of the program would need to pass. Most importantly, the national competition for entry into the program would allow each section to select a maximum number of students (from 15 in our department to about 25 for the larger ones of Arabic, History and Geography).

As far as content was concerned, our department proposed to move away from discipline-based headings to new curricular designations based on course classifications common to all disciplines in literature and the humanities: There would be foundations courses, review-of-the-literature courses, approaches courses, specialized topics courses, genre courses, research methods courses, a thesis-supervision course, as well as other types, and we knew the government legislators would not accept a "shell" without a precise definition of content for each and every academic discipline. In the end a single table was published in the *décret* of 1982 with a list of articles outlining rules for *all* specializations. It would be up to each section to elaborate specific programs and adapt their precise contents to the new strictures.

Graduates of the CEUS would be assigned to one of the newer institutions as *assistants*, and would be named full *maîtres-assistants* as soon as they completed their DES thesis, for which a maximum period of three years for completion had been instituted. For most, the research undertaken in the first two years would have already prepared them the completion of a substantial piece of scholarship in a much shorter period than usual, because many of the needed academic resources and the daily presence of a supervisor had been provided. Further motivation was the substantial salary increase that would come with the higher rank.

For the "horizontal" cross-department dimension of the program all sections would have the same weight, that is, the same number of units and number of weekly hours, and configurations of courses as outlined above. As far as our English department was concerned, this FF program was a historic opportunity that enabled us to select among hundreds of candidates for a number of years beginning in 1982–1983 the best qualified students, further motivated by the fact that most of them had been teaching English in provincial schools, and the prospect of a university career in a major city proved a powerful magnet.

Needless to say that when the CEUS programs were published in the *BO* considerable objections arose throughout the system and other departments needed considerable persuasion. Only the fact that the professors in charge of the first cohorts had unquestionable credentials and were highly respected in academia, that the process

[14]The competition for the CEUS program would be open every two years, with no concurrent classes whereas registration for the *licence* is done every year.

went through and the institutions managed to graduate several generations of scholars most are now the mainstays of higher education in Morocco. It must be added here that the role of the Minister was crucial at the time because he had just been promoted head of government (while keeping the education portfolio) and put the bureaucracy in front of the impossible choice of either approving the revolutionary architecture or face the prospect of tens of thousands of students without lecturers.

2.5 Conclusion

I shall end this personal account of the making of the English department in Rabat with a highly condensed, naturally subjective and partial assessment of what may be considered from a backward glance over four decades our main successes and failures suggesting at the same time how the former explains or justifies the latter and vice versa.

Beyond impacting the *licence* and FF reforms at the end of the period under investigation, and the planting of many seeds that would find their way into general acceptance by the system over three decades, the first and obvious success lay perhaps in the continuous popularity of our department, even after several others had opened elsewhere during that period, and the government had imposed restrictions on admissions based not on the students' secondary school record but on the city where they had sat for their *baccalauréat*. As the pressure of numbers kept growing throughout the 1970s and 1980s we tried at all costs to maintain the academic level (and the perceived value) of our diplomas. Sadly enough from our perspective now, the standards we fought to uphold could only be achieved at the huge cost of failing so many of our students, especially in the first two years. If we consider in rough terms the fact that about 20% of our students could and would achieve the desired competence in four years, and the bottom 20% never made it past the first level, the mass of students in between, those 60% or more who kept repeating and trying until they graduated if ever after 6 or 8 years, I believe we should have done more for that category of students who were victim of the open-admission system, and our own rigid criteria, particularly since equivalent-level students in other universities kept graduating and benefit from all the advantages afforded by the degree certificates.

On another level, the manner in which observers perceived the work of our department, how we dealt on a daily basis with a complicated machine handled by so many different operators, or to use another expression, how we sustained the unsustainable, all led to the positive perception of our department. We relied on collective effort, organization and demonstrated fairness and objectivity, and the results of our examinations were considered by all as "credible." Even if the highly "politicized" system could not allow it, the perception was that this department, if given the opportunity, could come up with innovative solutions for the reform of the entire system. Also, in the course of that decade we came into contact directly or indirectly with all the constituencies that mattered, which gave us considerable understanding of the "terrain" and experience in problem-solving. As a group, we were considered hardworking,

dedicated and able professionals. Graduates from our department had no problems passing entrance examinations in teacher-training schools, or finding jobs outside the secondary school teaching track, and many of the top ones were competent enough to receive grants for higher studies abroad. Paradoxically again, all this was the reason the government, looking for individuals with considerable organization and managerial skills who would be capable of starting a higher education institution from scratch, and running a complex half-academic, half-administrative organization, selected so many of us for nomination to higher duties. In the decades of the 1970s and 1980s a high proportion among us were "promoted" as vice-deans, deans, directors, university presidents, ambassadors and even government ministers.[15] The paradox here is that the department was gradually depleted of its most dynamic elements even if it continued to live for decades on its past achievements. All of us had no choice in accepting such responsibilities because we knew that from these positions of influence we would have wider impact.

Finally, we could argue that the collective achievements of the English department in Rabat in the 1970s and 1980s happened at the expense of our own individual academic research, with most of us unable to publish much in our field after our Ph.D. dissertations. It is easy enough now to justify that by the lack of library resources, especially in literature (which until the advent and generalization of the internet and the availability of on-line resources) were close to nil as mentioned. The efforts required by heavy teaching loads, all the hours spent on coordination and administration, the fact that we pursued a policy of allowing colleagues accepted in prestigious Ph.D. programs three or four years' leave (taking on their teaching loads) and the higher responsibilities we could not refuse to assume just made it impossible for us to advance our individual research pursuits. One source of satisfaction is that once the department had reached its cruising speed as it were, and the system stabilized in the final decade of the century, it became possible for a younger generation of faculty to produce respectable research in areas where they made notable contributions in cultural and popular studies, linguistics, and in comparative literature, and for a few of us, in the field of higher education research.

Hassan Mekouar is Professor Emeritus of American Literature at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities of Mohammed V University in Rabat. He holds a Ph.D. from Brown University (1977). He served as chair of the English department for three consecutive terms and dean of the same faculty from 1982 to 1989 as well as president of Mohamed I University of Oujda in north-east Morocco (1989–1997). With seven published volumes, Hassan Mekouar is the most prolific Moroccan poet writing in English. The first volume of his trilogy *The Future Remains* was published in 1999, followed by two other volumes in 2000 and 2001. *The Wings of the Walrus* appeared in 2003 and in 2007 he published a double volume entitled *Stories in (Very) Free Verse* and *7*. 2013 saw the publication of his two-volume *Poems, 1969–2013*.

[15] Assia Bensaleh Alaoui, Mohammed Dahbi, Said Graiouid, Lahcen Haddad, Bouchaib Bouyahyaoui Idrissi, Abdelkrim Kriem, Abdelhamid Lotfi, Mohammed Laamiri, Hassan Mekouar, Nagib Mokhtari, Driss Ouaouicha, Mohammed Saleh Tamek, Fouzia Rhissassi.

Chapter 3
English as a Global Language in Morocco: A Qualitative Study of Students' Motivations for Studying English

Hassan Belhiah

Abstract This chapter sheds light on the global spread of English in Morocco by examining university students' motivations for selecting English as a field of study. Drawing on qualitative approaches in applied linguistics, two instruments have been employed to collect data: Email interviews and focus groups. A total of 286 Moroccan students participated in this study. They were in attendance at five public universities located in Marrakesh, Rabat, Kenitra, Oujda, and Meknes. Ten analytical typologies accounting for students' motivations have been identified: (i) Language attitudes and beliefs, (ii) Cultural interest, (iii) Ideal L2 self, (iv) Instrumentality (v) International orientation, (vi) Language facility, (vii) Linguistic vitality, (viii) Social milieu, (ix) School Milieu, and (x) Multilingual orientation. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the evolving status of English in Morocco and its implications for language policy and planning in the country.

Keywords Spread of English · Global English · English-in-Education · Teaching of English in Morocco · Moroccan language education policy

3.1 Introduction

Applied linguists have investigated the global English phenomenon and its effect on local and global linguistic ecologies. Crystal (2012) argues that a language is considered global when it has acquired a distinct role in various polities across the world, such as becoming the mother tongue of the majority of citizens (e.g., England and New Zealand); attaining the status of an official language (e.g., India and Cameroon); being considered the preeminent foreign language in secondary education (e.g., China and South Korea); or being used as a medium of instruction in lieu of the mother tongue in institutions of higher education (e.g., UAE and KSA). As such, a global language is pervasive and permeates all walks of life, including

H. Belhiah (✉)
Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: hbelhiah@uwalumni.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_3

sports, music, entertainment, politics, tourism, popular culture, the media, education, and the internet.

De Swaan (2010, 2013) posits a global language system in which the ranking of each language is contingent upon its "communication potential" (Q-value), which is determined based on its "prevalence and its centrality". This system is hierarchical in nature and breaks languages into four categories: Hypercentral languages are found at the summit, whereas peripheral languages are positioned at the bottom of the pyramid; supercentral and central are located in the middle. Currently, English is the sole hypercentral language owing to its status as a global language. Although Chinese boasts the highest number of speakers in the world, it has not yet been elevated to the status of a hypercentral language due to its limited global reach. Hence, it is considered a supercentral language.

One area that reflects the global dominance of English amply is academic publication. Ammon (2003) examined Anglo-Saxon bibliographic databases and found that by 1995, 87.2% of scholarly articles in the natural sciences and 82.5% in the social sciences had been published in English. Taavitsvainen and Pahta (2003) note that in 2001 nearly all doctoral dissertations (118 out of 119) at the University of Helsinki Faculty of Medicine were composed in English, whereas in 2001–2002, 50% of doctoral dissertations in the Faculty of Arts were written in English. Hamel (2007) points out the following interesting facts about English supremacy in the academic arena: At the turn of the twentieth century, English, French, and German were the three dominant languages in scientific publishing. German had the upper hand in medicine, biology, and chemistry; French in law and political sciences; English in political economy and geology. However, due to America's political and military ascendency after World War II, English has gradually ousted German and French to become the most dominant language in international scientific publishing.

One reason for the ascendency of English is "its propensity for acquiring new identities, its power of assimilation, its adaptability for 'decolonization' as a language, … and above all its suitability as a flexible medium for literary and other types of creativity across languages and cultures." (Baugh & Cable, 1993). However, one should be wary that this diffusion, or rather hegemony, is all but natural. Nor is it a byproduct of some intrinsic qualities of the English linguistic system. If history is any measure, Greek, Latin, and Arabic made inroads into new territories, because of the armies of Alexander the Great, the legions of the Roman Empire, and the Moorish armies, respectively. "And English … has been no exception" (Crystal, 2012, p. 9). History shows that the US and the UK exerted strenuous efforts to promote English monolingualism through entities such as the United States Information Agency, the British Council, and the ELT projects, which has given rise to linguicism, a process which operates in similar fashion to racism and sexism, by promoting one language at the expense of another and legitimizing a monolingual reality (Phillipson, 2013), facts which can also result in "linguistic capital dispossession" (Phillipson, 2017, p. 13).

Despite the potential ramifications of the global spread of English on learners' personal and professional lives, little research has been undertaken on students' motivations for studying English in Morocco. To date, no study has investigated

university students' motivations for selecting English as a field of study instead of Arabic or French. Hence, the general aim of this study is to explore the phenomenon of global English in Morocco by examining the following questions:

1. What are students' motivations for selecting English as a study major instead of Arabic or French?
2. What do the findings reveal about the status of English in Morocco?
3. What are the implications for language shift and maintenance in Morocco?
4. What are the implications for language policy and planning in Morocco?

3.2 Motivations for Studying English

Motivation is a psychological construct that has attracted the attention of applied linguists. Viewed from a socio-psychological perspective, motivation encompasses learners' efforts and goals to acquire the language. Gardner and Lambert (1959, 1972) make a distinction between two types of orientations: an integrative orientation, in which learners show a positive disposition toward the L2 community and willingness to be affiliated with the members of that community and their culture; and an instrumental orientation, in which learners seek pragmatic benefits, such as landing a decent job or earning a high income. Orientations are thus long-term goals, which, when combined with attitudes, nourish students' motivation to learn the language. Orientation and motivation are two different constructs: A student might display a given orientation toward an L2; however, he or she might not be highly motivated to attain his or her goal (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994). Motivation is then the level of intensity and effort exerted to achieve the goal reflected in the orientation.

It is worth noting that this distinction is not always hard and fast, and several studies have used the terms interchangeably and described orientation as intrinsic and extrinsic (e.g., Harter, 1981) or instrumental and integrative orientation, or combined the two, which results in "motivational orientations" (Noels, 2001, p. 117). Besides the issue of operationalizing the terms motivation and orientation, Gardner's concept of integrative motivation rests on a belief that learners seek identification or affiliation with a well-defined and stable Anglo-American community. Such conceptualization may no longer be valid, as the English-speaking community is in a state of flux as captured by Kachru's model of World Englishes (1992), which demonstrates how new indigenized and localized varieties of English have emerged in outer circle countries. Widdowson (1997) also argues that due to the rapid spread of English, the so-called native speakers can no longer claim exclusive ownership of English. In this sense, "others", especially in outer and expanding circles, can claim rights to English ownership on a par with their inner circle counterparts; their varieties can be considered as baseline rather than non-native or foreigner talk (Widdowson, 1997). Blommaert (2010) explains that speakers' linguistic repertoires are mobile rather than fixed, and move across a vertical space in which "socially, culturally and politically salient distinctions occur" (p. 5). As encapsulated by Lamb (2004, p. 3):

> In the minds of learners, English may not be associated with particular geographical or cultural communities but with a spreading international culture incorporating (inter alia) business, technological innovation, consumer values, democracy, world travel, and the multifarious icons of fashion, sport and music.

It follows that the goal of learning English for many learners does not reside in communicating with native speakers per se, but with non-native speakers. Sifakis (2004) even suggested using the term "English as an Intercultural Language" instead of "English as an International Language," since English today is used frequently in intercultural encounters. In this respect, Ushioda and Dörnyei (2009, p. 3) raise the following questions:

> Does it make sense to talk about integrative attitudes when ownership of English does not necessarily rest with a specific community of speakers, whether native speakers of British or American English varieties or speakers of World English varieties? … Does the notion of integrative motivation for learning English have any real meaning, given the increasing curricular reframing of English as a universal basic skill to be taught from primary level alongside literacy and numeracy?

One significant concept that was born out of this debate is Yashima's notion of international posture (2000, 2002, 2009). According to Yashima, due to the rapid expansion of English worldwide, EFL learners can no longer identify with one specific group of English speakers. In this view, English serves as means to connect learners and speakers from various countries; and while some of these speakers are native, EFL learners are not generally inclined to relate to them. In fact, identification with native speakers from the US and the UK was one of the least supported items regarding subjects' reasons for studying English (Yashima, 2000). International posture is made manifest in learners' "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures" (Yashima, 2002, p. 57).

In this study, the term motivations will be used to describe factors, orientations, and perceptions identified by students as being conducive to their language choice. The study will be informed by Yashima, Ushioda, and Dörnyei's theoretical concepts, such as international posture, cultural interest, and so on. These terms will be used loosely and insofar as they provide a depiction of students' motivations. Instead of adopting an etic stance (i.e., researcher-centric) in which categories or units of analysis are defined a priori, this study will utilize an emic approach (i.e., participant-centric) in which the units of analysis, categories, and constructs are extracted from the in-depth information provided by the informants regarding their feelings, experiences, and perceptions vis-à-vis studying English, Arabic, and French.

3.3 The Linguistic Landscape in Morocco

Morocco is a multilingual community, where speakers grow up exposed to three or four languages, most prominent of which are Arabic, Amazigh, French, and Spanish. Code-switching or rather polylingual languaging, to use a more recent term by Jørgensen (2008), is the norm rather than the exception. Depending on their proficiency level, Moroccans will make use of appropriate linguistic features drawn from a combination of these codes to convey their messages and achieve intersubjectivity. While Amazigh is an official language and Spanish continues to exercise influence in Northern Morocco, these two languages do not enjoy wide currency among university students. This section highlights major aspects of Arabic, French, and English, the three languages with the highest number of enrollment in Moroccan universities.

3.3.1 Arabic

According to the 2011 Moroccan constitution, Arabic is a co-official language of Morocco, alongside Amazigh. However, the term Arabic is vague at best as various varieties of Arabic exist along a continuum, such as Quranic Arabic, Classical Arabic, Modern Standard Arabic, Middle Moroccan Arabic, Educated Spoken Arabic, and Moroccan Arabic or Darija (Marley, 2004; Youssi, 1995; Ennaji, 1995). Using Ferguson's definition of traditional diglossia (1959), Morocco can be considered a diglossic community, in which Modern Standard Arabic is the high variety as it is often used in formal domains, such as religion, education, and administration; whereas Moroccan Arabic is the low variety due to its use mainly as a spoken medium and its lack of a standardized variety. However, even this is problematic since the Moroccan variety is not always intelligible to speakers from other Arabic-speaking countries due its lexicon and to a lesser extent morphology, which have been significantly impacted by centuries-long contact with Amazigh, French, and Spanish. In addition, many Moroccans do not consider Moroccan Arabic as a language, much less a variety of Arabic and prefer to speak in French instead in the public sphere. It seems that when Arabic is used today, it refers to Modern Standard Arabic, the variety used in formal education and the mass media, especially as a written medium. Therefore, it would be safe to limit the word Arabic to Modern Standard Arabic, and refer to the spoken variety as Moroccan Darija or the Moroccan vernacular. Arabic derives its power and prestige from its association with Islamic liturgy and its characterization as the language of divine revelation. It is thus promoted by the state as an index of national and religious identity, a fact underscored by the definition of Islam as the official religion of the state in the Moroccan constitution.

3.3.2 French

During the French Protectorate period (1912–1956), French was used as a medium of instruction in mission French schools, which educated children of French residents and Moroccan elite. These schools were anchored in *la mission civilatrice*, an ideology propagated in French colonies, which consisted of "civilizing" the colonized (Conklin, 1997). "The same education was provided for (some) children in Africa as for those in Lille: the same textbooks were used…" (Ager, 1999, p. 18). It was also mandated as the official language of the protectorate by the French authorities. After Morocco gained its independence in 1956, it launched the Arabization policy, whose purpose was to eliminate French from the educational system and key public domains, with a view to restoring Islamic values and safeguarding social and moral independence from the French. "For the Islamist movement, Arabization is a means to ensure the revival and spread of Islam in Morocco, which is subject to the influence of Western civilization, that is itself associated with social and moral decadence." (Mouhssine, 1995, p. 45).

Sixty years later, the Arabization policy has proved to be a debacle. Not only has it failed to eradicate French from the educational system, but it has also been unable to develop a viable alternative, in which students are capable of entering the workforce and participating in the new economy. It is only ironical that many of the proponents of Arabization, especially from the Istiqlal Party, chose to educate their offspring in French mission schools and send them to pursue university studies in France so that upon graduation they return to Morocco and assume high-ranking government and ministerial positions. The current Minister of National Education, Professional Training, and Higher Education and Scientific Research has enrolled his children in a French mission school instead of a public one. Apparently, "after independence … the French-speaking elite replaced the colonial rulers, applying much the same language policy in most cases or attempting to establish hegemony for a local variety" (Spolsky, 2018, p. 71). Today, French mission schools continue to thrive; they are highly selective as the number of applicants keeps increasing year in year out. French remains the de facto official language of vital domains, such as business, science, telecommunications, engineering, and medicine. French also plays a significant role in public education as it is used as a medium of instruction in science and engineering institutions of higher education. French indexes success, modernization, prestige, and social status. It is a linguistic capital, to use Bourdieu's term (1991, 1998), that provides access to politics, education, the mass media, and the government, so over time this linguistic capital is converted into social and economic capital, an outcome that is not likely to come about with the exclusive mastery of one of the indigenous or national languages.

3.3.3 English

English is taught as a foreign language in Moroccan public schools as well as at university level alongside French in the freshman year. Recognizing the growing importance of English, the Ministry of Education mandated that English be taught starting Grade 5, while previously it had not been introduced until Grade 10 (Dahbi, 2004). The government also launched the English Baccalaureate in 2014, in which English instruction was to be allocated more time, and science courses to be taught in the English medium. In the private sector, there are American curriculum schools in the cities of Casablanca, Rabat, Tangier, and Marrakesh. While most public institutions of higher education teach through the Arabic and French mediums, there is a growing trend to teach science and engineering courses in English due to the demand to publish in international journals in order to increase universities' ranking (Belhiah & Abdelatif, 2016). Additionally, the number of private universities offering partial or complete instruction in the English medium has been growing steadily. These include Al-Akhawayn University in Ifrane, International Institute for Higher Education in Rabat, Private International Institute of Management and Technology in Rabat and Casablanca, and The International University of Rabat. One British and one American university also offer degree and/or semester abroad programs, namely The University of Sunderland and Cardiff Metropolitan University in Casablanca, Rabat and Tangier, and The University of New England in Tangier.

Unlike French, English does not carry a colonial baggage (Ennaji, 1991). Therefore, learners' attitudes toward English are generally favorable (Buckner, 2011; Errihani, 2017; Marley, 2004; Sadiqi, 1991). Boukous, a prominent Moroccan linguist, whose writings are predominantly in French, predicts that English will surpass French in the long term as Morocco's most spoken foreign language due to traditionalist, Islamist, and nationalist movements distrust of the French colonial legacy and ideology, on the one hand, and the gradual recognitions of English as the language of international culture and advanced technology (Boukous, 2009). While the government continues to favor French over English for political reasons having to do with the French government's strong support for Morocco's claim to the Sahara region, an issue on which the US stands on neutral ground, alongside the US State Department's recurrent criticism of human rights practices in Morocco; globalization, tourism, social media, the internet, science and technology, along with the internationalization of higher education are all factors that will likely accelerate the growth of English in the country in the next few decades.

3.4 Method

3.4.1 Context and Participants

A total of 286 Moroccan students majoring in English participated in this study. Participants were in attendance at five universities located in Marrakesh, Rabat, Kenitra, Oujda, and Meknes. All students in this study reported having studied English, Arabic, and French in high school. Among these, 140 were males and 146 females. Their ages ranged between 18 and 21.

3.4.2 Instrument

One interview questionnaire was developed and emailed to students. To validate the instrument, it was first disseminated among some colleagues, all of whom were language teachers, and revisions were made based on their feedback. The interview questionnaire was piloted among a group of 50 students. After analyzing their results, it appeared that the questions were clear and no further changes were deemed necessary. Students were given the choice to provide their answers in the language with which they are comfortable. All but three students wrote their answers in English. Three focus group discussions were carried out subsequently focusing on aspects of the interview that needed further elaboration.

3.4.3 Data Collection

The study was conducted over a period of 6 months (September 2018–February 2019). The email interview form was filled out electronically. Participants were informed that they were participating in a research project and that their answers, school affiliation, and identity would remain confidential. They were also informed that their participation was voluntary, and that they were free to opt out of participation.

3.5 Findings

The findings are organized into 10 recurrent analytical typologies that emerged from the data: (i) Language attitudes and beliefs, (ii) Cultural interest, (iii) Ideal L2 self, (iv) Instrumentality, (v) International orientation, (vi) Language facility, (vii) Linguistic vitality, (viii) Social milieu, (ix) School Milieu, and (x) Multilingual orientation. Verbatim quotes from the study participants are integrated to illustrate students'

motivations for selecting English as a field of study. The quotes were edited for glaring spelling and grammar errors only to ensure authenticity and legibility.

(i) ***Language attitudes and beliefs***

Several students indicated favorable attitudes toward English and its culture and conveyed their love and passion for studying English. They described English as a beautiful language that is worth studying. For some it was their favorite subject in high school; for others, it was one of the most important aspects of their lives and they take great pleasure when speaking in English:

> I have selected English as a field for my university studies, because I am very fond of English language, culture and literature

> English was always my favorite subject at school. After my baccalaureate, I pursued my studies in law but I always got that obsession to learn this language. So after getting my bachelor degree in private law I decided to join the English department

> When I was young, I really felt that I have a good future in English language. I was dreaming the day when I'm going to speak as a foreigner. Speak it fluently, without any pressure. So that is way I chose this field to continue my studies, for passion, for loving this beautiful language. Because I feel so comfortable when I speak it. I feel that I exist when I speak the language that makes me comfortable

Arabic and French on the other hand were perceived as dull, obsolete, and incapacitating compared to English. The adjective boring was associated 32 times with Arabic. Several students expressed their hatred for French, mainly because of its colonial legacy, and viewed French speakers as snobbish, elitist, and conceited:

> Arabic is not a language where you can find different opinions and thinking. It does not offer the freedom of expression, in particular, the freedom of writing. Many writers nowadays have switched to English because Arabic is restricting the way through a new form of language, thoughts and believes. In other words, Arabic does not help writers to express their new style and feelings.

> Since I was a kid, I did not like French not because it is difficult, but rather because I always saw French as a progressive existence of the colonizer, France.

> To be honest I've never been a fan of French and what made me hate it even more is how people speak it like ohhh!! pfffff bon bref tu vois pfff mais putain toi!It's just cancer!

(ii) ***Cultural Interest***

The study participants cited several aspects of the English culture for which they have significant interest and affection. These included cinema, music, English TV programs, and English history:

> As a teenager I was obsessed with American culture, movies and songs … I was always a big fan of American language and history so I wanted to learn more about it

> I used to like American songs; I was always repeating lyrics and trying to understand their meanings. These affected my choice after getting my Baccalaureate

With regards to Arabic, participants expressed their discomfort with some aspects of the Arab culture, such as conservatism and religiosity. Some implied that they did not identify with the Arabic culture. As for the French culture, it was only brought up once and participants stated that they knew little about it since they rarely watched or listened to French programs.

> I could have chosen Arabic as a major if I was interested in Arabic culture, Classical Arabic poetry and Arabic history in general. I would also have chosen it if I was born in Saudi Arabia or in a country where Arabic is considered a main language.

> Arabic feels culturally foreign in a way, especially classical Arabic. I don't particularly identify with for example: conservatism, Arabic/Bedouin/Islamic culture.

> I was never interested in French or its culture, if I had a choice, I would have studied English at school rather than French.

(iii) ***Ideal L2 Self***

A recurrent theme in the focus groups was a sense among participants that the person they would like to become in the future is someone who speaks English. Although currently English is not the dominant language in day-to-day communication in Morocco, participants expressed their desire to speak English on a daily basis with members of the English community. They see English usage as crucial for their happiness and self-image:

> I always knew I wanted to study English but I was discouraged by words like 'it's only a tool', 'you need to study for a real job', 'do you only want to become an English teacher?'. But in the end I decided to switch to English because it's what I like and want to speak in the future, and better do something you like than please people and be miserable

> I think life would be easier and more fun if I can speak that language as I can integrate into different societies and be part of them.

Some students expressed their desire to become writers in the future and said English would enable them to achieve their dreams of becoming successful writers:

> I love reading novels, different types of books which made me more interested in this language. I love writing as well. I started writing short stories, poems and songs when I was twelve years old. One of my dreams is to become a writer even I'm not quite sure that I have that level but I think this language will help me in the future because I can express emotions and ideas on my journals in English better than in Arabic or French.

(iv) ***Instrumentality***

A range of perceived benefits of mastering English were elicited. Many students stated that English would help them secure decent jobs, such as working as English teachers, interpreters, translators, and businessmen. Some students were bound to study sciences in college, but because of their poor mastery of French, they gave up and joined the English department, in the hopes that they will study sciences in English overseas upon earning their BA.

> The job market makes it inevitable to study English. I had a strong desire to study history and philosophy but these majors are almost not needed in the job market, which led me to select my second preference, English.

> English will give me the opportunity to get the job that I want which is to be an interpreter in one of the embassies.

> I was not really imagining myself studying English at the university due to the fact that I got my high school degree in physics. However, I got cold feet when I heard that it was very hard especially in French and most people who have done it don't even last for the first year. If I speak English and master it, I will have a bright future as it will be easier for me to go and finish my studies abroad.

Arabic and French were perceived as being less competitive on the international marketplace.

> The only importance of Arabic language I know is as a part of my identity but as more jobs demand English skills it won't do me any favor studying my mother tongue.

> Arabic has more graduates and less job perspectives unlike the English language which has a bright future in Morocco.

> French is slowly losing its position in the professional world, so it doesn't make sense to invest my time and energy in a dying language.

(v) ***International Orientation***

A recurrent theme in the interviews was a sense among interviewees that English is an international language that helps build connections not only with people from English-speaking countries, but also with citizens around the world. Some participants also expressed their wish to seek residency abroad. Compared to English, Arabic and French were viewed as lacking similar international appeal:

> English has become a language of all nations, besides, it will give me the access to understand and communicate with people from any part of the globe.

> I always dreamt of following my brother's steps and pursuing my studies and living in the United states.

> Arabic is no longer considered as an international language that will allow me to communicate with people from various countries and get to know their culture.

> I find it illogical that our country is francophone in a world where the most valuable language is English

(vi) ***Language Facility***

A common view among participants was that English is an easy language to learn due to its simple grammatical rules. Students expressed high self-confidence in their English proficiency and reported obtaining good marks in secondary school because the workload was manageable, which encouraged them to select English as a study major.

> English was the only subject in high school which I was good at.

> Actually there are two things I'm good at: Football or sports generally and English. After I had my Baccalaureate I wanted to specialize in football. The problem was that I didn't have a good grade. That's why I decided to select English because I felt good at English sections at high school, and also one of my dreams is to become a writer even I'm not quite sure that I have that level but I'm trying to be good at writing.

Participants' perceptions of Arabic and French were different. For many, Arabic is a difficult language to master because of its complex grammatical system. The workload in high school was not manageable as students had to read literature written in classical Arabic and memorize poetic verses they did not comprehend. French was a source of struggle and anxiety owing to its copious grammatical rules. This resulted in low academic performance and pushed many participants to abandon any hope that they will ever master French:

> I found trouble studying it especially in high school, because I was a literature student and we had to study it mainly with all its poems and its old writings.

> I had a lot of difficulties understanding some of the Arabic major's subjects like grammar. I have always had terrible marks in Arabic exams at high school.

> I did not select French as a study field because I am terrible at it; I think French is kind of complicated especially its grammar and English is way much easier.

(vii) ***Linguistic Vitality***

In their accounts of the events surrounding their selection of English as a study major instead of Arabic or French, one theme that became paramount was linguistic vitality. English was perceived as a central language with a high communication value and a superior culture. Arabic is viewed as a literary or school language with little value in participants' daily lives. French was considered more vital than Arabic as it has a higher value in the Moroccan marketplace, but not as central as English in its global reach:

> Arabic is a literary language. Arabic is dying in today's world. Majority of job opportunities either abroad or here in Morocco require languages such as English and French.

> French will become a dead foreign language.

(viii) ***Social Milieu***

Two aspects of social milieu have been highlighted by participants as being consequential for their pursuit of a degree in English: Early exposure to English and parental encouragement. Before the advent of satellite television and the internet, Moroccans had little exposure to English. TV programs and literature were available almost exclusively in Arabic and French. Students' exposure to English did not start until the age of 15, when students reached high school. Today, exposure to English kicks off as soon as their life begins, thanks to the internet and satellite television, which are available at affordable prices. Parents play an important role in the process as they nurture their children's desire to learn and master the language:

> As a teenager I was obsessed with American culture, movies and songs. I was always a big fan of American language and history so I wanted to learn more about it. Majoring in English was my dad's dream as well as mine. He had encouraged me to study what I love the most I believe that people choose a language for the same reason bank robbers rob banks: because that is where the money is and I see the future in English field.

> English has been my passion ever since I was in the 3rd grade; it used to be my gateway to compensate for my lack of French and Arabic. But now it's my gateway to achieve my goals and become an English professor, one day perhaps.

(ix) ***School Milieu***

Teachers and teaching methods have been cited by participants as playing a significant role in their choice of English instead of Arabic or French as a field of study. Participants perceived their English teachers as affable, friendly, and caring. They also stated that they encouraged them to pursue English studies at the university. Teaching methods were described as engaging, fun, and interactive:

> When I was in high school I used to like my English teacher. She was very nice in the way she teaches, she made me love this language because of her method of teaching (acting, singing, doing different activities in class.

> I solely joined the English department because of a teacher in high school; in fact; I used to despise the language. I used to dislike the language altogether because I couldn't understand it. But thanks to a great teacher, who prompted us to give our best, and helped us realize that all languages can be learned if given patience and persistence, I am studying English now.

Arabic and French teachers were generally perceived as dull, uninteresting, and disengaging. Teaching methods were viewed as too conventional, tedious, and teacher-fronted.

> Arabic was one of the subjects that I really resented in my high school years. It was simply not fun, or at least not as engaging as my other subjects. The teachers also didn't help. They certainly influenced my decision, as their way of teaching was very linear and orthodox.

> My experience in college with teachers made me hate the language somehow. It became a memory to how the teachers were careless about you as a student. They attend just to chat with other teachers and all what you can do in their class is writing a text till the session is over, thus French became a reminder of the torture we lived as students.

(x) ***Multilingual Orientation***

Participants conveyed a keen interest in learning languages and indicated they were not satisfied with being bilingual only. For them, having spent ample time studying French and Arabic in primary and secondary school is reason enough to embark on a new linguistic endeavor. Participants did not seem to be ethnocentric or to fear assimilation due to their English specialization. They saw multilingualism as normative and desirable, and communicated a strong interest in learning foreign languages:

> I think I've learnt enough about French and it's not a really interesting language for me.

> I've always been interested in languages; therefore, I've learnt French, English, Spanish, and Korean. I've studied economics and got my degree, and wanted to get a degree in English studies in order to study multilingual communication; I think that this language is very important to open up for the world and communicate with others.

3.6 Conclusion

This paper sought to shed light on the phenomenon of Global English in Morocco by exploring university students' motivations for selecting English as a field of study. In recent years, colleges of arts and social sciences have been facing a growing demand for English studies, which has surpassed the demand for all foreign languages, including Spanish, a colonial language, and French, a de facto official language. Even the demand for Arabic, the language of Islamic liturgy and national identity, has been in decline. This study has identified the major factors behind this state of affairs: Positive attitudes toward English, interest in the culture of English-speaking countries, the perception that English will be vital in students' future lives, the importance of English as a high-value commodity, students' interest in reaching out to people worldwide, the perception that English is linguistically easier than French and Arabic, the status of English as a lingua franca, early age acquisition coupled with parental encouragement, effective teaching methods, and students' keen interest in learning foreign languages.

The findings suggest that English is starting to make inroads into the linguistic landscape in Morocco. While Morocco may have been considered outside Kachru's model of World Englishes, which distinguishes between inner, outer, and expanding circles, one can safely claim that the country is gradually moving toward the expanding circle. The notion that English is a foreign language in Morocco may no longer be tenable given that many children start learning it at an early age and end up with a mastery that far surpasses their proficiency in Arabic and French. Granted, the state gives priority to Arabic and French, but this is no barrier to acquiring English since the internet, satellite television, and language centers provide Moroccans with the necessary tools to learn the language. Not to mention the role of neoliberal agencies, such as the British Council, AMIDEAST, and the Regional English Language Office (RELO), in promoting English as a necessity in the twenty-first century.

This study has implications for language policy and planning in Morocco. The spread of English is not without harm. It was disheartening to learn that many students reported poor mastery of what they believed to be their mother tongue, Arabic, while others went as far as conveying their loathing of Arabic. It is also astounding that Morocco is host to numerous organizations advocating the protection and revival of its two official languages, such as The National Coalition for the Arabic language and Amazigh Citizenship Network—Azetta, to name just two. If appropriate interventions are not made, it is likely that Arabic will remain a school language that has no bearing on students' personal and professional lives. Assuming that Arabic will be linguistically vital simply in view of its official status and spiritual influence is as

naïve as it is ill-informed. The same remark is applicable to Amazigh, which eight years after its officialization is still lagging behind with regard to its implementation in vital domains, such as education, health, administration, and law. Effective measures need to be taken in order to ensure a sense of additive multilingualism, where all pertinent languages are treated more or less equally. These measures should target attitude planning, acquisition planning, and corpus planning. It is such a multilingual policy that will eventually see national languages and foreign languages live side by side without fear of minoritization or homogenization.

References

Ager, D. E. (1999). *Identity, insecurity and image: France and language*. Clevedon, Philadelphia, PA: Multilingual Matters.

Ammon, U. (2003). The international standing of the German language. In J. Maurais & M. Morris (Eds.), *Languages in a globalising world* (pp. 231–249). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Baugh, A. C., & Cable, T. (1993). *A history of the English language*. Routledge.

Belhiah, H., & Abdelatif, A. (2016). English as a medium of instruction in Moroccan higher education. *Arab World English Journal, 7*(3), 227–238.

Blommaert, J. (2010). *The sociolinguistics of globalization*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Boukous, A. (2009). Globalization and sociolinguistic stratification in North Africa: The case of Morocco. In C. B. Vigourous & S. S. Mufwene (Eds.), *Globalization and language vitality: Perspectives from Africa* (pp. 127–141). Continuum International.

Bourdieu, P. (1991). Langu*age and symbolic power* (G. Raymond & M. Adamson, Trans.). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1998). *Practical reason: On the theory of action*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Buckner, E. (2011). The growth of English language learning in morocco: Culture, class, and status competition. In A. Al-Issa & L. Dahan (Eds.), *Global English: Issues of language, culture, and identity in the Arab world* (pp. 213–254). New York: Peter Lang Publishers.

Conklin, A. L. (1997). *A mission to civilize: The republican idea of empire in France and West Africa, 1895–1930*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Crystal, D. (2012). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Dahbi, M. (2004). English and Arabic after 9/11. *The Modern Language Journal, 88*(4), 628–631.

De Swaan, A. (2010). Language systems. In N. Coupland (Ed.), *The handbook of language and globalization* (pp. 56–76). New York: Wiley.

De Swaan, A. (2013). *Words of the world: The global language system.* New York: Wiley.

Ennaji, M. (1991). Aspects of multilingualism in the Maghreb. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 87*(1), 7–26.

Ennaji, M. (1995). A syntactico-semantic study of the language of news in Morocco. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 112*(1), 97–112.

Errihani, M. (2017). English education policy and practice in Morocco. In R. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *English language education policy in the Middle East and North Africa* (pp. 115–131). Berlin, Basel: Springer.

Ferguson, C. A. (1959). Diglossia. *Word, 15*(2), 325–340.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second-language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology/Revue Canadienne de Psychologie, 13*(4), 266–277.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

Gardner, R. C., & Tremblay, P. F. (1994). On motivation, research agendas, and theoretical frameworks 1. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(3), 359–368.

Hamel, R. E. (2007). The dominance of English in the international scientific periodical literature and the future of language use in science. *AILA Review, 20*(1), 53–71.
Harter, S. (1981). A new self-report scale of intrinsic versus extrinsic orientation in the classroom: Motivational and informational components. *Developmental Psychology, 17*(3), 300.
Jørgensen, J. N. (2008). Polylingual languaging around and among children and adolescents. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 5*(3), 161–176.
Kachru, B. B. (Ed.). (1992). *The other tongue: English across cultures*. Champaign: University of Illinois Press.
Lamb, M. (2004). Integrative motivation in a globalizing world. *System, 32,* 3–19.
Marley, D. (2004). Language attitudes in Morocco following recent changes in language policy. *Language Policy, 3*(1), 25–46.
Mouhssine, O. (1995). Ambivalence du discours sur l′ arabisation. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 112*(1), 45–62.
Noels, K. A. (2001). Learning Spanish as a second language: Learners' orientations and perceptions of their teachers' communication style. *Language Learning, 51*(1), 107–144.
Phillipson, R. (2013). *Linguistic imperialism continued*. New York: Routledge.
Phillipson, R. (2017). Myths and realities of 'global'English. *Language Policy, 16*(3), 313–331.
Sadiqi, F. (1991). The Spread of English in Morocco. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 87,* 99–114.
Sifakis, N. C. (2004). Teaching EIL—Teaching international or intercultural English? What teachers should know. *System, 32*(2), 237–250.
Spolsky, B. (2018). Language policy in French colonies and after independence. *Current Issues in language planning, 19*(3), 231–315.
Taavitsainen, I., & Pahta, P. (2003). English in Finland: Globalisation, language awareness and questions of identity. *English Today, 19*(4), 3–15.
Ushioda, E., & Dörnyei, Z. (2009). Motivation, language identities and the L2 self: A theoretical overview. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 1–8). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
Widdowson, H. G. (1997). EIL, ESL, EFL: Global issues and local interests. *World Englishes, 16*(1), 135–146.
Yashima, T. (2000). Orientations and motivation in foreign language learning: A study of Japanese college students. *JACET Bulletin, 31,* 121–133.
Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*(1), 54–66.
Yashima, T. (2009). International posture and the ideal L2 self in the Japanese EFL context. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 163–168). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
Youssi, A. (1995). The Moroccan triglossia: facts and implications. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 112*(1), 29–44.

Hassan Belhiah holds a Ph.D. (2005) and an M.A. (1998) in English from the University of Wisconsin in Madison. He is Associate Professor of English and Linguistics at Mohammed V University in Rabat. Previously, he held the positions of Chair of the Department of English Language and Literature at Mohammed V University in Rabat (2016–2018), Associate Professor of English and Education Studies at Alhosn University in Abu Dhabi, UAE (2009–2013), Assistant Professor at Al Akhawayn University in Morocco (2005–2009), and Lecturer/Teaching Assistant (1997–2005) at the University of Wisconsin in Madison. Dr. Belhiah has presented his research in conferences in the UK, Spain, Switzerland, Germany, Turkey, Morocco, UAE, and the US. His publications have appeared in Classroom Discourse (Taylor & Francis), Journal of Pragmatics (Elsevier), The Modern Language Journal (Wiley), Language Policy (Springer), and Applied Linguistics (Oxford University Press).

Chapter 4
The Evolution of the LMD Reform: The Case of the Department of English at Mohammed V University in Rabat

Yamina El Kirat El Allame and Youssef Laaraj

Abstract When the LMD system (Licence, Master, and Doctorate) was first introduced in the Department of English in Rabat in 2004, professors and students expressed their skepticism. Many thought that the way it was structured would have a negative impact on the quality of teaching and would not allow the students to achieve a high proficiency in the language. The main objective of the study is to find out the extent to which the introduction of the LMD system has affected the professors' teaching practices, research, and career. It also seeks to determine its impact on the students' learning, performance, and language proficiency.

Keywords LMD system · English department · Moroccan higher education · Bologna declaration

4.1 Introduction

Following the Bologna declaration on 19 June 1999 in Bologna, which emphasized the importance of education and educational cooperation in the development and strengthening of stable, peaceful, and democratic societies, Morocco substituted the Old system with the Licence/Master/Doctorate (henceforth LMD) system of education during the academic year 2003–2004. With the novel declaration, the major aim of this shift in Moroccan higher education was to follow the European model and facilitate the mobility of the students and professors. Upon the implementation of the reform, the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences at the University Mohammed V in Rabat started to offer a teaching in 15 streams leading to the Licence degree and three professional Licence programs. The courses are managed by 13 departments, 6 languages and literatures departments (Arabic, French, English, Spanish, Italian, and German), and 7 human sciences departments (philosophy, sociology, psychology,

Y. El Kirat El Allame (✉) · Y. Laaraj
Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: yelkirat@gmail.com

Y. Laaraj
e-mail: yousseflaaraj1@gmail.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_4

Islamic studies, geography, science and technology of communication), in addition to the streams of Portuguese and Chinese languages.

One of the major and vibrant departments in the Faculty of Letters in Rabat is the Department of English. It has trained generations of English majors who have become high school teachers, university professors, or pursued other careers. As such, it has significantly contributed to the promotion and evolution of the English language teaching and learning in Morocco. Being part and parcel of the Faculty of the Letters, the Department of English adhered to the LMD system in 2004. This study tries to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the Old and new systems, the impact the LMD system has had on the teachers' professional life, and the impact it has had on the students' performance, proficiency in English, and the quality of their training. The discussion will shed light on the issues addressed and help determine the evolution of the Department of English and the impact of the adoption of the LMD system on both professors and students.

4.2 The Department of English and the Moroccan Educational System

Before 2003, Moroccan universities used to adopt a year system, and the academic year and courses lasted from October to mid-April. Exams were organized into sessions, with the first session in May and the second session in June. The students' attendance was not compulsory. They were also free to attend with a group they do not belong to. There was no continuous assessment, but only one final exam, which tested both the students' oral and written proficiencies. The academic year ended on June 30. One of the main strengths of the Old system was the course-coordination among teachers; all teachers were required to get involved in the course-coordination for the sake of the final common exam. Another strong aspect of the Old system was the fact that the exams were anonymous and required double grading for all the subjects. This procedure seemed to guarantee both objectivity and meritocracy. However, one of the weaknesses of the system was the non-consideration of the student's attendance and class participation in the final exam.

The Bologna European model was introduced in Morocco as a university reform with the objective to improve the Moroccan educational system's performance and "prepare the student for integration into the socioeconomic environment" (El Masrar, 2015, p. 1). It also announced a change of the pedagogical architecture and more autonomy for the university. The reform also promised important changes at different levels: logistics, working conditions, syllabi and teaching methods, and so on. It assured the improvement of the working conditions and the reduction of the group size to a maximum of 30 students per group. The reform was also supposed to provide teachers with opportunities for personal development and the students with extra-curricular activities.

The LMD was supposed to make up for the deficiencies in the Old system and improve the Moroccan educational system (Lamine, 2010). Policy makers claimed that the new system would affect the students' training and academic development and improve the educational system. The academic year in the new system is organized into two semesters: a Fall and a Spring semester. Each is composed of 16 weeks, with 14 weeks of class and two weeks for continuous and final assessments. Among the issues faced with the LMD system was the length of the semester. Indeed, most teachers were not able to cope with the semester principle and had issues finishing the program. All the strong positive aspects of the Old system were given up: course coordination, common and anonymous exams and double correction. As the groups were large, some teachers avoided continuous assessment and also tried to evade having the students take the make-up exam (i.e. *rattrapage)*. Subsequently, the new system revealed to be time-consuming for the teachers and less demanding of the students (Altihami, 2010).

4.3 Research Methodology

The present study is based on fieldwork adopting a qualitative research approach. It relies on interviews to elicit the participants' views on the differences between the Old and the new systems. The interview form contains 17 open-ended questions and seeks to collect relevant information on the different aspects of the study, notably the major differences between the two systems, their strengths and weaknesses, and their relevance to the students and teachers' careers.

The structured interviews target both students and teachers who have experienced the two systems, and remain suitably qualified to provide reliable judgments of the two systems. Hence, the population sample involves mainly people who have studied or taught at English Department at the University of Mohammed V. The respondents, most of them, are currently teaching at the above-mentioned department, while others are teaching at different universities and schools in Morocco. The data analysis has been organized in the light of the research questions addressed and the themes collected through the interview.

4.4 LMD System: Strengths and Weaknesses

One of the key questions addressed to all the respondents concerns their impressions of the LMD system when it was first launched. The respondents' opinions diverged significantly: a post-secondary school teacher, who experienced both systems as a student, affirms: "I was skeptical because, in the old system, it took us four years to finish our academic training and get our BA." A doctorate holder from the Faculty of Science of Education reports that she "was surprised the first time [she] learned about the LMD system." The participants' feelings of apprehension show that students

and teachers were not well prepared for the considerable change in the educational system, and that they were misinformed about its eventual added value.

Indeed, mixed feelings appear to be common among the majority of respondents to this very question. Many respondents had, in contrast to the previous claims, expressed positive position toward the LMD system when it was first introduced before they found out that it did not meet their expectations as teachers or students. In this regard, an English professor at Sultan Moulay Slimane University claimed: "At the beginning, we were optimistic concerning the LMD system as we thought it would be better than the Old system. However, when it was implemented problems started to emerge." A female English professor at Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University expresses her discontent with the way the reform was implemented, "I was in favor of the LMD system. It brought many changes, most of which seemed very promising. I was mainly in favor of the continuous assessment part and of the LMD system; however, with the way things have turned out now, I wish we could go back to the Old system!" A big disparity is being revealed, herein, between what the LMD system promised to achieve and what it has eventually attained.

While some respondents have expressed their skepticism toward the change in the overall structure of courses and studies, others have shown eagerness for the new system and expected it to create a favorable educational environment. For instance, a teacher-trainer at Mohammed V University reports that "I was in favor of some form of reform as the Old system was so rigid and students' diverse needs and interests were not attended to in comparison to the new system, which is seemingly flexible enough to consider the students' differences." Likewise, a colleague of his declared: "I was in favor of the LMD when I first heard about it thanks to the various advantages that it claimed it would have for the students' trajectory. First, the new system promised to reform the content by making it more updated. Teaching of small groups ensures quality. Last but not least, the number of graduates will go higher while the number of dropouts will decrease."

4.5 The Old System and The LMD System: Strengths and Weaknesses

The participants' responses reveal important differences between the Old system and the LMD system, mainly in the teaching methodologies and outcomes. Respondents tend to praise the Old system for diverse reasons, which, overall, consolidate the students' self-dependence in studying and researching. In this regard, an English teacher at CPGE stated that "in the Old system, the student was more independent and autonomous since he had to take notes, do research and identify areas of difficulty by him/herself." Most responses praise the Old system, which they deem to be a "high quality academic training." In this respect, a participant who studied in the Old system and who is currently teaching in the new system affirms that teachers used to work

more comfortably and cover the whole syllabus in the Old system, in comparison to the new one.

Many respondents have expressed their discontent with the new system for instance, because "in the new system, the students are more dependent upon the teacher and the program. They need to grasp only some subjects according to modules and modules have to be validated through compensation between the fall and spring semesters." Respondents also argue that the new system puts a lot of pressure on both students and teachers vis-à-vis syllabus completion. Unlike the Old system, in which teachers and students used to have sufficient time to cover the contents of courses, the new system involves proportionately shorter study periods, not to mention the fact that graduation involves only three years instead of four.

Overall, the mainstream answers tend to emphasize the differences between the Old and the LMD system. Interestingly, they all converge on the supremacy of the Old system and highlight its positive aspects, which are lacking in the LMD system. Responses mention the shortage of time, the course pressure, the students' poor training and self-reliance, the frequent interruptions of studies, and the heavy workload for teachers. Most respondents seem to focus on the deficient implementation of the promised reform rather than on the reform itself for the latter was really meant to consolidate the teaching and training by compensating for the weaknesses of the Old system. A professor at Ibn Zohr University sums it all up saying: "The Old system was perfect."

4.6 The LMD System and Students' Proficiency

Among the issues addressed is the impact of the new system on the students' training and their language proficiency. In this regard, almost all the participants insist on the emphasized adverse impact of the LMD system. They use varied labels to describe the numerous weaknesses and repercussions on the academic development of students. A respondent from Sultan Moulay Slimane University affirms: "the performance of the students in the LMD system is much weaker than in the Old system." Irrespective of the alleged positive aspects the LMD system may have the respondents' views converge and all agree on the students' poor level and affirm that it is generally decreasing. Obviously, such unfavorable perspectives make one question the value of the LMD system and its rationale.

The agreement among the participants on the students' disappointing performance leaves no doubt over the supremacy of the Old system and its value for university students. According to the participants, the quality of training in the new system is poor compared to the Old system, which jeopardizes the professional and academic future of the students. In this regard, a female teacher from Mohammed V University in Rabat argues: "students succeed thanks to the inflated grades in periodic exams. Thus, they manage to graduate despite their low achievements." This does not only reveal the lack of rigor but also the leniency of the teachers who seem to fall in the exaggeration of the students' grades.

The respondents also stress the students' low proficiency in English and their weak academic achievements. Most respondents' views corroborate the same point: "students are less autonomous in the new system"; "their speaking and writing skills are unsatisfactory as they do study everything in a short time"; "learners do not have enough time to practice and assimilate instructional content and achieve the learning objectives." This reveals the major facet of the new system and its impact on the students' learning and training. Hence, the low language competencies force students to "rely more on cheating and luck than hard work" to pass their exams, a teacher-trainer at Mohammed V University in Rabat reports. Subsequently, "many students keep bouncing from one exam to another until they graduate from university empty handed," affirms another teacher. Indeed, a large number of students graduate, or rather leave the university, with very poor academic training or linguistic competencies.

4.7 The LMD System and Professors' Professional Lives

The study reveals a real dissatisfaction with the impact of the new system on the professors' work. The majority of the respondents refer to the diverse effects the new system has had on their professional life. Most teachers report that the LMD system has imposed a lot of pressure and a heavy working load on them. They have become very busy with their courses and the students' assessment. Given the semester's organization in the LMD system, the teachers have to work throughout the year and have little time for research, professional development, and rest. The shortage of time has not only affected the interaction between teachers and students but has also limited the interaction and coordination among the teachers themselves, according to some interviewed teachers.

Indeed, the respondents' testimonies reveal a number of drawbacks of the new system. These seem to have largely outweighed its reportedly few benefits. In this regard, a teacher-trainer at Mohammed V University in Rabat maintains: "teachers have now to deal with more heterogeneous groups, large class-size, different modules, and very tightly scheduled semesters." Apparently, the new system has generated unfavorable conditions for both teachers and students. The same teacher adds that "these conditions favor quantity over quality, as teachers are mostly obsessed with covering the syllabus rather than with making sure the learning is taking place." The few cited testimonies all prove that teachers have become busier and more stressed with the advent and the adoption of the new system.

Overall, time pressure, teaching loads, large groups, discontinuous study terms are some of the negative aspects that have been strongly stressed in the testimonies. These issues, in effect, make the teachers' tasks difficult and harder to accomplish. Interestingly, only two respondents out of 11 claim that the new system has a positive impact on the teachers' work. "Teachers have become more innovative as new subjects emerge so as to meet the new changes in society," says a female teacher at Mohammed V University. Another teacher in the same university affirms that

"teachers have the advantage of considering the students' overall performance, not just their performance in the final exam." Indeed, the rate of negative statements show the failure of the LMD system to meet the anticipated educational and pedagogical outcomes

4.8 The LMD System and Teaching Quality

In the light of all the aforementioned issues, the quality of teaching seems to have been negatively affected "since teachers work under stress and under certain unfavorable circumstances," as a former undergraduate student and current doctoral student at Mohammed V University argues. The same view is expressed by other participants, who assert that the quality of teaching has certainly been affected since it is taken for granted that the teachers' working conditions normally affect their teaching. According to most respondents, time constraints and large classes have severely affected the quality of teaching. A professor from Sultan Moulay Slimane University wonders "how a teacher can teach spoken English to a class of 200 students?" Similarly, an English language trainer argues:

> The quality of teaching has of course radically been altered. While the Old system allowed the students to have more practice in the different language areas, the new one is very limited and limiting in terms of scope and coverage, because learning takes place cyclically, not linearly. Learners need to go back to the learnt materials several times and in different ways to enhance assimilation; there is no room for this in the new system at least in the way it is being implemented […]. Students now move to higher level modules while they haven't yet validated the modules that are normally a pre-requisite. A good example is the case of the writing modules: Paragraph Writing in semester 1, Composition 1 in semester 2, Composition 2 in semester 3. Students can take composition 1 or 2 even if they haven't been able to validate the previous writing level(s); this means they haven't achieved the basics of writing; still they move up to more advanced levels.

In general, the quality of teaching, like other diverse aspects of education, has adversely been affected by the implementation of the new system. The survey reveals that teachers have failed to meet the required standards and the desired results due to students' inability to grasp their lessons and courses. The job of teachers has become tiresome, for they have to teach more courses and spend more time designing, preparing, and giving lessons to large groups of students who need to be assessed and graded as well. All the participants have substantiated their unanimous negative responses to this question. Mainstream views corroborate that the quality of teaching is deteriorating as compared to the situation in the Old system, which seems to be implicitly valued.

4.9 The LMD System and Teachers' Practices, Research, and Professional Lives

One of the objectives of this study is to look into the effect of the new system not only on the teachers' teaching practices but also on their research and professional development. Not astoundingly, most respondents argue that the teachers' academic career has been at stake since the introduction of the LMD system. A professor at Mohammed V University, formerly a student at the same institution, admits that "teachers have less time for research and continuous training." Obviously, research and professional development require more availability and free time, which the new system allegedly does not offer.

As regards the teaching practices, respondents seem to express a negative stance. Most responses assert that the teachers' teaching practices have been influenced by the flaws of the new system. A participant, who went through both the Old and new systems as a student and who is currently a part-time teacher, thinks that "teachers no longer seek quality in teaching; this is apparent in the number of handouts given to students and the teaching method (i.e. teacher-centered teaching) they adopt." He adds that "the new system is frustrating as it does not allow teachers to put into practice their professional experience." Not only are the teaching practices severely affected by the requirements of the new system but the teachers' professional development is also hindered due to time pressure and the heavy workload, among other factors.

Teachers' lack of motivation has also been pointed out as a major cause of the poor teaching practices and disinterest in professional development. A professor at Mohammed V University in Rabat points to the scarce opportunities of professional development as a chief constraining factor that hinders the teacher's academic progress. The same participant adds that "teachers are overwhelmed with teaching hours and BA End-of-Study Project supervision." This claim points out the negative impacts of bulky duties teachers have to carry. This situation has led a number of teachers (e.g. 6 teachers) to opt for early retirement, having completed 31 years at the job.

Most responses hold that the LMD system has had an adverse effect on the teachers' motivation and satisfaction, which has eventually had an impact on their performance. Interestingly, only one participant, a female teacher at Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University, shows a positive attitude as she maintains that teaching practices have improved in the new system. She states that "the use of ICT has become very common. More and more teachers look for ways to develop and improve their teaching practices (pedagogical trainings, etc.). Teachers are more active and involved in research." This unique optimistic response pales into insignificance in proportion to the mainstream negative portrayal of the LMD system; yet, it suggests that one may perceive and experience the system differently.

4.10 The LMD System and Students' Training, Performance, and Language Proficiency

Responses varied over the effect of the new system on the students' training and performance. While some participants maintain that students' performance has improved, others insist that the students' level has regressed and that they need more opportunities to practice the language. Interestingly, some answers have attributed the students' low language proficiency not to the training they undergo but rather to their constant exposure to the materials on the internet. In this regard, a teacher at Mohammed V University asserts that "students develop their language skills away from the courses they have at the university and from sources like TV programs, YouTube, chat rooms, etc.; in certain cases, this helps them to develop their fluency quite remarkably, but reduce their accuracy and makes it suffer serious defects." This view questions the extent to which the students really learn from the teaching provided in the new system.

Yet, from quite a different perspective, an evidently considerable number of participants claim that students' performance has dropped due to varied constraints such as time, absenteeism, and loaded programs. In this respect, a doctoral student and part-time teacher at Mohammed V University reports that "students' writing and speaking performance has decreased tremendously due to their absence. Students spend more time outside the university than inside it. The focus on the quantity and time constraint affects the quality of teaching, the students training, performance and language proficiency." The responses reveal negative attitudes among participants vis-à-vis the value of the new system in training university students and developing their English language proficiency.

4.11 Teachers' Challenges in the Old System

Responses addressing the problems which constrained the teachers' work in the Old system revealed ambivalent attitudes. While some participants who taught in the Old system claim that there were no real obstacles that teachers faced in the Old system, others seem to provide examples of diverse difficulties which used to hinder the teachers' mission. A former female student and teacher at Mohammed V University criticizes the lack of clear goals in the system, which appear to affect the ultimate outcome of the teaching. She claims that "instruction was less focused and the objectives were less clear," while a teacher-trainer reports that the lack of resources, instructional materials, and educational technologies constituted, in addition to lack of professional development activities, major issues limiting the efficiency of teaching in the Old system.

From quite a different perspective, a participant from Mohammed V University names some of the overwhelming obstacles which used to undermine the role of

teachers in the Old system. He emphasizes how conflicting ideologies and inclinations among teachers in addition to the students' poor language proficiency and lost educational compass made the job of teachers very demanding, and not sufficiently rewarding.

> The university was highly politicized and various ideologies were in conflict and used to put a vast majority of students in the middle, turning the university into conflict grounds. A large number of students would choose to join the English department due to a perception of prestige rather than a conviction in what English could offer in the long run. A larger number of students specialized in English without having the necessary and pre-required level of language proficiency, thus placing a burden on teaching and learning. Many students only came to the university for lack of better options both in the public and private sectors.

4.12 Teachers' Challenges in the New System

The student–teacher ratio has reportedly been very high in the new system. Few teachers are in charge of teaching, supervising, and grading massive numbers of students. A former student and assistant professor at Mohammed V University complains: "there are only few teachers in each department whereas the new system requires boosting both the number of instructors and the quality of the learning outcomes." Unquestionably, the quality of instruction depends on the number of teachers in proportion to the total number of students. Indeed, the student–teacher ratio has been one of the main quality-benchmark and the prime parameter in international higher education institutions' ranking (Minsky, 2016). The number of students compared to the shortage in the full-time instructors has apparently been one of the main issues that Moroccan universities suffer from in the new system. Although the number of students has rapidly increased, the number of professors has been decreasing due to their departure on retirement and the decline of numbers of new hires.

The course-coordination among the instructors teaching the same course has had a great impact on the quality of teaching and the teaching outcomes. In this respect, Mohammed V University published in 2014a report entitled "External Institutional Evaluation Mohammed V-Agdal University Period 2009–2012," which sheds light on diverse aspects of the university's performance and achievements. The report reveals that funding opportunities, academic meetings, and other university events do not always reach the target audience (UM5, 2014, p. 13). Participants have stirred this point anew in the survey to emphasize the significance of inter-staff coordination in yielding satisfactory educational results. In fact, "absence of coordination among the teachers of the same course" has reportedly been of significant impact on the teachers' academic endeavor and the students' achievements. Likewise, some participants refer to time-shortage as an impediment to adequate coverage of the syllabus. Other statements point out the lack of motivation as well as the absence of professional development activities and opportunities that could improve the instructors' performance. The aforementioned report states that "there is no initial training for new inexperienced staff, and no continuing professional development" (ibid).

This statement corroborates the aforementioned claims that the LMD system has failed to enable universities to meet the high educational standards and eventually attain the objectives and the promised goals of the reform.

4.13 Recommendations for Improving Teachers' Working Conditions

Participants have suggested different measures that would facilitate the task of teachers and improve their working conditions. Despite the diversity of suggestions, they all agree on key issues such as the reduction of the size of groups, the provision of the instructional equipment, and the offering of career-development opportunities. In this respect, a former teacher at the national teacher-training school in Rabat referred to the teacher shortage as a chief impediment to adequate working conditions. She argues that "increasing the number of teachers will reduce the rate of supervision of students per teacher and render the process more accessible and productive to all." Other participants corroborate this point by emphasizing the dire need to recruit more professors in order to meet the demand of the growing population of students.

Coordination among teachers has also been raised by the participants as a potential facilitator in the professors' work. Participants insist on the importance of constant communication among teachers and also between teachers and students in order to achieve a good quality and the educational objectives. Accordingly, a former student at Mohammed V University proposes that teachers need to have offices where they can work and meet their students. One of the professors at Sidi Mohammed Ben Abdellah University claims that providing teachers with adequate teaching tools in addition to having them adopt office-hours mentoring would enhance the quality of teaching and reinforce the student–teacher contact.

According to many respondents, the teachers' practice can be improved by offering continuous professional development opportunities that will empower the teachers' training and boost their know-how in a fast-changing world. The university is apparently in need of active support to update and enrich their educational practices, which will subsequently serve the students' needs. Last but not least, the reduction of the students' numbers per group has apparently been among the key recommendations that participants insist on. All the informants acknowledge the fact that professors in the Department of English have to teach larger groups than they are supposed to. Hence, they all suggest the necessity to reduce the number of students in groups as it was initially promised. This can be a very effective measure "to ensure good communication between teachers and students and improve the quality of teaching," a female teacher of English affirms. Indeed, the findings reveal that some administrative measures need to be implemented in order to resolve the issues which hinder the teachers' work and have an impact on the students' training and achievements.

4.14 Recommendations for Improving Students' Proficiency and Achievements

The recommendations to improve the students' proficiency are diverse and vary from administering common exams and adopting a method of anonymous marking to reducing the class size. Interestingly, however, many respondents' views hold the students themselves accountable for their alleged incompetence. Accordingly, a female teacher claims that "students themselves should grow more independent and become more organized and responsible for their own learning." Several other responses go along with this claim and argue that students need to enhance their language learning through doing whatever autonomous learning requires rather than relying completely on the teachers. "Students are required to improve themselves on their own and outside the university environment. Teachers are just guiders and moderators. They have to have Extra hours. Read books, magazines …" a teacher at Ibn Zohr University affirms.

Obviously, the students' duty to improve their language proficiency and acquire adequate and useful communication skills entails making efforts and becoming active participants in their learning rather than remaining passive recipients. Both professors and students have suggested that students should carry out projects, undertake research, and deliver presentations in their classes as potentially instructive activities which can enhance their academic and linguistic development. In this respect, a teacher-trainer at Mohammed V University believes that the assessment should take into consideration the students' workload, contact hours, and learning outcomes, rather than exclusively relying on one final test as the sole evaluation tool. The same participant also recommends that teaching should be counted in hours rather than periods and time-frames; that is, a course ends once a number of teaching hours have been completed.

Some other respondents have stressed the importance of inter-faculty coordination in order to meet the common teaching goals and enable the students to gain the presumed training. A young female teacher at Sidi Mohammed Ben Abdellah University argues that "course coordination should become compulsory among teachers; they should work together in order to design unified course descriptions and teaching materials." Another respondent from Mohammed V University claims that the university must encourage and motivate the students to get involved in extra-curricular activities and do regular assignments. A colleague of his asserts that the students' proficiency will improve if further opportunities such as "the creation of a university-funded support system that provides mentoring, monitoring, computer literacy, and coaching in order to ensure that all students have an equal and fair chance to achieve their best potential; the establishment of encouragement schemes that would motivate the students to improve their attainment (scholarships, awards, language programs, etc.)" find their way into the Moroccan university.

4.15 Conclusion and Implications

The results of the study reveal widespread dissatisfaction with the LMD system. However, participants have maintained that both the Old and the LMD systems do not really meet the educational expectations and the desired outcomes. The present study supports to a great extent Ibourk and Amaghouss' findings (2014) regarding the successive reforms of the Moroccan higher educational system and the deficiencies that led them to failure. Ibourk and Amaghouss rightly argue that "all the reforms that were initiated in Morocco since 1957 have resulted in a blatant failure related to series of problems: very low enrolment rates, rising unemployment among graduates and general mismatch between the educational system and the demands of the labor market" (p. 111). Though a negative attitude toward the LMD system seems to be dominant among the participants, most of them seem to praise the Old system which they openly favor.

The aim of the present research has been to find out about what professors and students of the Department of English in Rabat think of the Old and LMD systems. Through comparing the two in terms of their strengths and weakness, the study reveals that professors and students who have experienced both systems are in favor of the Old system. They all seem to emphasize its positive aspects and heavily criticize the LMD system, which has, in their opinion, worsened the situation rather than improve it as it was meant. Large size classes, insufficient faculty members, students' low levels, heavy working loads for professors are seen as major constraints that inhibit the professors and students' performances alike. Yet, these are only some of the myriad deficiencies of the LMD system which need urgent and real remedy.

The present study has revealed a number of differences between the Old and the LMD systems through the participants' perspectives. Professors and students who have experienced both systems express diverse views toward the major shift in higher education policy during the last two decades. The findings suggest that the inefficient educational reforms may be attributed to the top-down policy, which adopted and implemented the LMD system despite its alleged flaws. In this regard, some participants insist on the inclusion of the teachers' as well as the students' opinions in setting and evaluating the educational policies. For them, only the stakeholders' views can yield accurate evaluation of Moroccan educational policies for prospective appropriate measures. The present research reveals that the LMD system has, overall, failed to reach its objectives and yield the promised outcomes.

References

Altihami, D. (2010). Implementing the LMD system: Experience of the philosophy department in the Cadi Ayyad University in Marakkech. In B. Lamine (Ed.), *Towards an Arab higher education space: International challenges and societal responsibilities: Proceedings of the Arab Regional Conference on Higher Education* (pp. 201–211). UNESCO.

El Masrar, K. (2015). The current university reforms in Morocco: The present situation of labour market and culture. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, *5*(9), 182–188.
Ibourk, A., & Amaghouss, J. (2014). The performance of educational system in Morocco: A spatial analysis. *Regional and Sectoral Economic Studies, 14*(2), 109–128.
Lamine, B. (2010). *Towards an Arab higher education space: International challenges and societal responsibilities: Proceedings of the Arab Regional Conference on Higher Education*. UNESCO.
Minsky, C. (2016). Top 100 universities with the best student-to-staff ratio. Retrieved from https://www.timeshighereducation.com/student/news/top-100-universities-best-student-staff-ratio.
UM5. (2014). External Institutional Evaluation Mohammed V-Agdal University Period 2009–2012. Retrieved from http://www.um5.ac.ma/um5r/sites/default/files/eval_ext_2012-en.pdf.
https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/sites/eacea-site/files/countryfiches_morocco_2017.pdf.

Yamina El Kirat El Allame earned her Doctorat d'état (2004) in Minority Languages, Cultures, and Identities from Mohammed V University in Rabat. She was a Fulbright Visiting Scholar at Greenville Tech, USA. She is the former Vice Dean for Research and Cooperation and the Director of the Doctoral Center at the Faculty of Letters & Humanities at Mohammed V University in Rabat. She is the coordinator of the MA Program "*Teaching Arabic as a Foreign Language*" and the Arabic Program with Middlebury College. She is also the coordinator of the research laboratory "*Culture, language, Education, Migration and Society*" (CLEMS) and the doctoral program "*Studies in Language & Society*". Professor El Kirat El Allame has taught and carried out research for more than 25 years in cultural linguistics and anthropology, sociolinguistics, language endangerment, language and culture, cultural representations and attitudes, political discourse analysis, minority cultures, languages and identities, and language policy.

Youssef Laaraj is a teacher of English at Preparatory Classes (post-secondary). He received his B.A. in English studies from Sidi Mohammed Ben Abdellah University in Fez in 2008. Afterwards, he obtained a teaching certificate from the national teacher-training school (ENS) and started teaching in 2009. In 2013, he obtained an MA in Applied Language Studies and Research from Sidi Mohammed Ben Abdellah University in Fez. Since 2015, he has been a doctoral student at Mohammed V University in Rabat. His major areas of interest include language policy, English language teaching, and sociolinguistics.

Part II
Motivation Towards English

Chapter 5
English as an Alternative Cultural Capital for University EFL Students in Morocco

Adil Azhar

Abstract The status of the English language within the multi-linguistic landscape in Morocco has not yet been clearly defined. There is, nevertheless, a general consensus on the importance of this language for socioeconomic mobility at national and international levels. An evident reflection of such interest in the language is the growing demand for decent levels of English proficiency in various sectors in the Moroccan society and the marked increase in enrolment in English studies departments at Moroccan universities. Current EFL theory and research have focused on psychological factors explaining EFL students' motivations as inner drives, responses to social pressures, or, more recently, identity formation. Such treatise, however, is limited to micro-level identification processes and fails to pay tribute to larger macro-level processes that operate on the EFL students' choice and motivations. Critical and sociocultural accounts, in this regard, provide a more viable approach to language and identity; it views learning of a (foreign) language as an identification process through which learners construct various positionings within fields of conflicting ideologies competing for recognition. Referring mainly to Bourdieu's (Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education. Greenwood Press, New York, pp. 241–258, 1986) concept of cultural capital and based on a series of semi-structured interviews with 30 EFL university students, the present study sought to investigate English language learning motivations situating them within operating social macro-processes. A critical discourse analysis of the students' narratives indicated that Moroccan University EFL students perceive English as a cultural capital reflecting a cultural alternative for identification, recognition, and voice within the context of ideological and discursive struggles.

Keywords English as a foreign language · Cultural capital · Linguistic hegemony · Motivation

A. Azhar (✉)
Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: adilazhar11@gmail.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_5

5.1 Introduction

The present research departs from the idea that English as a foreign language is changing its status in the Moroccan society mirroring to a large extent the globalization processes operating at the international arena where the American culture holds the lion's share. In fact, there is wide-ranging consensus that English has become the world's first language of international and intercultural communication; it is the de facto means of communication of business, science, technology, politics, and above all, the virtual world (Crystal, 1997). As no exception to this trend, the English language seems to have gained significant currency in most sectors in the Moroccan society (Zouhir, 2013). Some of the tangible manifestations of these changes are the increasing number of enrolments in English Studies departments in all Moroccan universities, the creation of new departments and programs offering B.A. and M.A. degrees in English Studies, the integration of English in private schools as a subject in lower levels with increasing demands from parents to target even lower levels, the mushrooming language centers offering language courses in English for general and specific purposes, the rising daily presence of English in diverse Moroccan cultural artifacts, and the increasing identification with the American culture and language (Afro-American culture, pop culture, etc.).

This domineering status of English in the world tends to paint interesting shades of symbolism other than the much criticized linguistic, and cultural, hegemony (Phillipson, 1992). As a symbol of social mobility and freedom, represented in the American ideal of "you can be whatever you wish to be," the English language tends to provide an earthly quintessence of an alternative to subvert inequitable social structures, and hence tends to be liberating and empowering (Alexander, 2003). For Moroccan youths aspiring for a more promising social reality than the traditional options which have been fashioned within the Moroccan social context for decades, learning English may open large alternative venues for self-fulfillment, identification, and voice.

The present paper starts from the idea that English provides a cultural model of social success alternative to traditional normative models persisting in the Moroccan society. Learning English as a foreign language reflects gains in the cultural capital of learners and promises an escape from the socially structured system of opportunities that tend to disfavor these learners. This framework seems to hold promising potentials to explain the intricacies of such as a complex and multi-faceted construct as motivation for learning for EFL learners in Moroccan.

5.2 Cultural Capital Theory

The concept of *capital* originates in Bourdieu's (1986, 1991) sociological work on culture and society. Capital refers to assets that have marketable value, which can be owned and disowned, and which can differentiate among individuals in a specific

community. The appropriation of such assets is part of a socialization process with multiple pathways, each culminating in different position within the social structure. In addition to the more commonly known economical capital, Bourdieu distinguished among three interrelated types of capital: social, symbolic, and cultural. Cultural capital refers to the nonfinancial assets. Bourdieu (1986) explains that the concept denotes "instruments for the appropriation of symbolic wealth socially designated as worthy of being sought and possessed" (p. 73). Similarly to other types of assets, cultural capital serves defining one's position within the social structure. The term capital was coined to describe one major aspect of habitus, the semi-instinctive skills, and strategies that individuals develop through and for the interaction with their social environment.

According to Bourdieu (1986), cultural capital consists in embodied, objectified, and institutionalized forms; in other words, cultural capital defines an individual by her/his embodied, objectified, and institutionalized assets. The long-lasting dispositions of the mind and body are the embodied form; they are the ways people interact with their social milieu; their language including accent and other idiosyncratic features, ways of greeting, dressing, eating, walking, etc. The cultural goods, objects, and artifacts are the objectified form; these include pictures, monuments, folklores, names, etc., objects that have symbolic meaning of members of the same community. The educational and professional qualifications are the institutionalized form of capital; these are all types of credentials that are social accepted as a guarantee of competence and skills in functioning in positions at various levels. Degrees, diplomas, and certificates are examples of institutionalized cultural capital.

Bourdieu was particularly interested in how school grants institutionalized qualification, which serves future social inclusion and exclusion in society. Since education is considered the gatekeeper for economic and social attainment, the models of success that schools perpetuate tend most of the time to set high standards privileging certain profiles, as they are favored in the job market in specific societies. These profiles tend to be deeply sedimented in the cultural representations of the people and develop and maintain accordingly high culture. Students with different learning profiles, who may equally be important in other settings, are often pushed to either conform or get stigmatized with failure. This, Bourdieu (1991) claims, results in an unbalanced distribution of cultural capital in a society where upper-class families have inherited and pass on their cultural capital to their offspring securing a stronghold over socially privileged social, political, and economic positions. This is done through providing easy access to formal and informal institutional qualification opportunities in diverse domains that enable them to develop and possess much cultural capital compared to lower classes. Such discrepancy in cultural capital possessions explains the reasons why some students are successful both in access to educational settings and in their academic achievement, while others are not (Lareau, 1989). Indeed, both family origin and education have been found to predict social mobility; students belonging to high culture families tend to seize more favoring educational options that allow them access to higher education (Kingston, 2001; Sirin, 2005). Students, lacking either inherited cultural capital or favoring conditions, would drop out even though they have managed to access higher education

institutions; the causes include making the "wrong" choice, the feeling of isolation or hostility in academic culture and a lack of preparedness for academic challenges (Connor, Tyers, Modood, & Hillage, 2004).

In fact, the main thrust of the cultural capital theory is that education as an institution is not a neutral setting created to provide equal opportunities to students, but is rather a perpetuator of social inequalities (Devine, 2008). Munk and Krarup (2011) contend that "the strength of cultural capital theory is first of all in its perspective that conceptually and empirically permits analysis of the structured construction and complex quality of the social circumstances, differences, and inequalities" (p. 4). Bourdieu (1986) used cultural capital theory to explain how the social structures of a host society perpetuated themselves and how social class was reproduced through the acquisition, accumulation, and intergenerational transmission of cultural capital.

5.3 Language a Cultural Capital

Language is part and parcel of the cultural capital of individuals in a society. Part of the embodied cultural capital, knowledge, and skills consciously acquired and passively inherited through socialization, is the linguistic knowledge and skills that constitute an individual's means of communication and self-presentation (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1990). It is very important for the appropriation of symbolic capital, which bestows value on the language speaker within his/her social milieu. Bourdieu (1977) explains that the dominant habitus is transformed into a form of cultural capital that schools take for granted and which acts as a filter in the reproductive process of hierarchical society. Cultural capital is made up of familiarity with and skill in the use of the dominant linguistic habitus in a society; in other words, it refers to the ability to understand and use "educated" language that corresponds with demand of the formal and public market. This match is the foundation of the fluency and self-confidence that the dominant class has and through which its members gain symbolic power simply because they speak that way. Harrison (2009) adds that the value of language derives not only from its place in the linguistic market, or field using Bourdieu's term, but also from the status of the individuals speaking it. Considered as a social process, language provides more insight into the production and maintenance of power relations (Blackledge, 2005).

Furthermore, Bourdieu (1984) contends that middle and low-class individuals often try to own the palpable features of the dominant cultural capital, on top of which is language in addition to dress style, taste, and other objectified forms; they use them as cultural signifiers as they seek to identify themselves with those who are "above" them on the social ladder, and to show their difference from those who are "below" them, though this identification may not be successful quite often. Adopting the linguistic capital of the dominant cultural capital is sought mainly because it opens doors both academically and professionally. For instance, Stanton-Salazar and Dornbusch (1995) investigated how a student with desired types of cultural

(and linguistic) capital in a school transforms this capital into social capital (instrumental relations) with institutional agents; the latter can transmit valuable resources to him/her, which will allow him/her to make further gains in academic achievement. Similarly, showing expertise in the use of valued forms of discourse during recruitment interview may set the balance in favor of the interviewee, compared to someone who is less familiar with the "jargon" of the field. Mastery of language, as an embodied cultural capital, can be very detrimental in securing privilege in society.

5.4 English as a Cultural Capital

Thanks to globalization, the English language has gained vast fields of use and comfortably secured a position as the de facto international language of communication today (Crystal, 1997; Friedman, 2003; Graddol, 1997, 2006; Hjarvard, 2008; Jenkins, 2007; Johnson, 2009; Ostler, 2010). It has dominated communication in all sectors, entertainment, education, business, politics, and world diplomacy.

In addition, other researchers pointed out to the fact that some basic knowledge in English has become necessary for functioning in diverse contexts around the world (Crystal, 1997; Graddol, 2006; Pennycook, 1994). In fact, English has been associated with increased opportunities of social mobility. Murcia (2003) argued that globalization and the global market have imposed English as the main means of communication. People around the world tend to learn English for a number of reasons, the most important of which is increasing professional prospects; English grants access to internationally recognized education, well-paying careers, and networking at a global scale. Yong and Campbell (1995) accurately label English as a "social and economic mobilizer" (p. 384).

Having been crowned the world's first language, English knowledge can be considered as a cultural capital regarded as a socially, economically, and symbolically valuable quality in most countries of the world, though in different ways and degrees. English competence is now the "hard currency" cultural capital (Murcia, 2003) that guarantees successful integration in the academic and professional world (London, 2001).

5.5 Language and Cultural Capital in Morocco

The Moroccan context is no exception to this global trend; the English language is gaining ground within a multi-linguistic scene in Morocco (Zouhir, 2013) displaying an array of local and foreign languages including Arabic, Amazigh, French, etc. French in particular, as the language of the former colonizer, has long entertained a very privileged and complex status in the Moroccan society; it has been the de facto language of administration, education, and economy despite the fact that the Moroccan constitution acknowledges only Arabic and Amazigh as official

languages (Boukous, 2009; Ennaji, 2005; Marley, 2004). French is the medium of instruction in most, if not all, regulated access educational institutions, which are considered as leading to most prestigious careers in the job market, and hence are seen as elitist. People from all social strands tend to regard French as a gatekeeper (Zakhir & O'Brien, 2017) and to encourage their children to enhance their French competence. The French language, being neocolonial, constitutes a strong cultural capital that upper classes utilize to ensure dominance over and regulation of decision-making positions in the society (Bullock, 2014; Ennaji, 2002). Individuals with no or low competence in French are inevitably at a great disadvantage when competing for academic and professional opportunities with their peers who inherited and were enabled to own a French cultural capital. They are structurally prevented from opportunities of effective social mobility. The French language then constitutes in effect the strongest form of cultural capital for young Moroccan students simply because it is the societal norm acting as a measuring stick (Bourdieu, 1991).

Nevertheless, this privileged status of French is being seriously challenged by English. Deriving its hegemonic power from its global dominance, the English language is gaining ground in domains previously dominated exclusively by French. There are tangibly increasing demands on English use in sectors as diverse as business, trade, diplomacy, engineering, medicine, etc. One particularly significant sector where English is being introduced gradually is the education sector. Now English is one important subject in almost all schools at all levels; more and more content courses and whole programs are offered with English as a main medium of instruction; and enrolments in English departments in Moroccan universities are soaring with hundreds of students per department. Even though French still dominates the job market, at least people's cultural representations seem to be gradually changing in favor of English; people have stated considering English as an important asset in Morocco.

Students in English departments across Moroccan universities, and similar to all other open access departments, generally belong to mid-lower to lower socioeconomic classes (Mhamed, 2004). They most often lack competence in French and have had little chance to join regulated access colleges; their motivation to do English Studies either is haphazard, as they have not been able to make better choices, or reflects an intrinsic love for the language and its culture. Generally, humanities and languages as majors at the university in Morocco are considered as a last choice as they are often associated with limited career opportunities and low prestige. The English language then may constitute for these young people a way for proving their existence, which might explain the rising interest in and motivation for English studies as a major at university. As Lamont and Lareau (1988) claim, within the structural reproduction framework of cultural theory, there is room for personal agency that allows for variation in the acquisition and use of cultural capital. Moroccan EFL learners may sustain and enhance motivation for learning English because it represents for them an alternative cultural capital that would allow them social recognition and some form of rewarding social mobility.

In the light of the Moroccan linguistic situation and the theoretical framework adopted, the present study then purports to investigate the extent to which English

forms an alternative cultural capital for Moroccan students. The following research questions are posed accordingly:

- How do University EFL learners perceive English as an academic choice?
- How do they redefine its role and status in Morocco?
- How do they self-identify with reference to the English language within the context of hegemony and conflicting ideologies?

5.6 Methodology

The method of data collection adopted is the semi-structured interview. This was justified by the need to allow ample freedom for the participants to voice their experiences, concerns, and feelings as openly as possible while at the same time maintaining focus and reflexivity. The participants are 30 EFL students majoring in a three–year B.A. program in English Language and Literature. The choice of participants followed mainly the purposive sampling technique and was on a voluntary basis. Students were informed of their right to withdraw from participation if they did not feel comfortable completing the interview.

I opted for Semester 6 students to ensure enough experience in learning English and enough language competence to allow a more reflective treatment of the research issues. The data collection took place around the mid-semester period where there is usually more regular class attendance, and hence, a larger number of students to approach. Accordingly, the students were approached individually or in small groups and were requested to participate in the research project. I informed them about their rights and duties with regard to the research stressing the voluntary and unanimous nature of their potential participation. The interviews started with general demographic questions to serve both as icebreaker and elicitation of background information. I mainly resorted to probing and prompting techniques and limited my own participation to the strict minimum. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and analyzed shortly afterwards.

The focus of analysis was directed mainly to the discursive ways in which the participants created understandings; to this end, the study resorts to critical discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1992, 2003). The latter engages the text critically and aims at uncovering the wider societal discourses and orders of discourse a text instantiates, the hegemonic relations that are being sustained or opposed, and the ideological effects in terms of systems of knowledge and belief, social relations, and social identities (Blackledge, 2005; Fairclough, 1992).

Accordingly, the analytical strategy within the emergent design that the present research adopts consisted in a close interaction among the data, the literature, and the research questions going through identification of first-order themes, refinements of higher order themes, and co-constructions of meanings, understandings, and realities. This process resulted gradually in defining the motivations of university EFL learners for the English language though bringing to light their cultural representations of this

language as they are being created through discursive practices within macro-contexts of power and hegemony.

5.7 Results and Discussion

5.7.1 Early Motivations for and Representations of English

The study of English in the public sector starts from the third year in junior high school. In the private sector, English subjects start in the primary level years depending on schools; so by the time Moroccan students reach the university they will have studied English as a required subject for at least four years; a minority will also have studied English in language centers alongside their regular courses at school. Apart from the formal education settings, the students encounter English in diverse contexts in their daily lives; the World Wide Web and satellite channels of course remain the main media through which the present time youth are exposed to the English language and culture (movies, series, videogames, songs, chat rooms, electronic search engines, etc.). Regardless of whether they have some level of proficiency in English, the ordinary Moroccan youth are already well acquainted with the language and its people and culture, have already developed representations and attitudes toward them, and have already cherished more or less clear prospects of future learning experiences in this language.

This is expressly true for almost all the interviewees; when asked about their perceptions of English during the preuniversity period, they most noted that this language has a great value both locally and globally; examples from the data include:

> Before I had the chance to take university courses, English represented to me a language and a culture to explore. (Ahmed)
>
> English represented a language of opportunities and a door to the western world and people (Hanae).

This reflects positive cultural representations in Moroccan EFL learners even before they major in English Studies at university, which indicates a strong motivational drive. Some of the interviewees showed even more enthusiasm when talking about their fascination with the language and its culture:

> The reason why I chose English is that I like that language for what it represents. Simply put, the culture it brings really fascinates me, especially music and cinema. (Manal)
>
> Before university, English was one of my favorite subjects and I had that feeling of pride when speaking it. (Mohammed)
>
> English symbolized to me my personal space. I used to watch English videos and read English articles instead of French. I found myself in the English culture of science, communication, open-mindedness and sharing. (Rania)

The students' perceptions of English are embedded within global and local discourses about the dominance of this language worldwide.

For a few other participants, the love of the English language has been instigated by an admiration of their English teachers: “I was inspired by my ex-teacher, and I enjoyed learning English and attending my classes” (Imane); and “I loved my English teacher, and he always encouraged and pushed me to work hard and do my efforts.” (Ahmed).

Teachers seem to provide a tangible role model of a member of the Moroccan English community who manages to win the admiration of her/his students as well as societal approbation. In such cases of the influence of a positive role model, students feel encouraged to dive into an academic path leading most probably to a teaching career.

Sometimes, the influence of the role model intersects with very positive attitudes toward the English language and culture deriving primarily from discourses of globalizations:

> … my English teacher used to do her best to teach us, and we had a lot of respect for her, she taught us about the culture of English, not just the language, and English is a world language; it’s the langue of international communication. (Imane)

In another instance, the teacher of English as a role model stood in sharp contrast to teachers of other subjects: “she (English teacher) was cool and fun, not like other teachers; she used to greet us and brings us sweets; and we really enjoyed her class.” (Said). This reflects a symbolic opposition between two representatives of different communities within the same society that the students socially constructed and reproduced to make sense of their admiration for English teachers.

In other cases, a simple “love” for the language seems to provide the main motivation for the choice: “I love English; all my favorite activities are related to English, like watching movies and series in English” (Said). Beyond academic or professional prospects, self-satisfaction may be the sole motivator; the American movie and series culture in addition to videogames seem to exert a strong influence on the young generation tastes, preferences, and general life choices. This particularly true with EFL learners who have developed “new” interests reflecting their familiarity and adoption of “prestigious” cultural identity and practices; holding such interests seems to promote feelings of distinctiveness and pride, an alternative way that these students adopt to position themselves socially among their peers.

While the discussed factors seem to impact the students’ choice, it is very difficult to attribute the choice of English to a simple motivational influence; the students draw on a large array of interweaving factors interacting in multiple ways and reflected in their constructed discourses to make sense of their actions. This leads us to the conclusion that as early as this phase in their lives, EFL learners have already appreciated the symbolic value of the English language within the Moroccan society and in relation to their academic and professional aspirations.

5.7.2 *Motivations for and Representations of English During University Years*

As discussed in the preceding section, the choice of English as a major here does not by far reflect a rational bid; it rather involves a more intuitive and emotional turn of the mind influenced by multiple factors leading to diverse motivational profiles. During the university years, nonetheless, the picture does not appear to be any different. The students maintained and developed further their interest in studying English. Their motivations derived from diverse influences such as long exposure to the language, intrinsic interests in the cultural products, positive cultural representations, etc.

Describing his changing perception of the English language during the university year, Fatima stated that:

> It has changed in a very positive way; I discovered new branches related to the English language which I become eager to learn and dig deeper into. I become motivated to it further to the highest level which is beyond that literal use of the English language. I started to read more and in different fields as long as I understand the language. I fell in love with this language I sat up plans to make use of what I learnt and invent more.

Here the person expresses a strong commitment to the academic path she chose, i.e., English Studies; her expression "beyond that literal use of the English language" symbolizes a strong agency enabled by her rising proficiency in the language and resulting in great emotional value attached to it. Similarly, Yassine voices such heightened sense of self-fulfillment that academic achievements grant him; he states: "My university period of studying English raised my motivation toward English due to the success I have and the support gained from my university professors." He continues later as: "I was motivated to study because I was doing something I love; my professors were awesome and made me love it even more." Furthermore, the global status of English still informs momentously the cultural representations of EFL learners. For instance, Ahmed notes that: "I really like to learn English because of its reputation and as an international spoken language." On a similar note, Said states that "We all know the importance of English globally; it's the language of technology, development, communication …" In effect, such positiveness toward the English language and culture even significantly increased during the university years. Imane mentions that her perception "has changed positively. I developed positive attitudes about the English language and its culture, especially after learning more about the British and American cultures." English does indeed enjoy a great symbolic value for Moroccan EFL learners as reflected in the high interest and motivation they show.

Another theme that was recurrent in the narratives of the interviewees is the role of English as *the main* means of self-expression. The learners highlighted the fact that English adequately serves their communication needs at various levels; they use it for both academic and personal purposes alike, and find it easier to interact in it, as argued by Rania and Oumaima, respectively: "I would say just the fact that the majority of my friends are English speaker and that we use English a lot shows to what extent I care for English."; and "It's my first language; I study in it; and I chat and read in it; I watch American movies and listen to American

singers …; that's why I feel comfortable expressing myself in this language." Many others expressed their dependence on English not only for communicational purposes but also for artistic expression in the form of poetry, short stories, music lyrics, etc. Intrapersonal communication is also done mostly in English in the form of diaries, freewriting, and personal thoughts. Being able to satisfy all these communicational needs, Moroccan EFL learners at university have developed an emotional connection with this language enhancing its symbolic value for these young people.

The main addition that the university experience makes to the motivations of the EFL learners is the distinct and fully conscious appreciation of English that they have developed aligned to a stronger and more stable commitment to the English language culture, to their academic path, and to their future prospects as professional English users. This is clear in the interviewees' own words describing their motivation for and perception of English:

> First, my motivation for studying English was mainly intrinsic. I had a passion for the English language but during my studies I developed some sort of instrumental motivation. I want to learn English to use it for studies and research and to teach it as well. (Aziz)

> I realized it can shape my professional career and make me a living. My love to the language also grew during the process after going through all the aspects of it. (Meryem)

> it was changed, but not radically. This was because of the stress of the exams and presentation that made me think that English is not only for movies and free conversation but it is something serious that specifies my future. (Said)

The students seem more interested in the English language not just for its self-expression role, but also for the relative guarantee it provides of "making a living" in the future.

The discursive practices the interviewees engage in reflect to a high extent the significant symbolic value that they ascribe to the English language. Their interest in and motivations for this language lie at the intersection among socially constructed representations of the language and its culture that come to align quite conveniently with socially constructed needs, desires, and priorities.

5.7.3 Constructed Identities and Belonging

Having strong motivations for English Studies does in fact reflect a sense of belonging to an imagined community, a term that was introduced by Anderson (1991) to denote feelings of nationalism and can be extended to cover all types of communities that people socially construct and claim belonging to them. These communities are qualified as imagined to reflect the assumption that boundaries are rather blurred and unstable and thus do not correspond to any fixed geographical or other category. An imagined community is instantiated at a local as well as a global level, and moves most often across cultural and sociopolitical boundaries. An imagined community combines people with common interests and discursive practices; while the specific meanings that members ascribe to objects and practices might be as varied as the

members themselves, there is still a pseudo-consensual agreement embedded within feelings of belonging and identity that are constructed primarily intra-personally at the individual level. As such claiming membership is a form of identification with the community and depends on personal choices and preferences, which are, nevertheless, largely predisposed socioculturally, a good example of agency within structure (Giddens, 1984). Identifying with a community is positioning oneself in a network of socially distinct, like-minded individuals who share similar discursive practices, inhabit the same discursive world, and possess similar discursive strategies; the latter, in particular, endow them with cultural, social, economic, and political advantages, what Bourdieu calls cultural capital.

In our present case, the English speaking community can be construed as an imagined community to which Moroccan EFL learners claim belonging. In effect, throughout all the interviews, the notion of an imagined community has been omnipresent; however, the concept of a community has ranged in scope and nature. A participant was very specific and defined the community as "Moroccan English speakers"; such a community would include EFL learners and users within and outside the academic domain in the Moroccan society. Another is more expressive when discussing her belonging:

> I see myself now as a prospective English language speaker and I surely feel distinguished from other students studying other majors, for it is becoming the world language and it always makes me happy when I see that I can speak, write, read in English, I can communicate with foreigners without feeling oppressed or ashamed rather confident and most of all because it allowed me to discover new fields. (Rania)

This student, like many others, describes a strong sense of belonging to the English community distinguishing herself from students doing other majors at the university; she also notes the pride and confidence she has in her belonging and her possessing the discursive practices that identify the community. Such discursive strategies enable her to engage in conversations with fellow members and open up to new horizons.

A similar opinion is voiced by Manal in the following:

> Ido have a strong belonging to the English community, yes Arabic is my mother tongue language but it is always way more cheerful and motivating whenever I am talking English, attending an event or even virtually speaking to a foreigner. It makes me say "this is where I belong." (Aziz)

Other interviewees prefer to stress the global dimension of the English community and the markers of belonging: "I have a strong sense of belonging to the English community; this is manifested through social interaction among the English community members." (Ahmed)

Similarly, Mohammed highlights his world citizenship stating that:

> I consider myself as a citizen of the world because all what happens on the global scale somehow affects my life, be it financially or culturally or politically wise. Moreover, I consider myself lucky since I have a certain mastery of English which of course allows me to stay in touch with every event that happens in the world.

Meryem further notes the global dimension and highlights social recognition in the virtual world; for her, possessing discursive practices allows her to be recognized as a

member of the English community; she says: "In society in the virtual world, people view me as a member of the English community." Said sates the same: "Virtually, native speakers of English think I am a native English speaker."

As mentioned earlier, the imagined community is characterized by a cultural capital; acquisition of such a capital entails acquiring the most distinctive discursive feature, which is competence in the English language. Instances of the discursive practices cited by the interviewees include competence in language skills, pronunciation and accent, and the use of the American slang, in addition to personal interests in clothing styles, music genres, and movies, etc., all of which form the embodied and objectified form of cultural capital.

5.7.4 Competing Hegemonies and Alternative Cultural Capital

In the cultural representations of the Moroccan EFL learners at university, the languages in use in society range from low to high status. As discussed in Sect. 5.4 above, the French language is hegemonic in Morocco and competence in it is considered as the strongest cultural capital; fluent speakers of French tend to be recognized socially as belonging to, or at least related in a way or another to, the high class; they are perceived as worthy of respect and are privileged in the job market (Bullock, 2014; Zakhir & O'Brien, 2017). These cultural representations were echoed in the narratives of the interviewees. Aziz, for instance, mentions that: "I think French is still somehow dominating in Morocco; everything is in French; we are going to be teachers of English and still required to write our CVs in French." This language serves clearly a gate-keeping function and ensures access to the job market. Similarly, "French is still considered as the main foreign language of the country" (Mounir), it "has a huge importance in our educational system since it was the language of the colonization," and it is "still very important in our country and this is obvious in media, administration, etc." Comparing the two languages French and English, Ahmed states: "In terms of its importance, English comes second after French", and Mohammed confirms that saying: "No one can deny that English is the language of commerce, communication, research etc. still in morocco there is an intention to make French the first language. Most Moroccans, whether Amazigh or Arab, use only French." French is indeed a very influential language in the Moroccan context; it provides its users with cultural capital translated into social and economic privilege, most often in the form of highly paid positions and prestigious social status; it is then in their best interest to make use of this capital in maintaining this symbolic source of power, similarly to what Giddens (1984) calls "duality of structure," referring the reflexive relationship between social structure and discursive practices.

Nevertheless, there is a sort of unanimity among the interviewees on the growing importance of English in Morocco. Yassine states: "I can see it becoming the country's second language as a lot of people are showing interest to learn it, and

also many political and academic measures were taken to enhance the position of the language in different fields." Imane hopefully calls for a change in the language policy of the country: "English should be given much more importance than the one given to French. I personally think that it should be the first foreign language in Morocco." Yassine further explains the reason for such shift as: "I think English will take over … the English language and English culture are powerful politically and economically which gives English speakers a powerful position." English derives its power from its domination at a global scale; because of globalization of the media and the blurring of cross-state boundaries, the hegemony of English is imposing gradually its structural configuration within the Moroccan society. More and more people are altering their cultural representation of English; in this regard, the interviewees, Meryem, Rania, and Said state, respectively: "English is a world language; it's the language of communication; it's the language of the elite," "it symbolizes prestige," and "it's a very important language nowadays, it's a language that open various avenues in my future." They refer to the growing symbolic value of this language and the social advantages of possessing such a cultural capital; Aziz claims: "I feel distinguished because I see myself being able to communicate in the world's most privileged language, the lingua-franca."

One last comment made by one of the interviewees reflects an even stronger motivation for the appropriation the cultural capital endowed by the mastery of the English language:

> I certainly feel different. I am able to communicate with people from different countries, learn more about cultures; I think that being able to speak English in a country that gives a huge importance to French is a privilege. (Yassine)

Yassine's voice reflects a macro-level competition taking place within the Moroccan context over dominance: the French language representing the ruling elite and the English language providing potential alternatives for oppressed classes. At a micro-level, this reflects a strong desire in Moroccan EFL learners to position themselves as worthy individuals in the society and to make achievements at different levels. Identifying with the English language has become thus a sort of resistance to coercive discourses stifling alternative voices and monopolizing social mobility and self-fulfillment opportunities. The fact that most of the interviewees are welcoming the shift toward the English points to the main postulate of the present research; this is a conscious preference for one of two discursive practices in the multi-linguistic scene in Morocco over dominance and symbolic power. This is nicely formulated in the comment of Zineb: "English was a choice and was not imposed on me like French." English can thus be considered as the alternative cultural capital that Moroccan EFL learners aspire to acquire for better future prospects.

5.8 Conclusion

The present study set out to investigate the extent to which the English language provides an alternative cultural capital for Moroccan EFL learners at university to explain the motivations for English study. The results point to the fact that the English language in Morocco seems to manifest all the elements of a potential cultural capital for Moroccan EFL learners. The participants' narratives have revealed that the English language and culture have a very important symbolic meaning for them as part of their socially constructed cultural representations. In the process of learning this language, they acquire the three forms of cultural capital identified by Bourdieu (1984): embodied forms (language skills, accent, and behaviors), the objectified forms (cultural products, music, clothes, nicknames, etc.), and the institutionalized forms (B.A., M.A., or Ph.D. degrees in English Studies or related fields). This cultural capital promises potential academic gains (Sullivan, 2001; Willms & Tramonte, 2010) and social and economic profits (Phillipson, 1999; Park & Abelmann, 2004). It also signifies potential social recognition in a social milieu that is largely dominated by Francophone ideologies (Bullock, 2014; Zakhir & O'Brien, 2017; Zouhir, 2013). The EFL learners' choice and motivation for English study reflects their attempt at subverting the dominance of the elitist French language, traditionally hegemonic in the Moroccan society, by constructing discursive practices drawing upon sources of symbolic power already available at a global level and within the battlefield of warring languages and ideologies (Lefevre, 2015). Such an understanding of students' motivations can only be reached through a strictly macro-level perspective. Quoting Bourdieu, Harrison (2009) states that discursive practices cannot be understood "separate to the broader sociocultural and politico-economic milieus in which they are embedded" (p. 1083).

References

Alexander, J. C. (2003). *The meanings of social life: A cultural sociology*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Anderson, B. R. O. G. (1991). *Imagined communities: Reflections on the origin and spread of nationalism*. London: Verso.

Blackledge, A. (2005). *Discourse and power in a multilingual world* (1st ed.). Philadelphia: John Benjamin's Publishing Company.

Boukous, A. (2009). Globalization and sociolinguistic stratification in North Africa: The case of Morocco. In C. B. Vigourous & S. Mufwene (Eds.), *Globalization and language vitality: Perspectives from Africa* (pp. 127–141). London: Continuum International.

Bourdieu, P. (1977). *Outline of a theory of practice* (R. Nice, Trans.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: A social critique of the judgement of taste*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education* (pp. 241–258). New York: Greenwood Press.

Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power* (G. Raymond & M. Adamson, Trans.). Cambridge, UK: Polity.
Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J. C. (1990). *Reproduction in education, society and culture* (2nd ed.). London: Sage Publications.
Bullock, S. (2014). Language ideologies in Morocco. *Anthropology Department Honors Papers.* Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.conncoll.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1007&context=anthrohp.
Connor, H., Tyers, C., Modood, T., & Hillage, J. (2004). *Why the difference? A closer look at Higher Education minority ethnic students and graduates*. Research report 552, Institute for Employment Studies.
Crystal, D. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Devine, F. (2008). Class reproduction and social networks in the USA. In L. Weis (Ed.), *The way class works* (pp. 118–134). New York: Routledge.
Ennaji, M. (2002). Language contact, Arabization policy and education in Morocco. In A. Rouchdy (Ed.), *Language contact and language conflict in Arabic* (pp. 1–27). New York: Routledge.
Ennaji, M. (2005). *Multilingualism, cultural identity, and education in Morocco*. New York: Springer Science.
Fairclough, N. (1992). *Discourse and social change*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
Fairclough, N. (2003). *Analyzing discourse: Textual analysis for social research*. London: Routledge.
Friedman, J. (2003). Globalizing languages: Ideologies and realities of the contemporary global system. *American Anthropologist, 105*(4), 744–752.
Giddens, A. (1984). *The Constitution of society: Outline of the theory of structuration*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
Graddol, D. (1997). *The future of English*. London: British Council.
Graddol, D. (2006). *English next*. London: British Council.
Harrison, G. (2009). Language politics, linguistic capital and bilingual practitioners and social work. *British Journal of Social Work, 39*(6), 1082–1100.
Hjarvard, S. (2008). The globalization of language. How the media contribute to the spread of English and the emergence of medialects. *Nordicom Review, 25*(1), 75–97.
Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a lingua franca: Attitudes and identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
Johnson, A. (2009). The rise of English: The language of globalization in China and the European Union. *Macalester International, 22,* 131–168.
Kingston, P. W. (2001). The unfulfilled promise of cultural capital theory. *Sociology of Education, 74,* 88–99.
Lamont, M., & Lareau, A. (1988). Cultural capital: Allusions, gaps and glissandos in recent theoretical developments. *Sociological Theory, 62*(2), 153–168.
Lareau, A. (1989). Home advantage: Social class and parental intervention in elementary education. *Sociology of Education, 60,* 53–62.
Lefevre, R. (2015). The coming of North Africa's 'language wars'. *The Journal of North African Studies, 20*(4), 499–502.
London, N. A. (2001). Language for the global economy: Some curriculum fundamentals and pedagogical practices in the colonial educational enterprise. *Educational Studies, 27*(4), 393–423.
Marley, D. (2004). Language attitudes in Morocco, following recent changes in language policy. *Language Policy, 1,* 25–46.
Mhamed, A. A. (2004). *Cost-sharing and access to higher education in Morocco: What is wrong? Knowledge, access and governance: Strategies for change*. Paris: UNESCO Forum on Higher Education, Research and Knowledge Colloquium on Research and Higher Education Policy.
Munk, M. D., & Krarup, T. M. (2011). *Cultural capital theory revisited: Explanations of educational reproduction and beyond*. Working Paper, Aalborg University.
Murcia, M. N. (2003). English is like the dollar: Hard currency ideology and the status of English in Peru. *Journal of World Englishes, 22*(2), 121–142.

Ostler, N. (2010). *The last lingua franca: English until the return of Babel*. London: Allen Lane.
Park, S. J., & Abelmann, N. (2004). Class and cosmopolitan striving: Mother's management of English education in South Korea. *Anthropological Quarterly, 77*(4), 645–672.
Pennycook, A. (1994). *Cultural politics of English as an international language*. London: Longman.
Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. London: Oxford University Press.
Phillipson, R. (1999). Voice in global English: Unheard chords in Crystal loud and clear [review of David Crystal, *English as a Global Language*]. *Applied Linguistics, 20,* 265–276.
Sirin, S. R. (2005). Socioeconomic status and academic achievement: A meta-analytic review of research. *Review of Educational Research, 75,* 417–453.
Stanton-Salazar, R., & Dornbusch, S. (1995). Social capital and the reproduction of inequality: Information networks among Mexican-origin high school students. *Sociology of Education, 68,* 116–135.
Sullivan, A. (2001). Cultural capital and educational attainment. *Sociology, 35*(4), 893–912.
Willms, J. D., & Tramonte, L. (2010). Cultural capital and its effects on education outcomes. *Economics of Education Review, 29*(2), 200–213.
Yong, Z., & Campbell, K. P. (1995). English in China. *World Englishes, 14*(3), 377–390.
Zakhir, M., & O'Brien, J. L. (2017). French neo-colonial influence on Moroccan language education policy: A study of current status of standard Arabic in science disciplines. *Language Policy, 16*(1), 39–58. Retrieved from https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10993-015-9398-3.
Zouhir, A. (2013). Language situation and conflict in Morocco. In *The 43rd Annual Conference on African Linguistics*. Somerville, MA: Cascadilla Proceedings Project.

Adil Azhar received his *Doctorat* in Intercultural Communication from Mohammed V University in Rabat in 2013. He is currently an Assistant Professor of TEFL and teacher trainer at École Normale Supérieure at the same university. He has taught courses in communication, language teaching methodology, applied linguistics, multicultural education, values in language teaching, and research methodology. He has participated in and coordinated a number of national and international conferences. His research interests include cultural and communication theory, intercultural dialogue, teacher training, and applied linguistics.

Chapter 6
University Teachers' Perspectives on Adopting EMI in Morocco

Youssef Nadri and Malika Haoucha

Abstract This study examines the prospects of adopting English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in Moroccan higher education. A questionnaire addressed to instructors of economics at University Hassan II of Casablanca, Morocco, investigated their perceptions and attitudes regarding issues related to the EMI policy, such as its aims and merits, the potentially changing roles of teachers, their needs as well as demands on them to function adequately in an EMI setting, students' preparedness, and the status of French in a trilingual education system. As an opportunity to further develop their ideas, the participants were invited to respond to follow-up questions. The findings revealed that participants hold positive attitudes toward the EMI policy, but recognize several challenges that will likely impede effective implementation. The study ends with reflections and suggestions for EMI to be successfully implemented at tertiary education.

Keywords English medium instruction (EMI) · Challenges · Opportunities · Teachers' perspectives · Tertiary education

6.1 Introduction

English has been increasing its status in the educational sector in Morocco. A tendency is to shift toward more use of English as a means of instruction for scientific and technical education at different levels, particularly the tertiary level. Following a ministerial note, pedagogical staff were incited to launch courses taught in English for content subjects, such as medicine, engineering, telecommunication, media, information science, and international business. Several goals were put forward, such as international collaboration, improved English language proficiency, and heightened job prospects for graduates. However, it is believed that this policy is not unproblematic and several challenges lie ahead.

Y. Nadri (✉) · M. Haoucha
Hassan II University, Casablanca, Morocco
e-mail: youssefnadri@gmail.com

M. Haoucha
e-mail: malikahaoucha@hotmail.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_6

This exploratory study aims at investigating teachers' perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes regarding common issues associated with EMI implementation. Very little research has been carried out from the perspective of Moroccan university teachers on the possibilities of EMI at university, and universities of Economics in particular. The premise is that examining key stakeholders' perspectives is a crucial element in understanding the prospects of EMI, thereby increasing the likelihood of its success.

This chapter is organized as follows: first, the most pressing issues that have been reported to influence EMI teachers' views are reviewed and discussed. Building on this review, a thematic framework is then suggested that informs the study's conceptual design. Following that, study findings are presented and discussed focusing on some important pedagogical aspects of EMI implementation that may have been overlooked in the rush of stressing EMI teachers' language proficiency level as the main factor behind a successful implementation of the EMI policy.

6.2 Teachers' Perspectives on Issues Regarding EMI Adoption

In a recently conducted global survey on EMI, Dearden (2014) concluded that public opinion is not wholeheartedly in support of EMI and the attitudes toward the policy can be described as ambivalent or as a source of concern. Similarly, Williams' systematic review (2015), focusing on the recent global trend of implementing EMI, demonstrates how current policy makers' handling of the policy has resulted in challenges and opportunities for students and instructors. The review argues that current EMI implementation produces more challenges than opportunities. In another study, respondents indicated that "teaching through English is more of a problem than most people dare to openly admit" (Werther, Denver, Jensen, & Mees, 2014, p. 453). Some felt that they had been "saddled with EMI in a relatively haphazard way" (2014, p. 452).

Other issues have been raised in the literature in the context of EMI, which are thought to account for teachers' positive and negative views with respect to this policy. To begin with, EMI programs at university have been adopted to attract international students, and to prepare domestic students for the global labor market (Dearden & Macaro, 2016; Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013; Ghorbani & Alavi, 2014; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011). While implementing EMI courses has been considered as a strategy for universities to respond to globalization and internationalization, it was seen by lecturers in a Danish (business) university more as a desire to raise the profile of the institution than a clearly planned language policy (Werther et al., 2014).

This EMI policy in turn can promote multilingualism and shape the profile of literacy as a bilingual one. Particularly, one concern of EMI is the effect that it might have on the home language (L1) (Belhiah & Elhami, 2015), and by extension on other languages of instruction, (e.g., French in Morocco). Examining challenges facing teachers in new EMI contexts, Vu and Burns (2014) claim that these contexts

vary according to the status of the first language (L1). One particularity of higher education in Morocco is that the home language is not the language of instruction for most content subjects. This language policy came to be known as "biliteracy and trilingualism" (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013) situation where French will have to coexist if not to compete with English. Li and Na Shum (2008) investigated two other sociolinguistic issues that are raised in the context of EMI where its adoption can foster Anglocentrism, and preserve social inequality especially in accessing quality education among learners. In this respect, it is claimed that EMI limits the involvement of the majority of the students, who do not have access to English education, in economic and social development.

One area that received major interest, though not sufficiently investigated, is teachers' and students' language proficiency and its role in the successful EMI implementation. Jensen and Thøgersen (2011) showed that younger teachers and teachers who conduct a large part of their teaching in English are more positive about the benefits of internationalization and less concerned about the possible drawbacks in terms of reduced learning for students or a detrimental effect on the Danish language and society. Interestingly, teachers' English proficiency levels may affect attitudes toward EMI. Hu (2016), examining the effectiveness of EMI, argues that the teacher's low proficiency may lead to inefficient teaching and affect students' academic achievement negatively. By the same token, Werther et al. (2014) inquire whether teachers are capable of sharing their knowledge with the same precision as they would in French, and whether students have the receptive skills to process a lecture in English, along with the productive skills and the linguistic self-confidence to participate actively in lectures and discussions. Some educators oppose EMI by arguing that it leads to:

(1) reduced ability to understand concepts,
(2) low-level of knowledge about the subject studied,
(3) excessive consumption of time,
(4) feelings of alienation and separation, and
(5) The least amount of participation in the classes (Wächter & Maiworm, 2008).

Of equal concern is EMI teachers' perceptions of their role as language teachers. Studies demonstrate that EMI professors believe that their role is to teach content; therefore, they do not correct language errors or teach language aspects (e.g., Airey, 2012).

Remarkably, the language issue in EMI may overshadow the importance of other pedagogical competences university teachers need to function adequately in EMI contexts (Byun, Chu, Kim, Park, Kim, & Jung, 2011). Barrios, López-Gutiérrez, and Lechuga (2016) believe that teachers also need to impart knowledge, promote cognitive, and metacognitive skills, engage in sophisticated thought-provoking interaction and design instructional materials in which the learning of the instructional and subject-related language is integrated with subject content knowledge.

Nevertheless, what is scantly raised is these teachers' changing roles in the process of introducing EMI. In particular, not enough attention has been devoted to new academic/pedagogical demands on them to ensure successful implementation. For

example, one concern is whether they are capable of using the same range of pedagogical methods (Werther et al., 2014). The idea is that the shift from L1 to EMI does not need to be reduced to a mere change in the vehicle of communication, but take into account the adaptation of the teaching methodology to this new context (Cots, 2013). In other words, changing the language of delivery has to be accompanied by change in teaching style. One challenge facing teachers, Başıbek, Dolmacı, Cengiz, Bür, Dilek, and Kara (2014) explain, is that focus on language production influences these teachers' didactical skills in the sense that they are less flexible in conveying the contents of the lecture material. It seems that the most important factor causing the reported problems was not the language of instruction, but rather the pedagogical approach EMI teachers adopt in lecturing.

To conclude, a number of concerns emerge from this review, which the present study seeks to address. First, EMI policy presents opportunities as well as challenges. The question is whether participants' views of challenges presented by EMI outweigh the opportunities. Second, the review discussed the necessary skills teachers need to meet the new requirements in an EMI environment, which are mainly linguistic and pedagogical/academic. Based on this binary distinction, the second question seeks to determine the level at which teachers' perceptions of opportunities and challenges are significant. Third, the dimension of teaching requirements is further studied by linking it to its impact on teachers' attitudes toward EMI, and to perceptions about their skills. Finally, the study looks into participant teachers' attitudes, faced with potential EMI challenges, toward support programs. The last question investigates the extent to which participants perceive supporting resources as being conducive to effective EMI implementation.

6.3 Data and Methodology

This section outlines the study design, research instrument, and the procedures for data collection and analysis.

6.3.1 Conceptual Design

This study has adopted an exploratory design with the purpose of examining the perspectives of university teachers with regard to EMI implementation. It addresses (a) perceptions that these teachers have of EMI opportunities and challenges, their abilities to teach through the English medium, and whether these participants perceive themselves and their students as prepared to engage in an EMI experience and (b) the attitudes these participants have toward certain issues related to EMI practice.

The research literature on teachers' attitudes toward EMI has recently become quite abundant (Dearden & Macaro, 2016). However, there is little research that looked at the synergy of attitudes and other variables such as perceptions. In the

present study, these two variables are posited to be different dimensions of examining participants' views, though they have been intrinsically linked in some studies. Of particular interest to the study are possible interconnections between attitudes toward EMI and perceptions of abilities and requirements in this new setting.

Attitudinal studies, which are often primarily focused on teachers, are important in exploratory research and have helped gather baseline data about the EMI situation (Dimova, Hultgren, & Jensen, 2015). However, most of them appear to be geared toward investigating issues which are ideological, policy-based, or sociolinguistic, and to lack interest in the pedagogical and professional aspects of EMI. In addition to that, while these studies unveil a complex range of positive as well as negative attitudes, most of them were conducted post hoc, thereby lacking the pro-active quality of anticipating challenges posed by the implementation of EMI policies.

6.3.2 Instrument and Data Collection

The present study was conducted at the Faculty of Law, Economics and Social Sciences, University Hassan II of Casablanca, Morocco. The participants were Moroccan professors of economics. All of them have received their doctoral degrees from institutions in non-English-speaking countries and have little or no experience teaching in the English medium. The participants are affiliated with three departments, namely, economics, management, and applied mathematics.

A questionnaire was used as the main instrument for data collection, which was developed by the researchers based on the study objectives and a review of the relevant literature. Some of the ideas the questionnaire raises were brainstormed during meetings with some faculty. In terms of its structure, the questionnaire consists of five thematic sections, two of which relate to the participants' perceptions, and three target their attitudes toward EMI practice. These sections appear in the questionnaire as follows: (1) *aims and merits of EMI*, (2) *the potentially changing roles of teachers*, *and demands on them as well as their needs to function adequately in an EMI setting*, (3) *students' preparedness for EMI*, (4) *the status of French in a bi-literacy/trilingual program*, and (5) *support to ensure successful implementation of the EMI policy.* Taken together, these themes represent a framework targeting opportunities and challenges facing university teachers and their students in handling the introduction and teaching through EMI, and propose a typology for understanding them. Participants were asked to respond to a series of statements constituting the questionnaire 49 items (see Appendix). All items (except the first one about participants' background) required participants to rate statements based on a five-level Likert-type scale.

The questionnaire was translated into French to provide participants with language choice. A pilot test was carried out to clarify the items and improve the overall instrument quality. Then, the questionnaire was delivered online via mail and Google Docs platform to 55 faculty between April and May 2017.

6.4 Findings and Discussion

The results have been analyzed in light of the research questions outlined earlier. The starting point is to gain insight into the general trend in participants' views of EMI adoption by comparing its perceived opportunities to challenges. To examine whether challenges presented by this approach outweigh its opportunities, descriptive statistics of the two variables are presented in Table 6.1.

The mean values corresponding to opportunities (M = 2.85) and challenges (M = 2.86) show that the respondents only partially agree that the use of English as a medium of instruction would bring some added value to teaching content courses, and so an EMI experience is not wholeheartedly embraced. Moreover, a comparison of the mean of OPPORTUNITIES and CHALLENGES shows that these two values are equal. The extent to which participants perceive challenges posed by an EMI is as significant as that of opportunities offered by it, if not slightly more considerable. This means that the participants seem to be indecisive vis-à-vis the introduction of EMI.

To sum up, while participants' views are in support of an EMI approach, they perceived it as presenting challenges. In other words, these teachers show mixed views toward adopting EMI in their classes. This aligns with Dearden's survey (2014) reporting similar findings that public attitudes can be described as ambivalent or a source of concern rather than being categorically against its introduction.

The second research question tries to break down the constructs of opportunities and challenges based on the understanding that these two concepts can be linguistic or pedagogical and academic in scope. This classification is based on Shohamy's (2012) conceptualization of lecturers' competence as being a combination of linguistic, academic, and pedagogical skills. Accordingly, the constructs of opportunities and challenges are further divided along the linguistic and pedagogical/academic dimensions. This level of analysis resulted in four categories:

1. OPPO.LING
2. OPPO.PED/ACA
3. CHALL.LING
4. CHALL.PED/ACA.

A descriptive analysis of these four variables (see Table 6.2) was carried out in an attempt to address the levels at which participants' views (of opportunities and challenges) are more voiced.

A comparison of the means of opportunities: linguistic (=2.69) and pedagogical/academic (=2.89) hints to the idea that the participants viewed merits of an EMI

Table 6.1 Descriptive statistics of participants' views on EMI opportunities and challenges

	Mean	S. deviation	Min	Max
OPPORTUNITIES	2.85	0.54	1.56	3.44
CHALLENGES	2.86	0.60	1.33	3.46

Table 6.2 Descriptive statistics of OPPORTUNITIES and CHALLENGES at the linguistic and pedagogical/academic levels

	Mean	S. deviation
OPPO.LING	2.69	0.78
OPPO.PED.AC	2.89	0.55
CHALL.LING	2.77	0.57
CHALL.PED.ACA	2.93	0.68

approach as less linguistic than academic or pedagogical. This may be attributed to the pedagogical aspects related to teaching content subjects in the sense that teachers do not believe language outcomes have to be embedded in their teaching priorities, and by extension it implies a lack of awareness of the language needs of their students. This point should not be taken to mean that university teachers do not perceive EMI as bringing language benefits. It could be seen as an indication of an understanding of content teachers' role that lacks explicit and formally stated language goals in EMI. Similar interpretations may be put forward when considering standard deviation values of OPPO.LING (SD = 0.78) and OPPO.PED.ACA (SD = 0.68). A comparison of the two calculated values indicates that participants are more divergent on their perceptions of linguistic opportunities and merits offered by an EMI approach than on pedagogical ones.

As far as challenges are concerned, analysis of means shows that the participants view challenges posed by EMI as being mainly pedagogical in nature. On the other hand, standard deviation values show that the sample is less homogeneous on CHALL.PED/ACA, i.e., discrepancies are higher among the group for the academic/pedagogical challenges. This suggests that disagreement is slightly more noted within respondents regarding the academic/pedagogical demands an EMI approach presents. More significant discrepancies in this respect might have been interpreted by various understandings and expectations among participants to meet the academic/pedagogical requirements of the new EMI context. However, language proficiency requirements to teach effectively using EMI need equal attention as participants were comparatively more homogenous (SD = 0.57) regarding their perceptions of linguistic challenges posed by EMI. Therefore, pedagogical and academic requirements need to be addressed along language concerns when envisaging an introduction of EMI programs.

In order to further probe the issues surrounding the implementation of EMI, participants' attitudes were also examined. Scantly researched is the question of the interconnection between linguistic and pedagogical/academic requirements and attitudes toward EMI. Here, we examine the relationship between these two scales by introducing two other variables of perceptions and support, which are thought to influence attitude. The idea is to consider predictors of positive attitudes toward a future adoption of an EMI approach to teach content courses, such as economics.

In so doing, a regression analysis was carried out, with the dependent variables being requirements, support, and self-perceptions (about their preparedness and abilities to engage in the new EMI context). The results are presented in Table 6.3.

Table 6.3 Regression analysis of attitudes and (support, self-perceptions, and requirements)

R	R^2	Independent	Regression beta (β)
0.43	0.16	Support	0.30*
		Self-perceptions	0.25*
		Requirements	−0.08*

*Sig: ($p < .05$)
Dependent: Attitudes

The multiple correlation coefficient (R = 0.43), which indicates the linear correlation between the observed and model-predicted values of the dependent variable (attitude) mean, suggests an association of this variable with Support, Self-Perceptions, and Requirements. In the same way, the squared value of the multiple correlation coefficient $R^2 = 0.16$ indicates that the model suggested for the interconnection of attitudes and the three variables is accounted for by 16%.

The regression coefficients (β) are computed to compare the contribution of each predictor variable (Support, Self-Perceptions, and Requirements) to attitude, and to assess the strength of the relationship between each predictor variable to the dependent variable. In other words, the beta value is a measure of how strongly each of the variables (Support, Self-Perceptions, and Requirements) influences the participants' attitudes toward EMI.

Beta values indicate that the highest positive correlation (β = 0.30) can be identified between SUPPORT and attitudes toward adopting an EMI approach. Thus, the more support teachers receive for their implementation of EMI, the more positive their attitudes toward this approach are. To a lesser extent, the respondents' self-perceptions about their preparedness and abilities to undertake an EMI approach correlate with ATTITUDE with a value of (β = 0.25). This shows that working on enhancing teachers' self-perceptions contributes to a positive attitude toward EMI. Interestingly, requirements to function adequately in an EMI context correlated negatively (β = −0.08) with favorable attitudes toward the approach. That is, linguistic, pedagogical, and academic requirements to teach effectively using the English medium may be viewed by teachers as hindering their adoption of the approach.

It can be inferred from the regression analysis outlined above that the participants view supporting resources as enhancing EMI implementation. It follows that introducing support schemes along with EMI programs is compelling from the teachers' point of view as a response to these new demands (requirements). Similarly, in order to alleviate psychological barriers toward successful adoption of EMI, and motivate content lecturers to consider this approach, efforts are needed to enhance these teachers' confidence to use their linguistic, pedagogical and academic skills in a way that fits the target educational settings.

The question that remains unanswered, though, given the need to set priorities in providing support, is which aspect(s) of teacher development these efforts need to target. This study does not intend to answer this question fully, but aims at drawing attention to areas of intervention that may run the risk of being overlooked. Accordingly, the third research question is whether support/resources need to target

Table 6.4 Bi-variant correlation coefficients of SUPPORT and CHALL.PED.ACA CHALL.LING

		CHALL.LING	CHALL.PED
SUPPORT	Pearson corr. coef.	0.69[a]	0.85[a]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.01	0.00

[a]Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

more linguistic or pedagogical challenges faced by EMI teachers. In so doing, a bivariant correlation of SUPPORT with CHALL.PED.ACA and CHALL.LING was conducted, as in Table 6.4.

The Pearson correlation coefficients show pedagogical/academic challenges as correlating more strongly with support (=0.85**) and with a high level of significance. It seems participants' views of support are more closely associated with pedagogical requirements than language concerns. Therefore, support/resources need to target more pedagogical and academic challenges faced by EMI teachers than language problems. This by no means claims that support does not need to address the teachers' linguistic challenges as the study results show a considerable correlation (=0.69**) of the participants' views on this dimension with support. This rather suggests that possessing pedagogical and academic skills necessary for effective EMI teaching is considered as crucial as language skills, and may compensate for deficiencies in the latter.

6.5 Conclusion

This chapter reports on a study carried out on instructors' perceptions and attitudes toward teaching content subjects through the English medium. The study revealed that participants have positive views regarding the EMI policy, but also acknowledged challenges that would impede effective implementation. In dealing with potential challenges (both linguistic and pedagogical/academic) that might impede a smooth implementation of EMI programs, the study has argued for the importance of providing EMI teachers with support at different levels of the educational process, but especially at the pedagogical and academic levels. In this regard, the study findings show that providing EMI teachers with support, and working on their self-perceptions may shape their attitudes toward EMI.

The study has implications for an effective implementation of the EMI policy in tertiary education. The findings point to the need to support teachers by scaffolding their language and pedagogical skills. Currently, teacher preparation and in-service professional development programs in Morocco do not explicitly provide for training teachers for EMI contexts. Research in the area of teacher preparation development may need to develop frameworks of pedagogical standards for training university teachers to ensure that they are prepared for new challenges facing them in an EMI context. In an attempt to address the opportunities and challenges discussed in a

systematic way, the study suggested a five-dimension framework outlining issues that could accompany an EMI practice (see Sect. 6.3.2). The proposed typology, together with the study's conceptual design of attitude and Support, Self-Perceptions, and Requirements, are meant to provide guidance for policy makers and training program designers in devising successful implementation strategies for EMI, and help content teachers develop more favorable attitudes toward EMI.

References

Airey, J. (2012). "I don't teach language." The linguistic attitudes of physics lecturers in Sweden. In U. Smit & E. Dafouz (Eds.), *Integrating content and language in higher education* (*AILA Review, 25*) (pp. 64–79). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Barrios, E., López-Gutiérrez, A., & Lechuga, C. (2016). Facing challenges in English medium instruction through engaging in an innovation project. In *2nd International Conference on Higher Education Advances, HEAd'16* (pp. 21–23). *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 228*, 209–214.

Başıbek, N., Dolmacı, M., Cengiz, B. C., Bür, B., Dilek, Y., & Kara, B. (2014). Lecturers' perceptions of English medium instruction at engineering departments of higher education: A study on partial English medium instruction at some state universities in Turkey. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 116,* 1819–1825.

Belhiah, H., & Elhami, M. (2015). English as a medium of instruction in the Gulf: When students and teachers speak. *Language Policy, 14,* 3–23.

Byun, K., Chu, H., Kim, M., Park, I., Kim, S., & Jung, J. (2011). English-medium teaching in Korean higher education: Policy debates and reality. *Higher Education, 62*(4), 431–449.

Cots, J. M. (2013). Introducing English-medium instruction at the University of Lleida, Spain: Intervention, beliefs and practices. In A. Doiz, D. Lasagabaster, & M. Sierra (Eds.), *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges* (pp. 106–128). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Dearden, J. (2014). *English as a medium of instruction-a growing global phenomenon*. British Council.

Dearden, J., & Macaro, E. (2016). Higher education teachers' attitudes towards English medium instruction: A three-country comparison. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 6*(3), 455–486.

Dimova, S., Hultgren, A. K., & Jensen, C. (Eds.). (2015). *English-medium instruction in European higher education: Review and future research*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2013). Introduction. In A. Doiz, D. Lasagabaster, & J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges* (pp. xvii–xxii). Bristol: Multilingual matters.

Ghorbani, M. R., & Alavi, S. Z. (2014). Feasibility of adopting English-medium instruction at Iranian Universities. *Current Issues in Education, 17*(1), 1–18.

Hu, L. (2016). Content teachers' perceptions towards EMI in Chinese Universities. *Intercultural communication. New perspectives from ELF* (pp. 429–446).

Jensen, C., & Thøgersen, J. (2011). University lecturers' attitudes towards English as the medium of instruction. *Iberica, 22,* 13–33.

Li, B., & Na Shum, A. O. (2008). A discussion on using English as medium of instruction in Hong Kong and the sociolinguistic impacts. *LCOM Papers, 1,* 37–51.

Shohamy, E. (2012). A critical perspective on the use of English as a medium of instruction at universities. In A. Doiz, D. Lasagabaster, & J. M. Sierra (Eds.), *English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges* (pp. 196–212). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Vu, N. T., & Burns, A. (2014). English as a medium of instruction: Challenges for vietnamese tertiary lecturers. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 11*(3), 1–31.

Wächter, B., & Maiworm, F. (2008). English-language-taught degree programmes in European higher education. The Picture in 2007 *(ACA Papers on International Cooperation in Education).* Bonn: Lemmens.

Werther, C., Denver, C., Jensen, C., & Mees, I. G. (2014). Using English as a medium of instruction at university level in Denmark: The lecturer's perspective. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development, 35*(5), 443–462.

Williams, D. G. (2015). A systematic review of English medium instruction (EMI) and implications for the South Korean higher education context. *English Language Teaching World Online,* 1–23.

Youssef Nadri has a Doctorate in linguistics, Mohammed V University (2013), and works as Assistant Professor at Hassan II University, Casablanca. He has taught business English (including English for logistics, finance, and management) since 2016 at the Faculty of Law, Economics and Social Sciences—Aîn Sebâa. Before joining this faculty, he had taught general English in public high school for 12 years. His research areas of interest include critical discourse analysis and innovation in foreign language teaching and testing. Particularly, his current research project is concerned with issues raised in the context of implementing EMI (English Medium Instruction) pedagogy at the tertiary level.

Malika Haoucha holds a Ph.D. (2005) in English Language Teacher Education and MA (1996) in ELT, both from Warwick University, England. She is Associate Professor at the Faculty of Law, Economics and Social Sciences, Hassan II University of Casablanca, Morocco. She teaches general English and English for Specific Purposes, and coordinates an undergraduate course in International Trade. Before joining the faculty, she was a lecturer at Al Akhawayn University in Ifrane and worked as a part-time English language teacher at the Centre for English Language Teacher Education (CELTE) at Warwick University. She had also run her private company and provided English Language training to Dell Corporation employees in Casablanca. Her research areas of interest include academic writing, higher education branding in Morocco, and innovation in the Moroccan tertiary education.

Chapter 7
L2 Motivational Self and English Department Students' Intended Effort

Nourddine Amrous

Abstract Present-day EFL learner profiles differ in considerable respects from those of a few decades ago, characteristically in light of the realities of the twenty-first century where boundaries between societies and cultures are becoming less pronounced. One implication for language learning motivation among these students is the likelihood of their motivation turning out to be both varied and complex, an issue the present chapter purports to explore. The study aims to address the impact of the variables of, "Ought-to Self" (Dörnyei and Ushioda in Motivation, language identity and the L2 self. Multilingual Matters, Bristol, pp. 1–8, 2009), "attitude toward learning," and "cultural interest" on the intended effort put on by Moroccan EFL learners. A 16-item questionnaire was administered to 72 Mohammed V University students belonging to two different academic levels. The first hypothesis in the study tests whether the foregoing variables have any bearing on learners' intended effort, as recent motivation literature reports. The second hypothesis tests whether "employee" students (employees studying for the BA degree) exhibit any different motivational behavior from their "non-employee" counterparts. The regression model has shown that, among the three independent variables considered, only attitude toward the target language tends to impact learners' intended effort. On another side, "employee" and "non-employee" groups are shown to differ at early stages of their university studies, but converge on similar patterns in their later stages.

Keywords English-in-Education · Teaching of English in Morocco · Motivational self, intended effort

7.1 Introduction

The pivotal role motivation plays in second language learning has led to recent second language scholarship to reconsider the concept as being complex and involving a number of facets (Dörnyei, 2005), thereby departing from the "reductionist" and psychometrically based models that marked motivational theorizing since the early

N. Amrous (✉)
Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: nourddineamrous@gmail.com; amrous10@yahoo.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_7

60s. (Gardener & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994). This alternative move construes motivation as contextually relevant, and therefore open to change (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). Scholars impute this shift to a reflection of the new world order today in which people and cultures tend to go global, and to the consequent spectacular ascendency of English as a world language. Concomitant with this are the claims in the recent applied linguistics literature that the "native speaker" has been demoted from his classical status as the "uncrowned king" of linguistics (Firth & Wagner, 1997) to one that is "equally handicapped" to the non-native speaker (op.cit). One corollary to this has been a redefinition of notions like the "target language community," which has no doubt had implications for what it is that drives learners to choose to study English and invest effort in hopes of its mastery.

In Morocco, a series of educational reforms have, among other things, sought to reposition learners as the center of pedagogical activity, obviating the need for insight into motivation in light of this new learner status. Indeed, since 2000, the educational reform known as the Charter for Education and Training, Royal speeches, Ministerial Notes, and, recently, the 2015–2030 Strategic Vision, have expressed an urge for education to work toward producing "global" citizens. Part of going global according to these texts, relates to the mastery of languages. In this connection, apart from the urge to preserve local languages and cultures which have carved comfortable space in English textbooks, there have been more urgent calls for the promotion of English, especially among higher education learners. In fact, Lahcen Daoudi, a former minister of education, expressly set the "mastery of English" as a precondition for passing a recruitment interview for the position of a teacher in a higher education institution, despite the candidate's doctoral work being conducted in other languages. This, together with English now becoming more popular in Morocco than ever before, invites empirical endeavors to offer insights into how this learning takes place and how it can be improved. Central to these concerns is consideration of language learning motivation.

With this background in mind, the overarching aim of the present chapter is to explore the motivational profile of Moroccan English Department students at the Faculty of Humanities in Rabat. From this aim bifurcate two specific objectives which can be articulated as follows:

1. To test (whether and) how the variables of Ought-to Self, attitude toward learning, and cultural interest impact English Department students' intended effort.
2. To compare "employee" learners and their "non-employee" counterparts on each of the variables above.

Conducting a study on motivation at the English Department finds rationale in a number of facts. First, to the extent of the researcher's knowledge, only scarcely has motivation among Moroccan EFL been addressed, aside from such scant attempts as Zeddari (2003). In this, the present study comes to fill a gap. Second, the Motivational Self System as a theory that has gained worldwide acclaim and would therefore be of relevance to test against data from Moroccan learners. Third, in homage to the first English Department in the country, the need arises to celebrate its comparatively long history in seeking to render its learners' motivational and learning behavior.

The present chapter is organized as follows: In Sect. 7.1, this section, the context of the study both at the local and at the global levels are discussed as an introduction to the main point of the article. In Sect. 7.2, a number of facts in regard to the spread of English in Morocco, both inside and outside the English department will be presented. Section 7.3, exposes a number of facts concerning the linguistic landscape of Morocco. Then, a number of studies which have directly dealt with the components of motivation in relation to L2 learning will be discussed in Sect. 7.4. In Sect. 7.5, the method followed in data collection and analysis will be briefly presented. In Sect. 7.6 the results are exposed and discussed. Then the chapter concludes.

7.2 English Inside and Outside the Department

The student population at a typical English Department in Morocco is growing year after year since its inauguration in 1964, a growth that has become phenomenal over the last few years. At Mohammed V University, for example, the number has grown to 1800 in 2016 had grown even higher by 2019 with the introduction of the track known as the "Educational Track." This is not the case of Mohammed V University only, for colleagues from other English Departments report the same remarkable growth and often express concerns about the larger class size, on which many stakeholders in public education blame the general dissatisfaction with students' overall attainment.

Notwithstanding their being hosted at the faculty of arts, Moroccan English Departments attract students from different academic backgrounds: humanities, sciences, economics, to name just a few. Many of these students demonstrate notable abilities in Spoken English as they start their first semester, but only rarely do they show similar fluency and accuracy in written communication. This issue is worthy of an independent investigation and so will not be pursued in the present study.

Outside of these Departments, there is a growing interest in the study of English among the population, which explains the number of private schools mushrooming nationwide which offer courses in foreign languages in general and in English in particular. As a case in point, there are public institutions, such as the Ministry of Public Finance, that offer training sessions for their staff in General English, as part of their staff training programs. The increasing number of individuals paying for such courses, too, has been remarkable around the country. Buckner (2011) imputes this attention-grabbing interest to the Moroccans envisioning English as a "language of opportunity and future" in rejection of French as a colonial language. In the same vein, an article in the electronic magazine, "Morocco World News" (July 5, 2015), reports on a call by the Rabat Center for Political and Strategic studies for the replacement of French in the country. In 2015, a survey conducted by Hespress, a leading news website, 85% of the population is in favor of this replacement (Morocco World News, July 5, 2015).

The emergence of the internet toward the turn of the century and the ensuing social media platforms are further levers for the spread of English in a country like Morocco. More than ever before, thanks to social media, Moroccans' access

to authentic language input, opportunities for real-time interactions, autonomous learning, and feedback—key ingredients in a language learning experience—is now both qualitatively and quantitatively guaranteed. A similar effect is produced by the accessibility of people to such TV channels broadcasting in English as MBC2, BBC, and CNN. This shows that the presence of English in Morocco is a fact that cannot go unnoticed. Many Moroccans are consequently able to learn English outside of the classroom. It is no wonder that one can even come across young inhabitants of mountainous areas who speak English with remarkable fluency simply as a result of their interactions with tourists.

The facts above are revealing a change in the motivational behavior of the Moroccan EFL learner. Unlike his 1980s or 1990s predecessor, for example, the latter is likely to set different goals to his learning, adopt different means of learning, hold different attitudes toward the language itself, and expect different learning outcomes. The motivational framework that is best equipped to account for these changes is Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self on the grounds of the wide credit it continues to receive among researchers in the field. This will be discussed in the next section. In order to situate the framework in its theoretical perspective, however, a review of different traditions of research on L2 motivation is in order.

7.3 The Moroccan Linguistic Situation

This section is a brief description of the linguistic situation in Morocco. The aim behind including this section is to highlight the fact that the Moroccans have a number of languages available for learning. Deciding in which language to invest will depend on a number of complex factors, including the status of the chosen language. However, this very issue will not be pursued here any further.

The Moroccan linguistic situation is both complex and diverse. This is partially due to the well-known fact that, historically, the country has been subject to so many foreign invasions, with all the complexities in language and communication these invasions bring with them. Indeed, like many North African countries, Morocco was subject to invasions from the Phoenicians, the Greeks, the Arabs, and, more recently, the Europeans. In consequence, the country is a site for the study of how this complex linguistic heritage is made use of in the course of day-to-day language activities. In the following paragraphs, the main aspects of the Moroccan linguistic situation will be given.

In Moroccan linguistic market, one can draw a distinction between two categories: languages with a weak social capital and those with a strong social capital. The languages that are associated with a weak social capital are Moroccan Arabic and Amazigh, which are basically oral languages and are used in daily conversations among Moroccans. On the other hand, the languages that are associated with strong social capital are Standard Arabic and French, which are used in formal contexts (Boukous, 2009).

The first known language in Morocco is Amazigh, otherwise known also as Berber. For centuries, this language had lost its written form until it was revived in 2001, with the foundation of the Royal Institute for the Amazigh Culture. There are three main varieties of Amazigh in Morocco, apart from the newly standardized variety taught at school. Tarifit is spoken in the north of the country, while Tamazight is spoken in the area known as the Middle Atlas. Tashlhit is a variety that is spoken in the south, around the cities of Agadir, Taroudant, and Guelmim. Although the three varieties are hardly intelligible as one moves from one to another, this lack of intelligibility is due primarily to phonological differences, many of which are systematic.

Moroccan Arabic, also known as Darija, is the variety spoken natively by many Moroccans. It is a variety that functions as a lingua franca for all Moroccans, since it is the one spoken in such big cities as Rabat, Casablanca, and Marrakech. Aside from the structural features of Standard Arabic which it displays, Moroccan Arabic exhibits so many examples of Amazigh, French, and Spanish structures and lexical items. Further south of the country, there is a Moroccan Arabic variety different from Darija. This is referred to as Hassania and it bears little phonological and structural resemblance to Moroccan Arabic, although it, too, includes words of an Amazigh origin.

There exist a number of foreign languages in Morocco. Apart from French and Spanish, two colonial languages, English, German, and Italian, to mention but a few, are also languages to which Moroccan people are attracted. French continues to be used in public and private administrations while Spanish does not enjoy this status. In the recent 2011 constitution, however, it is Standard Arabic and Amazigh that are recognized as official. All in all, Morocco is a multilingual country where a number of languages coexist with their different statuses and functions.

7.4 The Motivational Self System and Language Learning

The Online Advanced Learner's Dictionary provides three definitions for the entry of motivation. As a first definition, the term refers to "the reason why somebody does something or behaves in a particular way." The second definition the dictionary gives consists in the "feeling of wanting to do something," especially something that involves hard work. The third definition is that of "a statement or a piece of writing in which you give reasons for something." Applied to the language learning process, the first and second definitions could both be involved in accounting for the learners' justified effort to work on a task as well as the desire he cherishes toward this achievement. Definitions that are theory based will be reviewed in the next section, as a way of situating the L2 Motivational Self System, which will be the object of discussion in the section that follows.

7.4.1 Traditions in L2 Motivational Research

Motivational scholarship that situates L2 motivational theorizing in its historical perspective (Csizér & Magid, 2014; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Ushioda, 2013) customarily divides its history into three main periods: The social–psychological period, which started in the late 1950s and waned in the early 1990s, the cognitive-situated period, which started from 1990s well into the twenty-first century and the process-oriented approach which continues to be the theoretical repository for current analyses of language learning motivation.

Gardner and Lambert's work as early as 1959 instigated the research tradition on motivation known as the social–psychological period. The main tenet of Gardner and Lambert was that, in a bilingual context like Canada, motivation was the driving force in learning a second language. Subsequent work along this idea characterized motivation as a composite of three elements: motivational intensity, desire to learn the language, and attitudes toward the acts of language learning (Lambert, 1985). The concept that drew more attention with this framework was the integrative motive, a "motivation to learn a second language because of positive feelings towards the community that speaks the language" (Gardner, 1979, pp. 82–83). Recently, however, the integrative motive was found to be incommensurate with the learning process that takes place in a globalized world.

Despite the significance of Lambert and Gardner's work over around three decades, the social–psychological tradition included other models that dealt with motivation from the same theoretical standpoint. One of these is known as the "linguistic self-confidence" model (Clément, 1986). The major claim defended this model was that the degree of contact between two ethnic groups and the quality of this contact are strong determinants of L2 acquisition. Giles and Byrne (1982) lay the foundation for the "intergroup model." According to Giles and Byrne (1982), whose main research question was to determine "who in an ethnic group uses what language variety, when and why" (p. 17), previous frameworks such as Gardner (1979) and Clément (1986) suffer from many "deficiencies" (p. 17) in that they do not take into account the variable of ethnic identification. This model was soon superseded by acculturation theory as articulated in Schumann (1986). According to Schumann, social and psychological distance between the second language learner and the target language community determines the language learners' success in acquiring the target language.

The cognitive-situated period started in the 1990s with critiques of the social–psychological tradition (Guerrero, 2015) where cognitive aspects of learning were not a variable in language learning motivation. The assumption underlying this model is learners' and teachers' needs have primacy over the social context of learning. Crooks and Schmidt (1991) is a first attempt to propose a view of motivation which suggested that learning in the classroom needed a place in motivation studies, for the dominance of a "non-cognitive approach stemming from a tendency to see SL learning as unconscious and therefore difficult to reconcile with motivation" (pp. 482–3).

A few years later, Dörnyei (1994) made a three-level proposal for the study of motivation: language, the learner, and the learning context. It was during this period that motivation was envisioned not merely as an outcome of social and psychological factors but also an outcome of the learner's determinants of success inside the classroom such as the teacher, the curriculum, and the syllabus.

The motivational research tradition that marks the beginning of the century is known as the process-oriented period. Basic to the models marking this period is the idea that motivation is a variable construct, likely to change over time. This makes these models depart in radical respects from the accounts that picture motivation in a linear, reductionist way. As is explained in Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009), studies were needed which portrayed motivation in real time, especially in contexts where language learning may take several years. This line of researching motivation was in fact a forerunner of more recent accounts, especially the ones spearheaded by Dörnyei's work. In the following section, a review of this model, known as the "L2 motivational self," is in order.

7.4.2 The L2 Motivational Self System

The merits of a new theory of motivation that incorporates elements of the self-system as that developed by Dörnyei (2005, 2009) are multiple. In this theory, the concept of motivation is not static as was conceived by Lambert (1985) and Gardner and Lambert (1972). In relying on future self-guides that drive the learning effort, the L2 Motivational Self System approach views the motivation construct as dynamic and changing, depending on the changes in the learner's future self-guides. In this regard, integrativeness à la Gardner and Lambert (1972) has been shown not to be so tenable in view of the current world changes.

Representing a process-oriented approach to motivation (Guerrero, 2015), the L2 Motivational Self System views learners' motivation along three dimensions: the ideal L2 self, the ought-to self, and the learning experience. The first two components represent the learner's self-guides, while the third one represents the learner's actual course of action. In Dörnyei's terms, the ideal L2 self is the "L2 specific facet of one's ideal L2 self" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29), which reflects, in a sense, what the learner will end up being and doing in the future. The ought-to self refers to the attributes a learner desires to possess by considering restrictions and responsibilities.

The approach has been validated by a number of previous studies (Al-Shehri, 2009; Lamb, 2007; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009). Taguchi, Magid, and Papi conducted a comparative motivational study of learners of English in Japan, China, and Iran. The results of the study revealed a positive correlation between the ideal L2 self and integrativeness in the groups compared. However, intended efforts were shown to be impacted by the ideal L2 self rather than by integrative orientation.

Lamb (2007) studied the case of two learners in Indonesia, with the main conclusion that the ideal and ought-to selves are effective factors in L2 learning motivation. A similar study followed by Al-Shehri (2009), which was conducted on Saudi Arabian Students.

7.5 Method

The method of data collection and analysis will be reviewed. The focus in the following sections will specifically be on instruments and participants. Before that, however, the objectives as well as the hypotheses of the study will be presented first.

7.5.1 Hypotheses

The main objective of the study was to test (whether and) how the variables of Ought-to Self, attitude toward learning, and cultural interest impact English Department students' intended effort. The choice of these variables stems from the fact that learners' investment in their learning might be driven by their aim to satisfy the people around them like parents, elder siblings, and friends or by their attitude toward the English language as a prestigious means of communication in today's world. Needless to say, the interest that many young Moroccans show toward the Anglo-Saxon culture is evident and is, therefore, likely to incite them to invest more in their learning of English. As a second objective, the study purports to compare "employee" learners and their "non-employee" counterparts on each of the variables above.

Given these objectives, two hypotheses are put to test in this study:

1. Intended effort among "non-employee" learners is determined by their ought-to self, attitude toward learning, and cultural interest.
2. "Employee learners" exhibit a significant difference from their "non-employee" counterparts where Ought-to self, attitude toward learning, and cultural interest are concerned.

7.5.2 Participants

The number of participants who took part in the present study is 72. These were divided into three groups in conformity with the hypotheses above. The first group of students, 28 in number, joined the university for free, upon obtaining their Baccalaureate Degree. These students were not employed, and were aged between 18 and 22. The second group, also not employees, were 20 S6 (third-year students) who were expected to finish their university studies by the end of that semester. As for

the third group, it consists of 24 students who paid for their university studies on the grounds that they were employees. The main reason for choosing S2 and S6 students was to check whether the motivational variables above would change as students' academic level changes. As for the choice of the "employee" group was motivated by the intention to see if the latter would exhibit the same motivational behavior than the regular, "non-employee" students.

It should be pointed out that the participants took part in this study at will. They were told that the questionnaire was anonymous and that their responses and biographical data would be used for study purposes only.

7.5.3 Instrument

The relevant data were collected by means of a questionnaire with items representing each of the variables stated above. The questionnaire is inspired by the works of Dörnyei (2005, 2009) and other researchers on L2 motivation. Thus, intended effort, ought-to self, attitude toward learning, and cultural interest were each tested by means of four items, with an alpha coefficient respective Cronbach's alpha coefficients of (0.74), (0.82), (56), and (70). The items were evaluated following a 5-point Likert scale where the students were asked to assign a 5 to "Strongly agree," 4 to "agree," 3 to neutral, 2 to disagree, and 1 to "strongly disagree." The following are sample items for each of the four variables:
Intended effort: "I work so hard to learn English"
Ought-to self: "My parents believe that I should learn English and pass with a good grade"
attitude toward learning: "I do love it when I am in an English class"
Cultural interest: "I like it when I listen to music in English"

7.6 Findings and Discussion

That motivation has a bearing on students' learning is an established fact in the literature. However, in light of the shift in the conceptualization of motivation as a monolithic construct (Lambert), and considering the complex resources students have at their disposal nowadays in the course of their learning, determining the components of motivation that may have a significant impact on the act of learning among students remains the object of continuous research today. In this section, we will present the results of our study, which tested the variables of ought-to self, attitude toward learning, and cultural interest and their impact, if any, on students' intended effort.

Regression was run in order to analyze the impact of the three independent variables (see above) on the dependent variable of the intended effort. The results are summarized in the Table 7.1.

Table 7.1 Impact of independent variables on intended effort

Model	R	R-square	Adjusted R-square	St. error
1	0.463[a]	0.214	0.179	2.54

[a]Predictors: (Constant), Cultural interest, Ought-to self, Attitudes to the target language learning

Table 7.2 Coefficients for each independent variable

Independent variable	Coefficient
Ought-to self	0.48
Attitude toward learning	0.00*
Cultural interest	0.25

*$p < 0.05$

The adjusted R-square value of (0.179) indicates that almost (18%) of the changes in the intended effort displayed by the English Department students who responded to the questionnaire is explained by the variables of ought-to self, attitude toward learning, and cultural interests. Two facts underlie this finding. First, in line with the current literature on motivation, the concept is not shown to be monolithic, as is claimed in the now traditional approach of Gardner (1985), which distinguishes learners into "motivated" and "unmotivated." This fixity is, of course, no longer tenable as motivation is a dynamic construct, likely to be boosted or thwarted by a number of complex factors. Second, the factors that might influence learners' intended effort can be both varied and complex, as is shown in the R-square value reported in the table above.

The results above, however, are generally as they only show that the independent variables considered have an impact on the changes in the dependent variable. As such, the adjusted R-square figure of around (18%) does not seem to capture the details of such an impact. In order to provide this detail, the regression model used provides the coefficients of each of these dependent variables. These are presented in Table 7.2.

Among the three independent variables, only attitude toward learning is shown to impact learners' intended effort with a significance level of (0.00). The remaining two variables, ought-to self and attitude toward learning are not shown to impact intended effort, with a significance level of (0.48) and (0.25), respectively.

This finding lends support to the whole gamut of research on the role of attitude in a successful language learning experience. Indeed, for decades, attitude to language learning has been considered an essential factor in language learning motivation (Gardner, 1979). This explains the significance level of this variable in the regression Table 7.2. The students' responses, as the table shows, did not show to be significantly influenced by their ought-to self, nor by cultural interest. attitude toward learning, therefore, remains the common denominator among S2, S6, "employee" students, and "non-employee" students.

Having presented and discussed the results relating to which of the motivational variables impacts intended learning among English Department students, we now

Table 7.3 Post hoc comparisons

Variable	Post hoc result	
Attitude toward learning	Employee versus non-employee	0.001*
	S2 versus S6	0.75
Cultural interest	Employee versus non-employee	0.41
	S2 versus S6	0.29
Ought-to self	Employee versus non-employee	0.33
	S2 versus S6	0.59

*$p < 0.05$

proceed for a closer look at the data, by considering how each group of students' intended learning gets influenced by the three independent variables above. In order to do this, the results of the ANOVA test are presented briefly in Table 7.3.

The groups are shown not to differ in regard to the variables of cultural interest and ought-to self. Concerning the variable of attitude toward learning, it clearly shows that the "employee" and the "non-employee" groups differ significantly, with a p-value of (0.00).

This result can be explained by the fact that many of the "non-employee" learners in the sample joined the English Department for purely instrumental reasons. Many of them hold jobs in the public or in the private sector, and therefore, need a BA Degree for career purposes. Their attitude toward learning accordingly becomes exam-bound. Age might be a factor in this difference, too. Many "employee" students are middle-aged, with a few of them beyond 50 years of age. "Non-employee" students, on the other hand, are mostly around their 20s, their main responsibility being their studies.

The findings stated above have a number of implications. One relates to the learning environment of the student. If the latter lacks in security, s/he is unlikely to make enough effort in his/her learning. Any attempt on the part of the teacher to ward-off anxiety wills, therefore, foster students' attitude toward their learning. Although ensuring a secure environment is not a novel idea in itself, as it dates back to decades (See, for example, Krashen, 1987), its importance is worth emphasizing in a study that explores the issue of learner motivation. A secure environment requires a number of conditions, the most important one being the approach teachers adopt. Many students report that they abstain from making a further effort because of the approach of the teacher.

As a second implication, a language teacher needs to vary classroom activities in hopes of making students enjoy what they do. Burdensome exercises, for example, are likely to be shunned by students. Activities that tap on the learners' interests outside of the classroom need to be invoked as much as possible. This way, the learner will find meaningful his learning endeavor and will, therefore, be motivated to invest more in his/her learning.

7.7 Conclusion

The main aim of the present paper was to explore the English Department students' motivational behavior. It sought to measure the impact of three independent variables—attitude toward learning, cultural interest, and ought-to self—on these students' intended effort. Of course, motivation as a complex construct cannot be explored by means of the three variables above, for there are so many other facets of it. This is a suggestion for future researchers in the field to attempt at both enlarging the sample size and invoking other aspects of motivation.

The findings presented in this paper clearly show how attitude toward learning can fuel students' intended effort. Indeed, of the three variables entered in the regression model, only attitude toward learning is shown to have an impact. Indeed, in general terms, there are problems reported in regard to large class size and in regard to issues relating to logistics in the classroom, but as long as students keep a positive attitude toward what they do, the effort they put into their learning is not affected.

A few limitations can be pointed for the present study. First, the sample comes from Mohammed V University, which leaves other Moroccan universities unrepresented, and it is a recommendation for future research in this area to take this limitation into account. Second, the number of participants could have been higher by including more groups and more participants, although recourse to inferential statistics generally relaxes the requirement for large samples.

Acknowledgement I would like to thank Malika Ouboumerrad for reading a draft version of this paper.

References

Al-Shehri, A. H. (2009). Motivation and vision: The relation between the ideal L2 self, imagination and visual style. In Z. Dornyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 164–171). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

Boukous, A. (2009). Globalization and sociolinguistic stratification in North Africa: The case of Morocco. In C. B. Vigourous & S. S. Mufwene (Eds.), *Globalization and language vitality: Perspectives from Africa* (pp. 127–141). Continuum International.

Buckner, E. (2011). The growth of English language learning in Morocco: Culture, class, and status competition. In A. Al-Issa & L. Dahan (Eds.), *Global English: Issues of language, culture, and identity in the Arab world* (pp. 213–254). New York, NY: Peter Lang Publishers.

Clément, R. (1986). Second language proficiency and acculturation: An investigation of the effects of language status and individual characteristics. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 5,* 270–291.

Crookes, G., & Schmidt, R. W. (1991). Motivation: Reopening the research agenda. *Language Learning, 41,* 469–512.

Csizér, K., & Magid, M. (Eds.). (2014). *The impact of self-concept on language learning*. Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *Modern Language Journal, 78*(3), 273–284.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). Motivation and the 'Self-Motivation'. In *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language learners* (pp. 65–118.). Mahwah, New Jersey: L. Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). *The psychology of second language acquisition*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2009). Motivation, language identities and the L2 self: A theoretical overview. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 1–8). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Firth, A., & Wagner, J. (1997). On discourse, communication, and (some) fundamental concepts in SLA Research. *Modern Language Journal, 81,* 286–300.

Gardner, R. C. (1979). Social psychological aspects of second language acquisition. In H. Giles & R. St. Clair (Eds.), *Language and social psychology*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London: Edward Arnold Publishers.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second-language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology/Revue Canadienne de Psychologie, 13*(4), 266–277.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House Publishers.

Gardner, R. C., & Tremblay, P. F. (1994). On motivation, research agendas, and theoretical frameworks 1. *The Modern Language Journal, 78*(3), 359–368.

Giles, H., & Byrne, G. L. (1982). An intergroup approach to second language acquisition. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 17–40.

Guerrero, M. (2015). Motivation in second language learning: A historical overview and its relevance in a public high school in Pasto, Colombia. *How, 22*(1), 95–106.

Krashen, S. D. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition.* Prentice-Hall International.

Lamb, M. (2007). The impact of school on EFL learning motivation: An Indonesian case study. *TESOL Quarterly, 41*(4), 757–780.

Schumann, J. H. (1986). *Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition*. Los Angeles: The University of California.

Taguchi, T., Magid, M., & Papi, M. (2009). The L2 motivational self-system amongst Chinese, Japanese, and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 66–97). Buffalo, NY: Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E. (2013). Motivation matters in mobile language learning: A brief commentary. *Language Learning & Technology, 17*(3), 1–5.

Zeddari, I. (2003). *The role of writing motivation in EFL writing performance: A socio-cognitive approach*. Unpublished Master's thesis, Faculty of Education, Rabat.

Nourddine Amrous is Associate Professor at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities at Mohammed V University in Rabat. He is holder of a doctorate degree in Education (2006). From 2007 to 2009, he worked as a researcher at the Royal Institute of the Amazigh Culture, where he was mainly involved in textbook design and teacher training. In 2009, he assumed his teaching and research activities at the Department of English at the Faculty of Letters, where he continues to teach various courses such as syntax, stylistics, composition, and spoken English. His main research interests include second language acquisition, language teaching, teacher training and theoretical linguistics, mainly phonology and syntax. Dr. Amrous has supervised a number of Master's and Doctoral theses.

Chapter 8
Motivations, Attitudes, and Introspections of Moroccan Undergraduate Students Towards Major Selection

Abdellatif Bouhlal

Abstract This study aims to investigate the motivations, attitudes, and introspections of Moroccan undergraduate students towards linguistics and cultural studies as a part of their Bachelor of Arts Program at a large public university in Morocco. A total of 100 students (50 studying cultural studies and 50 from a linguistics stream) participated in the study. By applying mixed method research, questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data and introspective essays were used for qualitative data. The results of the study showed that most participants had positive attitudes towards linguistics and cultural studies courses, but literature selection was not welcomed by most participants. The findings also suggest that students' extra-curricular environment factors such as classmates, teachers' profiles, and future career embarking significantly contribute to construct positive or negative attitudes as the main motivations behind major choice: linguistics, cultural studies, or literature courses. The study offers pedagogical recommendations that should be taken into account. Decision makers and reform appliers in Morocco need to take into account students' voices in the selection process of streams to major in.

Keywords Motivation · Attitude · Linguistics · Cultural studies · Literature · Introspections

8.1 Introduction

Nowadays, it is well known that English is an international *lingua franca* (Graddol, 2010; Jenkins, 2006). At this moment of time, one can just admit this claim strongly advocated by Crystal (2003) who argues that for communication purposes, English has now become the unmarked choice. Therefore, English is viewed as a dominant language, conferring legitimacy in the academic and business realms.

To follow the trend, Moroccan universities without exception confirm this external legitimacy reflected in the teaching practices explicitly spelt out in the Moroccan

A. Bouhlal (✉)
Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: ab.bouhlal@yahoo.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_8

National Reform Charter for Education and Framing to meet the surge of interests in educating Moroccan students who are mostly multilingual and equipped with many linguistic and cultural values.

Mohamed V University in Morocco is no exception in exhibiting the multi-linguistic scene in Morocco by providing students in semester five with the opportunity to major in linguistics or cultural studies and dispense with a literature stream that most students tend to consider inappropriate or old-fashioned for any real-life situations.

8.2 Literature Review

English has taken a prominent status in the linguistic landscape in Morocco. Early research in this area has shown how Moroccans, especially university students, see in English a window of opportunity to better their prospects on the personal and professional levels (Sadiqi, 1991). This trend has even further intensified in recent years. Buckner (2011) rightly noted that "English is becoming a new means for socio-economic competition in Morocco, by appealing to upper and lower classes alike". While this research documented the rising importance of English among Moroccans. This does not particularly apply to students majoring in English at the university. Few studies investigated the personal motivations, lying behind students' selection of English as a major at the university level.

A seminal study in this respect is Ouakrime (1986). In an evaluation of the experience of the English department in Fes, Morocco, he found out that four different types of motives explained students' choices as they believed that majoring in English would nurture their quest for knowledge as well as ensure better employment opportunities for them. Their higher education experience was also considered as a source of personal empowerment although they tended to undervalue the social relationships that they may develop during their studies.

From a motivational perspective, a recent study by Omari, Moubtassime, and Ridouani (2018) gauged the motivational orientations of students belonging to the English department in two Moroccan public universities (Moulay Ismail University in Meknes (SMBAU) and Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah University in Fes (MIU) and non-English major programs in one private university, Al Akhawayn University (AUI). They found out that the students in their sample exhibited higher extrinsic than intrinsic motivation. This pattern was stronger among students in SMBAU than their peers in MIU with females best exemplifying the trend. This dominance of the extrinsic motivational orientation seems to vary with context as Brigui (2017) found out that students majoring in English had at Mohamed V University in Rabat a higher intrinsic motivation with a stronger intrinsic orientation among female students.

Even for non-English majors, El Aouri and Zerhouni (2017) found out that extrinsic motivation was the least pronounced in the motivational profiles of science students at Mohamed V University in Rabat, ranking instrumental motivation first, intrinsic motivation second, integrative motivation third, and extrinsic motivation

last. The results in the Moroccan context seem to vary along institutional lines. However, it seems reasonable for English majors to exhibit a more intrinsic orientation as they invest more effort and time. The dominance of an intrinsic orientation among English majors is also reflected in the international literature (Ngo, Spooner-Lane, & Mergler, 2015).

The research reviewed above highlights the motivational factors behind the students' choice to learn English in higher education either as a major or as a course. One point that this body of research has overlooked is the motivations underlying the English major students' selection of their stream of specialization within the English studies programs (Linguistics, Literature, Cultural Studies). This chapter attempts to fill this gap by exploring why students opt for a given stream to the exclusion of the other possible alternatives. While all three streams offer promising opportunities for personal and professional developments, students in the context of the present study predominantly opt for Cultural Studies or Linguistics to a lesser extent and shun literature.

In the literature devoted to learners' motivations, attitudes, and introspective perceptions, it is argued that literature courses offer a cultural background, expand learners' language awareness, and develop interpretive abilities among them (Carter & Long, 1991; Obeidat 1996; Spack 1985; Widdowson, 1975). Other scholars like Coolie and Slater (1987) argued that literature is an enlightening and a great source for cultural enrichment, authentic material, personal involvement, and most importantly language enrichment. With these potential benefits in mind, students in different contexts prefer literature to linguistics courses, (Abu-Melhim, 2009). However, students majoring in English in Gulf universities prefer linguistics to literature courses. In an early study on the motivations of Linguistics majors in Morocco, Sadiqi (1990) found out that students opted for linguistics for both intrinsic and instrumental reasons. While they demonstrated a keen interest in Linguistics as a field of study, they showed an awareness of the potential a training in Linguistics holds for knowledge acquisition and employability.

Such a growing interest in linguistics as compared to literature represents an issue that necessitates a study of this nature because learners' attitudes and aims have been acknowledged as important factors contributing to their overall choice in major selection, be it linguistics, literature. More recently, we observe what Berlin (1996) called "the cultural studies turn" in English departments. Not only has this change refigured English studies programs but offered students an alternative to the traditional linguistics-literature dichotomy. This, of course, calls on them to reconsider their motivations and priorities in major selection.

As can be noticed in the discussion thus far, students' internal beliefs are highly significant in the process of choice making (Arnold, 1999). In fact, beliefs "act as very strong filters" of reality since the choice of the courses is influenced by many dynamic factors. The most facilitating and significant factor is the student's positive attitude. In the process of choice making, psychological factors, mainly attitudes and introspections contribute to the students' choice of the stream they would like to major in" (Arnold, 1999).

In the Moroccan higher education architecture, the English studies Licence degree is a two-phase program. In the first two years, students are trained mostly in language skills with some introductory courses in civilization, literature, linguistics, and cultural studies. In their graduation year, they choose to major in literature, linguistics, or cultural studies. Historically speaking, literature was the first stream to be established followed by linguistics. Both were equally popular among students. More recently, a cultural studies stream has been on offer with courses on Media Studies, Cultural Studies, and Popular Culture, to name but a few. With this came a noticeable trend of major selection as this major increased in popularity among students attracting more than two-thirds of senior students.

8.3 Research Methodology

The discussion in the previous section revealed that most of the studies in Morocco explored the learners' motivation behind learning English in general. Very few studies have investigated university students' perceptions, lying behind their major selection in their senior year. Therefore, the current research seeks to fill this void by putting the main focus on the students' voices and their beliefs concerning the implementation of linguistics, cultural studies, or literature as fields of study. To this end, this chapter focuses on addressing the following research questions:

1. What motivate students' choice of linguistics?
2. What are the students' motivations behind their choice of cultural studies?
3. If literature were offered to them, would they select it?

The current study adopted a mixed method design and follows the guidelines suggested by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) for language and linguistics-related research. It combines quantitative data through the use of a questionnaire and qualitative data, namely, students' introspections expressed through essay writing.

8.3.1 Participants

The population sample of this study included undergraduate students enrolled in the English department at the faculty of letters and Human sciences, Mohamed V University in Rabat, Morocco. The participants who completed both the questionnaire and the essay writing task were all semester-five students of linguistics and cultural studies streams. These participants whose total number was 100 were selected using stratified random sampling; so 50 students were selected from cultural studies and 50 from linguistics courses. In this context, it should be noted that both variables of gender (males and females) and the participants' baccalaureate type (letters and sciences) have been considered in this study.

8.3.2 *Data*

As for the data, it was collected during the 2017 spring semester. The focus sample groups were informed and assured that the data collected through the questionnaire and essay writing procedures would be used for research purposes to meet their effective needs and satisfy their sought objectives both in the present and the future.

8.4 Results and Analysis

In what follows, background information about the participants, especially their gender and baccalaureate type variables are provided in Tables 8.1, 8.2 and 8.3, respectively.

As Table 8.1 indicates, most students who have chosen cultural studies or linguistics are females with a total of 65 (65%) while 35 (35%) are males. The positive attitudes espoused by female post-high school learners seem to be in line with the self-assertion orientation exhibited by females in other related studies in other disciplines (Yuksel & Inan, 2015).

As Table 8.2 shows, scientific baccalaureate type holders opted for cultural studies. From the sample group of 50 students, 28 (16 females, and 12 males) voiced their positive attitudes towards cultural studies. However, the case is not the same for the participants with literary background.

Table 8.1 Participants' gender

	Female	Male
Cultural studies	30	20
Linguistics	35	15
Total	65	35

Table 8.2 Cultural studies participants' baccalaureate type

Letters		Sciences	
Female	Male	Female	Male
10	12	16	12
Total: 22		Total: 28	

Table 8.3 Linguistics participants' baccalaureate type

Letters		Sciences	
Female	Male	Female	Male
13	12	15	10
Total: 25		Total: 25	

However, Table 8.2 reveals the opposite situation documented in Table 8.1. As can be seen, out of 22 students who have chosen cultural studies, 12 are males, while 10 are females. Note, however, that the scenario in Table 8.2 is not similar to the one in Table 8.3 exactly. Some significant differences emerged. A close comparison between Tables 8.2 and 8.3 clearly indicates that the baccalaureate type of linguistics participants' is immaterial since equal balance between the two branches is explicitly manifested (25 students are from letters and 25 are from sciences). As far as the gender variable is concerned, it seems that unlike Table 8.2 where females dominate only in cultural studies, in Table 8.3, female participants with both literary and scientific backgrounds dominate in the linguistics group as well.

Before tackling the first focus study questions, it is worth noting at this stage that most male and female participants with scientific and literary knowledge demonstrate an overall positive attitude towards linguistics and cultural studies. However, a brief look at Table 8.1 indicates that female participants' exhibit a preference for linguistics or cultural studies as the score of 65 (65%) shows.

8.4.1 *Cultural Studies*

To address, the first research question concerning motivations behind some participants' choice of cultural studies, the respondents' hierarchy of answers is presented in Table 8.4 offering top–down responses.

As Table 8.4 demonstrates, the motivations of the cultural studies' group choice of their major are spelt out from the most favorable reasons to the least welcome one. In this hierarchy of competing motivations, the first candidate is the participants' accumulation of knowledge 38 (76%). In this context, it seems that these students' first choice stems from the fact that their high school and university course contents are not put in oblivion or under-estimation as it may be thought of. Furthermore, job opportunities and professors' profiles come on equal rank with 25 (50%) for each as the motivating forces for their choices of cultural studies. Thus far, one may wonder as to why teaching methods are ranked fourth 23 (46%).

Table 8.4 What motivated your choice of cultural studies?

Item	Responses (50 participants)	Percentage
1. Your accumulated background knowledge	38	76
2. Cultural studies provides better job opportunities after graduation	25	50
3. Professors' profiles	25	50
4. Teaching methods	23	46
5. What you have heard from students who graduated before you?	20	40
6. Quality of Semester 1–Semester 4 syllabus	18	36

Such a fact may implicitly imply that cultural studies students are happy in the tutoring setting with their professors' pedagogical tools of knowledge transmission without, of course, neglecting the participants' assets, other extra intelligence factor,s and their own know-how in knowledge seeking per se that would hopefully forge their own profiles, hence helping them embark on their careers and future job opportunities seeking.

A further comparison of results in Table 8.4 reveals that what cultural studies students have heard from other graduated students before them is of no great significance 20 (40%) when compared to other motivations discussed so far. Once more, the least motivational element in Table 8.4 is the quality of the curriculum covered from semester 1–4. What emanates from this state of affairs is that the syllabus should be revisited so that students can choose content and materials that they see most relevant to their needs and may sustain their motivations.

In order to further advance our understanding of the cultural studies students' motivations and attitudes, the research question concerning their non-choice of linguistics is posed and results are analyzed. As the statistics in Table 8.5 shows, most cultural studies participants find linguistics technical; 29 (58%) of them find it beyond their reach. For this reason, their second negative response automatically comes next 25 (50%) and by implication, the third response related to the difficulty of linguistics content courses cannot be overlooked. Differently put, if the degree of difficulty which is 19 (38%) is present in linguistics, the percentage implies that the course is highly unlikely to help them to have access to job opportunities expressed by 16 (32%). In this context, one may legitimately wonder why cultural studies students have these negative attitudes towards linguistics although they have not experienced it yet. Note that this dissatisfaction with linguistics may have originated from the students' accumulated external perceptions or from common beliefs whose main causes are other students or some teachers' personal assumptions founded on subjective arguments. The present interpretation of results leads us to the third focus research concerning cultural studies participants' choice of literature if it were offered to them as Table 8.6 illustrates.

Focus on the right side part of Table 8.6 demonstrates that the majority of cultural studies respondents are against literature. Out of 50 participants, 37 responded negatively, while only 13 answered positively for literature.

A further scrutiny of Table 8.6 shows that the majority of cultural studies participants who voiced their opposition to such a choice are scientific baccalaureate holders

Table 8.5 Why did not you choose Linguistics?

Item	Responses (N 50)	Percentage
1. You find linguistics technical	29	58
2. You have a negative attitude towards linguistics	25	50
3. The course content is difficult	19	38
4. Linguistics does not help in job opportunities	16	32

Table 8.6 Cultural studies participants' yes or no responses to literature selection

	Yes responses (N 13)				No responses (N 37)			
Gender	F		M		F		M	
	7		6		22		15	
B	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S
	6	1	4	2	9	13	7	8

F Female, *M* Male, *B* Baccalaureate type, *L* Letters, *S* Sciences

from both sexes; 13 were females and 8 were males, which totaled 21 students, while the remaining 16 had a literary background with 9 females and 7 males.

Seen from a different angle, the right side of Table 8.6 demonstrates the positive responses of cultural studies participants. Out of 13 respondents, 7 are females and 6 are males. As may be noticed, the majority of students who show their positive choice of literature were baccalaureate letters holders; with a total of 10 students, only 3 had a scientific baccalaureate diploma.

8.4.2 *Linguistics*

As was previously done with the cultural studies group, this section focuses on the linguistics group where the three research questions are exhibited in Tables 8.7, 8.8, and 8.9, respectively. To begin with, in Table 8.7 concerned with the linguistics

Table 8.7 What motivated your choice of linguistics?

Item	Responses (N 50)	Percentage
1. Linguistics provides better job opportunities after graduation	30	60
2. Professors' profiles	29	58
3. Your accumulated background knowledge	25	50
4. What you have heard from students who graduated before you	25	50
5. Quality of Semester 1–Semester 4 syllabus	23	46
6. Teaching methods	22	44

Table 8.8 Why did not you choose cultural studies?

Item	Responses (N 50)	Percentage
1. You find cultural studies boring	28	56
2. You have a negative attitude towards cultural studies	26	52
3. Cultural studies do not help in job opportunities	26	52
4. The course content is difficult	25	50

Table 8.9 Linguistics participants' yes or no responses to literature selection

	Yes responses (N12)				No responses (N38)			
Gender	F		M		F		M	
	8		4		22		16	
B	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S
	6	2	3	1	8	14	6	10

F Female, *M* Male, *B* Baccalaureate type, *L* Letters, *S* Sciences

participants, responses are given according to their order of importance.

As illustrated in Table 8.7, the primary reasons that induced the linguistics students to choose their major of specialization were mainly job opportunities after graduation 30 (60%) and professors profiles 29 (58%). Then, came on equal rank their accumulated knowledge and what they heard from other graduated students with 25 (50%) each. Finally, the last two responses exhibited in Table 8.7 concerning the quality of the semester 1–4 syllabus together with teaching methods were the least motivating factors. As Table 8.7 indicates, with a slight difference, the syllabus quality scored 23 (46%) and teaching methods 22 (44%). If Table 8.7 shows an overall satisfaction of participants with linguistics, Table 8.8 demonstrates the opposite scenario as far as their non-choice of cultural studies is concerned.

What one can deduce from the following Table 8.8 is that most respondents from the group of linguistics find cultural studies boring 28 (56%) and 26 (52%). Students really show their negative attitude towards this stream. The third and fourth responses may suggest why these students negatively view cultural studies. The answer is simply because 26 (52%) students find cultural studies not helpful in job opportunities and 25 (50%) of them find the course content difficult.

To answer the last focus research question, Table 8.9 is used as a basis to show the responses of the linguistics participants group concerning their potential choice of literature.

What emanates from Table 8.9 is that the most significant feedback shown by the majority of linguistics participants is the strong negative view they hold about literature. Such a view is supported by the fact that out of 50 participants, 38 of them who were mostly females with scientific streams backgrounds responded negatively. It is worth noting that females dominance is also witnessed with participants who answered positively for literature since out of 12 positive responses, females with literary background outnumbered males.

8.5 Results of Qualitative Data

As claimed by Strauss and Corbin (1998), any thorough analysis of any phenomenon cannot be complete without a qualitative data analysis. By following the same line of reasoning, we feel that qualitative method proved to be effective in order to understand the issue under study in this chapter. Based on these assumptions, we collected quantitative data using introspective commentary essays from different participants among the two focus groups as regards their introspective views about literature. The aim behind such a procedure is to try to find whether there is any systematic correlation between the participants' responses of the two focus groups as previously analyzed quantitatively and to see to what extent students' reactions in forms of commentary essays qualitatively corroborate the main focus research questions addressed in this study as well.

Most participants explained that various factors hinder them from choosing literature. To support their introspections with solid arguments, it is deemed necessary to provide reactions of both focus groups in forms of some students' quotations and paraphrased summaries taken from the participants' excerpts.

To be more concrete, some cultural students' quotations related to the theme of importance of literature are cited herein. To start with, 38 students claimed:

> Literature course content is linked with British culture, so it cannot help in Moroccan context and job openings.

For the course of literature to be fruitful 35 other participants stated that:

> Literature content and format needs adjustment. If not, it is useless.

29 Other participants among the cultural studies' group believe:

> In literature, we have to learn by heart what teachers have already given us; it involves a lot of lecturing without assimilation or analysis.

In the same context, eight participants from the cultural studies'group thought that for the course to be more effective, new content, more innovative teaching methods of literature and teachers' profiles have to be updated in order to encourage students to change their present view about the course. Others went as far as to claim that literature is a huge burden whose future horizon is limited. Six participants thought that the course of cultural studies implicitly included literature. Therefore, the existence of some overlapping between the two courses did not encourage learners to make an optimal and a decisive choice. Some participants even belittled literature by stating that it is just for leisure including reading stories and novels in an enjoyable fashion during their free time. Therefore, they believed that the selection of literature is of no great avail.

The linguistics participants' commentary essays on literature did not differ much from those expressed by the group of cultural studies. In this context, six participants from the group of linguistics stated that although cultural studies included literature in a less complicated way, the latter was still theoretical and did not help in getting jobs after graduation. Once more, four participants claimed that literature was relegated to

the past, so they did not like to live in the past and spend time reading old-fashioned texts or being dictated old poems remote from current reality.

In a nutshell, the present qualitative results have shown many common negative attitudes exhibited by both the linguistics and cultural studies group participants towards literature. Most participating students find that teaching methods, the course content, and teachers' profiles should be updated. Otherwise, literature will always be seen negatively at present as the students' negative reactions have indicated.

It is worth mentioning at this stage that the burden of proof is not just on students, but on the educational system in Morocco, which is also to blame for the bleak present state of literature. In order to motivate students and encourage them to make the best choice in major selection, policy and decision makers should come up with new pedagogical norms and flexible program contents that would meet the current social and economic trends and challenges that students would face when applying for jobs. Simply put, stakeholders involved in the implementation of reforms in Morocco need to take into account students' voices in the selection process of streams in the future.

8.6 Conclusion

Based on both the quantitative and qualitative results, we can deduce that most students of cultural studies and linguistics are highly motivated since they have shown strong motivational and favorable attitudes for the course they hope to major in. Upon comparing results, no major differences in responses of both groups emerged. In this respect, the results have shown that gender is an affective variable of measurement since it enables to see how females have exhibited some dominance over males in both groups. In fact, the common motivations for both groups' major course selection, with a slight degree of emphasis, are job opportunities, accumulation of knowledge, and professors' profiles. Moreover, while the baccalaureate degree type shows some vitality in cultural studies, its significance vanishes within the group of linguistics where even balance between students with literary and scientific background is maintained. Finally, literature is, as it is at the moment, negatively conceived of by both focus groups since only 24% of the participants positively support it.

References

Abu-Melhim, A. R. (2009). Attitudes of Jordanian college students towards learning English as a foreign language. *College Student Journal, 43*(2), 682–694.

Arnold, J. (1999). *Affect in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Berlin, J. A. (1996). *Rhetorics, poetics, and cultures: Refiguring college English studies*. Urbana, Ill: National Council of Teachers of English.

Brigui, H. (2017). The relationship between Moroccan EFL University students' motivation orientation and their classroom participation: Exploring the variables of gender and proficiency level. *Journal of Education and Practice, 8*(3), 108–112.

Buckner, E. S. (2011). The growth of English language learning in Morocco: Culture, class, and status competition. In A. Al-Issa & L. S. Dahan (Eds.), *Global English and Arabic*. Oxford: PeterLang.
Carter, R., & Long, M. N. (1991). *Teaching literature*. New York: Longman.
Coolie, L., & Slater, S. (1987). *Literature in language classroom*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation*. London: Pearson.
El Aouri, Z., & Zerhouni, B. (2017). Motivation and language learning strategies used by Moroccan university EFL science students: A correlatioal study. *Arab World Journal, 8*(2), 52–73.
Graddol, D. (2010). *English next India: The future of English in India*. London: British Council.
Jenkins, J. (2006). Current perspectives on teaching world Englishes and English as a lingua franca. *TESOL Quarterly, 40,* 1.
Ngo, H., Spooner-Lane, R., & Mergler, A. (2015). A comparison of motivation to learn English between English major and non-English major students in a Vietnamese university. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 11*(2), 188–202.
Obeidat, M. (1996). On non-native grounds: The place of American literature in the English curriculum of Arab world universities. *American Studies International, 34*(1), 18–29.
Omari, O., Moubtassime, M., & Ridouani, D. (2018). Assessing Moroccan university students' English learning motivation: A comparative study. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies, 9*(1), 81–88.
Ouakrime, M. (1986). *English language teaching in higher education in Morocco: An evaluation of the Fes experience*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of London.
Sadiqi, F. (1990). An evaluation of the Linguistics courses at the Moroccan university level: The case of the department of English, Fes. In J. Saib (Ed.), *The Proceedings of the XIth MATE Annual Conference: English Language Teaching in the Maghreb: Current Issues in Evaluation* (pp. 42–47). Rabat: Moroccan Association of Teachers of English.
Sadiqi, F. (1991). The spread of English in Morocco. *The International Journal of the Sociology of Language, 87*(1), 99–114.
Spack, R. (1985). Literature, reading and writing, and ESL: Bridging the gaps. *TESOL Quarterly, 19*(4), 703–725.
Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks: CA Sage.
Widdowson, H. G. (1975). *Stylistics and the teaching of literature*. Essex: Longman.
Yuksel, D., & Inan. (2015). The place of literature in an English language teaching program: What do students think about it? *The Reading Matrix, 15*(2), 45–52.

Abdellatif Bouhlal is Assistant Professor at the Department of the English Language and Literature, Mohammed V University in Rabat. He graduated from the same university with an undergraduate degree in Linguistics and a postgraduate degree, DES (Diplôme d'études supérieures) in General and Amazigh Linguistics. His main research interests lie in the phonology of Amazigh. He is also interested in higher education pedagogy, and in exploring ways of improving the teaching of linguistics at the university.

Part III
Teaching Practices

Chapter 9
Beliefs on English Language Teaching Effectiveness in Moroccan Higher Education

Amina Ichebah

Abstract Recent research has shown the importance of teachers' beliefs and cognition in the ELT classroom. It is generally acknowledged that beliefs serve as teachers' personal agendas that guide and influence their classroom pedagogical practices. Given their powerful nature, beliefs have a great impact not only on what teachers do and the types of decisions they make but also on their perceptual knowledge and by extension on their professional growth. The purpose of the present study is twofold: (1) to investigate Moroccan EFL teachers' and students' beliefs about teaching effectiveness, and (2) to explore the degree of divergence between Moroccan EFL teachers' and students' perceptions. Twenty-two Moroccan EFL university teachers and 187 students from different universities in Morocco took part in the present study. All participants completed a 30 five-Likert-scale questionnaire covering several features of teaching effectiveness. The findings revealed a significant overlap between what the participants believe to be effective teaching and conceptions of teaching effectiveness discussed in the literature. The results also brought to light interesting areas of divergence between teachers' and students' beliefs. The chapter concludes with recommendations for research and teaching.

Keywords Teachers' beliefs · Students' beliefs · Teaching effectiveness

9.1 Introduction

Scholarly interest in teachers' beliefs emerged relatively late in education studies. Teacher cognition was established as an independent area of research only in the 1970s in parallel to the shift from behaviorist to psychological/cognitive perspectives on teaching and learning (Borg, 2009; Farrell & Bennis, 2013). It evolved from a narrow focus on teacher judgment and decision-making in the beginning to a more profound exploration of teacher beliefs and knowledge in the 1980s. It has subsequently broadened its scope and ambition to encompass "teacher cognition in the context of pre-service and in-service teacher education," which "contributed in

A. Ichebah (✉)
Faculty of Education, Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: a.ichbah@um5s.net.ma

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_9

a significant way to developing understandings of the process of teacher learning" (Kennedy, 1991, cited in Borg, 2009, p. 2). Since then, teacher beliefs or cognition has occupied a central position in the field of English language teaching and specifically in teacher education and training combined with new conceptualizations such as teaching effectiveness and the practitioner's knowledge base (Reagan & Osborn, 2002). Sources of teachers' experiences and knowledge have also attracted the attention of researchers in an attempt to understand the various belief systems that shape teaching and learning processes in the EFL classroom (Johnson, 2001).

Despite significant progress, and given the multidimensional nature of beliefs, research is still needed to help practitioners and teacher educators build more fine-grained understandings of beliefs about language learning and teaching and tailor existing ones to meet pedagogical and educational requirements. This study is, therefore, an attempt to explore the belief systems of EFL university teachers and students with regard to aspects of teaching effectiveness. The chapter begins with a brief account of teachers' and students' beliefs, followed by a brief review of teaching effectiveness and how it has been conceptualized in the literature. The methodology and results are then presented. A discussion of the results follows with special reference to participants' beliefs about the aspects of teaching effectiveness and the areas of convergence and divergence in their beliefs. The chapter concludes with a sketch of pedagogical and research implications.

9.2 Teachers' Beliefs: An Overview of Research

The past three decades have witnessed remarkable interest and developments in the area of teacher cognition (Bell, 2005; Borg, 1998, 2001, 2003, 2006, 2012; Brosh, 1996; Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Johnson, 2001, 2006; Li & Walsh, 2011; Macalister, 2012; Schulz, 1996). This body of research strongly suggests that beliefs are the most powerful hidden force shaping teachers' decision-making and classroom behavior. Borg (2012) defines beliefs as what "language teachers think, know and believe" (p. 11). He further specifies that "a belief is a proposition which may be consciously or unconsciously held, is evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitment; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behavior" (2001, p. 186). Teachers' decisions and practices are thus a reflection of the way they think and feel. Richards and Rodgers (2001) concur by asserting that "all classroom practices reflect teachers' principles and beliefs, and different belief systems among teachers can often explain why teachers conduct their classes in different ways" (p. 251). This particular conception of beliefs makes "emotion" a vital element in teachers' decisions and practices. It is not narrowly limited to the "ideational" (knowledge and thinking) but extends its focus to include "constructs such as attitudes, identities and emotions , in recognition of the fact that

these are all aspects of the unobservable dimension of teaching" (Borg, 2012, p. 11). Emotion, like cognition, constitutes an integral part of teachers' beliefs and should not be excluded as a fundamental dimension of teachers' professional lives (ibid., p. 12). What this highlights is the centrality of the subjective dimension of teaching, be it conceptual or emotive. It is worthy to note as well that beliefs are not simply "mental" entities. They inform and shape pedagogical practice.

The literature on teacher cognition provides ample evidence on the tight relationship between teachers' beliefs and their classroom pedagogical practices (Andrews, 2003). Findings also highlight the significant impact of beliefs on teaching and learning outcomes (Borg, 2003; Richardson, 1996) and on teachers' change process and professional development (Pajares, 1992; Richardson, 1996). The relationship between belief and practice can also be characterized by tension. Research shows that teachers can be unaware of the belief systems underlying their thoughts and behaviors (Farrell, 2007). Teachers' beliefs may equally sharply diverge from their actual classroom practices. This may happen not necessarily because of lack of awareness or unethical behavior but may occur owing to "the specific contexts in which [teachers] work" which represents "a complex and dynamic system in which physical, temporal, cognitive, social and cultural factors interact to provide affordances for, or constraints on, the practical application of beliefs about teaching and learning, which in turn influence what teachers believe and know" (Bernard & Burns, 2012, p. 3). Belief and action are not mechanically related. They are mediated by contextual and environmental conditions.

Beliefs about teaching are actively constructed. They emerge from experience and in interaction with knowledge and context. Entwistle and Walker (2002), in a review of relevant research, conclude that "conceptions of teaching […] are built up from knowledge, experience and associated feelings, often over substantial periods of time" (p. 36). An effective study of teachers' beliefs then calls for mediation between teachers' background (knowledge, experience, and beliefs) and the environment where they continuously act and interact (Johnson, 2006). Experience, training, and professional development, awareness about their roles, interaction with the surrounding environment and professionals' "imposition of authority" have a major influence on teachers' "beliefs and knowledge" (Bernard & Burns, 2012, pp. 2–3). Because teaching and learning are constructed actively in context, "unpeeling the complexities of the interaction of cognition and classroom action requires deep engagement with the conditions operating in the environment" (ibid., p. 3). That beliefs are deeply embedded in the context of learning and teaching relevantly foregrounds the constructivist and sociocultural perspectives that underlie the construct of "beliefs." Borg (2011) affirms that "it is now accepted in LTE that how and what teachers learn is shaped in no small way by their prior experience, knowledge and beliefs" (p. 218). It follows then that teachers' beliefs are actively constructed in relation to context and professional practice. Metacognition regarding beliefs becomes paramount for professional development. Teacher growth and learning are tied to the process of reflecting on the content and adequacy of beliefs: "conceptual change only begins to take place if the existing conception is felt to be inadequate or incomplete" (Entwistle & Walker, 2002, p. 36). But this can happen only when practit ioners

are conscious of their beliefs. What motivates conceptual change, I would argue, is the result of awareness of the power of beliefs, reflection on one's practice and contextual constraints and environment, and a commitment to effectiveness and professional growth. This makes it clear that metacognition is key to teacher learning, effective practice, and professional development.

The study of teachers' beliefs, however, remains incomplete if students' perceptions about teaching (and learning) are not adequately considered in conjunction. Several studies have emphasized this convergence/divergence dichotomy. Berry (1997) and McCargar (1993) report a clear mismatch between teachers' knowledge and assumptions about language or language learning issues and students' perceptions and expectations. Kern (1995) has examined teachers' and students' beliefs about language learning. The study, however, revealed inconsistent findings documenting areas of convergence and divergence as revealed by the two levels of analysis that were incorporated. Schultz (1996) specifically studied US foreign language student and teacher beliefs about focus on form instruction in language learning. The findings suggest that the students somehow favored focus on form instruction while teachers exhibited preference for a communicative approach. Schultz (2001) replicated the same study in Colombia and, interestingly, reached the same results. Brown (2009) showed that "the teachers' and students' perceptions of ideal teaching practices (…) demonstrated disparate beliefs, for which the norm was difference and the exception was consensus" (p. 54). Teachers and students, strikingly, held almost opposing perceptions concerning grammar teaching, error correction, and communicative teaching.

Learning and teaching are co-constructed processes where various and sometimes contradictory expectations and assumptions interact. Savignon and Wang (2003) contend that "classroom realities that contradict learner expectations about learning may disappoint them and thus interfere with the attainment of desired learning outcomes" (p. 226). Students also contribute greatly to the realization of teaching acts; what they "think, believe and know" about instructional processes does have an impact on engagement and outcomes. Although students' beliefs about teaching and learning may not be as sophisticated as the perspectives of professionals, the dissonance, however, that may exist between what teachers and learners believe as effective may lead to "lack of student confidence in and dissatisfaction with the language class" (Horwitz, 1990, p. 25). More rigorous research is still needed in this area to satisfactorily explore how this dissonance may negatively affect students' achievement and to suggest potential procedures for developing adequate beliefs about classroom-related issues. Student training and consciousness-raising can be appropriate tools to bring about belief alignment and should be incorporated as an integral part of pedagogy and reflective practice (Brown, 2009). Such a focus is equally essential for teaching effectiveness, to which I now turn.

9.3 Teaching Effectiveness

Teaching effectiveness is a difficult concept to define and measure (Tuckman, 1995). Effectiveness is conceived differently according to various theorizations of teaching and learning as illustrated historically by the "pendulum swings" of different teaching philosophies and methodologies. Additionally, effective teaching is hard to grasp simply because of the complex and multidimensional nature of teaching, which is affected by a wide array of factors. Stronge, Ward, and Grant (2011) point out that "there is considerable debate as to whether we should judge teacher effectiveness based on teacher inputs (e.g., qualifications), the teaching process (e.g., instructional practices), the product of teaching (e.g., effects on student learning), or a composite of these elements" (p. 340). Linking teaching effectiveness to students' learning outcomes is another problematic issue. Evaluation systems affect what counts as effective teaching. Most of the time, teachers behave in the classroom according to assessment standards that they have to abide by and not necessarily according to their personal beliefs and convictions. Effectiveness, in this case, is judged in relation to meeting those standards (Tuckman, 1995). In addition, quite apart from pedagogy, second language acquisition research has made it sufficiently clear that motivation, attitude, aptitude, and individual differences affect second language learning. Social variables also shape learning. School achievement is determined by a variety of home, social, and developmental factors that go beyond pedagogy (Travers, 1981). Teaching effectiveness then occupies one node in a complex system that comprises factors related to: teaching and the teacher, learning and the learner, instructional materials and activities, assessment techniques, and the context and environment where these factors interact and overlap. There is agreement that teaching effectiveness should encompass a broad range of attributes. This view finds an expression in the practitioner's "knowledge base" as the underlying determinant of teaching effectiveness. What constitutes this knowledge base of the language teacher has been a focal point of interest for many researchers.

Research reveals particularly interesting perspectives on what constitutes the basis for effective teaching. The primary focus of most researchers has been on general pedagogical, content and contextual knowledge. Knowledge about learners, teaching and learning theories, principles and techniques of classroom management, assessment procedures, curriculum (materials and programs) and educational philosophies, contexts, and purposes form the main components of the teacher knowledge base (Grossman & Richert, 1988; Shulman, 1987). Richards (1998) identified similar components but added two other elements that essentially shape all other aspects namely pedagogical reasoning and decision-making skills. Reagan and Osborn (2002), though they consider the components cited above as ideal and somewhat simplistic, agree on the importance of these components and consider decision-making capacity as the real-world task of the teacher. They highlight the part of the teacher as a decision-maker by pinpointing the variety of contexts and issues s/he responds to while performing his/her role as a teacher (p. 21). They

further state that what underlies this “reflective, rational, and conscious decision-making” process is the teacher’s “ability to justify his or her decisions and actions in the classroom” (ibid.). Awareness here is concretely one of the main components of good teaching. Being able to justify one’s decisions and actions necessitates a considerable degree of general pedagogical knowledge and rational thought, especially that “the act of teaching is a situated activity and it is much more difficult to have a set of objective criteria that can be applied across all contexts and cultures” (Tsui, 2005, p. 169). Yet, this technical view of teaching should not brush aside the art-craft dimension of language teaching which, besides the theory-philosophy and science-research dimensions (Zahoric, 1986), represents an essential component of professional growth. Personality is another variable that may prove to be as vital as academic qualifications and professional training. For Penner (1992, p. 45), “one who teaches effectively teaches not only his subject but himself. Personality is that part of the teacher’s self which he projects into every classroom activity, thereby affecting and conditioning every learning situation” (in Brosh, 1996, p. 127).

Other conceptualizations of the knowledge base of the language teacher cast light on several practical dimensions of teaching effectiveness. The literature suggests that these dimensions have an immediate influence on teaching. As König et al. (2011) state, the practitioner’s knowledge base includes pedagogical competence, classroom management, adaptability, and assessment. They conclude that teachers are effective if they have “acquired general pedagogical knowledge allowing them to prepare, structure, and evaluate lessons (‘structure’), to motivate and support students as well as manage the classroom (‘motivation/classroom management’), to deal with heterogeneous learning groups in the classroom (‘adaptivity’), and to diagnose and assess student achievement (‘assessment’)” (p. 192). Relatedly, Brosh (1996) views teaching effectiveness as the outcome of several factors related to the communication and interaction processes in the classroom. These relate to teacher–student interaction styles, teaching methods, planning and organization, interest and attention in the class, and importance of teacher’s personality. Effectiveness is also attributed to the ability to create a positive classroom environment, which is “conducive for student learning and motivation” (Fraser, Aldridge, & Soerjaningsih, 2010, p. 21). Stronge, Ward, and Grant (2011) propose a conceptually similar framework to teaching effectiveness including instructional delivery, student assessment, learning environment, and the teacher’s personal qualities. Teaching effectiveness is thus a multidimensional construct involving various forms of knowledge, personal attributes, and practical capabilities. The aspects of teaching effectiveness comprised in this study build on these conceptions and theoretically emphasize the beliefs underlying this system. Students’ assessment was initially included as part of this framework but was not considered because of limited space.

9.4 Methodology

The study investigates and compares Moroccan EFL university teachers' and students' beliefs about different aspects of language teaching which was informed by research findings about what characterizes effective teaching. Two main objectives were identified as the main focus of the study. The first relates to a general exploration of teachers' and students' beliefs about teaching effectiveness; the second looks into areas of divergence between teachers' and students' beliefs. Two research questions were addressed in this regard:

(1) what are Moroccan EFL university teachers' and learners' beliefs about teaching effectiveness?
(2) to what extent do Moroccan EFL university teachers' beliefs diverge from their learners' beliefs about teaching effectiveness?

The study followed an exploratory research design. To tap into participants' perceptions about different aspects of teaching, the questionnaire was considered an appropriate instrument for data collection. Though some researchers express concern about the validity and reliability of questionnaires, Mackey and Gass (2005) state that the latter "allow researchers to gather information that learners are able to report about themselves, such as their beliefs and motivations about learning or their reactions to learning and classroom instruction and activities—information that is typically not available from production data alone" (pp. 92–93). The questionnaire was constructed with reference to principles of questionnaire design described by Dornyei (2007). It consists of items that were generated based on teaching effectiveness research as well as on instruments employed by researchers investigating the same area namely Brown (2009) and Bell (2005). The questionnaire includes 30 five-Likert-scale items, ranging from strongly agree on one end to strongly disagree on the other with a "neutral" option in the middle. The use of closed items was motivated by the fact that "closed-item questions typically involve a greater uniformity of measurement and therefore greater reliability" (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 93). They also yield data that can be reliably quantified and analyzed. Primarily the questionnaire items focused on teachers' knowledge about general pedagogical practices, about learners, and about their own roles as language teachers (see appendix for more details about the content of the questionnaire).

The participants of the study consisted of teachers and students. Twenty-two Moroccan EFL university teachers from different universities in Morocco completed the questionnaire. In terms of gender distribution, 45.5% are female and 54.5% are male. They were all above 30, and their teaching experience ranges from 7 to 20 years (or above). As for professional development, a number of teachers stated that they frequently (40.9) or occasionally (54.5) take part in professional development activities. Table 9.1 presents a summary of teachers' background information in terms of items, categories, and percentages.

Table 9.1 Teachers background information

Item	Category	Percentages
Age	30–39	18.2
	40–49	63.6
	50–59	18.2
	60+	1.2
Gender	Female	45.5
	Male	54.5
Teaching experience	1–6	–
	7–13	54.6
	14–19	36.3
	20+	9.1
Professional development	Frequency	40.9
Activities: frequency of attendance	Occasionally	54.5
	Rarely	4.6
	Never	–

As for students, they were 187 comprising 57.5% females and 42.5% males. Their age ranges between 22 and 26; they were all third year university students majoring in English (Table 9.2).

The participants were administered the questionnaires via the Google email system. Teachers were personally requested to take part in the study after explaining to them the rationale and objectives motivating this piece of research. They were also requested to share the link with their students who showed consent; this facilitated the process of data collection from students and increased response rates. The questionnaire incorporated an introductory section, which explains the purpose and context of the study. In order to ensure complete anonymity, respondents were not asked to provide any personal information (e.g., name, email address, phone) that would reveal their identity. Participation was voluntary and no informant was coerced to fill out the questionnaire.

Table 9.2 Students background information

Item	Category	Percentages
Age	20–24	78.3
	25–29	13.3
	30–34	8.4
	35+	–
Gender	Female	57.7
	Male	42.5

9.5 Data Analysis and Discussion

The aim of this study is to identify teachers' and students' beliefs about the aspects of teaching effectiveness as described in the literature. What follows is a presentation of the results, which were based on descriptive statistical analysis. The latter includes the percentages and mean scores drawn from the analysis conducted on teachers' and students' responses to both questionnaires.

As a first approximation, the results indicate that teachers' and students' beliefs about effective teaching tend to conform to a more communicative student-centered model. This resonates with previous research, which views teaching effectiveness as the outcome of several factors related to the communication process in the classroom (Brosh, 1996). Both teachers and students believe that effective teaching occurs when grammar and vocabulary are taught in context within a meaning and form-focused framework, when learning strategies are highlighted and learner needs accommodated. Teachers and students also believe that effective teaching occurs when there is substantial exposure to the target language through interactive tasks, when pair/group work is employed, when teachers use the target culture, technology, self/peer-assessment, and humor to facilitate and enhance learning. There also seems to be a consensus that the teachers' maintenance of order and discipline in the classroom and good teacher–student rapport are vital to effective teaching. Overall, both teachers and students believe that the majority of the aspects included in the questionnaire represent effective teaching practices. The table in the *appendix* features participants' overall belief systems about teaching effectiveness.

The *first research question* explored teachers' and students' beliefs about different aspects of teaching effectiveness. The answer to this question, as indicated by the results presented in the appendix, shows that the way teachers and students think about classroom instruction and interaction is borne out by the literature (Brosh, 1996; Fraser, Aldridge, & Soerjaningsih, 2010; Stronge, Ward, & Grant, 2011). It seems very likely that teachers hold effective beliefs and are aware about effective teaching practices. This suggests that these teachers' pedagogical practices are theoretically informed and may have been acquired as part of training, professional development, and/or reflection. Another issue that emerges from the results is the extent to which beliefs match actual classroom practice. While it may be true that teachers are aware of the dissonance that exists between their beliefs and practice due to impositions of various kinds (Tuckman, 1995), further research is critically needed to explore the degree of harmony/dissonance between teachers' beliefs and practices.

The convergence found in both teachers' and students' beliefs about the previously mentioned aspects is significant. However, in their response to the items targeting *error correction, mother tongue use, teachers' authority and involvement in students' personal life, lecturing, and exam-oriented teaching*, teachers and students hold divergent perceptions. As stated in the theoretical part, the dissonance between teachers and students' beliefs may "disappoint" learners and may lead to unsatisfactory learning outcomes (Savignon & Wang, 2003). The diagram below highlights these differences in terms of mean scores (Fig. 9.1).

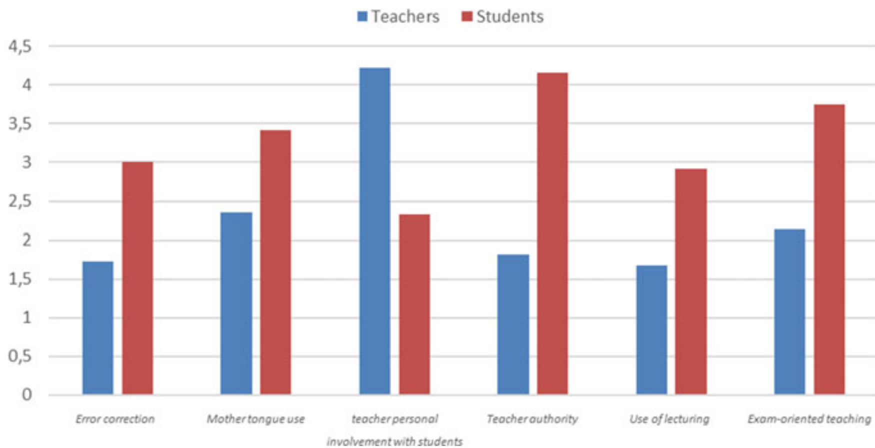

Fig. 9.1 Areas of divergence in teachers' and students' beliefs

The following section will present and discuss these items, which answer *the second research question on areas of divergence* in participants' beliefs.

Both teachers and students favor *grammar instruction and error correction*. This finding accords with previous research especially regarding experienced teachers' perceptions (Borg, 2003). The majority of teachers, as shown by their responses on the items related to grammar instruction, follow an inductive approach. This is manifested in their use of real-world context for illustration before presenting and explaining rules and structures and using implicit feedback. Also, teachers strongly agree on the use of exercises to practice new grammatical structures. This seems to contradict their stated endorsement of the communicative approach and implicit grammar instruction. This contradiction can be appreciated if teachers follow an integrative approach to grammar teaching that combines both explicit and implicit instruction.

As for students' beliefs about grammar teaching, the majority seem to share similar beliefs as those revealed by teachers with regard to the type of instruction and implicit error correction. However, an interesting number of students (see item 1 in Appendix table) hold conflicting beliefs about error correction compared to teachers. While the majority strongly agree on implicit correction (73.9%), 46.7% favor explicit error correction—a practice that teachers do not deem effective. This supports the findings obtained by Schulz (1996, 2001) who found that students, as in the present study, favored focus on form instruction while their teachers believed in the effectiveness of a more communicative approach. This highlights the importance of studying learner differences and their preferred learning styles. How teachers respond to errors is also crucial as it may influence students' motivation, engagement, and achievement. Other things being equal, Berry (1997), McCargar (1993), and Bell

(2005) similarly reported divergence in students' and teachers' beliefs about issues related to language teaching and learning. Clearly, attitudes and perceptions vary according to the range of teaching and learning contexts and backgrounds. Yet, as Borg (2003) concludes, there is almost broad consensus among students in favor of "formal instruction and regular, explicit correction, (…) compared to teachers' less favorable attitudes towards these aspects of language teaching" (p. 105). This remains unsettled especially when considering how and when teachers give feedback.

Use of the mother tongue was included as an important aspect of teaching effectiveness. Both teachers and students are divided as to the effectiveness of using the mother tongue. In fact, overall, the findings suggest that teachers' dominant position, as opposed to students, is one of rejecting the use of the mother tongue as an indicator of effective teaching. This stance runs against increasing evidence that mother tongue use has a facilitative role in language acquisition (Canagarajah, 1999; McKay, 2003; Phillipson, 1992). It also contradicts recent findings, which show that learners' linguistic and cultural backgrounds when employed for different pedagogical purposes, facilitate the learning process, (Ziegler et al. 2015) and "celebrate students' complex multilingual identities" (Seedhouse & Jenks, 2015, p. 221). This contradiction becomes more striking when seen in relation to teachers' responses to the item stating that the effective teacher "builds on students' background knowledge and experience when presenting new material (reading, vocabulary …)." Nearly all teachers agree on this item. Probably teachers draw a clear division between "mother tongue use" and "background knowledge and experience." That mother tongue use continues to be a divisive issue, despite major developments in SLA and ELT pedagogy, is indeed an interesting finding.

There are equally divergences with regard to *teacher authority and rapport*. While teachers believe that they need to share with students their personal concerns and help them overcome emerging problems (item 26), students do not express the same opinion. From a similar perspective, in their response to item 30, they strongly agree that the teacher should demonstrate authority by acting as the only decision-maker in the classroom as opposed to the majority of teachers who disagree with this item. Here, students' perceptions about the way the teacher should behave in the classroom are significant in that it contributes to the perpetuation of a conventional classroom culture which depicts the teacher as the sole source of authority. This is corroborated by students' disagreement with the item asking about teachers sharing with students their personal concerns and their agreement with the item stating that "the effective teacher establishes order and discipline in the classroom." Students appear to be more conservative and perceive the teacher purely through his or her academic role as the ultimate source and guarantor of order. Whether teachers' open attitude reflects a deep commitment to democratic and dialogic pedagogy requires further scrutiny.

In the same vein, students also believe that the effective teacher is the one who uses *lecturing* as the main teaching style. Jarvis (2006) states that "teaching has traditionally been associated with the idea that there is a truth proposition (knowledge) or an accepted theory that can be disseminated through the agency of the teacher"

(ibid., p. 28). Students, in our context, still believe in the teacher as the ultimate authority on knowledge who imparts truth and wisdom. This may undermine active learning given that lecturing tends to “cast the learner in an entirely passive role” (Griffin, 2006, p. 74) especially didactic lecturing, which involves no reciprocity or reflexive dialoguing. This also reveals that students may be insouciant to the potential drawbacks of lecturing (passive, rote learning, boredom, short attention span …) (ibid.) and to the importance of meaning co-construction through negotiated interaction and critical reflection. Curiously, their perceptions in a sense contradict their stated beliefs about classroom interaction, which revolve around the negotiation of meaning and active autonomous learning. One interpretation may be that students possibly favor an integration of both interactional and traditional styles of teaching or, as Griffin has it, “mixed-mode teaching and learning systems” (ibid., p. 75).

Concerning *exam-oriented teaching*, in their response to the item stating that “the effective teacher focuses primarily on themes/structures students will be tested on in final examinations” (item 29), the majority of teachers (68.2%) express disagreement and 22.7% hold a neutral position while only 9% agree. Students conversely agree with a percentage of 67.6%, favoring instruction that prepares them for final examinations. Instead of promoting a healthy pedagogy that aims at academic, social, psychological, and personal development, the whole enterprise is reduced to proficiency/product-oriented evaluation. There is overriding preoccupation with the end product while the process becomes merely a means to an end. The teachers’ pedagogy conversely seems to be more focused on the process of learning and teaching rather than on examinations, though some of their practices (sharing with the students the materials they use in class; see item 16 in Appendix table) may encourage passive learning. This instrumentalist view of learning on the part of students may be largely a result of a high-stakes testing and educational culture. The broader culture equally places emphasis on grades and hence social and economic worth is assigned to high achievers. The challenge is to rebuild an educational culture where learning and education are valued as intrinsically good and transformative, where assessment becomes a means to that not an end in itself.

Based on the discussion above, a number of controversial points seem to follow. Classroom interaction is seen as a practical instrument to achieve specific learning goals more than a dialogic relationship to build a more humane educational environment. Similarly, the classroom is perceived as a formal setting for academic development and the teacher is cast as the transmitter of knowledge and guarantor of order and discipline. The mother tongue is believed to be an impediment to learning rather than a resource. Examinations for students assume a central position and determine the learning process. These points indicate a set of unresolved tensions related to the role of the teacher, classroom environment, and pedagogical practice, hence the value of investigating beliefs.

9.6 Implications for Research and Pedagogy

Although it has limitations (small scale: small sample, one single instrument, specific conception of teaching effectiveness), the study yielded interesting outcomes. The first major finding is the significant overlap between what the participants believe to be effective teaching and conceptions of teaching effectiveness discussed in the literature. It also revealed interesting areas of divergence between teachers' and students' beliefs. The overall results show the complexity of beliefs, which opens vast possibilities to explore the dynamics of English language teaching and learning. The findings thus point to the need to investigate more specifically how various conceptions of teaching effectiveness affect different features of teaching and learning using triangulated methodologies and multidisciplinary approaches.

In addition to suggesting venues for future research, this study also offers a number of pedagogical implications. First, it is necessary to understand the vitality of beliefs in shaping learning processes and outcomes and start questioning these systems in relation to students' beliefs and expectations. Second, professional development activities should target teachers' self-efficacy and the way they perceive their roles in the classroom. Teachers are recommended to consider the linguistic and cultural resources learners bring and reflect on how these resources can be used to facilitate learning. They should also explicitly explain their assessment approaches to students and highlight the importance of process over product (exams). Their pedagogical practices will of course reflect the way learners will understand examinations. Third, the areas of dissonance discussed above underscore the importance of raising students' awareness about learning/teaching-related issues. This was also emphasized by Horwitz (1988) and Brown (2009) and further stressed as crucial for attaining "desired learning outcomes" (Savignon & Wang, 2003). Finally, teachers need to negotiate with students their preferences for specific modes of content delivery in the classroom (lecturing, dialogic interaction …) in order to create a most auspicious environment for learning.

Appendix

Summary of Questionnaire Results

Items	Teachers						Students					
	SA	A	N	SD	D	Mean	SA	A	N	SD	D	Mean
1. Corrects students explicitly after they make a mistake in speaking	4.5	9.1	–	27.3	59.1	1.72	14.5	32.2	10.8	25.3	17.2	3.01
2. Uses the mother tongue in the classroom to facilitate understanding/learning	4.5	21.8	10	32	31.6	2.35	32.2	20.4	20	12	15.4	3.42
3. Teaches students to use various learning strategies (i.e., self-evaluation, repetition, imagery …)	77.3	22.7	–	–	–	4.77	–	65.6	34.4	–	–	3.65
4. Raises students' awareness of new vocabulary items, their meaning, and use	77.3	18.2	4.5	–	–	4.68	–	75.6	24.4	–	–	3.75
5. Considers students' learning styles when selecting and presenting course materials	72.7	18.2	9.1	–	–	4.63	31.7	47.2	21.1	–	–	4.10
6. Uses computer-based technologies (Internet, CD-ROM, videos, email) to teach English	50	45.5	4.5	–	–	4.45	48.9	36.7	14.4	–	–	4.34
7. Teaches grammar by giving examples of grammatical structures before explaining rules	40.9	36.4	9.1	13.6	–	4.18	30	46.7	14.4	8.9	–	3.67
8. Is responsible for students' learning outcomes/achievement	22.7	40.9	27.3	9.1	–	3.77	12.8	37.2	35.6	14.4	–	2.84
9. Uses group/pair work in class	68.2	31.8	–	–	–	4.68	40.5	42.8	16.7	–	–	4.31
10. Uses real-world context for illustration before presenting grammatical structures	59.1	36.4	4.5	–	–	4.54	35	45.6	19.4	–	–	4.15
11. Uses activities where students have to find out unknown information from classmates using English	18.2	68.2	13.6	–	–	4.04	34.4	47.8	–	17.8	–	3.98
12. Exposes learners to English as much as possible	68.2	31.8	–	–	–	4.68	55	35	10			4.45
13. Raises students' awareness to how learning takes place	50	40.9	4.5	4.5	–	4.36	36.7	44.4	18.9	–	–	4.17
14. Uses humor to create a pleasant learning environment	59.1	40.9	–	–	–	4.59	60.6	30	9.4	–	–	4.51

(continued)

(continued)

Items	Teachers						Students					
	SA	A	N	SD	D	Mean	SA	A	N	SD	D	Mean
15. Establishes order and discipline in the classroom	50	50	–	–	–	4.5	36.1	45	18.3	–	–	4.15
16. Shares with students the materials s/he uses in class (notes, lecture summaries, slides, handouts …)	50	36.4	9.1	4.5	–	4.31	45.1	38.9	15	–	–	4.26
17. Teaches the language primarily by having students complete interactive activities rather than grammar-focused exercises in the classroom	45.5	36.4	13.6	4.5	–	4.22	38.9	44.4	16.7	–	–	4.22
18. Creates opportunities for students to evaluate their own work and that of their classmates	59.1	36.4	4.5	–	–	4.54	38.9	51.1	10	–	–	4.28
19. Uses exercises to practice new grammatical structures	54.4	40.9	4.5	–	–	4.49	36.7	53.9	9.4	–	–	4.27
20. Allows learners to select their own topics for discussion	40.9	45.5	13.6	–	–	4.27	44.5	36.1	19.4	–	–	4.25
21. Builds on students’ background knowledge and experience when presenting new material (reading vocabulary …)	81.8	18.2	–	–	–	4.81	36.1	43.3	20.6	–	–	4.15
22. Engages learners in activities that enhance interaction and negotiation	77.3	22.7	–	–	–	4.77	51.1	38.9	10	–	–	4.41
23. Teaches students to use strategies to improve their vocabulary learning (i.e., memory devices or creating a mental image of the word)	68.2	31.8	–	–	–	4.68	51.1	38.9	10	–	–	4.41
24. Encourages learners to express and discuss their needs and preferences for language learning	31.8	54.5	13.6	–	–	4.17	45.6	41.6	12.8	–	–	4.07
25. Corrects students indirectly when they make oral mistakes	40.9	50	4.5	4.5	–	4.27	39.4	37.8	13.9	8.9	–	4.07
26. Shares with the students their personal concerns and help them overcome emerging problems	40.9	40.9	18.2	–	–	4.22	12	12	8	33.9	34.1	2.33
27. Uses lecturing as the main teaching style	–	–	9.1	50	40.9	1.68	10	25.1	23.3	29.4	12.2	2.91

(continued)

(continued)

Items	Teachers						Students					
	SA	A	N	SD	D	Mean	SA	A	N	SD	D	Mean
28. Teaches the foreign language culture to ensure effective learning	22.7	68.2	9.1	–	–	4.13	26.6	45.6	27.8	–	–	3.98
29. Focuses primarily on themes/structures students will be tested on in final examinations	4.5	4.5	22.7	36.4	31.8	2.13	31.3	36.3	8.7	23.7	–	3.75
30. Demonstrates authority by acting as the only decision-maker in the classroom	4.5	–	13.6	36.4	45.5	1.81	37.7	40.6	21.7	–	–	4.16

SA Strongly agree, *A* Agree, *N* Neutral, *SD* Strongly disagree, *D* Disagree

References

Andrews, S. (2003). "Just like instant noodles": L2 teachers and their beliefs about grammar pedagogy. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 9*(4), 351–375.

Barnard, R., & Burns, A. (2012). *Researching language teacher cognition and practice: International case studies*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Bell, T. (2005). Behaviors and attitudes of effective foreign language teachers: Results of a questionnaire study. *Foreign Language Annals, 38,* 259–270.

Berry, R. (1997). Teachers' awareness of learners' knowledge: The case of metalinguistic terminology. *Language Awareness, 6,* 136–146.

Borg, S. (1998). Teachers' pedagogical systems and grammar teaching: A qualitative study. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(1), 9–38.

Borg, M. (2001). Teachers' beliefs. *ELT Journal, 55*(2), 186–188.

Borg, S. (2003). Teacher cognition in grammar teaching: A literature review. *Language Awareness, 12*(2), 96–108.

Borg, S. (2006). *Teacher cognition and language education: Research and practice*. London: Continuum.

Borg, S. (2009). *Introducing language teacher cognition*. Retrieved September 22, 2017, from http://www.education.leeds.ac.uk/research/files/145.pdf.

Borg, S. (2011). Language teacher education. In J. Simpson (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 215–228). London: Routledge.

Borg, S. (2012). *Learner autonomy: English language teachers' beliefs and practice*. London: British Council.

Brosh, H. (1996). Perceived characteristics of the effective language teacher. *Foreign Language Annals, 29*(2), 125–136.

Brown, A. V. (2009). Students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching: A comparison of ideals. *The Modern Language Journal, 93*(1), 46–60.

Canagarajah, S. (1999). *Resisting English linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dornyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. New York: Oxford University.

Entwistle, N., & Walker, P. (2002). Strategic alertness and expanded awareness within sophisticated conceptions of teaching. In N. Hativa & P. Goodyear (Eds.), *Teacher thinking, beliefs and knowledge in higher education* (pp. 15–40). Springer.

Farrell, T. S. C. (2007). *Reflective language teaching: From research to practice*. London: Continuum.

Farrell, T. S. C., & Bennis, K. (2013). Reflecting on ESL teacher beliefs and classroom practices: A case study. *RELC Journal, 44*(2), 163–176.

Fraser, B. J., Aldridge, J. M., & Soerjaningsih, W. (2010). Instructor-student interpersonal interaction and student outcomes at the university level in Indonesia. *The Open Education Journal, 3,* 21–33.

Griffin, C. (2006). Didacticism: Lectures and lecturing. In P. Jarvis (Ed.), *The theory and practice of teaching* (pp. 73–89). London: Routledge.

Grossman, P., & Richert, R. (1988). Unacknowledged knowledge growth: A reexamination of the effects of teacher education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 4,* 53–62.

Horwitz, E. K. (1988). The beliefs about language learning of beginning university foreign language students. *Modern Language Journal, 72,* 283–294.

Horwitz, E. K. (1990). Attending to the affective domain in the foreign language classroom. In S. Magnan (Ed.), *Shifting the instructional focus to the learner* (pp. 15–33). Middlebury, VT: Northeast Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages.

Jarvis, P. (2006). Teaching styles and teaching methods. In P. Jarvis (Ed.), *The theory and practice of teaching* (pp. 28–38). London: Routledge.

Johnson, K. (2001). Teacher learning in second language teacher education: A socially-situated perspective. *Brasileira de LingUistica Aplicada, 1*(l), 53–69.

Johnson, K. E. (2006). The sociocultural turn and its challenges for second language teacher education. *TESOL Quarterly, 40,* 235–257.

Kern, R. (1995). Students and teachers' beliefs about language learning. *Foreign Language Annals, 28,* 71–92.

König, J., Blömeke, S., Paine, L., Schmidt, W. H., & Hsieh, F.-J. (2011). General pedagogical knowledge of future middle school teachers: On the complex ecology of teacher education in the United States, Germany, and Taiwan. *Journal of Teacher Education, 62*(2), 188–201.

Li, L., & Walsh, S. (2011). "Seeing is believing": Looking at EFL teachers' beliefs through classroom interaction. *Classroom Discourse, 2*(1), 39–57.

Macalister, J. (2012). Pre-service teacher cognition and vocabulary teaching. *RELC Journal, 43*(1), 99–111.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum.

McCargar, D. F. (1993). Teacher and student role expectations: Cross-cultural differences and implications. *Modern Language Journal, 77,* 192–207.

McKay, S. L. (2003). Toward an appropriate EIL methodology: Re-examining common ELT assumptions. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 13*(1), 1–22.

Pajares, M. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. *Review of Educational Research, 62*(3), 307–332.

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Reagan, T. G., & Osborn, T. A. (2002). *The foreign language educator in society: Toward a critical pedagogy*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Richards, J. C. (1998). Teachers' beliefs and decision-making. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *Beyond training* (pp. 65–86). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richardson, V. (1996). The role of attitudes and beliefs in learning to teach. In J. Sikula (Ed.), *Handbook of research on teacher education* (pp. 102–119). New York: Macmillan.

Savignon, S. J., & Wang, C. (2003). Communicative language teaching in EFL contexts: Learner attitudes and perceptions. *IRAL, 41,* 223–249.

Schulz, R. A. (1996). Focus on form in the foreign language classroom: Students' and teachers' views on error correction and the role of grammar. *Foreign Language Annals, 29,* 343–364.

Schulz, R. A. (2001). Cultural differences in student and teacher perceptions concerning the role of grammar instruction and corrective feedback: USA-Colombia. *Modern Language Journal, 85,* 244–258.

Seedhouse, P., & Jenks, C. J. (2015). International perspectives on ELT classroom interaction: Introduction. In P. Seedhouse & C. J. Jenks (Eds.), *International perspectives on ELT classroom interaction* (pp. 1–9). Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Shulman, L. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review, 57*(1), 1–23.

Stronge, J. H., Ward, T. J., & Grant, L. W. (2011). What makes good teachers good? A cross-case analysis of the connection between teacher effectiveness and student achievement. *Journal of Teacher Education, 62*(4), 339–355.

Travers, R. M. W. (1981). Criteria of good teaching. In J. Millman (Ed.), *Handbook of teacher evaluation* (pp. 14–22). London: Sage Publications.

Tsui, A. B. (2005). Expertise in teaching: Perspectives and issues. In K. Johnson (Ed.), *Expertise in second language learning and teaching* (pp. 167–189). London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Tuckman, B. W. (1995). Assessing effective teaching. *Peabody Journal of Education, 70*(2), 127–138.

Zahoric, J. A. (1986). Acquiring teaching skills. *Journal of Teacher Education,* (March-April), 21–25.

Ziegler, G., Durus, N., Sert, O., & Family, N. (2015). Analysing ELT in the European Arena: Multilingual practices. In C. J. Jenks and P. Seedhouse (Eds.), *International perspectives on ELT classroom Interaction* (pp. 188–207). London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Amina Ichebah holds a doctorate in education studies. She teaches at the Faculty of Education at Mohammed V University in Rabat. Her research interests include ELT methodology, teacher education, curriculum design, program evaluation, and critical pedagogy.

Chapter 10
Teaching Translation to Moroccan University Students: Challenges and Perspectives

Abderrazak Gharafi

Abstract This chapter addresses some of the key challenges that teaching translation in Moroccan universities faces and that impede the achievement of the course objectives. The current state of affairs reveals that, in the English departments in Morocco, the fact that translation is not a majoring subject overshadows its importance in the eyes of undergraduates from the linguistics, cultural studies, and literature streams alike. Overall, students' attitude toward translation is negative with evident underestimation of its value, misconception of its nature, and indifference toward its benefits. Moreover, weaknesses in students' linguistic competence, which underpins translation competence, represents a serious stumbling block to their learning process. Another obstacle is the interference of students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds (Moroccan Arabic, Tamazight, Classical Arabic, and French), which often results in erroneous renditions of texts. Furthermore, reliance on electronic devices seriously diminishes the efficiency of in-class activities, for students disregard the role of print dictionaries, which are unavoidable, multi-purpose tools. Finally, students' failure in the translation module is also due to their time mismanagement during exams. The observational study provides some recommendations likely to enhance students' performance and help them cope with the identified challenges in order to recognize the fair value of translation at the university.

Keywords Teaching translation · Student disengagement · Linguistic incompetence · Translation competence · Student ICT dependency

10.1 Introduction

The departments of English in Moroccan universities attract large numbers of students, who complete high school and want to obtain a Bachelor of Arts in English studies. Many of those entrants accomplish their undergraduate studies with significant results, but for the large majority it turns out that they make the wrong choice, and as they do not show sufficient academic commitment. The ultimate outcome

A. Gharafi (✉)
Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: abderrazakgharafi@yahoo.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_10

is either utter failure or graduation without mastery of the key skills targeted by the syllabi. Students' flawed initial decisions are generally the result of a lack of effective prior orientation and well-thought post-graduation objectives, often with many misconceptions regarding higher education in general and English studies in particular.

The Moroccan departments of English offer a wide range of courses that aim to endow undergraduates with knowledge and skills and expose them to more advanced and more autonomous learning opportunities. Among these courses, translation stands out as an interdisciplinary subject whereby learners' performance is largely contingent upon their proficiency in other branches of knowledge dealt with in the curricula, involving a variety of linguistic, analytic, and expressive skills, along with cross-cultural awareness and general knowledge. Consequently, students' level of linguistic competence in particular affects the translation course's expected learning outcomes, which, broadly speaking, consist in endowing students with techniques, procedures, and strategies that enable them to achieve equivalence in terms of meaning between source and target texts. It is worth noting here that the language combination dealt with is mainly English/Arabic/English, while French is often introduced for comparison purposes, or in case there are foreign students who do not speak Arabic. In addition, undergraduates' translation competence is impaired by linguistic and cultural interference, which springs from the Moroccan social and educational background, as well as by ubiquitous wireless technology, which has become associated with not only academic dishonesty but also inhibition of learners' overall performance.

This chapter aims to pinpoint a number of challenges that hinder the achievement of the translation course objectives and thwart aspirations of teachers and departments alike. The argument that it wants to emphasize is that, while the translation course represents an invaluable opportunity to achieve goals of paramount importance at both the academic and the vocational levels, undergraduates insist, both consciously and unconsciously, on making of it more a failure than a success. Therefore, the significance of the study lies in the fact that by providing a student-oriented informative and analytical assessment of the current state of affairs, it endeavors to change attitudes and raise awareness among learners as well as instructors in order to make translation a more beneficial course. It equally derives its importance from its reliance on concrete illustrations showing errors committed by students from the third through the sixth semesters, based on several years of teaching experience and close observation of students' performance during in-class activities or examinations. Drawing on all these elements of inquiry, this chapter finally attempts to elaborate some suggestions and practical solutions in the hope that they would contribute to giving translation its due importance among Moroccan undergraduates, which in turn would contribute to enhancing the quality and efficiency of Moroccan higher education.

10.2 Students' Attitudes Toward Translation: A Big Challenge to Cope with in the Classroom

A strenuous and demanding task though it is, translation remains an enjoyable problem-solving exercise that aims to achieve equivalence of texts of varying complexity. Thus, it allows the translator, by grappling with the subtleties and intricacies of different languages, to get immersed in different worlds of similarities and differences at the levels of linguistic constructions and cultural representations. Likewise, teaching translation involves much of such enjoyment especially because it allows sharing knowledge and skills with young learners who are at a crucial period of their academic process. Thus, as Catford (1965) puts it, "translation is in itself a valuable skill to be imparted to students" (p. viii). For all these reasons, learning translation ought to interest students and trigger their curiosity to take up worthwhile challenges and explore diverse linguistic and cultural features. It should also incite many among them to choose this vital activity as the area of their future study and research projects or even their professional careers.

Nevertheless, teaching translation in the Moroccan university often meets with adverse conditions that engender disappointment and frustration caused by learners themselves, mainly due to their abstention from getting involved in the learning process. Generalizing this judgment to all undergraduates would undoubtedly be unfair, for there are outstanding students who display promising potential each semester and accomplish significant results every year. Moreover, translation is in itself a challenging task even for professional translators, and it is understood that even the best undergraduates are not expected to carry out flawless renditions. However, considering their overall progress, feedback, attitudes, and behavior in the classroom, it is no exaggeration saying that the great majority of them come under that category which is at the origin of worrisome conclusions.

In fact, undergraduates' aversion to translation does not mean that it is an uninspiring activity. Such attitude can first be explained by the fact that lack of student motivation and engagement in-class activities, and therefore poor results, have become common issues about which most teachers in all subjects—and even all departments—usually complain. Second, students' reaction is further reinforced by the fact that translation in the Moroccan university is not a professional but an academic subject; that is, merely a module (previously a unit within a module) that is part of the curriculum, and whose class credit is no more than three (previously two) hours per week. Furthermore, students' reaction is motivated by their misconception of the nature and implications of translation, which they deem a quite easy task that simply consists in finding a one-to-one correspondence between the words of two languages within two texts. This reductionist view also shows a lack of awareness of translation's close connection with, and even dependency on, other disciplines that they study across the semesters. The upshot is that the translation course is overshadowed in the eyes of undergraduates since they know beforehand that they will major in the "English Studies" track, specializing in one of the three streams: Literature, Linguistics, or Cultural Studies.

The nature of the translation course requires positive interaction between the teacher and students on the one hand, and among students themselves on the other. That is why students are encouraged to work in pairs or groups of three to four to read, discuss, and analyze the texts to be translated. This is meant to create a more propitious learning environment where students are given opportunity to gain self-confidence, think and talk freely, exchange ideas with their peers and come up with a final version of the text to be suggested for collective discussion in the second stage of the class. According to Kiraly (2014), "learning must be an essentially active and interactive, inter-psychological process" (p. 34), and House (2000) believes that "collaborative translation work" should be given precedence over individual performance. Indeed, group work offers students a less stressful environment and, given the disparity of their levels of proficiency and their inability to spot their own errors, it represents an occasion not only for self-testing but also for correcting each other's mistakes. However, the efficiency of this method depends on two fundamental conditions that are currently nonexistent in translation classes at the Moroccan university. On the one hand, it necessitates students' interest in translation and active contribution to such learning process. On the other hand, it requires dealing with small-size classes, for learners of translation need special attention and instructors can only address their errors by customizing the course input and feedback, and by checking understanding during task-based activities before sharing their renditions with the rest of the class. Conversely, crowdedness is a serious handicap to such method because, in addition to the impossibility to interact efficiently with individuals, it is synonymous with noise and anarchy, which creates an inappropriate teaching/learning atmosphere.

By and large, all the aforementioned factors combined make students shun translation and care more about completing the module with the least effort than acquiring knowledge and expertise for the exam and the future. Thus, instead of full involvement, at such young age, they display a kind of disengagement with a tendency to fall into sheer lethargy. Apart from a handful of assiduous members of the group who are eager to learn and improve through active participation, the rest are either passive or preoccupied by other concerns than learning. As a result, even the minority that is motivated and interested in learning is negatively affected by the majority's attitude and behavior.

10.3 Low Linguistic Competence as a Major Handicap to Adequate Translation

The second impediment that deters students' progress in translation is their poor linguistic competence, which is prerequisite to source-text comprehension on the one hand, and target-text composition on the other. Translation is by definition associated with languages, and languages are governed by sets of rules that regulate users' constructions that communicate their ideas. As an inter-lingual communicative act,

translation can only take place if the rules and conventions of the source language are understood and those of the receptor language are implemented. Nord's (2005) remark concerning trainee translators applies fairly well here: "a solid linguistic and cultural competence in both source and target cultures is not the object of, but a prerequisite for, translator training." In other words, such courses as reading comprehension, composition, grammar/syntax, semantics, stylistics, discourse analysis, morphology, and even phonetics and phonology are directly linked to translation competence because they enable students to cope with the two essential stages of the translation process, namely, decoding and re-encoding texts.

Nevertheless, there is the rub, for undergraduates' (in)competence in the foregoing subjects is rather a handicap than a booster of their translation competence. To begin with, one of the fundamental principles that the translation teacher strives to impart to learners is that the translator's foremost attribute consists in being a good reader, and that reading entails analysis and thorough understanding of the text as a sine qua non of its reconstruction in the target language. However, a common—and puzzling—habit among most students is that they do not take time to read and comprehend the text, which unavoidably results in inadequate meaning transfer. Instead of putting into practice the techniques they learn in the reading courses they are assigned in different semesters, they just vaguely and superficially examine the text and then hastily attempt to find equivalents to words as separate lexical items rather than as interrelated components of sentences. Consequently, they are often misled by the first impression their first contact with the text creates or by certain words and phrases they consider in isolation. This misconception of the translation process prevents students from developing their analytic skills and reflective abilities requisite for meaning extrapolation.

As revealed by class activities and exam copies, concrete illustrations from students' errors show their lack of awareness of the semantic relationships between words and the connection between sentences, which cannot be dissociated from the syntactic structure of the text and the logic of its overall texture. For example, in a text that comprised the phrase "Since prehistoric times," the word "since" was understood as a subordinating conjunction and not as an adverb of time. Therefore, some students opted for the Arabic phrase "بما أن"(*bimā anna*) instead of "منذ"(*mundhu*) as its equivalent, which evidently did not express the original meaning. Meaning disambiguation is much dependent on understanding the nature and grammatical function of sentence components, which is in turn crucial for accurate constructions of the target text. It is true that a "text is a meaning unit, not a form unit, but meaning is realized through form and without understanding the meanings of individual forms one cannot interpret the meaning of the text as a whole" (Baker, 1992, p. 6). Another example of mistranslation resulting from students' inability to differentiate between word classes is the case of terms that are similar in form as verbs, nouns, or adjectives. For instance, the phrase "market products" was inaccurately rendered as "منتوجات السوق"(*mantūjāt al-sūq*) instead of "تسويق المنتوجات"(*taswīq al-mantūjāt*) because the word "market" was understood as a noun and not as a verb. Similar pitfalls are the phrase "global media concerns," where some students mistook the word "concerns" for a verb, while it actually is a plural noun, and "Empathy

matters," where the verb "matters" was considered as a plural noun. Hasty reading and lack of comprehension proficiency result in misunderstanding Arabic texts, too. As a relevant instance, many fifth-semester students failed to grasp the fact that, in the sentence: "تستهدفُ الحربُ الاستمراريةَ في العلاقات الاجتماعية" (*tastahdifu 'l-ḥarbu al-istimrāriyyata fil 'alāqāti al-ijtimā'iyyati*), the word "*al-istimrāriyyah*" is a direct object, which means that it is a noun, and not an adjective that modifies the word "*alḥarbu.*" Therefore, they used the phrase "continuous war" instead of "continuity of social relations," which led to an erroneous rendition.

The case of adjectives that modify more than one noun is another illustration of errors that are detrimental to the quality of translation. Among the many cases identified are the following: many students rendered the phrase "different tribes, nations, and cultures" as "قبائل مختلفة وأمم وثقافات" (*qabā'ilu mukhtalifatun wa umamun wa thaqāfāt*) instead of "قبائل وأمم وثقافات مختلفة" (*qabā'ilu wa umamun wa thaqāfātun mukhtalifah*) since the adjective "*mukhtalifah*" refers to the three nouns concerned. A similar instance in this context is the phrase "local communities or environments," which was translated as "المجتمعات المحلية أو البيئة" (*al-mujtama'ātu 'l-maḥalliyyatu awi 'l-bī'ah*), while the correct rendition should be "المجتمعات أو البيئة المحلية" (*al-mujtama'ātu awi 'l-bī'atu 'l-maḥalliyyah*). Consequently, such problems affect seriously the translation course by diverting its objectives as it thus requires extra time and attention to address students' errors, especially due to their number, types, and frequency.

Another problem stems from confusion of words due to hasty and careless reading, which happens even with fifth- and sixth-semester students. Among the instances identified are the words "integrity," which was mistaken for "integration," "غربية" (*gharbiyyah*; western) understood as "غريبة" (*gharībah*; strange) or "عربية" (*'arabiyyah*; Arab), and "استثارة" (*istithārah*; stimulation) read as "استشارة" (*istishārah*; consultation). But there are graver cases like understanding the abbreviation "IT" as the third-person pronoun "It" although the whole text revolves around the evolution of information technology, and mistaking the pronoun "us" for "US," and so rendering it as "الولايات المتحدة" (*al-wilāyātu 'l-muttaḥidah*). Besides, confusion can result from lack of knowledge at the level of word formation, as was the case of the word "ecosystem," which some students translated as "النظام الاقتصادي" (*al-niẓām al-iqtiṣādī*), which means "the economic system," obviously entrapped by the prefix "eco." Strangely enough, many fifth-semester students failed to grasp the meaning of "Tunis-based" in "the Tunis-based Arab League Educational, Cultural and Scientific Organization," thus translating it as "القاعدة التونسية للعصبة العربية للتربية الثقافية والتنظيم العلمي" (*al-qā'idatu al-tūnusiyyatu lil-'osbati 'l-'arabiyyati lil-tarbiyyati al-thaqāfiyyati wal-tanẓīm al-'ilmī*). This corresponds in no way to what the original means as it becomes "the Tunisian base of the Arab League for cultural education and scientific organization." It is noteworthy that different groups are often given the same texts and that the same errors are committed by many students, which is quite intriguing.

Baker (1992) states that "errors and problems in translation mostly result from the non-equivalence between the source and target languages," but all the above-mentioned examples result rather from a lack of knowledge of basic linguistic skills

or absence of concentration and even sloppiness than from real translational difficulties that are caused by complex syntactic or stylistic formulations. Students hastily opt for terms and constructions without taking pains to check their grammaticality and semantic appropriateness by matching the source and target texts. Absentmindedness is sometimes so flagrant that it concerns obvious details that radically alter the information presented by the source text, which goes against the essence of translation itself whereby the role of the translator is that of a mediator that transmits the same messages of the original author. For instance, inaccuracy often concerns dates and figures; thus, the nineteenth century becomes the ninth century, "46,5%" becomes "45,6%," "a hundred million people" is turned to "a hundred people," the "United Nations" is changed to the "United States," to mention only a few. In one of the texts speaking of the 2016 Literature Nobel Prize (fifth-semester final examination), among the renditions of "الأكاديمية السويدية"(*al-akādīmiyyatu al-suwaydiyyah*), that is, "the Swedish Academy," were "the Swiss Academy" and even "the Sudanese Academy." In other texts, "the 21 Arab countries" was turned to "القرن الواحد والعشرين"(*al-qarni 'l-wāḥidi wal 'ishrīn*," which means "the 21st century," and the term "cultural norms" became "النورمانديين"(*al-nūrmandiyyīn*), meaning "the Normans." While translation requires presence of mind to ensure maximum accuracy of meaning, students do not take time to think critically and carefully enough to minimize such flagrant mismatching of the source and target texts.

At the lexical level, insufficiency of adequate vocabulary in students' lexical repository reduces their scope of word choice and sentence building, which results again in irrelevant renditions. For example, instead of using the word "عقد"(*'aqd*) as the equivalent of "decade," the words "قرن"(*qarn*), which means "century," and "ألفية"(*alfiyyah*), which means "millennium," were used. Moreover, the way students deal with synonymy, homonymy, and polysemy shows how learners reap the bitter fruits of their complacency and disengagement during the semester. As a case in point, even if they are constantly reminded that some words, though synonymous in principle, are not necessarily interchangeable no matter what the context is, many students just pick up "equivalents" randomly. Among the numerous cases noticed in this respect, the word "زيت"(*zayt*) was opted for instead of "نفط"(*nafṭ*) although the text was concerned with the economic crisis and the rise of oil prices. Likewise, the English verb "to halve" (the rate of illiteracy) was rendered as (الأمية) "تفريق"("*tafrīq*" (*al-ummiyyah*)) by many fifth-semester students instead of "تخفيض (نسبة الأمية) الى النصف"(*takhfīḍ nisbati 'l-ummiyyati ila 'l-niṣf*). It is true that among the meanings of the word "*tafrīq*," which is the verbal noun from "*farraqa*," is "division," as in "فرِّقْ تَسُد"(*farriq tasud*; divide and rule), but it does not refer to "reducing by half," and it also has other meanings, namely, "dispersion," "distribution," "separation," and "differentiation," which are irrelevant in the context concerned.

Besides insufficient understanding of the source text, there is the problem of faulty use of the target language rules, which can be of different types, namely, at the syntactic and lexical levels. As Larson (1984) expresses it, "to do effective translation one must discover the *meaning* of the source language and use receptor language *forms* which express this meaning in a natural way" (p. 6). In fact, many linguistic weaknesses can be primitive errors that learners could easily avoid, yet they

often become a major hindrance to quality translation. Some of the errors might be harmless at the level of meaning transfer; however, overall text structure, including appropriate punctuation, is crucial to efficient rendition of the intended meaning. Neglect of the third-person "s" in the present simple tense, for instance, occurs not because of occasional moments of distraction, but rather systematically despite the fact that students have been dealing with it since their earliest contact with English grammar. Sometimes, it even occurs where it is not needed, that is, even in cases of verbs with plural subjects. Similarly, the problem of capitalization, which they started learning about much earlier in French classes, still represents a recurrent error even in the fifth and sixth semesters.

The upshot of this is that, instead of addressing serious translational difficulties and working on how to improve students' advanced translation skills and enhance their linguistic manipulations and stylistic formulations for a better reproduction of the target text, teachers are obliged to deal with basic linguistic errors. As Nord (2005) puts it, "if translation is taught too early, i.e., before the students have reached a sufficient command of language and culture, translation classes will degenerate into language acquisition classes without the students (or the teachers) even realising" (p. 30). This does not mean that translation should not be taught at the university level, but students should take translation (and other courses) more seriously to take optimum advantage of it. Teaching translation should help consolidate and upgrade undergraduates' competences; it is not supposed to serve as a method for second language acquisition, as used to be the case of the Grammar-Translation Method. Students' ability to recognize grammatical and ungrammatical sentences, in addition to their ability to ensure coherence and cohesion for a natural flow of ideas, should be acquired in other courses than translation, and they represent the basis for an effective comprehension of the source text and a proper use of the target language rules and conventions. These abilities in turn contribute to building up translation competence.

10.4 Impact of Students' Linguistic and Cultural Backgrounds on Their Renditions

In the Moroccan educational system, students start learning Standard Arabic and French in the primary school, whereas Moroccan Arabic and/or Tamazight are their mother tongues depending on regions. In other words, Morocco is a multilingual country, so the majority of students who reach higher education are multilingual (Ennaji, 2005). Consequently, undergraduates' linguistic performance displays various local and foreign influences; different languages and cultures impinge on one another, taking the form of transfer, borrowing, code-switching, or interference (Ennaji, 2005). As far as translation is concerned, there are multiple cases where such sources of influence interfere in students' writing habits and affect negatively the quality of their renditions.

From a linguistic perspective, students often imitate (Moroccan or Standard) Arabic or French formulations to express ideas in English. One type of difficulties is their imitation of structure and word order of Standard Arabic while writing in English. It takes time before learners understand (and many of them never do) that every language—despite some similarities—has its own way of arranging words in sentences and expressing ideas. As a matter of fact, cross-linguistic influences persist regardless of the semesters and levels of proficiency concerned not only as a normal consequence of multilingualism but also as a result of linguistic weaknesses. Among the cases showing the impact of French on students' use of English is their emulation of certain structures and expressions like the use of "to have" and "to be" as the equivalents of "avoir" and "être" without consideration of the English typical grammar rules and stylistic norms. It is common among many undergraduates to say, for instance, "I am/I am not agree" instead of "I/do not agree" because they are used to the French expression "je suis/je ne suis pas d'accord." In the same vein, some third-year students, while dealing with sentence-level translation, often use the sentence "I have twenty years," which is literally taken from the French sentence "J'ai vingt ans." Another illustration of language transfer emanates from French false friends like using "actually" for "currently," "notes" for "grades/marks," "sensible" for "sensitive," and "assist" for "attend." Prepositions also create confusion in students' writing, as is the case of "interested by," which students use instead of "interested in" or "pass by" instead of "go through" (e.g., a stressful experience) because they have in mind the French phrases "intéressé(e) par" and "passer par (e.g., des moments difficiles)."

A common error that shows Arabic influence on English even among fifth- and sixth-semester students is their imitation of the definite article "ال"(*al*), which is used in Arabic even for abstract, countable and uncountable nouns that are not defined. Thus, they use such terms as "the globalization" for "العولمة"(*al-'awlamah*), "the culture" for "الثقافة"(*al-thaqāfah*), "the illegal immigration" for "الهجرةُ السّريَّة"(*al-hijratu 'l-sirriyyah*), and "the birds (of a feather…)" for "الطيور (على أشكالها تقع)"(*al-ṭoyūru 'alā ashkālihā taqa'*). The influence also comes from French, where the articles "la" (e.g., "la culture") "le" (e.g., "le développement"), and "les" (e.g., les droits de l'homme) are used.

The impact of Arabic linguistic background on Moroccan undergraduates' English is also manifest in their use of prepositions. In spite of similarity in the use of some prepositions in English and Arabic like "to rely on" (يعتمد على; *ya'tamidu 'alā*) and "to lie/consist in" (يكمن في; *yakmunu fī*), many other cases represent pitfalls for many students who imitate Arabic while writing in English. Among the recurrent mistakes in this context are the use of "to contribute in" instead of "to contribute to" because the corresponding Arabic phrase is "يساهم في"(*yusāhimu fī*), and "in the same time" instead of "at the same time" because students have in mind the Arabic phrase "في نفس الوقت"(*fī nafsi 'l-waqt*). Another common error is the expression "From one side… from another side" to render the Arabic expression " "من جهة... و من جهة أخرى"" (*min jihah … wa min jihatin ukhrā*) while there is a ready-made formula that is used on a regular basis, which is "On the one hand… On the other hand.…"

Due to their inability or reluctance to analyze texts syntactically and semantically, students resort to literal translation. As Baker (1992) remarks, "translating words and phrases out of context is certainty a futile exercise" (p. 6), and it is more so when dealing with Arabic and English, which belong to two completely different language families. One of the big challenges with regard to Arabic is the fact that the meaning of a word changes in accordance with the diacritical modifications and case endings inserted, which depend on to the grammatical function or word class in a sentence. Another common feature of students' English target texts is their imitation of the Arabic sentence length; thus, they end up producing faulty constructions with repetition of similar connectors or subordinators and inappropriate punctuation. What is more, Arabic and English do not have the same number of tenses; while Arabic has only three tenses, in English they can be extended to a dozen if we consider all verb forms in accordance with the modals that accompany them. Therefore, translating from or into Arabic requires first a clear understanding of those tenses in order to grasp the type of action that is described, and then manage to find the corresponding formulation in the target text.

Another serious problem with regard to Arabic is that students do not check what the antecedent of an action is or what a pronoun modifies in a given sentence. This is all the more important because in Arabic, unlike in English, agreement rules should be observed in terms of not only number but also gender, considering at the same time whether human or non-human (non-rational) nouns are concerned. Another difficulty faced by students results from the fact that the Arabic suffix (attached pronoun) "ها"(*hā*) replaces both singular and plural non-human referents; consequently, they automatically render it by opting for the pronouns "it" or "its" even when "them," "they," or "their" is needed. Thus, they rendered the phrase "في جداول أعمالها"(*fī jadāwili a'mālihā*)—speaking of governments' agendas—as "in its agendas" instead of "in their agendas." Likewise, in another text where the noun phrase "Multinational corporations" is the subject, many students translated the sentence thus: "Multinational corporations are the first to blame as **it** controls…" because they automatically understood the Arabic phrase "لأنها تتحكم في..."(*li-annahā tataḥakkamu fī*) as though it referred to a singular subject. Regarding adjectives, for example, students often use masculine ones to describe feminine nouns as in "some 46.5% of women in the region are illiterate," where they used the masculine adjective "أمّيّون"(*ummiyyūn*) instead of the feminine "أُمّيّات"(*ummiyyāt*). In the same vein, many students fail to respect subject-verb agreement in Arabic; thus, they deal with non-human plural subjects as if they concerned humans, as in "الاحْصَاءاتُ يُبَيِّنُون..."(*al-iḥṣā'ātu yubayyinūna*) instead of "الاحْصَاءاتُ تُبَيِّن..."(*al-iḥṣā'ātu tubayyinu*), which means "statistics show…."

From a cultural perspective, such tendency to use the masculine in lieu of the feminine is also due to assumptions resulting from local cultural influences. As a result, the sentence the "UN human rights inspector" is translated as "مفتش الامم المتحدة لحقوق الانسان"although later in the text the pronoun "she" indicated that it was a woman. Another example of cultural influence is the use of the phrase "منذ عصر الجاهلية"("*mundhu 'aṣri 'l-jāhiliyah*" or "منذ ما قبل الاسلام"(*mundhu mā qabla 'l-islām*), both of which mean "since pre-Islamic times," but mistaken as the equivalents of the English phrase "since prehistoric times." In one of the texts, the phrase

"local infrastructure," which means "البنية التحتية المحلية"(*al-binyatu al-taḥtiyyatu al-maḥalliyyah*) was rendered as "محل البنية التحتية"(*maḥallu al-binyati al-taḥtiyyah*), presumably because in French, the word "local" also refers to a shop or a business office, which represents at the same time a case of language interference in Moroccan Arabic. As for the phrase "Arab states," which occurs in different texts, many students in different semesters unthinkingly render it as "الولايات العربية"(*al-wilāyātu 'l-'arabiyyah*). Because they are familiar with the appellations "الولايات المتحدة"in Arabic and "the United States" in English, they fail to realize that the word "state" also means "country" and therefore do not think of the right equivalent "الدول العربية"(*al-duwalu 'l-'arabiyyah*).

In brief, what students need to know is that the translator translates "the *function*, not the wording" of a text, to use Nord's (1997) terms, because the purpose of translation is faithful meaning transfer, which languages can express using their specific and respective grammar and idiom. Therefore, translation requires awareness of the intricate relationship between language and culture. "Since language is in large part a cultural practice, very good knowledge of the two languages in question implies also a high degree of general knowledge, or acquaintance with the two cultures" (Armstrong, 2005, p. 1). However, translation also necessitates preventing one's own culture from distorting the original author's ideas. As already explained, Moroccan students' linguistic weaknesses in English, which is their field of specialty, are disappointing and frustrating, while their command of Arabic is even lower in many cases, and they do not make any serious effort to improve it. What is more, they do not take seriously the Arabic courses they are assigned as part of the curriculum during the first two semesters to enhance their abilities and knowledge in this regard. Consequently, students' background knowledge, whether it is linguistic or cultural, remains one of the hindrances that prevent the improvement of students' translation skills.

10.5 Prevalence of ICT: A Threat Rather Than an Opportunity in Translation Classes

The two last centuries have witnessed a tidal wave of technological innovations that have increased learning opportunities and made instant access to information through mobility amazingly widespread. Among the fields that have benefited from such progress are education and the translation industry. Learners and translators can avail themselves of software, online dictionaries, translation websites, electronic databases, and a wide range of information sources to seek specific data or expand their general knowledge. However, technology is at the same time a double-edged weapon that has affected negatively academic performance as it has not only appallingly reduced independent thinking because of dependence on artificial memories but also engendered a fraudulent trend among students. Translation classes represent a concrete illustration of both of these drawbacks.

The English Studies Departments in Morocco prohibit the use of ICT because the translation software and other computer-based tools hinder rather than boost the learning process according to the designed curricula, and they are not concerned with the skills in which learners are examined. It is true that our students need to open up to opportunities offered by technology in order to endow themselves with up-to-date knowledge, but there are other contexts where they can acquire it. In institutions that prepare future translators, trainees need to be acquainted with such tools and enhance their performance in accordance with their course objectives; the translation industry, whose aim is to make maximum profit in this speedy, digitized world, needs appropriate skills, and expertise. Nonetheless, at the university level, excessive use of new technological devices leads to missing crucial learning opportunities; thus, to the translation teacher in particular, students' use of mobile devices represents a serious challenge, for they are incompatible with the planned classroom activities, teaching methodology, and expected learning outcomes of the course. After all, those devices are not resorted to by students based on their advantageous learning benefits, but rather because they match pretty well their trendy habits, offering them the most effortless, fastest, and shortest way to carry out tasks or answer exams questions. The translation examination is one of the rare cases where students are allowed to use print dictionaries to help them address translational difficulties, yet many among them will give up taking advantage of such precious opportunity and use instead whatever means fraudulently, heedless of the risks. Forbidden fruit is sweet, indeed. The other part of the challenge is that some web-based translators such as BabelFish, Google Translate, and Bing, translate not only single words and expressions but also whole texts, which is at the same time a violation of the regulations and the principle of equal opportunity, let alone the inaccuracy of the translations they provide.

Although instructors can use some task-based translation activities without dictionary as part of the teaching method to test students' linguistic and translational abilities, the use of dictionaries remains an unavoidable sub-skill that students need for academic (as well as for potential future professional) purposes. House (2000) maintains that combination of the use and non-use of dictionaries is a pedagogical method that helps make language learners and translation students "reach a heightened awareness of their own strategic potential in translating as well as force them to recognize the real limits of their linguistic-cultural knowledge and translational competence" (p. 159). She adds that "students should be made aware of the rich and rewarding possibilities of using dictionaries for testing hypotheses of various kinds that go far beyond using these aids as mere crutches for quick and superficial checking" (House, 2000, p. 159). The dictionary is a multi-purpose tool; it is a source of information that helps analyze the source text and compose the target text, providing different types of support, including the meaning or translation of single words and expressions, the significance of abbreviations and acronyms, or even idioms and proverbs, among others. It also helps students to double-check the correct spelling of words and verb forms, namely, simple past and past participle forms of irregular verbs, which represent major weaknesses in their linguistic performance. Nonetheless, students' attitude toward dictionary using is quite perplexing. While the teacher keeps warning them that it is part of the weaponry without which translation battles

cannot be won, especially because of their linguistic and lexical deficit, they prefer to do without it, and some of them even come to translation exams without it.

Of course, it should be understood that the use of the dictionary for translation purposes is not the same as its use for language learning per se. In other words, while ESL/EFL students resort to translation to understand the meaning of L2 words or as part of the vocabulary acquisition process, using the dictionary with a translation intention corresponds to a different context, with different methods and goals. Translation requires specific dictionary-using skills as part of a special kind of problem-solving activity. Efficient translation requires the ability to use the dictionary as a sub-skill that aims to find terms to be used as contextualized equivalents in the re-composition of the target text. This exercise can enhance the user's ability to discern successfully the appropriate equivalent among several suggestions offered by the dictionary. Ultimately, acquisition of new words comes as a by-product of the act of translating.

10.6 The Time Management Constraint

If the notions of time and timeliness are key requisites of professional translation, undergraduates' success in the translation course is also much dependent on their time management abilities. Nevertheless, this problem is one of the major causes of students' failure to carry out translation tasks within the amount of time allotted to them. Although instructors keep stressing the importance of good organization and time-saving procedures as decisive factors concerning students' performance not only during examinations but also as part of skill-building for their future careers, the question of time management remains a big challenge to cope with.

Testing time is the yardstick that reveals how time management represents a serious constraint concerning students' performance in translation examinations, which stems from several factors. As mentioned above, misconception of what translation is and lack of interest in the translation classes make students miss the opportunity to train themselves and improve their skills, including time management, through practical activities. Another cause is their reliance on electronic devices instead of print dictionaries although they are warned that it is a punishable behavior during exams. As a result, the use of smartphones, for example, often becomes rather disadvantageous as it is done stealthily, hastily and therefore unsuccessfully. Moreover, online dictionaries might fail to recognize the words looked up due to misspelling or they give suggestions from which students are unable to choose due to wrong contextualization of the terms concerned. Students might even be invited to click other links to access-related information, which leads to more search options, thus entrapping them into unnecessary labyrinthine hypertext meanders. The result is not only failure in finding the appropriate meaning of terms but also a seriously detrimental waste of time.

Time mismanagement also stems from students' misuse of paper dictionaries in the exam as a result of lack of prior practice. Dictionary using requires such subskills as jotting down lists of difficult terms, setting priorities and deciding on which ones need looking up, singling out the right equivalents according to context, and so forth, but all these steps necessitate prior careful reading of the text, to which many students do not devote sufficient time. Disorganization begins with their inability to find quickly enough the right order of the alphabet and the target entry corresponding to the words looked up. Worse still, students do not resort to the dictionary as a means of problem-solving; they rather make of it a permanently open book to look up almost every single word in the source text, which is time-consuming. In many cases, they already know some words with which they could write better texts, but their excessive reliance on the dictionary results in inappropriate equivalents and faulty constructions. A striking example in this respect is that sixth-semester students, in the final examination, failed to think of the word "Internet"—a term they undoubtedly use on a daily basis in English, French, and Moroccan Arabic—as the equivalent of the Standard Arabic phrase "شبكة المعلومات الدولية"(*shabakatu 'l-ma'lūmāti 'l-duwaliyyah*). Instead, they chose to translate it literally as "the international information net/network" or "the international world web," without realizing that the latter phrase comprises two equivalents for the same source word. Another instance is their translation of "الجامعة العربية"(*al-jāmi'atu 'l-'arabiyyah*), which is "the Arab League," rendered by some students as "الرابطة العربية"(*al-rābiṭatu 'l-'arabiyyah*), and as "العصبة العربية"(*al-'oṣbatu 'l-'arabiyyah*) by others, simply because the dictionary meaning suggests the words "رابطة"(*rābiṭah*) and "عصبة"(*'oṣbah*) as equivalents of the word "league." Similarly, for the word "الحضارات"(*al-ḥaḍārāt*), one student chose, among all the possibilities provided by the dictionary, the word "refinements" instead of "civilizations," which they could certainly have used without resorting to the dictionary.

Consequently, time elapses and examinees fail to produce adequate translated texts. More often than not, while the invigilator is asking them to submit their answer sheets, they are still grappling with the dictionary pages to find what they think are the searched equivalents. Of course, at such moments of extreme pressure it is very unlikely to have the necessary concentration to use the dictionary efficiently. In such stressful conditions, the result is unavoidably an unfinished or a bad quality product, as the text has not been proofread, and therefore left full of uncorrected errors. In many cases, even those who manage to provide an acceptable translation leave a bad, often hardly decipherable handwriting, sometimes with unfinished words, which again results in a negative reaction of the corrector.

10.7 Recommendations and Suggested Solutions

Translation is associated with globalization in the sense that it facilitates global communication, information sharing, and bridging the gap between peoples, cultures, and civilizations. According to Snell-Hornby (2006),

> Translation Studies opens up new perspectives from which other disciplines—or more especially the world around—might well benefit. It is concerned, not with languages, objects, or cultures as such, but with communication across cultures, which does not merely consist of the sum of all factors involved. (pp. 150–51)

This ought to be a sufficient reason to persuade undergraduates to take translation more seriously. Learners of translation need to be sensitized to the fact that this multidisciplinary area of study and research is not limited to the classroom and exam texts, with the aim of merely achieving short-term goals that consist in completing the module concerned and then graduating. Translation can concern documents relating to all aspects of life and satisfy the needs of different parties in this globalized world of ours, ranging from books about any discipline, reports, advertisements, to the smallest documents like brochures, posters, and even business cards. Therefore, students should understand that they are acquiring knowledge and skills to arm themselves with efficient and practical tools enabling them to cope with medium- and long-term objectives and situations pertaining to higher studies and even professional life.

As already explained above, collaborative work encourages students to take part in task-based translation activities. Although it only involves a limited number of students for the time being, it represents a promising model that can, over time, lead to positive results. Many specialists suggest interactive pedagogy in the classroom as a solution for a more effective teaching of translation. Nida (2001) believes that "students usually pay much more attention to the judgments of school mates than to teachers, and different judgments can form the basis for realistic evaluation of principles" (p. 105). Interaction in translation classes galvanizes students into action and entices even shy and reluctant ones into becoming active members in the learning process. Thus, it increases learners' interest, develops their interpersonal skills, and promotes what Kiraly (2014) calls "learner empowerment." Kiraly (2014) argues that task-based activities reinforce student-centered rather than teacher-centered methodology, suggesting that "teachers should serve as guides, consultants and assistants" who accompany learners in their quasi-independent learning process (p. 18). It is true that the current Moroccan university context is not appropriate to its implementation due to large group size, but this essential tenet of the constructivist approach to translation teaching remains a positive factor likely to contribute to changing attitudes. It is also true that, in the current state of affairs, even the fifth- and sixth-semester students (who are just about to graduate) are not reliable as independent learners, but by raising their awareness and focusing on students with good potential, efforts will be rewarding in the long run.

Moreover, interest in translation can encourage students to give more importance to language learning and relevant disciplines. In line with this strategy, teachers of all subjects should encourage reading to help students broaden their knowledge and enrich their vocabulary, which increases efficiency of their translation work. At the same time, this can help curb addiction to ICTs among undergraduates, which represent one of the main factors that impoverish their knowledge and abilities. At the same time, translation instructors should vary the text types dealt with in the classroom (economic, legal, journalistic, business, and tourism themes, among others).

Although they do not primarily train would-be translators, they should provide students with the necessary translation techniques and strategies they might need for their future studies and research, professional life, or any other relevant purposes. It is equally important to keep reminding students of the usefulness of other courses where they learn grammar rules, writing skills, syntactic, and morphological features of language, as well as world cultures and literature, which can boost their translation competence. The role of the English departments can be more efficient in this regard by attaching more importance to Standard Arabic and encouraging students to learn its rules, style, and culture, a measure that would help them gain more proficiency in terms of translation.

Collaboration should also be more often adopted as a strategy among translation teachers, sharing perspectives, and findings about translation, which Kiraly (2014) refers to as "a participatory form of action research" (p. 101). This includes compiling translation textbooks that would help learners have a clearer perception of what translation is and what materials the syllabus comprises. In the absence of textbooks, instructors make enormous personal efforts in order to afford teaching materials for translation classes, which they have to adapt to different levels, from initiation of third-semester students to translation to the rather advanced course designed for the sixth semester. Likewise, language Departments (Departments of English, Arabic, French, and even other languages) are called upon to encourage students to have an interest in translation. The decision taken recently by the Faculty of Letters in Rabat to launch in the forthcoming years a new track in view of specializing in applied foreign languages and focusing on translation is undoubtedly a praiseworthy initiative, which should encourage more collaboration among the different Departments concerned. Departments should work on a project that enhances students' motivation and fosters the sense of competition among them, namely, by organizing translation contests to sensitize students to the importance of learning languages and translation.

10.8 Conclusion

This paper has attempted to highlight some hindrances that lead to failure in achieving objectives of the translation course designed for students at the Moroccan departments of English. From the data provided above, it appears that teaching translation faces a multifarious problem; however, the difficulties pointed out are most of the time surmountable, for the common cause is misconception regarding the course concerned, higher education and learning in general. Therefore, students need first to be aware of the value of translation and conceive of it not as a course whose only objective is a pass grade, but rather as a context for building up skills and increasing chances to succeed both academically and professionally. Secondly, learners need to change their attitude toward other courses than translation and become more aware of their interrelatedness. The third point is that undergraduates need to become more autonomous and more mature with respect to their future responsibilities. Only then

could instructors address thornier problems than rudimentary issues and focus on greater expectations in terms of translation competence.

Translation is gaining considerable importance in the current world as it contributes to global communication, information sharing and knowledge transfer, and exchanges between peoples of different tongues and cultures, but unfortunately, this does not prompt proportional awareness among Moroccan students. Rehabilitation of translation at the Moroccan university can benefit both academic and pragmatic purposes. Although the English departments' mission does not consist in preparing future professional translators per see, they are expected to play a decisive role in endowing students with effective knowledge and know-how that can contribute to enhancing graduates' employability. Finally, learning about translation and practicing it develop students' competences at more than one level. They boost their abilities in terms of in-depth reading and analysis, composing, critical thinking, and cross-cultural awareness, and it serves as a promising field for advanced study and research.

References

Armstrong, N. (2005). *Translation, linguistics, culture: A French–English handbook*. Clevedon, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Baker, M. (1992). *In other words: A coursebook on translation*. London, United Kingdom: Routeledge.

Catford, J. C. (1965). *A linguistic theory of translation: An essay in applied linguistics*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.

Ennaji, M. (2005). *Multilingualism, cultural identity, and education in Morocco*. New York, NY: Springer.

House, J. (2000). Consciousness and the strategic use of aids in translation. In S. Tirkkonen-Condit & R. Jääskeläinen (Eds.), *Tapping and mapping the process of translation: Outlooks on empirical research* (pp. 149–162). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Kiraly, D. C. (2014). *A social constructivist approach to translator education: Empowerment from theory to practice*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.

Larson, M. L. (1984). *Meaning-based translation: A guide to cross-language equivalence*. Lanham, MD: University Press of America.

Nida, E. A. (2001). *Contexts in translating*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Nord, C. (1997). *Translating as a purposeful activity: Functional approaches explained*. Manchester, United Kingdom: St. Jerome Publishing.

Nord, C. (2005). Training functional translators. In Martha Tennent (Ed.), *Training for the new millenium: Pedagogies for translation and interpreting*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Snell-Hornby, M. (2006). *The turns of translation studies: New paradigms or shifting viewpoints?*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Abderrazak Gharafi first studied English language and literature at Mohammed I University, Oujda, Morocco. He received his B.A. Degree in 1988. Afterwards, he obtained the postgraduate degree, D.E.A. (Diplôme d'Etudes Approfondies), and a doctorate in Eighteenth-Century English

Literature (1996) from Sorbonne Nouvelle University, Paris, France. He worked as a senior civil servant at the Ministry of Tourism in Rabat (Committee in charge of continuing education for teachers of English at the Ministry's Hotel and Tourism Schools). Currently, he is Associate Professor of English literature and translation at the Department of English Language and Literature at Mohammed V University in Rabat, where he also served as chair of the Department. His key areas of interest and research include English literature, Translation studies (Quran Translation, Literary Translation, Culture, and Translation), and Tourism.

Chapter 11
Final Year Research Supervision in the English Department: Attributes, Challenges, and Supervisory Practices

Ikbal Zeddari

Abstract Final year undergraduate dissertations offer students an integrative learning experience to cap off their educational journey. In the light of an emerging body of literature that documents how both students and supervisors undergo the experience nationally and internationally, this chapter reports on a study, investigating supervisors' experiences with this graduation requirement in English departments in Morocco. A questionnaire was sent to faculty members in various departments. The final sample included 30 supervisors from 10 different Faculties of letters and humanities across the country. The results revealed the attributes of good undergraduate researchers and supervisors, but the conceptual and methodological problems that students face point to their lack of preparedness for research. The supervisors' responses also reflected a supervisory relationship, marked by a high degree of structure. In the backdrop of these findings, the chapter advances the argument that the final year dissertation is a milestone in the English Studies License Programs. However, its benefits are constrained by macro-level and structural barriers that relate to Moroccan higher education in general.

Keywords Final year dissertation · Undergraduate research supervision · English Studies in Morocco

11.1 Introduction

Final Year projects and dissertations have become characteristic of most Bachelor programs worldwide in an attempt to offer students an independent learning experience that would ease their transition to the workplace or to postgraduate studies (Marshall, 2009). In the US context, for example, The Boyer Commission Report (1998) recommends that all undergraduate programs "culminate with a capstone experience" for students to "utilize to the full the research and communication skills learned in the previous years." In the European Higher Education Area (EHEA), the

I. Zeddari (✉)
Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: ikbal.zeddari@um5.ac.ma; ikbal.zeddari@yahoo.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_11

Bologna Process similarly attempts to generalize such research experiences at all levels of higher education across Europe to promote students' participation in research and development (Bologna Working Group, 2005; European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, 2009). Recently, undergraduate Research skills and experiences also have figured in many national qualification frameworks (see National Qualifications Authority, 2012 for The UAE; QAA, 2013 for the UK; Australian Qualifications Framework Council 2013 for Australia, and Enic-Naric 2018 for a comparative overview of frameworks in Europe and North America). In the absence of such national frameworks, final year research experiences may be required by the local accreditation pedagogical norms as is the case in Moroccan higher education, the context of the present study.

The present study investigates supervisors' perceptions of how students' personal and academic profiles affect their final year research experience. A second objective is to document their supervisory practices to align the supervisors' perceptions and experiences with the student researchers' experiences in the literature especially in the Moroccan context. In the backdrop of this, the study will attempt to determine the extent to which the existing forms of seminar provision fulfill the potential of the investment of both candidates on the two ends of the supervision process: the student researcher and the supervisor.

This chapter is structured as follows. After an introduction, Sect. 11.2 presents the status of final year undergraduate research in the international literature before moving to a discussion of the way it is conceptualized in Moroccan higher education in Sect. 11.3. Then, the variation in the pedagogical provision of this graduation requirement is presented in Sect. 11.4. After a discussion of the opportunities and constraints, characterizing the research experience in Sect. 11.4, the last section in the review outlines a supervisory model that takes into consideration both the supervisor and the student. With the description of the methodology adopted in Sect. 11.7, the chapter proceeds in Sect. 11.8 to a detailed presentation of the results (Sect. 11.8). A discussion of the major findings ensued based on the literature presented in the conceptual and empirical part as well as the researcher's reflective practice as an undergraduate supervisor.

11.2 Final Year Undergraduate Research

Research supervision has its roots in postgraduate education as a well-established form of teaching with clear and well-documented supervisory expectations, practices, and outcomes (Green & Lee, 1995). However, the integration of research experiences in undergraduate programs has shifted the traditional form of the postgraduate dissertation into a variety of pedagogical provision forms, among which the undergraduate dissertation still takes center stage. Such experiences have variously been referred to as capstone projects, extended essays, senior projects, projects by independent study, etc., all reflecting their culminating nature. In an international survey of 70 institutions, offering senior undergraduate research, Healey, Lannin, Stibbe,

and Derounian (2013) captured the diversity of this research requirement with the label Final Year Projects and Dissertations (FYPD). In the context of The Moroccan context of the present study, the end-of-studies project course title, a French calque, is currently in use. It is suggested here though that the FYPD appellation offers a better alternative. Not only does it do without the unnecessary French loan translation of the label "*projet de fin d'étude*," but it allows an understanding of the existing forms of provision, and remains open to more innovative and diversified forms to enhance the personal, academic, and professional relevance of this requirement for twenty-first-century graduates (Hill, Kneale, Nicholson, Waddington, & Ray, 2011).

To ensure this diversity and pedagogical alignment, the final year research requirement may vary in its conception, function, organization, location, and nature of outputs. However, as noted in Todd, Bannister, and Clegg (2004), key defining characteristics crosscut all final year projects as they involve the graduating student in a prolonged independent research project of their own choosing, which they investigate individually with tutor support. Such projects generally involve the collection and analysis of primary or secondary data. They, thus, offer an "acid test" for students to synthesize their prior learning (Healey et al., 2013) and "a rite of passage" to demonstrate their readiness for graduation (Kardash, 2000; Schermer & Gray, 2012). It is in fact, the gold standard and the yardstick against which the whole undergraduate program can be evaluated (Bertheide, 2007).

When FYPD's are thoughtfully integrated into the undergraduate curriculum, they empower the student researchers personally, academically, and professionally (Marshall, 2009). They offer students the opportunity to gain new knowledge and skills as they engage in the synthesis of knowledge gained earlier (Henscheid, 2000; Lee & Loton, 2016; McNamara et al., 2011) in an integrative and expansive learning experience (Starr-Glass, 2010; Stephen, Parente, & Brown, 2002). They also boost students' capability in employability skills: communication, self-management, project management, decision-making, creativity, critical thinking, and collaborative problem-solving (Durel, 1993; Keller, Parker, & Chan, 2011; McNamara et al., 2012; Schermer & Gray, 2012). Similarly, a program with a strong undergraduate research experience also highlights the development of autonomy, responsibility, resilience, and self-confidence (Camenga, 2013; Dunlap, 2005; Henscheid, 2000; McNamara et al., 2011). Lee and Loton (2019) further identified an affective component whereby students feel pride, interest, agency, and enjoyment of their research experience. Overall, undergraduate research is conceptualized as a preparation for the next stage in the student journey either as a postgraduate researcher (Hauhart & Grahe, 2012; Schermer & Gray, 2012) or as a candidate in a highly competitive job market (Bailey, van Acker, & Fyffe, 2012; Metcalf, 2010).

11.3 Final Year Projects and Dissertations in Moroccan Higher Education

The final year research experience is a requirement of all senior undergraduate students in Morocco. The LMD (License Master Doctorat) system introduced in 2003 marked mostly a change of label by changing the title from the License Monograph to the End-of-studies Project. The major architectural change was the move toward a modular six-semester organization of pedagogical provision in an attempt to align with the Bologna Process. Within this system, the National Pedagogical Norms (ENSSUP, 2014) require that any License Track, a B.A. level degree, offer either a tutored dissertation or project, depending on the nature of the discipline concerned. The track's Norms (FL3 and FL4) stipulate that the students write a research report individually or in groups, which may potentially be defended before a second examiner. In terms of weighting, the pedagogical norms note that this research requirement equals two standard modules, but in the absence of a credit allocation system, this remains superfluous in practice. Considering the short time frame of a single semester, the final year research experience may be initiated in the fifth semester in a stand-alone course.

The accreditation of degree programs is the responsibility of the Ministry of higher education, Scientific Research and Vocational Training. Recently, The National Agency for Assessment and Quality Assurance in Higher Education and Scientific Research (ANEAQ) was established to ensure independent review of higher education programs for accreditation. However, in the absence of a national qualifications framework, "focusing on what a holder of a qualification is expected to know, be able to do and understand [across] all levels and types of qualifications" (Cedefop, 2018), the review process is largely restricted to a mere check for conformity with the architectural guidelines in the National Pedagogical Norms. Consequently, the final year research requirement remains loosely defined in terms of learning outcomes, supervisory practices, and assessment procedures.

In practical terms, the learning outcomes are defined at the program level. Students are generally allocated to the seminar of their choice on a first-come-first-served basis. The time frame allocated to the research experience varies across institutions, spanning over one or two semesters. At Mohamed V University in Rabat, for example, students take a preliminary seminar course (ESP1) in their fifth semester that culminates in an interim report in the form of a research proposal while they conduct and report on the research properly in a subsequent module (ESP2) in their sixth semester. Despite recurrent complaints about students' lack of preparedness and high student-supervisor ratios, previous research indicates that both supervisors and students acknowledge the overall benefits of this requirement, especially for the students (Bellout, 1996; Bouzenirh, 1997; Erguig, 2009; Laalou, 2017; Zeddari, 2016b, 2018).

11.4 Pedagogical Provision of Final Year Undergraduate Research

The literature on undergraduate supervision shows that the status of this requirement is highly constrained by its higher education context. In the UK, for example, the undergraduate dissertation is traditionally used to distinguish Honours degrees while in other contexts it is mandatory for all graduating students. Healey et al. (2013) also note differences in terms of the dissertation's weighting, size, and time-allocation. The weighting of this module varies considerably, reaching 20 credits, the equivalent of 17% of the final year. In some institutions, it may go up to 40 credits, a third of the final year credits (Feather, Anchor, & Cowton, 2014). In terms of size, the word limit ranges from 5000 to more than its double. Likewise, the research experience may as well be limited to only the final semester or may span over the whole senior year and students may be required to invest up to two-hundred hours of "self-managed time" in their dissertation work (Todd et al., 2006). Finally, the mode of supervision also varies from brief fifteen-minute one-to-one sessions to longer one-hour group supervision meetings and can be either on-site or online (Baker et al., 2014; Healey et al., 2013).

Despite the potential merits of the final year project, it has to be pedagogically designed as a realistic and relevant graduation requirement. The "process [of preparing a dissertation] is arduous, problematic and time-consuming for both student and supervisor assigned to accompany the student on the journey" (McMichael, 1993, p. 15). Therefore, to make sure that the students safely reach their destination as well as enjoy their journey, it is very important to have a clear idea about the scope, the focus of the project as well as its status within the curriculum. One key question relates to the extent to which research seminars build on knowledge and skills developed in other courses. In a survey of undergraduate supervisors, Lee and Loton (2019), for instance, found out that the acquisition of knowledge was accorded the least importance in line with previous research that documented a negative view toward the acquisition of new knowledge in final year projects (e.g., Van Acker et al., 2013). In a similar vein, Rowley and Slack (2004) noted that institutions should not offer the undergraduate dissertation as "a unique opportunity for independent learning" but should build instead on writing, referencing and other information skills that the student has developed earlier in their studies. In similar studies within the EFL context of the present study, Zeddari (2016b, 2018) described the final year project as "a late assignment," "a parachute jump" that the students have to survive the first time, suggesting that research skills have to be integrated within an inquiry-oriented curriculum as early as possible.

11.5 Undergraduate Research Experience: Opportunities and Constraints

Previous research with students reveals both positive and negative experiences with final year research. On the bright side, students appreciate the increased autonomy and support they receive from their supervisors in an authentic research experience. Their benefits from the experience are maximized when they are involved in a supportive supervisory relationship in which the supervisor directs their learning, especially when the students and supervisors' interests are well aligned (Roberts & Seaman, 2018; Todd et al., 2004). Compared to students taking electives, final year dissertation students develop more knowledge, synthesis, and integration skills, and make a more successful transition to postgraduate studies or the workplace. They also hone their self-reflection on their learning and future plans, and more importantly construct a holistic learning experience, drawing links between different courses and their dissertation (Henscheid, 2000; Thomas, Wong, & Li, 2014).

On a negative note, undergraduate dissertation students may feel uncertain about their research and skills (Roberts & Seaman, 2018; Todd et al., 2004) and voice their concern about the lack of relevance of their research to the demands of the workplace (Kavanagh & Drennan, 2008; Thomas et al., 2014). Other problems include lack of resources, lack of preparedness, time-management, and inadequate expectations appraisal (Harrison & Whalley, 2008; Malcolm, 2012). As a result, students may end up with negative evaluation of the supervision they receive (Vera & Briones, 2015).

Most of the research reviewed above involves English native speakers in English-medium universities in their home countries (e.g., UK, USA, and Australia). Buckley (2013) noted that the problems international students face are aggravated due to their Narrow English Proficiency (NEP) as international students tend to have weaker speaking and writing skills (Braine, 2002; Paltridge & Starfield, 2007). They also tend to suffer from enculturation problems and their understanding of supervision requirements may be rooted in a different educational philosophy (Cadman, 2005). Donnelly, Dallat, and Fitzmaurice (2013) listed more "academic roadblocks" for international students. In addition to the language-related problems, they added to the list a lack of conceptual preparedness, poor analytical skills, planning, time-management, self-regulation, and research ethics.

In a foreign language context, Zeddari (2016b) investigated the perceived benefits and challenges Moroccan students, majoring in English studies, had in their final year dissertation. The researcher concluded that the students acquired a myriad of skills, ranging from language skills to advanced research skills. They also affectively related to the research project and felt a sense of ownership, pride, and satisfaction toward both the process and the product of their research. They even perceived their senior year experience as "a rite of passage" that opened up their horizons to the world of research. All these results echo the purpose and gains of the final year projects and dissertations in the international literature. However, Moroccan students also had their share of the problems that constrained their research process. They tended to find it difficult to understand and conform to the supervisor's expectations and

perspective. Research skills such as narrowing down the topic, understanding the literature, and evaluating its credibility also proved to be a source of confusion. Students were also held back by their procrastination tendencies, research anxiety, and poor academic writing skills.

In a similar study, involving non-native senior students, Adamson, Coulson, and Fujimoto (2019) investigated the writing phase of the undergraduate dissertation to inform the supervisory practices most effective at this stage. While it is acknowledged that EFL writers are at a disadvantage at this stage compared to L1 writers, the results indicate that foreign language learners' autonomy may be enhanced if feedback goes beyond "editorial marking" (Bitchener, 2018) and focuses on the development of agency and metacognitive awareness. Within a translanguaging framework, the researchers distinguish between preliminary advice before the students start the writing-up and feedback on the actual drafts. They, therefore, recommend scaffolding the students' writing through bilingual discussions, direct corrective and metalinguistic feedback, and mind-mapping.

11.6 Toward an Undergraduate Supervisory Model

The discussion so far has presented the undergraduate dissertation, as both an opportunity and a constraint, especially for non-native dissertation students. The current section will try to outline an undergraduate supervisory model which takes into consideration both the supervisor and supervisee.

The potential roles undergraduate supervisors assume are not lacking in the literature. Rowley and Slack (2004), for example, described the undergraduate supervisor as the subject expert who provided the students with easy access to the literature on the topic as well as to the research context. The supervisor also assumed the role of a mentor who supported novice researchers to navigate the research process with both reflection and realistic pragmatism, providing advice on research methodology. In the final phase, he assisted with the planning drafting and editing of the dissertation.

In fulfilling these roles, supervisors need to opt for the right supervisory style for the task and the student concerned. Anderson (1988) outlines four supervisory styles that vary in the supervisor's degree of directness and involvement, as supervisors need to strike the right balance between structure and autonomy for students to develop independent research skills. Supervisors can adopt a direct active supervision style, dictating every move or canvass opinions and invite the student to consider alternatives in an indirectly active style. On the passivity continuum, the supervisor may leave students solve their own problems with a little or no input. Jamieson and Gray (2006) admitted that while an indirect active style was well-received by their respondents who were used to an active inquiry-based pedagogy, other students experiencing independent research for the first time may prefer a more directive style. In practice, these roles and styles are constrained by a complex supervisor-supervisee relationship. The literature points to a conflict in this relationship due to the expectations of both the supervisors and supervisees whose perceptions need

to be integrated within a supervision model for undergraduate dissertation. This interdependent supervision relationship is likened to a "partnership or 'dance' [that] may become fluent and purposeful … or may stumble" (Derounian, 2011).

Jamieson and Gray (2006) observed that there is an overall match between the expectations of the supervisors and supervisees in their study. Their respondents acknowledged the role of the supervisor's expertise in the topic and research methodology, his availability, interest, and feedback, especially in the writing-up stage. Supervisors further accorded high priority to monitoring students' performance and providing individualized assistance while promoting their reflection and autonomy. This echoed the results of Stefani, Tariq, Heylings, and Butcher (1997), which highlighted guidance as a key supervision responsibility. More recently, Roberts (2015) also documented marked similarities between the supervisors' and students' expectations. However, supervisors demonstrated a more instrumental orientation while the students were more concerned about affective aspects of supervision. These mismatches can be reduced if undergraduate supervision is viewed as a negotiated practice between supervisor and student throughout the research process (Bui, 2014; Friedrick-Nel and Mackinnon, 2013; Spear, 2000; Wisker, 2009).

11.7 Methodology

The present study investigates the final year undergraduate experience from the supervisor's perspective. It explores the attributes, constraints, and supervisory practices, characterizing this graduation requirement in the English studies B.A. program in English Departments in Morocco. To reach this objective, the three questions outlined below guided the investigation.

Research Questions:

1. What are the attributes of good undergraduate researchers and supervisors?
2. What student-related factors affect the students' research experience?
3. What supervisory practices do undergraduate supervisors adopt in their final year seminars?

The sample involved 30 participants from 10 different higher education institutions across Morocco. The respondents varied in their field of expertise (e.g., Linguistics (9), Applied Linguistics (9), Literature (6), Cultural studies (4), Education (2). This variation in the respondents' field of expertise reflects the status of English studies as a hybrid discipline, moving from its traditional focus on literature and linguistics to more applied aspects. As the graphs below display, faculty of all academic ranks and years of experience are involved in undergraduate supervision with almost as many assistant professors as senior professors. As years of undergraduate supervision experience strongly correlate with academic rank, full professors

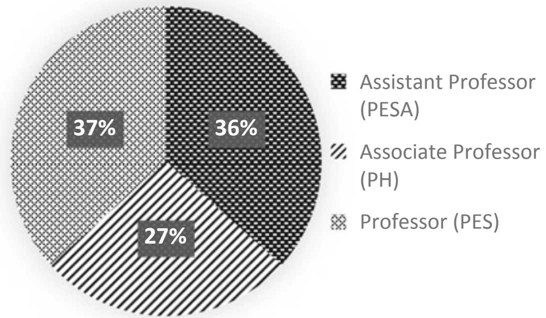

Fig. 11.1 Respondents' academic rank

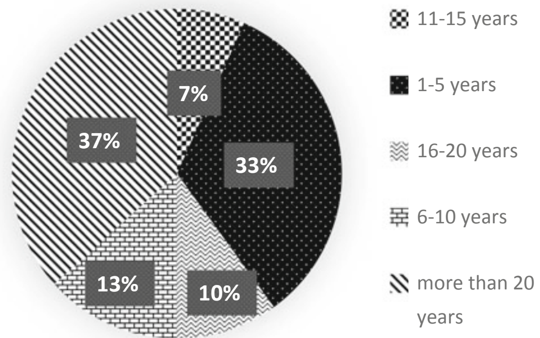

Fig. 11.2 Respondents' undergraduate supervision experience

and Associate professors generally come to the task equipped with longer years of experience compared to the assistant professors (Figs. 11.1 and 11.2).

Within a larger project on undergraduate supervision, an online questionnaire was disseminated by email to faculty members in different English departments in Morocco, who willingly participated in the study. They were informed that their responses would remain confidential at all stages of the research project. Zeddari (2018) reported on the status of the senior undergraduate research requirement, the process and product of undergraduate supervision mainly based on the supervisors' open-ended responses. This chapter reports on the quantitative part, highlighting the attributes, constraints, and supervisory practices. The data will be reported only in aggregate form so that individuals cannot be identified from the statistical results. With the help of Microsoft Excel statistical tool, the data is analyzed using descriptive statistics, to the presentation of which we turn next.

11.8 Results

This section presents the results of the quantitative analysis. The presentation of the results follows the order of the research questions that animated the study. Section 11.8.1 starts with the attributes of good undergraduate student researchers and supervisors. Then, the supervisors' perceptions of how students' profiles affect their research experience are outlined in Sect. 11.8.2. Finally, Sect. 11.8.3 turns to the issue of supervisory practices.

11.8.1 Attributes of Good Undergraduate Researchers and Supervisors

To understand the ingredients of a good supervisory relationship, this study first focused on students' and supervisors' attributes. The respondents were asked to list the attributes of good final year researchers and supervisors. The respondents' accounts were later subjected to a content analysis to identify the major recurrent attributes. The pattern that emerged distinguished the supervisors' conception of their role in the supervision process from the role of the student researcher. To start with, Table 11.1 presents the attributes of good undergraduate researchers.

The respondents described the good undergraduate researcher with a host of positive qualifications, ranging over both academic and personal attributes. On top of the list were the students' advanced linguistic competence and hard work ethic. Both qualities are necessary to undertake research. Responsiveness to feedback was also frequently cited. An undergraduate researcher was described as someone who "understands the feedback provided by the supervisor and takes it into consideration." It is "Someone who heeds his/her supervisor's suggestions" and instructions and takes them seriously. Given the extended and independent nature of the undergraduate research experience, good final year researchers were expected to be committed and self-regulated to see their research through completion. Other personal qualities involved punctuality, resilience, curiosity, and ambition. On the academic plane, analytical skills, critical thinking, research awareness, and research ethics emerged with relatively lower frequency. Finally, the supervisors did not expect researchers to be original, or to demonstrate field-related knowledge and expertise nor passion for research.

The results on the effective supervisor's attributes highlighted the crucial role that the supervisor plays in supervising undergraduate dissertations. The results are summarized in Table 11.2.

Permeating the respondents' accounts is the undergraduate supervisor's role as "a guide," "an advisor," and "a knowledgeable expert," who is himself or herself "a researcher." It is no wonder that a guidance orientation dominated the list of top ranked attributes. To the supervisors surveyed, effective supervision involved a dual focus on "both the process and the product of the research," as well as a

Table 11.1 Good undergraduate researchers' attributes

Student attribute	Frequency
Linguistic competence	9
Hard work	9
Responsiveness	8
Self-regulation	6
Commitment	5
Punctuality	4
Analytical skills	4
Research ethics	4
Research awareness	3
Ambition	3
Curiosity	3
Seriousness	3
Resilience	3
Critical thinking	3
Passion	1
Originality	1
Computer skills	1
Knowledge	1

Table 11.2 Good undergraduate supervisors' attributes

Supervisor attributes	Frequency
Guidance	14
Expertise	9
Responsiveness	8
Commitment	8
Patience	5
Organization	4
Seriousness	4
Resourcefulness	3
Availability	2
Hard work	2
Punctuality	1
Strong will	1
Communication	1
Passion	1

close emphasis on the form and the content of the research paper. This focus indicates the huge amount of guidance, which undergraduate students need in their first research experience. The supervisors' personal qualities mentioned also highlighted the instrumental role of the supervisor. Such attributes included responsiveness to students' needs through the provision of timely and constructive feedback, commitment, patience, seriousness, organization, and resourcefulness. Considering the attribute profiles of both parties, it seems that the final year dissertation is a colossal task, whose completion is largely dependent on the "consistency between supervisor and supervisee's understanding of what the tasks of each of them respectively are" as one respondent put it.

11.8.2 Final Year Students Profiles: Opportunities and Constraints

As discussed in Sect. 11.5 above, despite the potential the final year research experience holds, supervisors often complain about the lack of students' preparedness for independent research. To determine the supervisors' perceptions of students' difficulties, the respondents judged the extent to which various aspects of students' profile affect their performance on their dissertations. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 11.3.

In line with the results on good undergraduate attributes, Table 11.3 shows that 84% of the respondents totally agreed that the students were held back by their poor command of English, especially their writing skills. Also, 71% totally agreed that students lacked the necessary analytical skills while 68% attributed students' negative performance to their poor academic profile, more generally. Lack of conceptual preparedness and prior research experience were also major roadblocks on the undergraduate's way to research. Considering the percentage of the respondents who somewhat agreed with these impediments further clarifies the seriousness of the problem. These results corroborate previous research findings on the difficulties foreign language learners face in undergraduate research (Adamson et al., 2019; Zeddari 2016a, 2016b).

The literature suggests that successful completion of the undergraduate dissertation is dependent on how much structure and autonomy characterizes the supervision relationship. Generally, supervisors strike a balance between these two extremes based on their conception of effective supervision and their expectations of the students. To complement the perspective gained from the students' and supervisors' profiles, the respondents surveyed stated the extent to which they agreed or disagreed that self-regulation, motivation, planning, and adequate supervision could affect the students' performance on their final year dissertation. Table 11.4 displays the results below.

From the supervisors' perspective, students' predisposition to work independently seemed to matter as much as adequate supervision. Considering the respondents who

Table 11.3 Aspects of students' profiles negatively affecting their performance on their final year projects

What aspects of students' profiles negatively affect their performance on their final year projects?	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Undecided	Somewhat agree	Totally agree	Total
Poor command of English	6	0	0	10	84	100
Poor writing skills	6	0	0	10	84	100
Poor analytical skills	3	10	0	16	71	100
Poor academic profile	6	3	3	19	68	100
Lack of conceptual preparation	6	10	3	23	58	100
Lack of prior research experience	10	10	0	23	58	100

Table 11.4 Factors affecting students' performance on their final year dissertation

	Strongly agree	Somewhat agree	Undecided	Somewhat disagree	Strongly disagree
Self-regulation	52	22	0	16	6
Motivation	48	39	0	3	10
Planning	48	16	0	13	6
Adequate supervision	42	35	0	0	6

either strongly or somewhat agreed with the relevant questionnaire items, motivation was deemed important with a high percentage 84%, followed by adequate supervision 77%. Self-regulation was also judged important with a 74% response rate, and students' planning skills 64%. However, looking at the negative extreme of the response scale, only a few respondents did not attribute students' performance to adequate supervision while self-regulation, motivation, and planning received disagreement rates, ranging from 22 to 13%. Taken together, both the agreement and the disagreement trends point to the role of the students' autonomy in the undergraduate research experience, but reveal as well the need for a high level of structure on the part of the undergraduate supervisor (Table 11.5).

From their perspective as supervisors, the respondents identified the challenges that they perceived as most problematic to the undergraduate researcher. On top of the list were research methodology skills and research ethics. Information search skills such as locating relevant literature were perceived as more challenging than information literacy skills and information overload. This contrasted with student perceptions documented in previous research, which revealed that students had more difficulty, evaluating the credibility of sources and dealing with information processing issues compared to locating sources, especially online (Zeddari, 2016a, 2016b). Identifying a researchable topic and narrowing down the research questions were judged difficult at lower, but still considerable rates of 45% and 42%, respectively. The lowest rate (39%) was accorded to understanding the supervisor's expectations.

11.8.3 Supervisory Practices Among Undergraduate Supervisors

The most frequent supervisory practices adopted by supervisors reflect their conception of their role as resourceful advisors and knowledgeable experts, providing an access point to research for the novice undergraduate student. In Table 11.6, the supervisory practices are listed in descending frequency order based on the percentages in the last two columns (Usually/Always). Commenting on drafts was reasonably the most popular task of the supervisor, as effective supervision cannot proceed without the provision of timely and constructive feedback. It is noteworthy that the next two

Table 11.5 Challenges students face while completing their final year dissertation

What are the challenges that undergraduate students face while completing their final year dissertation?	Strongly disagree	Somewhat disagree	Undecided	Somewhat agree	Totally agree
Research methodology skills	6	6	0	19	68
Research ethics	6	6	0	23	65
Locating relevant literature	6	16	3	23	52
Narrowing down the research questions	10	3	0	39	48
Evaluating the credibility of the literature	6	13	16	16	48
Identifying a researchable topic	10	6	0	39	45
Understand the task's requirements	16	6	0	32	45
Information overload	6	13	3	35	42
Understand the supervisor's expectations	16	6	0	39	39

Table 11.6 Undergraduate supervisory practices

How often do you do each of the following while you supervise undergraduate final year undergraduate dissertations?	Never	Sometimes	Often	Usually	Always
Comment on drafts	0	0	6	13	81
Familiarize my supervisees with the necessary theoretical background	0	3	6	39	52
Coach my supervisees through the research process	0	0	10	16	74
Hold an initial meeting early on in the process	0	3	6	6	84
Require students to submit work for feedback before meetings	0	6	6	23	65
Set achievable goals for my supervisees	0	0	13	35	52
Familiarize my supervisees with the conventions of academic writing	0	3	10	35	52
Hold regular weekly group meetings	6	0	10	10	74
Clarify my role as a supervisor and my supervisees' role	0	10	6	26	58
Evaluate students' progress regularly	0	0	16	19	65
Assign separate deadlines for different parts of the entire project	0	3	16	23	58
Help my supervisees with the choice of the topic	0	13	6	39	42
Communicate by email with my supervisees	0	3	16	16	65
Encourage my supervisees to own their research project	0	10	10	23	58
Provide my supervisees with transparent assessment criteria	0	6	13	19	61
Allow my supervisees to choose their research topic freely	0	23	10	42	26
Provide my supervisees with a researchable topic	16	16	23	16	29
Use file sharing servers (e.g., Dropbox, Google drive)	35	19	13	13	19

supervisory practices address the issue raised earlier on students' lack of conceptual, theoretical, and methodological preparedness. Thus, supervisors reported that they tended to provide their supervisees with the necessary conceptual and theoretical background (94%) as well as coach them in the research process (91%).

The next block of frequent supervisory practices mainly consisted of strategies adopted by the supervisors to provide structure for their supervisees to navigate the research process successfully. The respondents seemed to function as a resource to

allow the students to manage their time by holding initial early meetings, followed by regular weekly sessions. The supervisors' tendency to set achievable goals with separate deadlines, requiring that the students submit work for feedback before meeting seem to allow for more self-regulation on the part of the student. The supervisors also evaluated students' progress regularly. To establish a transparent supervisory relationship with mutual understanding, supervisors clarified their roles as supervisors and the role of their supervisees. All these supervisory practices received very high frequency rates as Table 11.6 shows. Collapsing the "usually" and "always" responses results in percentages within the 84 and 90% range.

While the supervisors tended to agree on the strategies discussed above, they voiced more disagreement surrounding the topic choice of the undergraduate dissertation. The majority of the respondents reported that they always help their supervisees with the choice of the topic (81%) or even allow them to choose their research topic freely (81%). A number of supervisors, though, never provided students with a researchable topic (16%). Previous research shows that final year researchers may not be able to handle a high degree of student autonomy, especially that the daunting task of choosing a researchable topic is a requirement at the early stages of research (Zeddari, 2016a, 2016b).

As for communication, the respondents seemed to adopt forms that are more standard. The majority always held regular weekly group meetings (74%). They also used emails to communicate with their supervisees (65%) for "always" and (65%) for "usually." However, more innovative techniques such as the use of file sharing services on online servers (e.g., Google Drive, Dropbox) were underused with more than a third of respondent never using them (35%). These cloud-based technologies have the potential to streamline the supervision process, especially in the process of feedback provision, which is a hallmark of supervision.

11.9 Discussion

The results of the present study documented the oft-heard complaint of undergraduate supervisors about senior students' lack of preparedness to carry out independent research. It may be true that the undergraduate research experience offers students a holistic learning experience, from which they potentially reap various learning gains, but the poor academic and personal profiles of these would-be graduates stand as serious roadblocks on their way to learning and autonomy. The respondents' perceptions of the attributes and role of a good undergraduate supervisor were in line with their perceptions of the constraints that undergraduate researchers faced as they considered themselves the experts who build the novice final year researchers' knowledge and research skills. However, they seemed to be responding in their supervision practice to a need for a very high level of structure on the part of the students. In short, over-supervision may sacrifice the promise for autonomy undergraduate research promises.

Looking at the respondents' supervision practices through the lens of Anderson's (1988) supervision styles, the supervisors seemed to adopt a direct active style that maps the route for the students both conceptually and methodologically, but tended to opt for a more indirectly active or at times passive style for the choice of the research topic. It is important to note that no strategy is effective in all contexts and the choice of how much structure to offer largely varies from student to student. Effective supervision is a form of individualized mentoring that negotiates the frontiers of its territory within the supervisory relationship. It is a negotiated practice (Roberts, 2015, Roberts & Seaman, 2018).

Undergraduate supervision does not seem to be a straightforward task. Considering the very high student-supervisor ratio, such a negotiated approach is all too demanding. The variation in the supervisors' background even exacerbates the situation. English departments in Morocco attract a massive number of incoming students, which of course requires more supervisors. The results showed that professors with different academic ranks and length of teaching and supervision experience are called upon to supervise final year dissertations. In the same way, undergraduate researchers need guidance and mentoring, novice supervisors may benefit from the experience of their senior colleagues. From the researcher's reflective experience, novice supervisors proceed through trial and error in the absence of any institutional support.

In each department, there seem to be some supervision standards and practices that guide the supervisor's practices, but the lack of institutional and departmental resources such as dissertation handbooks, evaluation rubrics, and training materials makes the dissertation journey more difficult for both the supervisor and the student researcher (Kiley, Boud, Cantwell, & Manathunga, 2009; Wisker, 2009). Non-native writers were found to need more assistance in the dissertation process and such training materials will help them understand the institutional and scientific requirements of this graduation requirement and will allow them to learn the skills needed more autonomously.

Despite the variation in their supervision experience, the majority of dissertation supervisors surveyed reported adopting effective supervisory strategies at very high rates. The effectiveness of these practices, however, may be limited by the poor academic profiles of the students. This issue goes beyond the seminar and the department level and can be attributed to more macro-level constraints that pertain to an inadequate implementation of the modular LMD system. In practice, the way the LMD system has been implemented leaves too much leeway to the students, who may advance in their studies only thanks to ineffective mechanisms that lower success standards (e.g., non-implementation of pedagogical prerequisites, modular and annual compensation). All these measures relax success standards in every way possible in answer to Ansell's trilemma of higher education (Ansell, 2010). Sacrifice quality for the sake of cost and access to higher education!

The results of the present study reflect to a large extent the status of undergraduate research in English departments in Morocco. However, considering the limited number of respondents from different departments, the results were reported in general terms without any cross-departmental comparisons. Future research may investigate

in more depth what may distinguish one department from another and how supervisory practices may vary from one context to another. It was also observed that there tends to be a relationship between academic rank and length of experience in undergraduate supervision. This correlation was not further explored. It may be useful for future research as well to determine if the differences in supervisory practices documented are a function of academic rank and supervision experience.

11.10 Conclusion

Completing a final year dissertation is an arduous task that puts to the test not only the student but also the higher education institution and the educational system as a whole. This study revealed that an undergraduate supervision model does not depend solely on the supervisor or his use of effective supervisory strategies. These strategies are effective only inasmuch as they cater to the need of the undergraduate researchers and are supported by an educational system that holds students accountable to high performance standards. The product and the learning gains of this research experience are more constrained by institutional and architectural factors that relate to Moroccan higher education in general.

References

Adamson, J. L., Coulson, D., & Fujimoto-Adamson, N. (2019). Supervisory practices in English-medium undergraduate and postgraduate Applied Linguistics thesis writing: Insights from Japan-based tutors. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 6*(1), 14–27.

Anderson, J. (1988). *The supervisory process in speech, language pathology and audiology*. Boston: College Hill Press.

Ansell, B. W. (2010). *From the ballot to the blackboard: The redistributive political economy of education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Australian Qualifications Framework Council. (2013). *Australian qualifications framework second edition January 2013*. Retrieved from https://www.aqf.edu.au/aqf-second-edition-january-2013.

Bailey, J., van Acker, E., & Fyffe, J. (2012). *Capstone subjects in undergraduate business degrees: A good practice guide*. Brisbane: Griffith University.

Baker, M., Cluett, E., Ireland, L., Reading, S., & Rourke, S. (2014). Supervising undergraduate research: A collective approach utilizing group work. *Nurse Education Today, 34,* 637–642.

Bellout, Z. (1996). On the importance of fieldwork and contrastive analysis in students' monographs. In E. El Haddad & M. Najbi (Eds.), *ELT in Morocco: Perspectives for the 21 century: Proceedings of the 16th annual conference of MATE.* Mohammedia.

Bertheide, C. (2007). Doing less work, collecting better data: Using capstone courses to assess learning. *Peer Review, 9*(2), 27–30.

Bitchener, J. (2018). *A guide to supervising non-native English writers of theses and dissertations*. New York & London: Routledge.

Bologna Working Group. (2005). *A framework for qualifications of the European Higher Education Area*. Bologna working group report on qualifications frameworks. Copenhagen: Danish Ministry of Science, Technology and Innovation.

Bouzenirh, F. (1997). Research: At what cost. In T. Belghazi (Ed.), *The idea of the university* (pp. 345–354). Rabat: Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences.

Boyer Commission. (1998). *Re-inventing undergraduate education: A blueprint for America's research universities*. Stony Brook, NY: Carnegie Foundation for University Teaching.

Braine, G. (2002). Academic literacy and the nonnative speaker graduate student. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 1,* 59–68.

Brydon, K., & Flynn, C. (2013). Expert companions? Constructing a pedagogy for supervising honours students. *Social Work Education, 33,* 365–380.

Buckley, C. (2013). Supervising international students' undergraduate research projects: Implications from the literature. In R. Donnelly, J. Dallat, & M. Fitzmaurice (Eds.), *Supervising and writing a good undergraduate dissertation* (pp. 132–148). USA: Bentham Science Publishers.

Bui, H. T. M. (2014). Student's supervisor expectations in the doctoral supervision process for business and management students. *Business and Management Education in HE, 1,* 12–27.

Cadman, K. (2005). Towards a "pedagogy of connection" in critical research education: A REAL story. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 4,* 353–367.

Camenga, K. A. (2013). Developing independence in a capstone course: Helping students ask and answer their own questions. *PRIMUS, 23*(4), 304–314.

Cedefop. (2018). *National qualifications framework developments in Europe 2017*. Luxembourg: Publications Office.

Derounian, J. (2011). Shall we dance? The importance of staff–student relationships to undergraduate dissertation preparation. *Active Learning in Higher Education, 12,* 91–100.

Donnelly, R., Dallat, J., & Fitzmaurice, M. (2013). Introduction. In R. Donnelly, J. Dallat, & M. Fitzmaurice (Eds.), *Supervising and writing a good undergraduate dissertation* (pp. xvi–xxxi). USA: Bentham Science Publishers.

Dunlap, J. C. (2005). Problem-based learning and self-efficacy: How a capstone course prepares students for a profession. *Educational Technology Research and Development, 53*(1), 65–83.

Durel, R. J. (1993). The capstone course: A rite of passage. *Teaching Sociology, 21*(3), 223–225.

ENSSUP. (2014). *Cahiers des normes pedagogiques nationales du cycle de la License [National pedagogical norms booklets of the license cycle]*. Retrieved from http://www.enssup.gov.ma/sites/default/files/PAGES/2032/CNPN_License_Ar_2082.14.pdf.

Erguig, R. (2009). Reflections on the new reform: The mini-monograph in the Department of English Studies. in El Jadida. In H. Bennoudi & Y. Tamer (Eds.), *Proceedings of the national conference on the education reform: Pedagogical considerations and practical recommendations* (pp. 91–101). Agadir: Publications of the Faculty of Letters and Humanities.

European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education. (2009). The Bologna process 2020—The European Higher Education Area in the new decade. Retrieved from http://www.ehea.info/media.ehea.info/file/2009_Leuven_Louvain-la-Neuve/06/1/Leuven_Louvain-la-Neuve_Communique_April_2009_595061.pdf.

Feather, D., Anchor, J. R., & Cowton, C. J. (2014). Supervisors' perceptions of the value of the undergraduate dissertation. *International Journal of Management Education, 12*(1), 14–21.

Friedrick-Nel, H., & Mackinnon, J. L. (2013). Expectations in postgraduate supervision: Perspectives from supervisors and doctoral students. *Interim: Interdisciplinary Journal, 12*, 1–14.

Green, B., & Lee, A. (1995). Theorising postgraduate pedagogy. In A. Lee & B. S. Green (Eds), *Postgraduate studies postgraduate pedagogy*. University of Technology Sydney, Centre for Language and Literacy and the University Graduate School.

Harrison, M. E., & Whalley, W. B. (2008). Undertaking a dissertation from start to finish: The process and product. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 32,* 401–418.

Hauhart, R. C., & Grahe, J. E. (2012). A national survey of American higher education capstone practices in sociology and psychology. *Teaching Sociology, 40*(3), 227–241.

Healey, M., Lannin, L., Stibbe, A., & Derounian, J. (2013). *Developing and enhancing undergraduate final-year projects and dissertations*. York: The Higher Education Academy.

Henscheid, J. M. (2000). *Professing the disciplines: An analysis of senior seminars and capstone courses. Monograph No. 30.* Columbia, SC: University of Southern Carolina, National Resource Centre for the First Year Experience and Students in Transition.

Hill, J., Kneale, P., Nicholson, D., Waddington, S., & Ray, W. (2011). Reframing the geography dissertation: A consideration of alternative, innovative and creative approaches. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education, 35*(3), 331–349.

Jamieson, S., & Gray, C. (2006). The supervision of undergraduate research students: Expectations of student and supervisor. *Practice and Evidence of Scholarship of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, 1,* 37–59.

Kardash, C. M. (2000). Evaluation of an undergraduate research experience: Perceptions of undergraduate interns and their faculty mentors. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 92,* 191–201.

Kavanagh, M. H., & Drennan, L. (2008). What skills and attributes does an accounting graduate need? Evidence from student perceptions and employer expectations. *Accounting & Finance, 48,* 279–300.

Keller, S., Parker, C. M., & Chan, C. (2011). Employability skills: Student perceptions of an IS final year capstone subject. *Innovation in Teaching and Learning in Information and Computer Sciences, 10*(2), 4–15.

Kiley, M., Boud, D., Cantwell, R., & Manathunga, C. (2009). *The role of honours in contemporary Australian higher education*. Report commissioned by the Australian Learning and Teaching Council. Retrieved from http://www.aushons.anu.edu.au/.

Lee, N., & Loton, D. (2016). *Capstones across disciplines: A snapshot of international practice*. Canberra: Office for Learning and Teaching.

Lee, N., & Loton, D. (2019). Capstone purposes across disciplines. *Studies in Higher Education, 44*(1), 134–150.

Malcolm, M. (2012). Examining the implications of learner and supervisor perceptions of undergraduate dissertation research in business and management. *Teaching in Higher Education, 17,* 565–576.

Marshall, S. (2009). Supervising projects and dissertations. In H. Fry, S. Ketteridge, & S. Marshall (Eds.), *Handbook for teaching and learning in higher education* (pp. 150–165). Abingdon: Routledge.

McMichael, P. (1993). Starting up as supervisors: The perceptions of newcomers in postgraduate supervision in Australia and Sri Lanka. *Studies in Higher Education, 18,* 15–26.

McNamara, J., Brown, C., Field, M. R., Kift, S. M., Desmond, A. B., & Treloar, C. (2011). Capstones: Transitions and professional identity. In *2011 WACE World Conference—Conference Proceedings*, Philadelphia.

McNamara, J., Kift, S. M., Butler, D., Field, R. M, Brown, C., & Gamble, N. (2012). Work-integrated learning as a component of the capstone experience in undergraduate law. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Cooperative Education, 13* (1), 1–12.

Metcalf, L. E. (2010). Creating international community service learning experiences in a capstone marketing-projects course. *Journal of Marketing Education, 32*(2), 155–171.

National Qualifications Authority. (2012). Qualifications framework for the Emirates Handbook. Retrieved from https://www.nqa.gov.ae/EN/NQAWWWPublications/Publication/26d6c5c2-64c8-435c-a3ec-0683270982c7/QF%20Emirates%20Handbook.pdf last accessed 1/6/2019.

Paltridge, B., & Starfield, S. (2007). *Thesis and dissertation writing in a second language: A handbook for supervisors*. London: Routledge.

QAA. (2013). *Qualifications can cross boundaries—A rough guide to comparing qualifications in the UK and Ireland*. Retrieved from www.qaa.ac.uk/en/publications/documents/qualifications-can-cross-boundaries.pdf.

Roberts, L. D. (2015). *Best practice: Honours and coursework dissertation supervision*. Final report. Retrieved from http://www.olt.gov.au/resource-dissertation-supervision.

Roberts, L. D., & Seaman, K. (2018). Good undergraduate dissertation supervision: Perspectives of supervisors and dissertation coordinators. *International Journal for Academic Development, 23*(1), 28–40.

Rowley, J., & Slack, F. (2004). What is the future for undergraduate dissertations? *Education and Training, 46,* 176–181.

Schermer, T., & Gray, S. (2012). *The senior capstone: Transformative experiences in the liberal arts.* Final report to the Teagle Foundation.

Spear, R. H. (2000). Supervision of research students: Responding to student expectations. Working/technical paper. Retrieved from http://hdl.handle.net/1885/41534.

Starr-Glass, D. (2010). Reconsidering the international business capstone: Capping, bridging, or both? *Journal of Teaching in International Business, 21*(4), 329–345.

Stefani, L. A. J., Tariq, V. N., Heylings, D. J. A., & Butcher, A. C. (1997). A comparison of tutor and student conceptions of undergraduate research project work. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 22,* 271–288.

Stephen, J., Parente, D. H., & Brown, R. C. (2002). Seeing the forest and the trees: Balancing functional and integrative knowledge using large-scale simulations in capstone business strategy classes. *Journal of Management Education, 26*(2), 164–193.

Thomas, K., Wong, K. C., & Li, Y. C. (2014). The capstone experience: Student and academic perspectives. *Higher Education Research & Development, 33*(3), 580–594.

Todd, M., Bannister, P., & Clegg, S. (2004). Independent inquiry and the undergraduate dissertation: Perceptions and experiences of final-year social science students. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 29*(3), 335–355.

Todd, M. J., Smith, K., & Bannister, P. (2006). Supervising a social science undergraduate dissertation: Staff experiences and perceptions. *Teaching in Higher Education, 11,* 161–173.

Van Acker, E., Fraser, L., Hibbins, R., Wilson, K., French, E., Psaros, J., et al. (2013). *Capstone courses in undergraduate business degrees: Better course design, better learning activities, better assessment*. Sydney: Office of Learning and Teaching.

Vera, J., & Briones, E. (2015). Students' perspectives on the processes of supervision and assessment of undergraduate dissertations / Perspectiva del alumnado de los procesos de tutorización y evaluación de los trabajos de fin de grado. *Cultura y Educación, 27*(4), 726–765.

Wisker, G. (2009). *The undergraduate research handbook*. New York, NY: Palgrave MacMillan.

Zeddari, I. (2016a). The End-of-studies project: Insights into an inquiry-based higher education pedagogy. *Languages and Linguistics, 38,* 109–128.

Zeddari, I. (2016b). Digital culture and technological adeptness among Moroccan freshman university students. In A. Boudlal, R. Erguig, A. Sabil, & M. Yeou (Eds.), *Culture and languages in contact* (pp. 417–435). Rabat: Editions Impression Bouregreg.

Zeddari, I. (2018). The end-of-study project in english departments in Morocco: The supervisor's perspective. *Journal of Applied Language and Culture Studies (JALCS), 1*(1), 81–103.

Ikbal Zeddari is Associate Professor and Chair of the English Department at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Mohammed V University in Rabat. He holds a doctorate in Applied Linguistics and TEFL. His main research interests lie in the area of second language acquisition. More particularly, he investigates lexico-semantic phenomena at the syntax-semantics interface. He is also interested in higher education pedagogy, with a focus on student experience and teaching methodology.

Part IV
Curricular Innovations

Chapter 12
A Citizenship Approach to Learning and Engagement in Moroccan Higher Education

Said Zaidoune

Abstract This chapter aims to shed light on community service and the importance of its implementation in the Moroccan public higher education system. Community service and service-learning are part and parcel of some educational systems worldwide, and have demonstrated their efficiency in student engagement, personal and professional development. In Morocco, the only higher education institution that integrates community service in its curriculum is Al Akhawayn University in Ifrane. Community service has proved to be a crucial learning experience in terms of citizenship values and skills, and has shown that it can yield a lot of benefits for all the stakeholders involved in community service: the institution providing service, students performing service, hosting institutions and beneficiaries, partners, and the community at large.

Keywords Citizenship · Community service · Service-learning · Student engagement

12.1 Background: Community Service at Ben M'sik

Unlike other public higher education institutions, the Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Ben M'sik has adopted community service as part of its extracurricular activities and as a component of two courses within the framework of the English Department: Applied Linguistics and Citizenship in Education since 2010. The former is taught to semester 5 students, whereas the latter is taught to semester 6 students. Both courses are part of the Applied Language Studies stream within the Department of English Studies. Thanks to a partnership with Bowling Green State University, Ohio (BGSU) with whom we ran a university Civic Education Partnership Initiative (CEPI) between 2007 and 2010, community service was introduced to the Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Department of English Studies, Ben M'sik, Casablanca, Morocco.

S. Zaidoune (✉)
Faculty of Arts and Humanities Benmsik, University Hassan II, Casablanca, Morocco
e-mail: zaidoune44@yahoo.co.uk

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_12

Since 2013, we implemented community service as a prerequisite for the obtention of BA degree in Language Studies. This is done in two phases: The first phase starts in the Fall semester when students attend their Applied Linguistics course. In this phase, students get acquainted with aspects such as learning versus acquisition, teaching methods, learning styles and strategies, coursebook use, the four language skills, technology in the classroom, testing, to name but a few examples. At this stage, we place small groups of students of 6–8 semester 5 students in neighboring secondary and high schools with whom our institution has partnerships. Our students need to serve for 8 weeks. The school principals play an important role by getting heavily involved with our students and us since they prepare specific timetables for their ninth graders and high school students who need support classes in English. The timetables usually fit our students' schedules and do not overlap with their university classes nor with their private study time. The second phase of community service begins in the Spring semester. During this semester, our students have a course entitled Citizenship in Education in which community service is a component in its own right. Furthermore, they have to perform a 24-hour or 12-week community service. This, of course, goes along with the 8-week English support classes our students do in semester 5 as mentioned earlier.

So, all in all, our students perform a total of 20 weeks or the equivalent of 40 h in both semesters 5 and 6. They teach English in the form of support classes to ninth graders and high school students. Their teaching sessions include basic English to ninth graders (since it is their first encounter with English), revision of previous lessons and preparation for the beneficiaries' final examinations; namely, secondary school certificate, first-year baccalaureate regional exam, and second-year baccalaureate national exam. This of course is done through a close coordination between our students' supervisor, our students, and the secondary and high schools teachers whose students benefit from community service.

Going back to the Citizenship in Education semester 6 course, our students cover aspects such as the role of citizenship in society and education, digital citizenship, environmental citizenship, citizenship in the curriculum, global citizenship, rights and duties, human rights, NGO's, and promoting engagement and empowerment. During the course, we organize visits to non-government associations, orphanages, and elderly homes so that our students meet experts in the field and have hands-on experience regarding community service and engagement. Consequently, there are students who wish to perform their community service by volunteering in noneducational institutions such as orphanages, NGOs, and youth clubs in the neighborhood. This has always been facilitated by our institution, the Faculty of Letters and Humanities Ben M'sik, which spares no effort in helping our students have access to our partners by providing the necessary administrative paperwork regarding insurance and fieldwork administrative authorizations that our students need to perform their community service.

Because the number of students is usually between 40 and 50 students a year, it is relatively easy and smooth to follow up their community service activities (attendance, teaching, learning, preparing lessons, activities and exercises, and testing).

There are weekly meetings with the supervisor to discuss their progress and any problems or difficulties that may arise. In addition, the supervisor provides the students with guidance and always liaises with the hosting institutions where community service is performed. After community service is over, usually toward the end of May, our students are required to submit reports in which they give details of how their community service has been performed. They describe what they have done, the problems they may have encountered, and what they have learned. The community service reports are in a way an opportunity for our students to reflect on their personal and professional growth, and how they see themselves as agents of change who are paving their way for their careers on one hand, and for bettering their community, society, and country on the other. The reports are corrected and marked as part of community service evaluation, which counts 25% of the end of term examination.

12.2 Community Service

The labels used to refer to this type of learning differs from one author to another; some use community service, others use service-learning or community-based learning (Cress et al. 2005). According to Iacovino and Nootens (2011, p. 225) cited in Kane et al (2016), community

> is presented as an abstract entity that requires a kind of toolkit based on ethical individualism in order for students to situate themselves within its boundaries. Citizenship is akin to a vocation, something you learn to do, not as a member of a particular nation or culture, not through the lens of conflicting national identities, but as an individual endowed with faculties associated with critical thought.

University students engage in community service activities with intentional academic and learning goals and opportunities for reflection that connect to their academic disciplines. The activities in question are meant to meet community needs. Service-learning is defined as:

> […] an educational experience in which students (a) participate in an organized service activity that meets identified community needs, and (b) reflect on the service activity in such a way as to gain further understanding of course content, a broader appreciation of the discipline, and an enhanced sense of personal values and civic responsibility (Bringle and Hatcher, 1995).

Bowling Green State University defines community service as, "a class based, credit-bearing educational experience which integrates academic material, relevant community-based engagement and/or service activities, and critical reflection based on a reciprocal partnership that engage students, faculty/staff, and community members in achievement of academic and disciplinary learning objectives and civic outcomes to advance public purposes."(https://www.bgsu.edu/). In this respect, students learn how they can actively contribute more effectively to their society. This learning can take different forms; for instance, recognizing how a particular academic discipline can meet important needs of society; fulfilling civic responsibility through

community effort; or developing skills or understanding that will enhance students' contributions as responsible citizens and community members.

12.3 The Case of Moroccan Higher Education

Unlike the USA, where colleges and universities are increasingly including in their educational mission the preparation of graduates as future citizens, Moroccan universities, which already need further improvements in their teaching of traditional disciplines, do not fully implement a reform before they embark on another. In Morocco, it is the Higher Council for Education, Training, and Scientific Research, described as an independent, consultative body of good governance, sustainable development, and participatory democracy, which serves as a think tank for strategic reflection on issues of education, training, and scientific research on issues related to education, training, and scientific research. European Union (2017). After introducing the Moroccan Ministry of National Education (1999) in the university system about a decade ago, the ministry of higher education introduced what is called the "Emergency Plan" (2009–2012). Then, another reform was adapted in 2014. However, in the absence of such a vision nationwide, some local initiatives are worth implementing. A starting point lies in attempting to adapt community service programs, and others thereof, to fit in the Moroccan higher education system, and by extension in the society as a whole.

The implementation of community service in Moroccan universities is timely. It invites students to use the know-how they have acquired beyond the classroom walls, and thus creates bridges between academic knowledge and real life. It is an excellent opportunity to prepare them for the real world and to instill in them the values which will make them better citizens of their country and of the world. This goes in compliance with the National Charter for Education and Training introduced in 1999 and the Strategic Vision for Reform (2015–2030). They both highlight the importance of including in the curriculum citizenship-related topics like democracy, human rights, community involvement, and civic engagement. As a result, citizenship education components were officially and explicitly introduced in the Moroccan textbooks, especially from grade 4 to grade 9. At high school level, citizenship education is taught implicitly as a component, a topic, or a theme in the curriculum and through extracurricular activities organized by school clubs.

Furthermore, the *English Language Guidelines for Secondary Education* (2007) issued by the Moroccan Ministry of Education insist that the teaching of English should address five areas:

1. **Communication**: Learners will communicate in both oral and written forms, interpret both oral and written messages, show cultural understanding and present oral and written information to various audiences for a variety of purposes. Three modes of communication are involved here: the ***interpersonal***, ***interpretive***, and ***presentational*** communication.

2. **Cultures**: Learners will gain a deeper understanding of their culture(s) and other cultures in terms of their **perspectives** (e.g., values, ideas, attitudes, etc.), **practices** (pattern of social interactions), and **products** (e.g., books, laws, music, etc.).
3. **Connections**: Learners will make connections with other subject areas and acquire information and use them through English for their own purposes.
4. **Comparisons**: Learners will gain awareness of cross-cultural similarities and differences (in terms of both language(s) and culture).
5. **Communities**: Learners will extend their learning experiences from the EFL classroom to the outside world through activities such as the use of the Internet. They will therefore be made aware that we live in a global world (Ministry of Education, 2007:5)

In order for this to be attained, teachers should help learners (among others) to foster their connections with their community by

- being recognizant of their **responsibilities and rights as citizens** and acting accordingly;
- being willing to work hard and being long-life learners;
- **contributing to the aesthetic and cultural life of their community** in any way they can;
- **viewing themselves and their community within the city/town, country, and the world at large**;
- contributing and adapting to change—be it scientific or technological. (Ministry of Education, 2007, p. 6)

Community service develops civic-mindedness, which goes beyond the scope of what students know (Delano-Oriaran, 2018, p. 292). It combines what students do with what they know. Universities and institutions of higher education are generally producing individuals who know without doing. Importantly, what a country like ours needs is to increase in our students the capacity to apply their knowledge and skills to civic issues. For this purpose, community service is just a crucial learning element in the equation of having engaged and mindful citizens who deliberately choose to better serve their community and country.

12.4 University and Community-Based Partnerships

The Moroccan Ministry of National Education (1999) and the subsequent university reforms along with decision-makers' official discourse have been calling for the Moroccan university's openness on its socioeconomic environment. Our institution, the Faculty of Letters and Humanities Ben M'sik, has been a pioneer in this respect. We have built partnerships with different parties, be they educational, governmental, non-governmental, professional, or artistic. University and community partnerships

tend to create contexts for civic learning and contribution to community life. Kari and Skelton in McLlrath and Mac Labhraim (2007, p. 175) argue that

> The partnership with the University is not a formal or legal contract. It is, however, a serious covenant in which the community has agreed to contribute its 'place', knowledge, questions and talents to a learning relationship with people from the university, who in turn agree to contribute their knowledge, questions, and talents. It is through this reciprocal agreement, and the work associated with it, that an authentic learning community forms. When this happens, new knowledge, new practice, new ways of organizing are created.

Community partnerships refer to "… a range of initiatives based at an institution of higher education, designed to enhance local neighborhoods through some working relationship with residents and institutions in those areas" (Maurrasse, 2001, p. 9).

In this respect, the Faculty of Letters Ben M'sik at Hassan II University in Casablanca built partnerships with neighborhood institutions. These include the local education authority or the Provincial Directorate of Moulay Rachid. This has allowed our students to serve in over 20 secondary and high schools under the supervision of the Directorate. We have also partnerships with associations operating in different areas such as single mothers, orphans, special needs, etc. Recently, we have partnered with an international organization called Handicap International. This organization supports people with disabilities and people in precarious situations. It also assists people suffering from conflicts and disasters. Thanks to this partnership, a group of professors from our institution have developed Social Worker's professional B.A. It is a two-year program training leading to a Bachelor's degree in social work. So far, the scope of our community partnerships has outgrown our expectations. We have two types of partnerships:

1. State institutions like the Provincial Directorate of Moulay Rachid, or the educational local authority. ANAPEC (national employment agency) is another partnering institution, which is involved in the training and job placements (part-time and full-time) of our students.
2. Civil society and associations. Our students are encouraged to be affiliated to associations of their choice, as this will bring them plenty of benefits. Our partners in this area include: The Alumni Association of Ben M'sik English Department (AABED), Idmaj (neighborhood Moroccan–American volunteering association), Handicap International, and most recently Assalam Foundation for Social Development (a local association specialized in assisting single mothers in difficult situations, widows, and their orphaned children). The foundation offers professional training programs to the single mothers and widows to start their own income-generating small businesses. Our students volunteer by helping the children in their schooling i.e., English, revision, exam preparation, extracurricular activities, and homework, etc.

Universities around the world have been weaving ties with their communities in order to offer their students opportunities to explore their immediate environment and become responsible citizens. Each university reaches out to its community based on its mission statement, its specialty, and the inclination of its faculty members to

collaborate with their community. Studies in the US, Canada, and Australia (Maurrasse, 2001; Jacoby et al., 2003; Miller & Hafner, 2008; Bok, 2015) have shown that university–community partnerships have thrived in the last two to three decades. These partnerships can be categorized as follows:

- International partnerships
- Education partnerships
- Community partnerships
- Business partnerships.

Our institution's partnerships are mainly community based, educational, and international. Following is a list of our main partners:

(1) With local authorities, city council and region, our partners help us by providing us with buses, theater for free, gardening, cleaning services, and so forth. We, in turn, provide training for the elected councilors and civil servants.

We launched a project to set up an itinerant community museum for each municipality. We have also provided communication training for local authorities' civil servants.

(2) With the ministry of education provincial directorates. Our first partnership started informally with a neighboring middle school, Cadi Ayad, in 2009. Ultimately, "partnerships start with and are built upon personal relationships" (Jacoby et al., 2003). So did our first educational partnership. We realized there was a need for serving our poor neighborhood by sending our students to give support classes, revision, and exam preparation for eighth and ninth graders. In the following years, more middle and high schools approached our department for English support classes. In 2015, due to growing demand for our students' help and the growing number of institutions who voiced their need for such support, our institution signed an official partnership with Moulay Rachid Provincial Directorate (Ministry of Education local authority). The directorate caters for 23 middle schools and 12 high schools. Subsequently, about 50 Semesters 5 and 6 students from the Department of English Studies perform community service in the middle schools and high schools. Our department students serve in those institutions partly because of the partnership and partly because they are doing research in Applied linguistics and Citizenship in education courses in S5 and S6, respectively. So, over the last 10 years, over five hundred students have performed community service in Ben M'sik Moulay Rachid neighborhood, about a hundred research projects were conducted on civic engagement and community service.

(3) Dar Taliba (girls' campus) Hay Salama is a girl's boarding house run by an NGO and the National Initiative for Human Development (INDH). This partnership has been running for three years. About half a dozen students from the Department of English Studies serve at Dar Taliba through teaching English, tutoring, and coaching. The beneficiaries are teenage girls who are either orphans or from underprivileged families.

(4) With the private sector, our partnership takes many forms: support for the two festivals our institution takes pride in organizing every year for the last thirty years. We are referring to Ben M'sik International University Theater (FITUC) and the International Video Art Festival (FIAV). Our private sector partners, for example, take care of our visiting artists and partially cover hotel, and printing expenses. They put at our disposal their premises such as Studio of the Living Arts Theater. As for us, we use their logos in our media communication.

(5) NGOs are other partners we have been working since 2014–15. Our main association partner is Assalam Foundation for Social Development. It is a non-profit organization that provides educational, financial, and medical assistance to orphans and their mothers. It also organizes workshops and training for single mothers and widows to sustain themselves and their families. Our students volunteer throughout the year by helping the kids in their schooling, and the mothers in their income-generating small businesses. They also help organize activities during religious holidays, raise funds, and organize sports events, creativity competitions such as painting, singing, and acting. IDMAJ is another NGO which has been our partner for over a decade. Our students volunteer at IDMAJ and they receive training and internships thanks to Mr. Mazouz's efforts.

(6) We have also been partners with ANAPEC (National Employment Agency). They have been helpful in providing orientation and training sessions for our graduates. They have also been crucial in offering internships for a good number of our students. Lately, ANAPEC has been involved in a mass recruitment initiative in the private education sector. Every year, they visit our campus to raise our students' awareness about the requirements of the job market.

(7) Dar America is one of our long-lasting partners whose help has been invaluable for over two decades. Our students use Dar America's library for their research. They also use their online databases. In addition to that, our students watch American movies and documentaries, attend roundtables, workshops, shows including musicals and dance groups. They also benefit from the video conferences and discussion groups organized by Dar America. They also improve their English through guest speakers, teacher training workshops, "Open Mic" night, and public speaking events.

(8) Besides the national partners mentioned above, we have one outstanding international partnership with Kennesaw State University, KSU. We have just celebrated the 12th anniversary of our partnership. The partnership has resulted in faculty and student exchange, Ben M'sik community Museum, Moroccan American Studies Association, four international conferences, the last of which: Year of Morocco March 2019 at KSU.

(9) As for the media, we have good relations with national radio and TV stations, newspapers, both paper and electronic, in addition to websites. They help us with press releases, coverage of our activities, press conferences, publication of articles and reports on our events. To evaluate our partnership with the socioeconomic environment, we can say that it is classic and archaic based on personal relationships. The university does not attract partners. They are not yet aware of

the importance of partnership with the university, especially with the Schools of Humanities.

What makes this experience interesting is that our students share their stories with each other and pass them on to students who have never done community service. They do it either face to face or through social media. This has played a major role in motivating and encouraging more students to take part in community service. The current academic year (2018–2019), for example, has witnessed a record number of students wishing to volunteer in neighboring secondary schools. For this reason and thanks to our partnership with Moulay Rachid Provincial Directory, over 50 English Studies students are serving in different secondary and high schools under the management of the Moulay Rachid Provincial Directory (Ministry of Education local authority).

12.5 Impact of Community Service

> Our common objective is to rehabilitate the Moroccan state school in order to restore confidence in this institution, whose aim is to inculcate the values of citizenship in the community and a commitment to establishing the principle of equality of opportunity in the community (Speech from the Throne, July 30, 2008).

It has become increasingly clear that university–community partnerships have a beneficial and sustainable impact on the three actors of the equation: community, university, and students.

As far as the community is concerned, there are educational courses that the university offers that promote knowledge, teach languages and skills to participating community members. The universities are also involved in recreational and cultural events from which the community benefits. For example, in Ben M'sik's case, there are two major international events namely, FIAV and FITUC as mentioned earlier. Every year the BenM'sik community participates and enjoys the workshops, video projections, plays, master classes in drama, and video art. This definitely strengthens the bond between the university and its community to contribute to the making of homegrown engaged citizens. By forging partnerships with the community, the university benefits at all levels. First of all, these partnerships empower the university and enhance its reputation both locally and internationally. Second, thanks to this reputation, the university becomes more attractive both in terms of student enrollment and potential sponsorship. Last but not least, university–community partnerships will trigger more research for university professors who will gain expertise in their fields.

The impact that university–community partnerships have on the students is far reaching. In addition to high sense of citizenship, students benefit a great deal from university–community partnerships. They develop personally as they acquire work experience and essential soft skills. They receive benefits which they cannot have access to through the traditional lectures and courses they attend. In fact, when our

students serve the community, they discover that they have undergone a metamorphosis. In addition to participatory, intellectual, and interpersonal skills, students achieve a great deal during and after their service is over. To give just a few examples of what students can get out of community partnerships, we can mention personal development, communication skills, fieldwork skills, life and career skills in general, networking skills, and negotiating skills. We should not forget that in the context of teaching, they can develop leadership skills, decision-making skills, and teamwork skills.

On a different level, students involved in university–community partnerships will have an in-depth knowledge of their community and the world surrounding them. They have hands-on experience with the real world as they operate with people (pupils and partners) inside the community. This fact definitely strengthens their understanding of the relevance of learning regarding real-world situations. Moreover, they develop their self-awareness as true agents of change, a fact which will enable them to pay more attention to the concept of "the common good" and consequently act as engaged citizens who believe in what they do. Finally, community partnerships remain a golden opportunity for students to promote their lifelong commitment to civic engagement and responsibility.

12.6 Why Adopt Community Service as an Integral Entity?

As mentioned earlier in this paper, there have been several educational reforms, especially at the university level. Most of these university reforms have proved their failures because of a combination of factors. The Higher Council for Education, Training, and Scientific Research put forward what is referred to as the National Strategic Vision (2015–2030). This vision aims to establish a new school, the foundations of which are equity, equal opportunities, and quality for all. Adopting community service as an integral part or entity of the Moroccan educational system would be compatible with the precepts of the policy-makers' strategic vision.

> It is for this reason that the strategic vision proposed by the Council emphasizes the need to perpetuate and reinforce the constants, the religious and national values of our country, and promote its plural identity and its cultural diversity. It also confirms the importance of rooting the values of democracy, citizenship and civic behavior (Ministry of Education, Vocational Training, Higher Education, and Scientific Research, 2015, p. 22).

In addition, one of the main objectives of the vision is to develop "good citizens." This cannot be fulfilled without adopting an innovative pedagogy based on developing critical thinking, personal development, learning foreign languages, acquiring civic and citizenship values, and information technology skills (Ministry of Education, Vocational Training, Higher Education, and Scientific Research, 2015, p. 6).

Community service offers a win-win situation for the parties involved in the implementation of its components; i.e., the students, the institution, and the community. Put clearly, the benefits are threefold:

1. Students will benefit from their service by enhancing their academic learning and skills. They will have hands-on experience with the real world as they will be dealing with people and community issues. Raising their interests beyond their classrooms will definitely strengthen their understanding of the relevance of learning regarding real-world situations. By attempting to solve community problems such as giving support classes to high school students, they will have to resort to different skills they learn through such as critical thinking and problem-solving skills that will help them approach complex problems. Moreover, they will develop their self-awareness and will thus clarify and observe how they apply values, beliefs, and ethics in their daily practices. In addition, they will improve their interpersonal skills and team spirit as they will most probably be working in pairs or small groups. Finally, community service is a golden opportunity for university students to promote their lifelong commitment to civic engagement and responsibility.
2. Institutions, through community service, will gain reputation locally, nationally, and even internationally. They will enable their students to demonstrate an in-depth understanding of social issues and eventually impact their community, both at local and wider levels. By doing so, they will earn the respect and trust of the community, other institutions, and partners alike. They will also widen their scope of openness as a result of community service during which students acquire building partnership skills. The trained students represent their institution, and depending on their service projects, they will likely build partnerships with local authorities, the private sector, NGOs, etc. These partnerships will strengthen the position of the institution and will consequently be conducive to more partnerships with different types of organizations. In parallel with this, the institution contributes to its students' career development and improvements of their work skills, thus preparing them for the after graduation life.

   The staff and faculty members have their share, too. Their involvement in community service projects and training will have a positive impact that motivates their students to see the relevance of academic results. Some of their input can serve as a basis for fieldwork and off-campus activities. Such contribution will definitely yield interesting results that will reinforce their effectiveness and therefore will boost their credibility as well as that of their institution. Above all, both the faculty members and the institution will earn not only a viable reputation that will earn them the recognition of community and other stakeholders by providing services that will contribute to social development. Furthermore, the accumulation of successful stories and experiences within the institution over time is conducive to conducting research. The promising niches for research vary from evaluation of projects to experimenting new ideas that will have impact on students and, by extension, on their communities. The different publications emanating from this type of research and the involvement of research labs and the Doctoral Centre in such programs will reinforce both the mission of the institution and the credibility of its structures. Much of this research will be empirical and will thus equip the students with enough knowledge and skills that will prepare them to become future leaders and researchers.

3. Last but not least are the benefits for the community. Like the institution, the community benefits from the students' service. Building partnerships with higher education institutions enables it to benefit from high-quality services. In the long run, it will benefit from its members who are the students in the institution as it will consist of a potential-educated human capital that will help with its development. After graduation, the students will become active citizens in their communities. The interaction between university and community fosters mutually ethical and civic participation for the benefit of students and community members alike.

12.7 Learning Outcomes

Finally, thanks to our community service throughout the last decade, our students have received benefits which they cannot have access to through the traditional lectures and courses they attend. Every year our students impress us by the maturity, experience, wisdom, self-confidence, and humility they demonstrate through their end of service reports.

The change we are aspiring to make resides in our students building this capacity of awareness and responsibility toward their community. Not only do our students give support classes but also they share values with the ninth graders and high school students. They share civic values that fight all forms of school violence and radicalization, which has become a threat that is haunting the whole world.

Through our community service experience, our students help high school students to develop their English skills and prepare them for their end of year examinations. However, the students use activities such as public speaking and debating which encourage the high school population to engage in activities whose objective is to sensitize them to the dangers of radicalization and all forms of violence and common values of freedom, tolerance, nondiscrimination, and intercultural dialogue that our country defends and our religion is based on.

Finally, community service remains a golden opportunity for students to promote their lifelong commitment to civic engagement and responsibility. This is, of course, the essence of community service. Community service can be seen as a kind of education in the community and civic engagement. Longo (2007) advocates that education is the function of communities and that education is not about tests and knowledge. He argues "it is also about more than preparing people to be part of the system 'as it is.' That is, people in general and students in particular as community servants, and as agents of change, work towards changing their communities for the better in socio-political terms." (p. x).

12.8 Conclusion and Recommendations

Butin (2010) emphasizes the advantages of service-learning both as a pedagogy and practice as follows:

> Service learning is a highly flexible and adaptable practice that works across an immense variety of institutions, faculty, disciplines, and students. It can accommodate differing and divergent goals and it is manifest in manifold instructional and institutional strategies….[its] ability to function and spread across the panoply of higher education is of course part of what makes it such an appealing pedagogical and philosophical model. (p. 144)

The last two decades have seen attempts to reconnect the university with the community. This reconnection can be achieved through strategic planning, implementation, and evaluation (Maurasse, 2001). At the level of planning, university–community partnerships as a new cultural concept should be taken into consideration by the national education policy-makers i.e., top-level institutional involvement. Although the National Charter for Education, Training, and Scientific Research calls for university openness to its socioeconomic environment in this respect, not much has been materialized since 2001.

What does planning involve? Planning in this sense involves considering citizenship education/community service as a university course in its own right. This way, it will be legitimized and will definitely engage the university (administration staff, faculty, and students) in the community. Planning will also target populations to be served, and potential partners. Decision-makers should recommend reduplication of successful partnerships. University should play a vital role in the level of implementation. Besides designing courses that would introduce civic culture at university level (citizenship is taught at Middle school), and university should introduce a practical component as a requirement for course completion. This practical component could be a module of community service all university students should perform prior to their graduation. To attain lasting and sustainable university–community partnerships, regular evaluation of processes and outcomes should be made to see where the partnerships stand. The evaluation should take into account all the stakeholders of the partnership, namely university, students, and community (partners and beneficiaries). The evaluation here is not to determine whether the partnerships pass or fail. Rather, evaluation is to ensure that success is attained. The success of the partnerships will depend on the positive outcomes and benefits for all the parties involved and their satisfaction.

Community service should not be a process rather than a one-shot event over a weekend activity. The journey toward becoming an engaged community member and citizen requires, among other things, skills, commitment, a willingness to be open to new ideas, and perseverance. It does not begin and end with a single community service course, assignment, or activity. This journey is an ongoing, lifelong process. The students' participation in community service raises their consciousness about community issues and contributes to their personal and academic development. According to Soria and Mitchell (2016), the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching

> added an elective classification of "community engagement", which requires that teaching, learning, and scholarship engage faculty, students, and community in mutually beneficial collaborations that address community-identified needs, deepen students' civic and academic learning, contribute to the well-being of the community, and enrich scholarship. (p. 6)

Community service helps students evolve from understanding themselves as individual students in a class, motivated by self-actualization and their tutors', classmates', and communities' recognition. In a famous quote, Mahatma Gandhi challenges people to live the values that underlie community service, "You must be the change you wish to see in the world."

In the community service journey, students discover that community service develops their skills and teaches them insight, patience, courage, compassion, fortitude, commitment, and many other ways of being. For this purpose, civic engagement should be rooted in the Moroccan university life, in courses, in research so that our universities model a mode of civic involvement that occurs at the heart of the university and its environment. By the time our students graduate, the university will have already done its part of the job in terms of having prepared students as engaged community servants and good citizens who are able to lead others to a brighter future.

References

Bok, D. (2015). *Higher Education in America*. Princeton University.

Bringle, R. G., & Hatcher, J. A. (1995). A service learning curriculum for faculty. *Michigan Journal of Community Service Learning, 1995*(2), 112–122.

Butin, D. W. (2010). *Service learning in theory and practice: The future of community engagement in higher education*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cress, C. M., et al. (2005). *Learning through serving*. Virginia: Stylus Publications.

Delano-Oriaran, O., Penick-Parks, M. W., & Fondrie, S. (2018). *Culturally engaging service-learning with diverse communities*. Hershey, Pennsylvania: IGI Global.

European Union. (2017). *Overview of higher education system, Morocco*. Retrieved from https://eacea.ec.europa.eu/sites/eacea-site/files/countryfiches_morocco_2017.pdf.

Higher Council for Education, Training and Scientific Research. (2015). *Strategic vision for reform 2015–2030*. https://www.csefrs.ma/wp-content/uploads/2015/05/Re%CC%81sume%CC%81-vision-Anglais.pdf.

Jacoby, B., et al. (2003). *Building partnerships for service-learning*. San Francisco: Wiley & Sons.

Kane, R. G., Ng-A-Fook, N., Radford, L., & Butler, J. K. (2016). Conceptualising and contextualizing digital citizenship in urban schools: Civic engagement, teacher education, and the placelessness of digital technologies. *Citizenship Education Research Journal*, *6*(1), 24–39.

Longo, N. (2007). *Why community matters: Connecting education with civic life*. State University of New York Press.

Maurrasse, D. J. (2001). *Beyond the campus: How colleges and universities form partnerships with their communities*. New York: Routledge.

McLlrath & Mac Labhraim, (Eds.). (2007). *Higher education and civic engagement: International perspectives*. Aldershot: Ashgate.

Miller, P. M., & Hafner, M. M. (2008). Moving toward dialogical collaboration: A critical examination of a university-school-community partnership. *Educational Administration Quarterly, 44*(1), 66–110. Downloaded from eaq.sage.com.

Ministry of National Education, Curriculum Directorate. (2007). *The pedagogical guidelines for the teaching of english in the Moroccan high schools*. Retrieved from https://waliye.men.gov.ma/Ar/curriculum1/Documents/curr_progr%20Langue%%20Anglaise.pdf.

Ministry of Education, Vocational Training, Higher Education and Scientific Research. Higher Council for Education, Training and Scientific Research. (2015). *Strategic vision of reform 2015–2030*. Higher Education and Scientific Research Section.

Moroccan Ministry of National Education. (1999). *National Charter for Education and Training [NCET]*. Rabat: Nadia Editions.

Soria, K. M., & Mitchell, T. D. (Eds.). (2016). *Civic engagement and community service at research universities: Engaging undergraduates for social justice, social change and responsible citizenship.* London: Palgrave Macmillan. https://www.bgsu.edu/center-for-public-impact/for-faculty/community-based-learning-courses/course-sign-up.html.

Said Zaidoune is Associate Professor at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities Ben M'sik, University Hassan II of Casablanca, Morocco, where he has been a member of the Department of English since 1994. He earned his academic degrees from Sorbonne, France, and Essex, UK, universities. He has taught Applied Linguistics, Stylistics, Public Speaking and Debating, Composition and Research Skills, and Citizenship in Education. He has served as an English program coordinator for university faculty and as University Civic Education Partnership Initiative (CEPI) coordinator in collaboration with the US Embassy in Morocco. Currently, he is in charge of the community service program at the Department of English Studies, Ben M'sik, and teaching Cultural Activism to MA students in partnership with German universities. He also teaches Civil Society in a Social Work Professional undergraduate degree program at Ben M'sik. He has participated in national as well as international conferences and workshops in teaching citizenship education. As a member of his institution's research lab, he supervises Ph.D. students in different areas of EFL and citizenship education. His research interests lie in the areas of teacher education, materials design, and citizenship education.

Chapter 13
Teaching and Learning English Through Digitized Curricula: Challenges and Prospects

Mohamed Dellal

Abstract The paper aims at showing that digitalization of the curricula at Moroccan universities may help solve the problems of crowding that have become a prevailing characteristic of Department of English throughout the country. The assumption, based on statistical data recently collected, shows that to combat the overcrowding problems—endemic to these departments over the last 15 years—a drive to digitalize curricula—courses and homework or even exams—would prove a viable alternative. Such a drive is accompanied with challenges—costs to digitalize—but also with prospects to limit the drop-outs be it in terms of levels of competences or in terms of the numbers who could not complete their college degrees.

Keywords Digitalized · Curricula · Overcrowding · Departments of English · Moroccan University

13.1 Introduction

It is a widely held argument among teachers at the Moroccan university and more particularly in the departments of English that overcrowding in classrooms and amphitheatres is a serious handicap for an effective teaching likely to yield better results (Jones, 1981; also see Chap. 16 in this volume). Although experience and empirical studies prove that there could be other factors at play behind the failure that these teachers complain about, one has to admit that the crowding due to the massification of education is potentially a serious factor to contend with. Teachers have made serious and continuous attempts to remedy the situation and tried to curb these massive flocks of new candidates for registration by calling for entry tests to be conducted to eliminate the ones who are not well predisposed to take the programme. However, the legislation in place has stood as a legal barrier preventing them from doing so. The authorities claim that preventing students from registering in any one

M. Dellal (✉)
Mohamed I University, Oujda, Morocco
e-mail: dellalm@hotmail.fr

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_13

of the faculties they choose would be unconstitutional.[1] In line with these attempts, some departments have tried to hold interviews with candidates with the hope of dissuading non-disposed, non-qualified ones from registration. The idea has been one of giving them advice as to what chances they could stand, and, if possible, have them opt for other programmes they may stand a chance in. The results have been very discouraging because students rarely waver from their initial choices. At any rate, no statistics are available to show such a change, if any. On the other hand, the statistics available based on very recent information illustrate the overall deplorable situation within five English departments which actually answered the call and provided the information requested.[2] Apart from one department (Mohamed V, Rabat)—which seems to be enjoying a normal situation with 31 teachers to cover 1,060 students with a ratio of 34 students per teacher—the situation in the four other departments is very depressing be it in terms of teachers or the number of students for each one of them. The shortest number is 139 students at Moulay Slimane University in Beni Mellal while in two other departments (Mohamed I in Oujda and Abdelmalek Saadi in Tetouan) the number exceeds 230. The most crowded classrooms are to be found at Ibn Zohr University, Agadir with cohorts exceeding 587 requiring high capacity amphitheatres difficult to manage for ideal teaching and learning.

When we look at the overall totals, the numbers are more frightening as we get capacity crowds per classroom—all levels confounded—exceeding 1,251 for 114 teachers available in all the five departments. These have to cover 27,967 students distributed over 41 facilities. If we look at the staggering details, the capacity crowds exceed 245 with the largest at the beginning levels (S1/S2—first year)—that is levels that require closer pedagogical attention—with 290. At the medium levels (S3/S4), which still require more attention, the levels exceed 254, and at the highest (S5/S6)—who request a more specialized attention with research paper supervision—the levels are still high at 162 per teacher.

Any language teacher would certainly agree that the situation in most departments is discouraging to say the least. Crowded classrooms are not ideal for providing quality teaching which inevitably has serious repercussions on any effective teaching likely to produce competent language users. When we add the shortage of rooms,

---

[1] See Article 31 of the Moroccan Constitution of 2011 which states that:

The State, the public establishments and territorial collectivities work for the mobilization of all the means available to facilitate the equal access of all citizens [feminine and masculine] to conditions that permit their enjoyment of the right: (…)

- to a modern, accessible education of quality;
- to education concerning attachment to the Moroccan identity and to the immutable national constants;
- to professional instruction and to physical and artistic education;
- Reference to art
- (…).

[2] Table 13.1 gives the statistics of 5 English departments which are: Mohammed V, Rabat; Mohamed I, Oujda; Abdelmalek Saadi, Tetouan; Ibn Zohr, Agadir and Moulay Slimane, Beni Mellal. The statistics are those of 2018–2019.

Table 13.1 Table of Students, Rooms and Teachers 2018–2019

University/Departments of English	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	Total	Rooms	Teachers/Department	Av/Department
Mohammed V, Rabat	560		300		100 CS + 100 Ling		1,060	8	31	34
Mohamed I, Oujda	2,439		1,360		532 Lit + 532 Ling		4,854	8	21	231
Abdelmalek Saadi, Tetouan	1,803		1,362		404 Lit + 344 Ling		3,913	8	15	260
Moulay Slimane, Beni Mellal	1,447		794		351 Lit + 325 Ling		2,917	7	21	139
Ibn Zohr, Agadir	4,783		5,849		1,112 Lit 3,479 Ling		15,223	7	26	587
Over Totals	11,031		9,663		6,167		21,967	41	114	1251
Over all Averages/Year/Teacher	290		254		162		245	–	–	–

specifically for certain specialized courses such as listening and speaking (Spoken English) or composition and grammar, one understands the magnitude of the problem and the reasons why results are not to the satisfaction of all.[3]

The drive behind the present endeavour, therefore, is to propose a digitization of programmes that could help resolve some of these problems relating to the shortage of teachers, rooms and specialized equipment. Such a move, it has to be admitted, may only open up prospects in line with the aforementioned objectives, but it will certainly have to deal with certain challenges also of a greater magnitude. It has to be underlined, as a matter of fact, that the suggested project does not propose a total replacement of classroom interaction with distant learning, it rather suggests a dual approach where both distant learning as well as classroom learning are fused and made complementary. In other words, the same programme should be available online, and should be made possible for classroom attendees under the supervision of a teacher[4] to bring assistance to those who wish so.

This dual approach is adopted on the grounds that it does not pretend to privilege imports—although one would hope it does—that could accompany the digitalization process. The literature available on the issue, it has to be acknowledged, is not conclusive as to whether introducing Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in education has more positive effects on the students' achievements (see Borman et al., 2009; Given et al., 2008; Potocki et al., 2013; Rouse & Kruger, 2004). Some have concluded that online teaching programmes in developed countries have shown little or no positive effects compared to traditional classroom approaches. Yet, on the contrary, other studies have concluded that in developing countries digitization seems to be working (see Cheung & Slavin, 2012, 2013). These discrepant results, it has to be underlined, find no justification in this specialized literature, but one easily sees that ICT is working better in developing countries because the traditional classroom situations are very bad. Therefore any change brought by ICT methods could never be worse. This is the driving force at the heart of this work, given the belief that the situation in universities is worse and that the introduction of ICT could never be but a help.

13.2 The Prospects

As suggested above, a provision of digitized curricula would

> prove particularly suited to providing individualized differentiation (hereafter, individualization), with its algorithms that allow for individual learning paths. Incorporating the differences in level, interests and learning styles between students is shown to improve students'

[3] According to the information collected, even the old Laboratories used for Speaking and Listening have been turned into ordinary rooms with barely any equipment for practice when it comes to listening comprehension or phonetic practice.

[4] For the online supervision requiring technical competence, the presence of a webmaster could be helpful.

> motivation … and neglecting these differences might lead to a decreased performance in certain students. (Haelermans, 2017)[5]

By providing this individualized learning environment, the import—at least during the input phase—is maximized as it offers slower-learning students time enough to grasp and understand at their own pace, review information as many times as they want to maximize the intake away from the competing environment that the traditional classroom situation is characterized with. The merits of such an approach are also vouched by pedagogical and psychological studies given that students do not learn in the same way or at the same pace.[6] Strategies for learning are indeed individualized with such an approach which could only offer as much incentive for each one and not leaving anybody behind (See footnote 6). If the programme is varied in such a way that it caters for the skills and strategies that potential students may have, it would be all the more beneficial. In other words, for the programme to be more effective, it would have to cater for students' competences by making it interactive, task based and specifically monitored by the teacher or some webmaster or by the two at the same time as they can help and provide feedback whenever needed.[7] Taekke and Paulsen (2017) speak of contributions to the educational process that ICT brings forth as they insist that research conducted on the issue itemizes six possible imports to that effect:

> Firstly, if social media are used in teaching, the opportunities to express oneself, participate, collaborate, find information, reflect and learn together are expanded. The opportunities for help, teacher feedback, knowledge sharing, student productions, differentiation, shared notes, knowledge storage and process writing are also expanded (Crook, 2008; Moody, 2010).[8]

The second through the fourth imports all point out to the potential that ICT offers to communicate in class, and outside the classroom as it favours community discourse much better than ever was or could be without it (Tække & Paulsen, 2017). Because the fifth and sixth are more suited to the purposes of this paper, they will be quoted in their entirety:

> Fifthly, studies show that an active inclusion of social media provides better motivation and commitment as it expands the possibilities for creating lessons that students find interesting and challenging. With new media it is possible to achieve greater diversity in teaching and exceed traditional classroom training (Elavsky, 2012; Yaros, 2012).
>
> Sixthly, students acquire better media and IT skills when social media are used actively in class and that students become better prepared for contemporary society that is permeated by digital media (Levinsen & Sørensen, 2011; Lowe & Laffey, 2011).[9]

---

[5]See also Tomlinson (2004), and Tomlinson and Kalbfleish (1998).

[6]See Henry et al. (2018).

[7]For the record, I personally designed a digitalized course of English for False beginners as part of a Master program on International Relations for GDS (2012–2014) program at the Faculty of Law and Juridical Sciences at the University of Mohamed I, Oujda. The Program is available on my Google Drive and can be accessed if somebody sends me his/her email address. It has never been used.

[8]Qtd in Jesper Taekke and Michael Paulsen (2017).

[9]Qtd in Taekke and Paulsen 2016 op.cit.

One must admit that despite the pessimism advanced by certain researchers with regard to the inclusion of ICT, there is also some optimism shown towards its inclusion. This is what the above assertions support. Experience also shows that there is much more motivation with the introduction of ICT to the classroom—at least in the developing countries context—than the studies quoted above show. But one has to contend that such a move does not come without a price.

13.3 The Challenges

While the prospects may seem rosy overall, the challenges are perhaps the most important thing to contend with. These may range from the purely material to psychological and sociological ones. One, indeed, may acknowledge that the costs that such a programme would require have not been evaluated and they need sustained and careful studies to be determined. But, it is easier to see that the one-laptop-per teacher-and-student programme started earlier in 2000,[10] would be an encouraging incentive to take up again, although, by now and on average, one could say that the majority of students have a smartphone and two-thirds possess a laptop. For those who do not have nor could afford one, specialized rooms should be made available; outsourcing to cybercafés could also help with such a process. At any rate, experiences by China and India and some parts of Latin America could be borrowed as models (see Herath & Hewagamage, 2015). The actual digitizing of the courses would perhaps need more finances to entice teachers to adhere to the programme. On the other hand, the programme would also require training for both teachers and students in the use of the programmes and platforms to be used. Although available, these platforms may require subscriptions by the universities; which in my understanding should not be more than they could afford. Google,[11] Moocs[12] and Bitnami[13] are possible venues that offer such services.[14] Overall, one would acknowledge that if the programme is done with the attention it requires, at least financially, the results would mitigate the charges.

Notwithstanding all these difficulties and despite the willingness of Moroccan universities to have a go at the programme, it should also be admitted that there could be some resistance on the part of some teachers who would like, as suggested above, to be paid for the extra effort they would have to make to digitize their courses. But there could be many other reasons why they would resist such a programme.

[10]In the early 2000s, the Moroccan government started a similar program to encourage students and teachers to use ICT.

[11]Google + and Google Drive offer a platform. I personally used it to develop a course of English for False Beginners.

[12]Moocs also offers platforms.

[13]Bitnami also offers similar platforms.

[14]Although these are offering free of charge platforms to experiment with, when more space is needed, they charge money accordingly.

The literature on such an issue, as a matter of fact, confirms that the resistance has shown towards ICT introduction in education at the beginning of the century on the part of teachers 'still applies as of 2016' (Haelermans, 2017, p.44). In fact, the same author insists on the fact that one of the most important resisting factors to any such a programme of digitalization has and would always be the teacher. This is clear from the following:

> … one can roughly distinguish two types of teachers: 1) those that do not want to change, and 2) those that are willing to change but do not know how or feel insecure about the change. Ertmer (1999) has defined these as two types of barriers to change, namely first- and second-order. First-order barriers are extrinsic to teachers, such as equipment, time, training, support, etc., whereas second-order barriers are intrinsic and are more related to teachers' beliefs regarding technological change. First-order barriers are more related to the abovementioned second type of teacher, whereas the first type of teacher has more second-order barriers. It is important to note that, to date, there does not seem to be a clear relation between other observable teacher characteristics and the susceptibility, willingness and confidence of the teacher in using ICT (effectively) in class (Haelermans, 2017, p. 44).

Extrinsic barriers, researchers acknowledge, may be easily overcome because they pertain to teachers receiving the adequate and necessary training to handle the equipment. It would hypothetically seem that some of the staff would actually be willing to go ahead with the change, while a tiny few would not. Intrinsic factors, however, are very hard to overcome as they pertain to some teachers' Orwellian[15] disposition for the change brought up by the whole technological revolution.

Taekke and Paulson (2017), meanwhile, have a more rational and optimistic approach since they dwell on research showing that there are three phases to the process of inclusion of ICT in education. Their theory of the three waves shows that in the first stage, Internet intrusion becomes a challenge to both teachers and students creating thus some havoc within the classroom. Students are distracted, and teachers are at a loss as to how to bring order into the process. In the second stage, both teachers' and students' interactions become mediated through social media. In other words, bridges and landmarks are set up for further usage. The third stage shows more acceptance and integration of the tools in the making of the classroom. Both teachers and students are adapted to the usage of the media which facilitates their interaction. The most edifying challenge, based on such assumptions, it would seem, becomes the amount of willingness on the part of the actors—faculty and staff—that the process requires in the two first stages. Past these stages, the process may start showing some effectiveness which everybody would find to their advantage.

[15] George Orwell's *1984* seems to have struck a very bitter note as a manifesto rejecting the cybertechnological culture that comes with the intrusion of cyber technology. It would also be convenient to quote similar attitudes cultivated by William Gibson's *Neuromancer*, *Mona Lisa Hard Drive*, *Burning Chrome* and similar literature.

13.4 Conclusion

The present endeavour, it has to be admitted, needs further empirical research with regard to the costs of such a project, and the needs likely to come up with it. As it stands, it is simply hypothetical and needs concerted work to become a visible roadmap likely to help in the implementation of the change proposed; a change which would hopefully remedy the disastrous classroom situations that both teachers and student suffer from in Morocco. Yet, the management of this change comes also with the conditions and the procedure to follow for evaluation and for the way potential graduates are prepared and recruited for the job market. This would require a strong political will on the part of the authorities to implement mechanisms likely to combat fraud and lack of competence. This should be accompanied by the implementation of directives that show a sufficient sense of urgency, sufficiently clear vision, the removal of obstacles through rational and debating processes, the celebration of short-term wins, and mostly making it clear that change is a prerequisite because of the urgency of the situation (Fernandez & Rainy, 2006).

References

Atkinson, C. (2010). *The backchannel*. Peachpit: New Riders.

Blanchard, A. L., & Markus, M. L. (2004). The experienced sense of a virtual community: Characteristics and processes. *ACM SIGMIS Database: the DATABASE for Advances in Information Systems, 35*(1), 64–79.

Borman, G. D., Benson, J. G., & Overman, L. (2009). A randomized field trial of the Fast ForWord Language computer-based training program. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 31*(1), 82–106.

Cheung, A. C., & Slavin, R. E. (2012). How features of educational technology applications affect student reading outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Educational Research Review, 7*(3), 198–215.

Cheung, A. C., & Slavin, R. E. (2013). The effectiveness of educational technology applications for enhancing mathematics achievement in K-12 classrooms: A meta-analysis. *Educational research review, 9,* 88–113.

Crook, C. (2008). Web 2.0 technologies for learning: The current landscape–opportunities, challenges and tensions. Research Report. Becta: Leading next generation learning.

Elavsky, C. M. (2012). You can't go back now: Incorporating "disruptive" technologies in the large lecture hall. In H. S. N. Al-Deen & J. A. Hendricks (Eds.), *Social media: Usage and impact* (pp. 75–91). Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.

Ertmer, P. A. (1999). Addressing first-and second-order barriers to change: Strategies for technology integration. *Educational Technology Research and Development, 47*(4), 47–61.

Fernandez, S., & Rainey, H. G. (2006). Managing successful organizational change in the public sector. *Public Administration Review, 66*(2), 168–176.

Ghysels, J., & Haelermans, C. (2018). New evidence on the effect of computerized individualized practice and instruction on language skills. *Journal of Computer Assisted learning, 34*(4), 440–449.

Ghysels, J., Haelermans, C., & Prince, F. (2014). *The economics of information in human capital formation–evidence from two randomized experiments with low stakes tests in secondary education* (TIER Working Paper Series. WP 14/27).

Given, B. K., Wasserman, J. D., Chari, S. A., Beattie, K., & Eden, G. F. (2008). A randomized, controlled study of computer-based intervention in middle school struggling readers. *Brain and Language, 106*(2), 83–97.

Haelermans, C. (2017). *Digital Tools in Education: On Usage, Effects and the Role of the. Teacher.* Stockholm: SNS Forlag.

Henry, J., Hernalesteen, A., Dumas, B., & Collard, A. S. (2018). Que signifie éduquer au numérique? Pour une approche interdisciplinaire. In *Didapro 7–DidaSTIC. De 0 à 1 ou l'heure de l'informatique à l'école*.

Herath, H. M. C. T., & Hewagamage, C. (2015). Analysis of ICT usage for the teaching and learning process by the academics. *International Journal of Computer and Information Technology, 4*(05), 803–808.

Jones, M. T. (1981). Allocation of students in North African universities. *Higher Education*, *10*(3), 315–334.

Junco, R., Heiberger, G., & Loken, E. (2011). The effect of Twitter on college student engagement and grades. *Journal of computer assisted learning, 27*(2), 119–132.

Levinsen, K. T. Sørensen B. H. (2011). Fremtidsrettedekompetancerogdidaktisk design. In B. Meyer (Ed.), *It-didaktisk design. CURSIV, skriftserieudgivet ad Institut for UddannelseogPædagogik, Aarhus Universitet* (pp. 57–75). Lexington Books.

Lovari, A., & Giglietto, F. (2012). Social media and Italian universities: An empirical study on the adoption and use of Facebook, Twitter and Youtube. Twitter and Youtube (January 2, 2012).

Lowe, B., & Laffey, D. (2011). Is Twitter for the birds? Using Twitter to enhance student learning in a marketing course. *Journal of Marketing Education, 33*(2), 183–192.

McNely, B. (2009). Backchannel persistence and collaborative meaning-making. In *Proceedings of the 27th ACM International Conference on Design of Communication* (pp. 297–304). ACM.

Moody, M. (2010). Teaching Twitter and beyond: Tips for incorporating social media in traditional courses. *Journal of Magazine & New Media Research, 11*(2), 1–9.

Paulsen, M., & Tække, J. (2013). Social Media and teaching: Education in the new media environment. Paper presented at Nordmedia 2013, Oslo, Norway.

Potocki, A., Ecalle, J., & Magnan, A. (2013). Effects of computer-assisted comprehension training in less skilled comprehenders in second grade: A one-year follow-up study. *Computers & Education, 63,* 131–140.

Reid, J. (2011). "We Don't Twitter, We Facebook": An alternative pedagogical space that enables critical practices in relation to writing. *English Teaching: Practice and Critique, 10*(1), 58–80.

Rinaldo, S. B., Tapp, S., & Laverie, D. A. (2011). Learning by tweeting: Using Twitter as a pedagogical tool. *Journal of marketing education, 33*(2), 193–203.

Rouse, C. E., & Krueger, A. B. (2004). Putting computerized instruction to the test: a randomized evaluation of a "scientifically based" reading program. *Economics of Education Review, 23*(4), 323–338.

Tække, J., & Paulsen, M. (2012a). The challenge of social media–between prohibition and indifference in the classroom. In *13th Annual Convention of the Media Ecology Association: The crossroads of the word, New York* (pp. 7–10).

Tække, J., & Paulsen, M. E. (2012b). Attention to attention: Reflexions on new media in education. In *Danish Conference of Sociology 2012*.

Tække, J., & Paulsen, M. (2017). Digitalisation of education: The theory of the three waves. The Centre for Internet Research. Aarhus: Denmark.

Tomlinson, C. A. (2004). Research evidence for differentiation. *School Administrator, 61*(7), 30.

Tomlinson, C. A., & Kalbfleisch, M. L. (1998). Teach me, teach my brain: A call for differentiated classrooms. *Educational Leadership, 56*(3), 52–55.

Webb, L. M., Wilson, M. L., Hodges, M., Smith, P. A., & Zakeri, M. (2012). Facebook: How college students work it. In H. S. Noor Al-Deen & J. A. Hendricks (Eds.), *Social media: Usage and impact* (pp. 3–22). Lanham: MD: Lexington Books.

Wright, N. (2010). Twittering in teacher education: Reflecting on practicum experiences. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning, 25*(3), 259–265.

Yaros, R. A. (2012). Social media in education: Effects of personalization and interactivity on engagement and collaboration. In H. S. Noor Al-Deen & J. A. Hendricks (Eds.), *Social media: Usage and impact* (pp. 57–74). Lanham: MD: Lexington Books.
Zeng, L., Hall, H., & Pitts, M. J. (2012). Cultivating a community of learners: The potential challenges of social media in higher education. In H. S. Noor Al-Deen & J. A. Hendricks (Eds.), *Social media: Usage and impact* (pp. 111–116). Lanham: MD: Lexington Books.

Mohamed Dellal is retired Professor from Mohamed I University in Oujda. He holds a *Doctorat d'état* Degree from Mohamed I University (1999). He started his carrier in ELT teaching and supervision and he later joined the English Department at Mohamed I in Oujda. Prof. Dellal has published a large number of articles in national and international journals. His main themes of interest are so varied and they include literature, teaching methodology in higher education, cybersecurity and international law.

Part V
Challenges and Future Prospects

Chapter 14
Challenges to the Mission of the English Department in Morocco

Hssein Khtou

Abstract Since the foundation of the English Department in Morocco in the early 1960s, English has attracted the attention of Baccalaureate holders, in view of English gaining momentum worldwide as a lingua franca of international communication. Over the decades, a tendency emerged for the number of English Department students to grow exponentially. This factor, together with the reform that started in 2003, which condensed the four year-program into three years, presents real challenges for the English Department at the strategic, administrative, and pedagogical levels. The present paper explores this issue by discussing the current situation at the Department, highlighting the key challenges to it and suggesting ways to improve its quality in teaching and learning. The paper concludes with a few recommendations.

Keywords Moroccan English Department · Educational reform · Teaching quality

14.1 Introduction

For the last decades, English language teaching has been given much importance in the Moroccan higher education. This is the reason why the departments of English are getting numerous in various faculties of letters. They are established to meet the growing interest in learning the English language. The present paper aims at shedding light on the mission of the Department of English with a special reference to the Rabat department, which is the oldest in the country. More particularly, emphasis will be put on the major challenges faced by the department.

The paper is divided into three main sections. The first section is concerned with the mission of Higher Education, and it discusses its functions and purposes worldwide and in the Moroccan context. Since the study focuses on a department of English, it is of import to present some information about this type of Department, and this is the concern of Section Two. The last section provides a discussion of the main challenges which the department of English in Rabat has to deal with.

H. Khtou (✉)
Dar El Hadith El Hassania Institution, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: hsseinkhtou@gmail.com

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_14

14.2 Higher Education in Morocco

Given that higher education is a diverse system including different types of institutions, each one has its own working strategies. However, they all aim to train and prepare future specialists to take up different professional responsibilities in various walks of life. As a result of their course of study and experience in higher education, students are supposed to get academic knowledge. This knowledge may be either factual or experiential (see Carter, 1985, reported in Ouakrime, 1997). Among other things, factual knowledge refers to concepts, structures, and principles which students learn as a result of their exposure to the syllabus of a given discipline. This exposure could be direct (e.g., in the classroom) or indirect (e.g., the process of self-discovery). As concerns experiential knowledge, it is the type of knowledge obtained from a student's experience in the context of the university. Its acquisition is "more incidental, resulting from the student's dealing with the inner world of feelings, emotions and general attitudes" (Ouakrime, 1997: 357). This experiential knowledge strongly contributes to the development of the student's maturity, Ouakrime (1997) argues.

To help students integrate in real life after they graduate, the university should include the development of a number of skills in their academic training. In this regard, Carter (1985) distinguishes between four types of skills: information, mental, action, and social skills. First, information skills refer to the learning strategies that a given student develops so as to get both factual and experiential knowledge. Second, mental or thinking skills are supposed to enable students, according to Ouakrime (1997: 359) to "understand and experiment with techniques and procedures by which concepts, principles and ideas are organized" in their academic disciplines while acquiring intellectual knowledge afforded by their academic disciplines. Action skills refer to students' abilities to put into practice the knowledge acquired. Finally, social skills allow students to interact in their society with different categories of people.

Moreover, Ennaji (1997: 335) states that "the university has an educational role. It is a center of advanced studies and research." However, he believes that the Moroccan university is in a crisis for four main reasons. The first one is that the university is suffering from a bad management of the human and material resources. For instance, there is a dearth in the university publications. Moreover, the conditions under which teaching and learning take place are poor. There are no facilities for research: the libraries are not well equipped and access to university computers for research purposes is most of the time not possible. A third cause for the university crisis is the lack of motivation on the part of teachers and students due to the low salaries paid for teachers and the widespread phenomenon of unemployment among graduates. This negatively affects the elaboration of reform proposals concerning these matters.

Similarly, Bouzenirh (1997) attributes the problems of the Moroccan university to different factors. For one thing, teachers do not have very clear goals and objectives as to what they are teaching. She further argues that although course objectives may be available at the level of Departments, there is a strong need for official texts which define these goals and objectives. Moreover, she points out the absence of

instructional supports. In other words, the university is suffering from the scarcity of logistical means and equipment that would make the teaching and learning practices efficient. Another problem is that few university teachers have had a pedagogical training, which renders the quality of teaching quite unsatisfactory. The problematic area of professional training, she argues, has had an influence on the kind and quality of knowledge imparted to students. The theoretical interests of teachers interfere with what they are supposed to teach. This adds to the problems that the students encounter in developing learning strategies. They mostly rely on memorization and depend on spoon-feeding, which develops in them negative attitudes toward assignments requiring analysis and critical thinking.

In an attempt to find solutions to the crisis of the Moroccan university, a number of recommendations have been made. Ouakrime (1997: 364), for instance, discusses a number of implications for teaching, learning, and research that would make higher education "high." First, there is a strong need to redefine the purposes of higher education, for he believes that it is essential to provide "a necessary justification for the existence of the university […] (, a thing which) is still unclear to a majority of decision makers at the national level." As concerns the teaching methodology, new flexible practices are to be introduced in order to help learners benefit from their university experience.

Moreover, action research in the Moroccan university is needed (see Ouakrime, 1997). There are so many areas linked to higher education which need to be investigated. These include teaching, training of teachers, and assessment, among others. It is worth noting that in the same way as the university is supposed to produce "marketable" students, the type of research carried out within its realms should meet the needs of the job market. As Belghazi (1997: 201) puts it "research is valorised as an exchange value. Its saleability and marketability is what determines its importance." That is to say, people have to conduct research studies whose value and utility are clear.

14.3 Recent Educational Reforms in Morocco

14.3.1 The National Charter

The National Charter (2000) aims to achieve four goals. First, it prepares the students for their integration into the job market through the stipulation that useful knowledge is imparted to them. Second, it provides students with continuous training during their studies. The third aim is that university teachers are supposed to embark on research projects. Finally, they are expected to disseminate knowledge.

According to the national charter, university studies should satisfy a number of requirements. They should meet urgent needs in the developmental, economic, and social fields. University studies consist in the system of modules and units of training as well as common cores among modules. Furthermore, the students' educational

profile is determined, after the initial orientation and the evaluation of the knowledge and skills acquired. Gaining credits takes place through continuous assessment and regular examinations.

As is the case in the Moroccan old system, the National Charter states that programs of study at the university consist of three cycles of study, viz. the “first cycle,” the “second cycle,” and the “third cycle,” now called the “doctorate cycle.” However, what is new is that the first cycle lasts for four semesters, at the end of which a student gets a degree of “General University Studies” that would allow him/her to join the job market or pursue his/her studies in the other cycles. The second cycle, which is the “Maitrise,” lasts for two semesters. As for the doctorate cycle, it lasts between four and five years. During the first year, a given student studies within the DESA (Diplôme des Etudes Supérieures Approfondies) program and he/she spends the remaining years (between 3 and 4 years) working on his/her Doctorate dissertation. An academic year will consist of two semesters with the possibility of a summer session if the conditions are suitable.

14.3.2 The Emergency Plan 2009–2012

In order to work toward the results stated in the Charter published in 2000 (see Sect. 14.2 above), the three-year emergency plan of 2009 came to correct some of the pitfalls of the implementation of the 2000 charter. The plan did not depart from the main orientations of the Charter, but was a good warning that quality should be a prime concern, hence the term “Najah” (success) attributed to the plan. Among other things, the emergency plans sought to implement the virtues of equality and generalize access to education. The focal point in this regard was addressing the problem of school dropout.

The goals of the Emergency plan were predicated on a number of action plans. In order for education to be accessible to all, 1 million districts were targeted. This was boosted by making available free meals for students in rural areas and, in partnership with local authorities, transportation to and from the school. Connected to this is the increase witnessed in the number of scholarships and the number of boarding schools built to host the increasing number of students.

14.3.3 The Strategic Vision for the Reform (2015–2030)

The last educational reform in Morocco is articulated in the Strategic Vision (2015–2030). The main idea of this reform is sustainability of education, having recognized some of the shortcomings of previous reforms. This “vision” hinges on three main principles: education for all, equity and equality of opportunity, and integration of the individual in society.

The Strategic vision offered a clear idea of the functions of the Moroccan school. First, the school needs to prepare, facilitate the citizen's integration into the social and economic context. Second, aware of the challenges of the twenty-first century, the strategic vision put clear emphasis on research and innovation. As a third function, in order to produce a citizen that "thinks globally and acts locally," the Moroccan school needs to promote the teaching and learning of cultural development and socializing into universal and local values.

14.4 The Department of English in the Faculty of Letters

The first Department of English was set up in the academic year 1959–1960 in Rabat, followed by that of Fez Dhar Mehraz in 1972–1973. Now, more than 14 Departments are offering "courses in the English language, in English and American Literature, in British and American Civilization […], in Linguistics, and in translation. The mainstaple has been, by far, English Language reading, writing, grammar, and Literature" (Dahbi, 2003: 14). The Department of English aims to help students master "the English language along with the appropriate knowledge about the social and cultural environment of the language, not only by reference to the Anglo-American contexts, but also to most of the other English-speaking countries the world over" (The Rabat Department Guide, 2001: 7).

One of the characteristics of the Departments of English, according to Dahbi (2003), is that of excellence in teaching. The Departments are known for their best quality of teaching and their pedagogical organizations. For example, it has become an established tradition that teachers are asked to provide course descriptions, which include objectives, the syllabus, teaching and evaluation methodologies, and textbooks and/or a bibliography for each course. As reported in Dahbi (2003), this is the case at least in the Department of Rabat. This tradition is an aspect of collective management and collective responsibility shared by the faculty members.

Another organizational feature of the Department of English is that of coordination. Dahbi (2003) reports that teachers of the same courses agree on a general course description and they also hold regular meetings to check the course progress and develop agreed-upon tests. This is mainly true for language arts courses like "grammar" and "reading comprehension." A third characteristic of the Department is that of administering mock exams to familiarize the students with the exam format. In order to make the grading fair and credible, resort is made to double marking the exam scripts. Whenever there is a large discrepancy which is usually more than two points out of twenty between two assigned grades, a third reader assesses the script and ultimately a final grade is awarded by consensus and after sometimes exhaustive discussion. It is worth mentioning that Dahbi is mainly referring here to the situation before 2003 when the implementation of the reform began. For example, double correction is no longer practiced with the Department, and coordination is largely reduced according to many teachers with whom I have had informal discussions.

The department of English presents another distinguishing characteristic: often times, its staff has received professional training. In this regard, Dahbi (2003) views teachers of English as being professionally trained. He states that “even though most teachers specialized in literature or linguistics, most had had additional training in ESL/EFL teaching methodology, even those who did not teach in secondary school” (2003: 17). In addition, the Moroccan Association of Teachers of English (MATE), which holds regional study days, a regular annual conference and publishes a periodical newsletter as well as the conference proceedings, provides an in-service training for teachers of English, especially those teaching at the secondary level.

Despite the good characteristics mentioned above, the Departments of English suffer from a number of problems. One of the major failings of the Departments is that of an insufficient contribution to the national intellectual life. Dahbi (2003) tries to account for the dearth in the publications of the departments on the ground that there are no suitable forums for publication. Despite their existence, the MATE Newsletter and MATE Proceedings have a limited scope of interest. The majority of teachers, who may be highly specialized in Linguistics or Literature, have a strong need for specialized periodicals, where they could publish their work. However, “these publications have very high standards that are well known to the English Department scholar who does not have access to adequate library and information resources in the country and who, very soon after coming back (from abroad), feels out of touch with the field” (Dahbi, 2003: 21). He wonders why teachers do not publish in Arabic or French. The answer is that there are problems linked to the English teachers’ mastery of the two languages, which hinders such an undertaking.

14.5 Challenges Facing the English Department

Like any department in higher education, the department of English faces a number of challenges. This state of affairs necessitates that all the parties concerned with the quality of higher education do their best to overcome these hurdles.

The first challenge that the department faces is that of professional development. The latter, needless to say, plays a vital role in any occupation. Although teaching is one of the areas in which this is badly needed, most teachers start their career without any preservice training. While we do not have exact statistics, an informal examination of the teachers’ background has revealed that most of them have never had any pedagogical training. That is to say, they started teaching immediately after earning an MA or doctorate degree, which oftentimes negatively affects their performance as teachers. Research has shown that by engaging in high-quality professional development, they acquire the required teaching methods and skills and get some notions about teaching and learning. As a result, they learn how to become effective in their profession, and they develop the necessary skills to involve their students in effective learning.

In a study conducted by Khtou and Gaddar (2017), it is reported that an average of 40% of their respondents had never participated in any professional development

activity although most of the participants (87%) had been teaching for at least ten years. However, the teachers consulted admitted their need for professional development activities, and they stressed giving top priority to areas like teaching methods, testing, and the use of technology. Also, there is a general consensus among the respondents that professional development should be compulsory for university professors to facilitate their tasks as teachers. Otherwise, the faculty can, at least, provide on-the-job training in pedagogical skills for the teachers, which is likely to improve the quality of teaching and increase the motivation of both students and teachers.

Another challenge in the English department has to do with the assessment practices. In the relevant literature, it is often reported that assessment plays an important role in education. For example, Rowntree (1987: 1) argues that "*if we wish to discover the truth about an educational system we must look into its assessment procedures.*" Therefore, the Department of English needs to implement an effective system of assessment. This can be achieved by an appropriate implementation of formative assessment, which is characterized by regular feedback provision. Formative assessment helps students improve their level, and teachers their performance as instructors. Within such a system, students are given an opportunity to know about their weaknesses and to try to overcome them provided they are effectively guided on how to improve their performance. Likewise, teachers can get information on the efficiency of their teaching, and can introduce changes to meet the needs of their students and the objectives of their courses (see Khtou and Erguig, 2013; Ouakrime, 2000, among others).

In order for the assessment system to be successful, a number of requirements should be met. First of all, all the parties involved in education, viz, Teachers, students, and decision-makers need to be convinced of its utility. Furthermore, the number of students per group must be reduced in order to enable teachers to easily test their students on a regular basis. The problem of overcrowdedness can be solved by recruiting more teachers and building new classrooms whenever the need arises (Khtou, 2011).

In relation to course programs, there is a need to ensure quality. Although course syllabi are sometimes agreed upon by teachers, it is not always the case that the professors would stick to them. Instead, some teachers might opt for using recycled content they are familiar with. Therefore, there is a need for rigorous systems of quality assurance, which is likely to guarantee giving students the instruction they need. Needless to say, such systems are going to support the credibility of the university's degrees on the part of potential employers and foreign institutions.

Similarly, management training should be provided to the administrative staff like the department head and the members of the department council. This could include skills related to, among other things, timetabling, and program development. The department could invite experts to run a number of management and leadership programs, which is likely to help the staff update and improve their management skills.

Another challenge in the department has to do with the ways to improve admission policies. Oftentimes, large numbers of students enroll in the department, and the latter ends up receiving students with a low level in English. The teachers, therefore, are

forced to work with large mixed-level classes, some of which are made up of more than one hundred students. Although an intake examination is administered to all the students desiring to enroll in the Department of English, necessary precautions should be taken not to make of these entrance exams "rejection tests."

Moreover, there is a lot to be desired in relation to boosting infrastructure. Overcrowded classes characterize the Department, the number of rooms is small and these latter are not always large enough. Therefore, the groups should contain a reasonable number of students. Of course, recruiting more teachers in the department should be given a priority; especially that many old teachers are getting retired. Moreover, the department has poor resources in terms of relevant books, specialized journals, information communication technology (ICT) equipment, and access to learning resources.

Finally, given that research is an important component of university work, it stands to reason that developing a culture of educational research is a must. It is often noticed that few teachers pursue research projects. This is due to many reasons such as a lack of training and incentives and overloaded schedules. Moreover, given the low wages, many teachers take up teaching duties in other institutions (especially private ones) to earn more money. Therefore, the teachers' salaries, too, need to be increased to help them overcome their endemic financial difficulties. If they are well paid, they would most likely give up working in the private sector in order "to make ends meet" and become more committed to their job as instructors and researchers at the university.

In order to meet the demands of the 21st labor market, the department has to get rid of irrelevant subjects. In this regard, Ouakrime (1997) believes that course content should go hand in hand with the students' needs. This would be achieved by introducing challenging and varied courses so as to make of students autonomous and critical learners. Another way of improving course content is by introducing new courses in the curriculum. Those courses should be useful enough to help students easily integrate into the job market. For instance, "there is a growing feeling among university teachers (and students) of English that an English for Special Purposes (ESP) course is needed at the university level so that students can be trained for [...] jobs in places like banks, airports, and travel agencies" (Ennaji and Sadiqi, 1994: 162).

14.6 Conclusion

Learning the English language has become a necessity nowadays. This is the reason why various educational institutions have introduced it as an important course in their curricula. In the faculties of letters, the department of English is playing a vital role in this regard. The present paper has tried to shed light on the Department of English in Rabat and its major challenges. After briefly discussing higher education and its mission, I have presented some features of the Department of English. Finally, I have brought up some issues with which the department needs to deal in order to improve the quality of both teaching and learning. It has been concluded

that the working conditions need to be improved by reducing the class size. Also, the paucity of teaching materials and support equipment should be solved as some classrooms are not well equipped, libraries suffer from a shortage of references, and laboratories need good equipment. As for the teachers, they need both preservice and in-service pedagogical trainings. One way to overcome the new enrollees' poor language proficiency is through improving ELT at earlier levels, viz, Primary school, junior high school, and high school. Of course, there is a need to encourage teachers to devote some time to research projects, which is likely to have a positive impact on their academic careers.

References

Bouzenirh, F. (1997). Research: At what price? In T. Belgahazi (1997) (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Conference on the Idea of the University* (pp. 345–353). Rabat: Publications of the Faculty of Letters.

Carter, R. (1985). A taxonomy of objectives of professional education. *Studies in Higher Education, 10*(2), 135–149.

Dahbi, M. (2003). The Moroccan department of English. In Youssi et al. (Eds.), *The Moroccan character: Studies in honor of Mohammed Abu-Talib.* Rabat: Amapatril.

Ennaji, M. (1997). The university reform project: Change and responsibility. In T. Belghazi (1997) (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Conference on the Idea of the University* (pp. 335–343). Rabat: Publications of the Faculty of Letters and Humanities.

Ennaji, M., & Sadiqi, F. (1994). Applications of modern linguistics. Casablanca: Afrique-Orient.

Khtou, H. (2011). *Assessment in higher education: Students' and teachers' perceptions.* Published doctoral dissertation. Saarbrücken: Lambert Academic Publishing.

Khtou, H., & Gaddar F. (2017). Professional development among teachers of English in higher education. In *Proceedings of the 2nd Annual International Conference on Professional Development and Reflective Teaching* (pp. 35–50). Méknes: Faculty of Letters and Humanities.

Khtou, H., & Erguig, R. (2013). Reflections on feedback provision in Moroccan higher education: The case of the departments of English. In A. Boudlal, A. Sabil, & M. Yeou, (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 1st Annual International Conference on Cultures and Languages in Contact* (pp. 209–223). El Jadida: Faculty of Letters and Humanities.

Ouakrime, M. (1997). What is high about higher education? In T. Belghazi. (1997). (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Conference on the Idea of the University* (pp. 355–367). Rabat: Publications of the Faculty of Letters and Humanities.

Ouakrime, M. (2000). An argument for a more formative approach to assessment in ELT in Morocco. In *Proceedings of the XXth Annual MATE Conference* (pp. 97–107). Rabat: MATE Publications.

Rowntree, D. (1987). *Assessing students: How shall we know them?* (2nd ed.). London: Kogan Page Ltd.

The National Charter for Education and Training. (2000). Morocco.

The Rabat English Department Guide. (2001). Rabat: Publications of the Faculty of Letters and Humanities.

Hssein Khtou is Professor of English at Dar El Hadith El Hassania Institution in Rabat. His research interests include English Language Teaching in Higher Education, Religious Pluralism and Interfaith Dialogue. In 2010, he participated in a summer institute on "Religious Pluralism and Public Life in the USA" at the University of California in Santa Barbara. In November 2017,

He earned a scholarship within Erasmus+ Staff teaching mobility and was a guest speaker at the Islamic University of Applied Sciences Rotterdam, the Netherlands. He has taken part in various international and national conferences. In addition to his Ph.D. dissertation, he has published a set of articles. He is an associate member of the Applied Language & Culture Studies Research Center, Chouaib Doukkali University, El Jadida, Morocco. Moreover, he is a member of the editorial board of World Journal of Islamic History and Civilization, an international refereed journal published by the international digital organization for scientific information (IDOSI) and a member of the scientific board of DAKAM (Eastern Mediterranean Academic Research Center) in Turkey.

Chapter 15 Scientific Research and Human National Development in Moroccan Universities: Toward the Implementation of a Glocalized Scientific Research Culture

Abdelghanie Ennam

Abstract This study focuses on the problematic issue of scientific research in its integral relation to the Moroccan national policies for/in higher education and human development amid the recent State and non-State, academic and public incremental belief in its inevitability in achieving good governance and sustainable progress. It specifically investigates the existing perceptions and attitudes held by undergraduate and postgraduate Moroccan students toward the employability and functionality of scientific research and its methodology in the Moroccan university context. It attempts to assess the extent to which Moroccan students know and contextually use research methodologies in humanities and social sciences, all in their philosophical, conceptual, and operational meanings and practices. The paper, therefore, aims to give a factual embodiment of the status-quo and a futurist enactment of the challenges lying ahead by means of data collection and data analysis processes mostly positivist, interpretivist, and constructionist in their conceptual/philosophical and analytical aspects. To this end, a randomly sampled population of 223 BA, MA, and Doctorate students from universities of Ibn Tofail, Mohammed V, and Ibn Zohr is surveyed by a carefully designed 17-entry-questionnaire.

Keywords Moroccan university · Glocalized scientific research · Educational reform · Moroccan higher education

15.1 Introduction

The notion of scientific research in and beyond academia, along its resonating impact on national and global scales of human welfare development, motivates this piece of study. Demonstrating the inconvertibility of scientific research in the academic arena, in particular, and human life, in general, in the Moroccan context, needs therefore more structural and systematic investigative attention. No country—developed or emerging, with no ideological geopolitical bifurcations intended—has ascended

A. Ennam (✉)
Ibn Tofail University, Kenitra, Morocco
e-mail: abdelghanie.ennam@uit.ac.ma

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_15

to First World power realm without sustainable ever-lasting systematic and strategic investment in education and research. Morocco, self-claimed developing *and/or* emerging country, fails in no official occasion, be it monarchial or ministerial, to reiterate on-record and off-record its indomitable commitment to such an investment, at least since the ascension of King Mohammed VI to monarchy. Treading the path of scientific research and entrenching it deepest possible in the sector of higher education in unfailing synergetic connectivity with the surrounding socioeconomic and technological prerequisites of development in the twenty-first century has become a discursive reality in Moroccan politics of governance. Amply mindful of this discursivity, this study seeks to empirically survey and attitudinally investigate the status-quo and the challenges of scientific research from the perspective of graduate and graduating students of the department of English. It is purposed to contribute to the implementation of a glocalized promotional scientific research culture in the kingdom of Morocco.

15.2 Review of the Literature

There are grand ideas, good ideas, and doable ideas. Often the distinction is in the eyes of the reviewer. In the case of executing a research project, being able to recognize these differences is essential to moving the project from planning to data collection to analysis, and finally, to implementation. The first step is the identification of an appropriate research question (En-Nehas, 1997; Bradley, 2001).

In his opening word on the vision and mission of scientific research in Morocco, Khalfaoui (2018), Director of Centre National pour la Recherche Scientifique et Technique (National Center for Technical and Scientific Research), henceforth CNRST), claims that:

> Morocco has invested in setting up a potential for quality scientific research. It is true that the efforts made thus far have not always had visible effects neither on the improvement of the social and economic living conditions of the citizens nor on the transformation of technology into an industry that is in full mutation in today's world. (www.cnrst.ma, Translation from French).

Nevertheless, in recent years, the research sector has witnessed recognizable developments. Its growth rates in terms of publications in indexed journals are among the best in Africa.

> […] the establishment of resource pooling structures and access to scientific and technical information illustrate the efforts invested by the State for the development of scientific research in our country. (www.cnrst.ma, Translation from French).

This description by Director of CNRST, a benchmark State-owned research body, presents a somewhat inclusive yet exclusive image about the status-quo of scientific research in Morocco. As much as it boasts the African-level high ranking of Moroccan scientific production, it tacitly admits unrevealed difficulties that have significantly hindered the progress of science and education at its postgraduate and professorial

levels. This study attempts to spot and analyze some of these difficulties amidst a resounding scantiness—if not a complete lack—of methodologically systematic explanatory, exploratory, and investigative research.

Officially, Morocco passed Law No. 8000 permitting the creation and functioning of CNRST on August 1, 2001, which marked a new phase in the institutional development of scientific research in Morocco. This law underscores that the "mastery of science and technology is nowadays an indispensable tool for any strategy seeking to promote the (country's) future" (www.cnrst.ma). It claims that:

> The Morocco of tomorrow can only be conceived …by an ambitious policy of scientific research and by strengthening its capacity for innovation. This ambition was already expressed in the mid-1970s by the creation of the National Center for Coordination and Planning of Scientific and Technical Research (CNCPRST) in parallel with the university's decentralization policy and following the absence … of any governmental authority capable of developing, guiding and coordinating scientific and technical research of all kinds. (Ibid.)

These official statements and legal texts, having brought to light CNCPRST and CNRST and delineating two major periods, 1970–2000 and 2001 to date (2019), respectively, can be said to have schematized structures, patterns, and strategies of State-bound scientific research in postcolonial Morocco historically reducible to the two successive reigns of the late Hassan II (1961–1999) and his son Mohammed VI (1999 to date, 2019). Talk here extends to cover about half a century of research that does not seem to have developed in fully fledged culture since Moroccan universities—but not Moroccan individual academic researchers–suffer low international ratings regardless of the country's compatibility with certain criteria and standards. As individuals, there is an undeniable number of Moroccan academics scattered around the world doing research in top world universities, as Ph.D.s, post-docs, contracted researchers, tenured lecturers, permanent professors, etc. Thus, when it comes to scientific research production rankings in/by Morocco, a clear distinction between academic institutions and individual academics has to be retained clear in mind.

Research institutions' number, belonging to or independent from Moroccan public universities, has been on the rise since Independence and embodies the extent to which one can quantitatively conceive of the aforementioned State investment in scientific research.

The former CNRST Director's assessments of the state of the art of scientific research in Moroccan universities avows to Oxford Business Group (OBG) that:

> The continued development of scientific research activity in Morocco must rely on three key pillars: a greater mobilization of human capital including research faculty, doctoral students and post-doc programs; further consolidation of national research infrastructure, with universities providing the resources and equipment; stable and competitive financing options, linked to priority sectors where possible, and managed by a single agency (Aboutajdine, 2013).

The field survey carried out for the positivist and constructionist empirical purposes of this study took into consideration these three pillars and elicited significant numerical values testifying to their centricity in the promotion of scientific research based on rigorous research methodology, as detailed in the analysis section below.

Due to the failure in efficiently functionalizing those pillars, along with other essential elements to be revealed later on, former Minister of Higher Education, Lahcen Daoudi (2013), stated in a conference held by doctoral students in Rabat that Morocco "lags behind significantly in terms of scientific research" since the country has moved down from the third to the sixth position in Africa. He affirmed that "the future of Morocco lies in the development of its scientific research, especially if conducted in English, the foreign language he had never ceased to call for its promotion both in instruction and research" (cited in Bihmidine, 2013). He has always insisted on this connection between scientific research and English, and believed in their inevitable usability and functionality in the progress of Moroccan higher education. However, these repetitive ministerial calls have been translated into realistic, measurable, and achievable plans neither during his term nor after it.

This study, in its turn, argues that the cultivation of tested methodology-based scientific research especially as conducted and articulated in English can help create a drastic change in the national development of Morocco and the human welfare of its citizens. And since departments of English Studies in all Moroccan universities assume a considerable part of the responsibility underlying the implementation of this long-awaited and deeply sought change, all of the population surveyed in this work belongs to these departments located at the three universities mentioned above.

15.3 Research Methodology

The research and analysis methods employed in this study are outlined as follows. First, a schematic and synoptic rendering of the philosophical and theoretical background is advanced in the next two subsections.

15.3.1 Philosophical Foundation and Theoretical Approach

Figure 15.1 maps out the conceptual framework and theoretical approach adopted of/for this piece of research.

As mentioned before, positivism, constructivism, and interpretivism are three major methodological schools of thought conceptually and operationally useful in the analysis of the statistical findings achieved in this study. Positivist approach is instrumental in determining behaviors and attitudes, testing hypotheses, surveying large populations, eliciting tenable data, ensuring high reliability, and generalizing from sample to population (Ennam, 2018; Wisker, 2008). As for constructivism, it is also instrumental insofar as it helps in generating meaning out of the analysis of empirically collected data. Interpretivism, likewise, proves of high functionality for logical exegesis of data (Wisker, 2008). These three approaches very briefly presented here can be said to have an "interdisciplinary intersecting analytical nature"

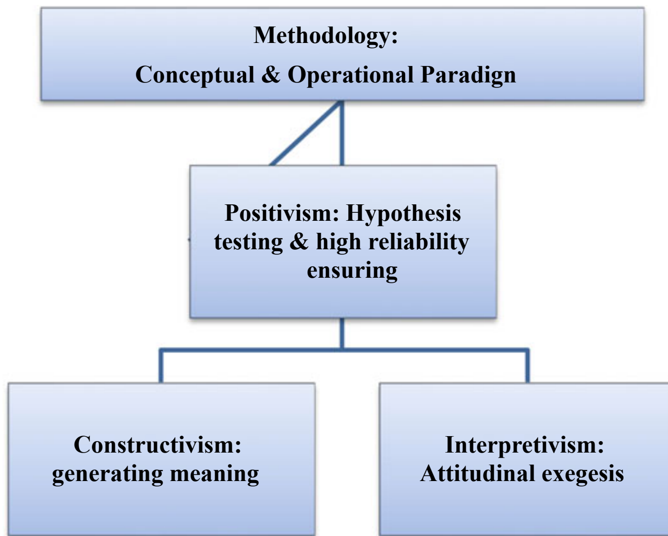

Fig. 15.1 Representing the research method paradigm

that is useful in methodologically carrying out this study especially in terms of data collection and data analysis (Ennam, 2018).

15.3.2 Data Collection and Data Analysis Processes

As pointed out before, being partly positivist in nature, this study carried out an online field survey that was created in Google Forms and posted on the author's Facebook university students' list that counts more than 2500 out of whom 300, belonging to the Department of English Studies from three major public universities, were randomly sampled and targeted by means of a detailed 17-item questionnaire. Out of this 300 sample, 223 respondents filled in the questionnaire in the space of 72 successive hours. The responses were processed and calculated by Google Forms and the statistics obtained are enlisted herein below, commented and interpreted based on the research methodology outlined earlier.

15.4 Objectives of the Study

Five main objectives are set to be achieved after data is collected and analyzed in response to the research hypotheses and questions designed for this study.

1. Measure the importance of the conceptual, theoretical, and practical meanings of scientific research as a construct and as a process among Moroccan university students.
2. Investigate and gauge the sampled population's belief in the inevitability, employability, and functionality of scientific research methodologies in national development and ascent to world power.
3. Probe and demystify the truth of the students' conviction that research practitioners had better succumb to the international standard scientific requirements of doing research, appropriate research skills, and effectively/efficiently use them.
4. Measure the target students' awareness of the need to open up to tested Western research methodology, especially in its Anglo-Saxon version, and use it in Humanities and Social Sciences as rigorously appropriate as required by the Moroccan context.
5. Investigate the respondents' readiness to contribute to the building and spread of sustainable long-term national strategies of a scientific research policy and culture.

15.5 Findings: Presentation, Description, Analysis, and Interpretation

A large variety of relevant and significant results were obtained from the online questionnaire carried out to achieve the purposes of this study, sufficiently enough to test the hypotheses and answer the questions inventoried before. Basically, these findings with their rich numerical values can be aligned along four major interrelated vectors of analysis. Noteworthy here is that the questionnaire, with its 17 questions, is enlisted in the appendix. Reference will be made to every question throughout the analysis with the letter **Q** accompanied by the number of the question.

15.5.1 Approaching and Measuring the Extent of Familiarity with Scientific Research and Its Methodology (RM, Henceforth) Among Moroccan University Students

After having repeatedly observed the recurrence of serious methodological flaws throughout nine years of research supervisions and defense memberships, the target population was asked to specify the degree of their (dis)agreement on how much familiar they think Moroccan university students are with using appropriate research methods in their academic papers. It was suggested to them, as stated in **Q1** of the survey, that there is insufficient familiarity with scientific research methodologies to trigger and gauge their attitudes toward this insufficiency. Table 15.1 demonstrates how much the respondents differed in this kind of assessment.

Table 15.1 Proportioning (dis)agreement on RM familiarity

Agreement and disagreement categories		Proportions (%)
A	Strongly agree	22
B	Agree	42.7
C	Neutral	25.2
D	Disagree	9.2
E	Strongly disagree	0.9
Total		100

It shows that the total of the two agreement categories, (A + B) = 64.7%, clearly demonstrates a dominant awareness of RM inappropriateness among graduate and graduating students in Morocco. The total of the two disagreement categories, D and E, on the other hand, adds up to 10.1%, pointing to the existence of a small minority seeming to think that there is enough RM familiarity among (post)graduate students. There might be some acceptable reasons for this limited attitude ostensibly expressed by survey participants who see themselves and others close to them as familiar enough with conducting research appropriately. As for the category C, it represents the segment of survey participants who could neither agree nor disagree and therefore preferred neutrality, indicating a sense of undecidedness despite the clarity of the issue in question. Usually, the undecided informants retreat from advocacy/agreement and opposition/disagreement out of ignorance, passivity, inexperience, or unfounded rejection, all of which cannot play down the statistical significance of the (A + B) and (D + E) categories. Table 15.1 eventually yields this linear formula:

$$(A + B) = [AE] - (D + E) + (C)$$
$$(A + B) = 100\% - 10.1\% + 25.2\%$$
$$(A + B) = 64.7\%$$
$$\text{Then, } (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) > [(\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{E}) + (\mathbf{C})]$$

In short, the (A + B) categories' affirmation of RM unfamiliarity among the students population remains too large to deny.

Table 15.2, too, testifies further to this landslide assertion. It responds to **Q2** which sought to know if the informants agree with the academic premise requiring students to become familiar enough with RM as implied by its philosophical, conceptual, and operational dimensions.

The total of the two categories, (A + B) = 75.1%, is thrice the total of the undecided category C and the two disagreement categories (D + E). Hence the final formula achieved in Table 15.1 repeats itself in Table 15.2, with a larger margin since (A + B)in the former table amounted to 64.7%, whereas (A + B) in the Table 15.2 exceeds 75%.

Table 15.2 Proportioning students' (dis)agreement on RM use in theory as in practice

Agreement and disagreement categories		Proportions (%)
A	Strongly agree	34.1
B	Agree	41
C	Neutral	12.9
D	Disagree	8.8
E	Strongly disagree	3.2
Total		100

$$(A + B) = [AE] - (D + E) + (C)$$
$$(A + B) = 100\% - 12\% + 12.9\%$$
$$(A + B) = 75.1\%$$
$$\text{Then, } (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) > [(\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{E}) + (\mathbf{C})]$$

This strongly affirms that Moroccan university students, be them BA, MA, or Doctorate hopefuls, agree to develop in them and display in their research work the RM familiarity premise with its philosophical/theoretical and operational/analytical loads. The question remains: do the students effectively learn and apply this *sine qua non* pillar of scientific research?

To answer this question, the survey respondents were asked **Q3** which wanted them to specify the degree of their (dis)agreement with the prediction that Moroccan novice researchers are not patient enough to comply with the different steps of doing research. Table 15.3 displays their responses as follows.

Here again the two agreement categories (A + B) add up to 48.7%, while the two disagreement categories (D + E) do not exceed 16.5%. The majority AB, though not as large as in the two previous formulas, believes that Moroccan university students are not patient enough to comply with methodology requirements of scientific research, which eventually culminates in low quality if not inacceptable work. This penury of patience might be caused by the students' failure to fully grasp and apply RM rules and techniques. Noteworthy in this case is the category C, 34.8%, representing the neutral segment of participants who abstained from (dis)agreement for

Table 15.3 Proportioning students' (dis)agreement on RM steps compliance

Agreement and disagreement categories		Proportion (%)
A	Strongly agree	13.8
B	Agree	34.9
C	Neutral	34.8
D	Disagree	14.2
E	Strongly disagree	2.3
Total		100

unspecified reasons. Maybe their undecidedness can be referred to their inability to decide whether their peers rather than themselves lack or have enough patience to produce good research papers, after assuming Q3 does not concern them in the first place. And because the margin of undecidedness is larger this time, the agreement category total becomes inferior to that of the disagreement and neutrality categories. Here it is demonstrated.

$$(A + B) = [A\ E] - (D + E) + (C)$$
$$(A + B) = 100\% - 16.5\% + 34.8\%$$
$$(A + B) = 100\% - 51.3\%$$
$$(A + B) = 48.7\%$$
$$\text{Then, } (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) < [(\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{E}) + (\mathbf{C})]$$

However, the agreement proportion remains larger that the disagreement frequency. Hence the combination (A + B) is thrice the combination (D + E), which neutralizes the mono category C and foregrounds the validity and reliability of the numerical significance of the agreement categories (A + B).

In parallel with the two interrelated issues of RM Familiarity and RM Compliance, the survey respondents were asked in **Q4**, as demonstrated in Table 15.4, if they agree that Moroccan novice academics are reluctant and demotivated to embark on a research career.

As expected based on field observation, Table 15.4 shows that the majority, (A + B) = 55.8%, agreed that demotivation and reluctance are two hindrances to doing research among undergraduate and (post)graduate students in Moroccan universities, especially the three universities covered by this study. And while the category C, 25.6%, representing the neutral segment, could neither assert nor nullify these claimed hindrances, the two disagreement categories (D + E) did not exceed 18.6%, reinforcing further the predominance of the combination (A + B), reinstating the validity of the formula, $(\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}) > [(\mathbf{D} + \mathbf{E}) + (\mathbf{C})]$, obtained in Tables 15.1 and 15.2 and therefore perpetuating similar interpretations.

To empirically specify the reasons behind scientific RM demotivation, the survey respondents were given a set of options to choose from, as showcased in Table 15.5.

Table 15.4 Proportioning students' (dis)agreement on scientific RM demotivation

Agreement and disagreement		Proportion (%)
A	Strongly agree	16.7
B	Agree	39.1
C	Somewhat agree	25.6
D	Disagree	18.1
E	Strongly disagree	0.5
Total		100

Table 15.5 Recurrence of reasons of scientific RM demotivation

Reasons for demotivation		Recurrence (%)
A	A waste of time	13.5
B	A waste of money	13.5
C	A poor business	21.5
D	A sector deprioritized by the state	66
E	A demanding hard process	47.4

They were allowed to tick more than one option so that they would not be restricted to one choice, as specified in **Q5**.

The greatest majority of the informants represented by the category D, 66%, thinks that Moroccan academics are reluctant and demotivated to embark on a research career because they think scientific research is a sector deprioritized, if not neglected, by the State. The second largest majority represented by the category E, 47.4%, refers this demotivation to their belief that scientific research is a demanding and hard process. The remaining categories A, B, and C, totaling 48.5%, almost of the same recurrence rate as the mono-category E, choose to think that the lack of interest in doing research stems out of their consideration of research as a waste of time, a waste of money, and/or a poor business, respectively. Here, a different recurrence-based formula can be formed to highlight the two most recurrent reasons underpinning the sense of scientific research demotivation as follows: [(**D**) + (**E**)] > [(**A**) + (**B**) + (**C**)].

In sum, State deprioritization of scientific research (D = 66%) in addition to students' misconception of research as too demanding and hard (E = 47.4%) are considered by the survey informants from the three universities under study as major demotivating factors scaring students away from embarking on an academic research career.

Accordingly, the respondents were asked in **Q6** if they agree that most Moroccan students find it inconvenient to devote their professional academic careers to doing research in conformity with international standards. Table 15.6 demonstrates their responses as follows.

Most informants, 52.5%, agreed that such devotion would be inconvenient probably for the reasons enlisted and discussed in the analysis of Table 15.5, while 20.3%

Table 15.6 Proportioning (dis)agreement on professional research career (in)convenience

Agreement and disagreement categories		Proportion (%)
A	Strongly agree	16.6
B	Agree	35.9
C	Neutral	27.2
D	Disagree	18
E	Strongly disagree	2.3
Total		100

of them thought otherwise, indicating the presence of a limited category of Moroccan young researchers who are ready to build a scientific career. Here again the validity of the formula, (**A** + **B**) > [(**D** + **E**) + (**C**)], demonstrated in Tables 15.1, 15.2, and 15.4, is retained, consequently reinforcing the attitudes of the sampled population toward scientific RM familiarity, its usage in theory as in practice, RM compliance, and research demotivation, as investigated and measured in Table 15.1 through Table 15.6.

In short, these perceptions and attitudes, which dominantly admitted the lack of enough scientific research familiarity and compliance, on one hand, and the spread of demotivation and disinterest among the students, on the other, also point to the subsequent problem of the low quality of research.

15.5.2 Determining and Investigating Reasons of Scientific Low Quality of Research

There are so many reasons why scientific research may be lagging behind and suffering low quality in Morocco especially among the category of researchers represented by the 223 informants sample under study. This work does not and cannot claim to cover all these reasons but attempts to locate and investigate some key ones like shortage of scientific rigor, low public and private investment, recruitment of low-profile doctorate holders, enrollment of low-profile students in masters and doctoral programs, mainstream heavy dependence on the French language, inter alia.

In **Q7**, the survey participants were asked their opinions as to whether they agree or disagree that most Moroccan novice researchers are not rigorous in doing research because they:

A. have not received enough education and training in research methods
B. have received enough research education/training but they haven't been serious
C. haven't believed enough in the importance of research in the academic life
D. have not found a long-established research culture in place so they have examples and models to follow.

As Table 15.7 demonstrates, the category D, standing for the absence of a long-established scientific research culture, is determined by more than 38% of the sampled

Table 15.7 Proportioning reasons behind low scientific research rigorousness

Reasons		Proportion (%)
A	Training shortage	20
B	Shortage of academic seriousness	14.9
C	Shortage of belief in research importance	27
D	Absence of a research culture in place	**38.1**
Total		100

population as the first reason why scientific rigor is low among Moroccan students. In other words, the respondents attempted to emphasize that Morocco has not managed yet to establish a sufficiently internationally referential scientific research culture since its independence and the foundation of its first modern university, Mohammed V University, which is also covered in this study. Besides, 27% of the surveyed population, represented by the category C, referred the shortage of scientific rigorousness to the students' weak belief in the importance of research. And while 20% of the participants referred it to research under training, as indicated by the category A, about 15% of them traced it back to the lack of academic seriousness, be it in research or teaching and learning. In short, the four categories A, B, C, and D, in the order and degree of intensity they have been described and analyzed, represent but some elemental reasons as to why scientific research in Morocco may not be as rigorous and meticulous as known internationally. Further justification, disclosure, and analysis about this key issue unfold below.

Enrolling low-profile students in master and doctoral programs and recruiting low-profile doctorate holders in permanent teaching positions are other major reasons that hamper scientific research. In **Q8**, the majority of the survey respondents (strongly) agreed that integrating such enrollees and employing such recruitees into the university, as displayed in Table 15.8, does not help to ensure high-profile scientific production.

The combination of the two agreement categories (A + B) exceeds 66% to clearly demonstrate this nullification, especially as only 13%, representing the disagreement combination (D + E), of the sampled population thought otherwise. So, despite the neutrality category C embraced 20.6%, it can be safely argued that only enough, if not highly, competent postgraduate students and new teachers should be filtered into the academic realm to ensure high-quality teaching and research. Otherwise, these two (teaching and research) will continue to deteriorate.

The survey participants very strongly highlighted that low-profile supervision also leads to generating low-quality research, as demonstrated in Table 15.9 which is an empirical answer to **Q9**. While the two agreement categories (A + B) amounted to more than 83%, the neutrality category C, less than 10%, and the two disagreement categories, (D + E), only 7%, went low in significance.

Here again the formula, (**A** + **B**) > [(**D** + **E**) + (**C**)], demonstrated in Tables 15.1, 15.2, 15.4, and 15.6 is proved valid and reliable, especially as the combination (A +

Table 15.8 Proportioning low-profile enrollments and recruitments

Agreement and disagreement		Proportion (%)
A	Strongly agree	33.5
B	Agree	33
C	Neutral	20.6
D	Disagree	11.1
E	Strongly disagree	1.9
Total		100

Table 15.9 Proportioning low-profile supervision impact on research

Agreement and disagreement		Proportion (%)
A	Strongly agree	48.1
B	Agree	35.5
C	Neutral	9.3
D	Disagree	5.6
E	Strongly disagree	1.4
Total		100

B) exceeded 83%. Still, this should not mean that only supervision is to blame; rather, students, too, especially low-profile ones, assume a major part of the responsibility. When highly competent/performant studentship dovetails with highly experienced professorship, high-quality scientific research is easily ensured even though enough scientific material and equipment may not be provided.

Another reason that is increasingly claimed to be exerting restricting effects on scientific research in Morocco is the mainstream heavy dependence on French and the limited access to and use of English. In their response to **Q10**, investigated in Table 15.10, the survey informants were asked their perceptions and attitudes about the potential effects of the heavy dependence on French and the limited access to and mastery of English as languages of instruction and research on the progress of scientific research in Morocco.

The majority of the 223 respondents, (A + B) = 71%, (strongly) agreed that the way these two foreign languages are being handled and used may be drastically limiting all of the filed-specialized learning, continuous scientific knowledge updating, immediate access to scientific latest developments, and consequently prolonging the dependence on belated French translations if ever, reechoing the valid formula (**A** + **B**) > [(**D** + **E**) + (**C**)]. This somewhat handcuffing commitment to French finds deep support in other scientific work. Ennam, (2018) found that 77.3% of Moroccan university students strongly agree to use English as the first foreign language for technological and scientific purposes, "being aware of the indisputability of English global supremacy in the realms of science and knowledge at all levels and in all forms" in today's world.

Table 15.10 Proportioning the effects of the French–English connection on research

Agreement and disagreement		Proportion (%)
A	Strongly agree	40
B	Agree	31
C	Neutral	17.6
D	Disagree	10.5
E	Strongly disagree	0.9
Total		100

After having presented, described, and investigated some of the key reasons behind the claim of low scientific rigor in Moroccan academia, the next section focuses on the reality of research practices and ethics, which are no less important in ensuring high-quality RM-based research productivity.

15.5.3 *Scientific Research Methodology Practices and Ethics Among Moroccan Students*

Under this heading, the sampled population was asked about their adherence to the ethics and practices that usually, once properly observed, ensure the production of meaningful research. Accordingly, the respondents were called upon to express their attitudes and opinions about the facts that insufficient knowledge about and defective use of research methods generate wrong research results. They were asked in **Q11** to clarify if this defectiveness, which actually obliterates research validity and reliability, does really matter to them since many young academic soften submit research papers that suffer from serious research flaws.

The greatest majority, represented by the category A = 95.4%, as shown in Table 15.11, clearly affirmed the relevance and truth of those facts, except a very tiny minority, represented by the category B = 4.6%. Similarly, most of the survey informants disagreed to tolerate the submission of a research paper with defective methodology and findings, as expressed in **Q12**, and indisputably demonstrated in Table 15.12. The Category B = 70.4% reveals that university students refuse to submit research papers if their findings are not scientifically correct.

However, the category A = 29.6% points to the students who may tolerate such submissions perhaps out of ignorance, time restrictions, or sheer laziness and desire for *good riddance* of a cumbersome long-resided research burden.

To measure to what extent this kind of illegitimate desire tempts undergraduate and (post)graduate students, the survey participants were asked in **Q13** that in case their research methodology and results were proven wrong, would they accept

Table 15.11 Proportioning (dis)agreement on research findings defectiveness

Agreement and disagreement		Proportion (%)
A	Yes	95.4
B	No	4.6
Total		100

Table 15.12 Proportioning (dis)agreement on submitting wrong findings

Agreement and disagreement		Proportion (%)
A	Yes	29.6
B	No	70.4
Total		100

Table 15.13 Proportioning (dis)agreement on wrong research data reconsideration

Agreement and disagreement		Proportion (%)
A	Yes	86.1
B	No	13.9
Total		100

Table 15.14 Proportioning (dis)agreement on seeking well-deserved research success

Agreement and disagreement		Proportion (%)
A	Yes	89
B	No	11
Total		100

to reconsider the data collection and data analysis processes? 86.1% of them, as demonstrated in Table 15.13, yessed the redoing of these two complex processes so that the findings would be correct and the research quality in terms of validity and reliability would be good enough, if not high.

The category A = 86.1% as contrasted with the category B = 18.9%, therefore, testifies to the strong will of Moroccan students to carry out and submit scientific and academic research papers in full respect of research rules and ethics. Yet, this remains their attitude and will, deserving all encouragement and salute, not the reality of things which often bring with it difficulties sometimes hard to overcome.

This is why the population surveyed was asked in **Q14** if they could resist their desire to finish their research work and earn their degrees soonest and easiest possible, and make sure they would sufficiently learn, effectively use appropriate research methodology and eventually produce a well-deserved research paper. The results of the participants' responses to this complex question, which subsumes psychological, emotional, ethical, and scientific drives, are charted in Table 15.14.

The largest majority, represented by the category A = 89%, agreed to comply with all the conditions listed in Q14 in order to produce scientifically successful research work. In a similar foregoing research about the effects of digital plagiarism on scientific research in Morocco, it was found that 90.1% of respondents "do not prefer to submit research papers that are not written according to the rules and techniques of conducting scientific research" (Ennam, 2017, p. 138)

The minority, represented in Table 15.14 by the category B = 11%, disagreed to abide by research rules, indicating the presence of undergraduate and (post)graduate students who do not care about the ethics and rules of doing research, yield into their illegitimate aspiration for undeserved academic success, and consequently perpetuate the need for more diligence to filter these academic aberrations out. This filtering should be treated as a decisive element in establishing a healthy research culture along with a fair code of academic integrity.

15.5.4 Research Culture Cultivation and National Development

In full consideration of all what has thus far been advanced, this section focuses on the perceptions and attitudes of the surveyed population toward the role and importance of cultivating a scientific research culture to ensure a sustainable national development. To this end, the questionnaire participants were asked to decide what factors they think would help research develop. For example, as expressed in **Q15**, will research flourish if it is given enough pedagogical care in both undergraduate and graduate syllabi, or enough financial support from public and private sectors, or enough concrete belief in its incontrovertibility in national development? Table 15.15 gives an answer.

Most of the respondents clearly opted for according research its due importance in national development policies and strategies, as represented by the category C = 65%, and its due financial support both by State and non-State actors, as manifest in the category B = 61.7%. Only a fairly large minority, reflected in the category A = 32.3%, thought that enough pedagogical care for scientific research and its methodology in the syllabi of human and social sciences can contribute in promoting national development. In other words, if research is not given top priority in the State political and economic agendas, it will not fulfill its duties in the national development process, even though it may be given much care in curricula and syllabi.

In the same vein, a very large majority of the survey informants, (A + B) = 73.6%, asserted that Morocco would significantly develop if its universities adopt and follow well-glocalized sustainable patterns and strategies of scientific research, as demonstrated in Table 15.16, which responds to **Q16**. Glocalized as a term is taken from the new coinage "glocalization" which is a combination of globalization and

Table 15.15 Proportioning the Recurrence of Research Promotion Factors

Research promotion factors		Recurrence frequency (%)
A	Care in syllabi	32.3
B	Financial support	61.7
C	Importance in national development	65

Table 15.16 Proportioning (dis)agreement on glocalized research policy

Agreement and disagreement		Proportion (%)
A	Strongly agree	38.9
B	Agree	34.7
C	Neutral	17.6
D	Disagree	8.3
E	Strongly disagree	0.5
Total		100

Table 15.17 Proportioning (dis)agreement on research culture cultivation

Agreement and disagreement		Proportion (%)
A	Strongly agree	58.8
B	Agree	30.6
C	Neutral	7.4
D	Disagree	3.2
E	Strongly disagree	0
Total		100

localization, basically meaning "the process tailoring products to meet the diverse needs of many specific local markets" (House, 2010, p. 117). This definition can be used to apply the same concept in adapting the international standards, meanings, dimensions, and applications of scientific research methodology to the Moroccan university context so that research can serve the country's national development.

And since the combination of the two disagreement categories (D + E) does not exceed 8.8% in total, the validity of the formula, (**A** + **B**) > [(**D** + **E**) + (**C**)], demonstrated in Tables 15.1, 15.2, 15.4, 15.6 and 15.10 is preserved even in this case demonstrated in Table 15.14, consequently endorsing the perceptions and attitudes of the sampled population toward scientific research/national development connection.

In **Q17**, the largest majority of the 223 informants targeted by this study also agree that Moroccan universities have to synergize and syncretize efforts in order to cultivate and spread scientific research culture neatly adaptable to the Moroccan socioeconomic development context. The agreement categories, (A + B) = 89.4%, demonstrate, as in Table 15.17, the landslide affirmation of the dire need for well-planned inter-university synergism and syncretism in the domain of scientific research to generate out of it (research) a deep-seated and scientifically and economically lucrative culture.

The disagreement categories, (D + E) = 3.2%, add up to a very tiny total, which contrastively indicates a quasi-consensus among Moroccan university students 89.4% of whom are for inter-university research cooperativeness at the level of faculties, departments, laboratories, and individual researchers. The formula (**A** + **B**) > [(**D** + **E**) + (**C**)], whose relevance and applicability has been repeatedly demonstrated in Tables 15.1, 15.2, 15.4, 15.6, 15.10 and 15.16, extends its validity, reliability, and now its generalizability to Table 15.17 statistics which justifies the tenability of the research culture cultivation thesis.

15.5.5 Responding to Research Hypotheses and Questions

After having presented, described, calculate, and analyzed the data obtained from the field survey in response to the research questions outlined above, this final section attempts to respond to the hypotheses this study set out to test and investigate.

The first hypothesis claimed that most Moroccan university students are not familiar enough with research methodology both in its philosophical (conceptual and theoretical) and operational (practical and analytical) senses. Based on the findings, this hypothesis is largely supported. Most of the survey respondents agreed that most Moroccan graduate and postgraduate students are not used enough to conduct research as based on rigorous scientific research methodologies. For example, Table 15.1 clearly demonstrates that almost 65% of the informants affirmed that RM familiarity is insufficient, while only 10.1% thought otherwise. The total of the two agreement categories (A + B) exceeds the total of the two disagreement categories by six times, as manifest in the formula advances in the analysis of Table 15.1 statistics: (**A** + **B**) > [(**D** + **E**) + (**C**)]. Similarly, Table 15.2 very clearly shows that 75.1% of the survey participants agree that the majority of the Moroccan university novice researchers are not sufficiently equipped with the necessary RM knowhow in theory as in practice. Only 12% of them disagreed with the claim. Once again the total of the agreement categories (A + B) is largely bigger than the total of the disagreement categories (D + E), strongly indicating the applicability of the previous formula. The findings charted in Tables 15.3 and 15.4, which demonstrate the rates of RM compliance and RM demotivation, respectively, also support the tenability of the first hypothesis, as clearly reflected the proportionalities of their respective agreement and disagreement categories.

The second hypothesis purported that most Moroccan university students, suffering low RM familiarity, are not motivated enough to do and devote their academic careers to research. It, too, has met enough support especially in the data charted in Tables 15.4, 15.5, and 15.6. In Table 15.4, for instance, 55.8% of the sampled population agreed that demotivation and reluctance are two main hindrances to doing research, whereas only 18.6% of them negated these two obstacles. In Table 15.5, a majority of the survey participants, as manifest in the category (D) = 66%, referred this lack of motivation to State low prioritization of scientific research, while 47% of them referred it to the complexity and difficulty of research process, as reflected in the category (E) in the same table. The categories (A), (B), and (C) referred research demotivation and reluctance to the misconceptions that research is a waste of time, a waste of money, or a poor business, respectively. Accordingly, 52.5% of the questionnaire participants, as showcased in Table 15.6, agreed that it would be inconvenient to devote one's academic career to research, while 20.3% thought it would not be so. Here again the applicability and reliability of the formula (**A** + **B**) > [(**D** + **E**) + (**C**)] are preserved.

As for the third hypothesis, it predicted that most Moroccan university students may believe that scientific research is lagging behind and suffers low quality in Morocco because of low State financial support and French dominance in teaching and research. Like the two previous hypotheses, this one, too, holds sufficiently tenable as clearly demonstrated in Tables 15.7, 15.8, 15.9, and 15.10. The largest majority of the target sample acknowledged the validity of this hypothesis and subsequently cited different reasons behind that. For example, 38.1% of the respondents, as shown in Table 15.7, pointed to the absence of a research culture in place, 27%

of them cited the shortage of belief in research importance, while 20% of the participants thought of RM under training, and 14.9% hinted to the lack of academic seriousness. In Table 15.8, the survey informants represented in the agreement categories, (A + B) = 66.5%, affirmed that enrolling low-profile students in master and doctoral programs and recruiting doctorate holders with very modest academic and scientific achievements exacerbate the situation of scientific research in Morocco. Similarly, 83.5% of the questionnaire participants, as evidenced in the total of the agreement categories in Table 15.9, asserted that improper supervision does not help produce good quality research graduation papers. And 71% of them, as displayed in the agreement categories (A + B) in Table 15.10, believed that the predominance of French as a language of instruction and research limits the progress of this latter since most and best of scientific research is produced in English around the globe. They therefore signal that the State handcuffing commitment to French hegemony and the consequent limiting of English in Moroccan higher education slacken research development in the country.

With regard to the fourth hypothesis, it claimed that the majority of Moroccan university students may not bother much to produce and submit papers whose research methods and findings are defective. Unlike the three previous hypotheses, which all were supported, this prediction was largely rejected. First, 95.4% of the 223 respondents, as testified in Table 15.11, affirmed their awareness of the automaticity that defective research methods (both as data collection and data analysis) generate defective research findings. This affirmation implies that Moroccan novice academic researchers are ethically conscious and bound to evidential testing of research hypotheses and questions through scientifically appropriate RM, as determined by positivist school of thought.

This is why 70.4% of the survey informants clearly expressed their refusal to tolerate the submission of research papers with defective RM and findings, as evidenced in Table 15.12. The remaining 29.6% agreed to tolerate this defectiveness, implicitly calling for professors' vigilance and diligence in dealing with this category of students who seem to be aspiring for undeserved academic degrees and high social positions. Still, 86.1% of the surveyed target sample, as showcased in Table 15.13, confirmed their acceptance to re-carry out data collection and data analysis processes if proven wrong in order to ensure the submission of sufficiently, if not completely, scientific and academic graduation research papers. Likewise, 89% of the study informants, as demonstrated in Table 15.14, averred their will and preparedness to resist any tempting desire to surrender to low-profile research productions and abide by the rules, methods, and ethics of doing research and earn but scientifically well-deserved research grades.

Finally, the fifth hypothesis, which predicted that Moroccan university students concretely believe national development and human welfare cannot be achieved without large investment in scientific research, embraced big support in the data obtained from the field survey carried out by this study. As testified in Table 15.16, the agreement category, (A + B) = 73.6%, avows the large belief of Moroccan university students that Moroccan universities had better implement glocalized research promotion strategies and policies. For this implementation to become a reality, over

60% of the survey informants stated that giving big importance to research in national development policies and ensuring sufficient financial means are two factors, among others, that the State should translate into sustainable top priorities. Accordingly, the largest majority of the 223 questionnaire participants, (A + B) = 89.4%, as evidenced in Table 15.17, believed that there should be a firm and continuous inter-university pedagogical, scientific, and academic cooperation in order to establish a real research culture that effectively contributes to national development, as described in details in the data analysis above.

15.6 Conclusion

This study has set out to investigate the perceptions and attitudes of Moroccan graduate and postgraduate students toward the state of art and the future prospects of scientific research in Moroccan higher education. It has tried to describe and analyze key issues familiarity and compliance with RM rules and ethics, among many others, all in their theoretical and practical dimensions, especially in Human and Social Sciences. The study has therefore attempted to delineate a clear demarcation line between the actual problems the challenges lying ahead by means of a positivist, interpretivist, and constructionist approach to the data collection and data analysis defined and operationalized above. Interesting results were achieved, as advanced the analysis section, to arguably conclude that Morocco, all as a sovereign State and a large higher education system, has no choice but make of scientific research an unwavering top priority no less sacred than its territorial integrity.

This holds true especially as Morocco boasts hosting the first university ever founded in history, the University of al-Qarawiyyin, established by Fatima al-Fihri in Fes in 859. Built 1160 years, before any other university West and East, it is recognized as “the oldest existing, continually operating higher educational institution in the world according to UNESCO and Guinness World Records” (UNESCO, Guinness). Despite this unprecedented academic achievement, Morocco has not taken advantage of this historical legacy to accumulate an internationally acknowledged scientific research experience. Therefore, the country has to take into serious consideration the scientific and academic implications of studies should it wish to establish a solid scientific research culture in its higher education institutions and ensure a globally competitive national development thereof.

Appendix

Questionnaire

1. Do you agree that Moroccan novice (new) MA and doctoral students are NOT familiar enough with research methodology in its appropriate sense?

   A Strongly Agree; B Agree; C Neutral; D Disagree; E Strongly Disagree

2. Do you agree that it's just academically normal to make yourself familiar enough with research methodology in its philosophical, conceptual, and operational dimensions?

   A Strongly Agree; B Agree; C Neutral; D Disagree; E Strongly Disagree

3. Do you agree that Moroccan novice (new) MA and doctoral students are not patient enough to comply with the different steps of internationally adopted research method?

   A Strongly Agree; B Agree; C Neutral; D Disagree; E Strongly Disagree

4. Do you think that Moroccan academics are reluctant and demotivated to embark on a research career?

   A Strongly Agree; B Agree; C Neutral; D Disagree; E Strongly Disagree

5. Do you think that Moroccan academics are reluctant and demotivated to embark on a research career because they think research is: (you can choose more than one option)

   A Waste of time; B A waste of money; C A poor business; D A sector neglected by the State; E A demanding hard process

6. Do you agree that most Moroccan researchers find it inconvenient to devote their professional careers to scientific research with international standards?

   A Strongly Agree; B Agree; C Neutral; D Disagree; E Strongly Disagree

7. Do you agree that most Moroccan novice researchers are not rigorous in doing research because they:

   a. Haven't received enough education and training in research methods
   b. Have received enough research education/training but they haven't been serious
   c. Have haven't believed enough in the importance of research in the academic life
   d. Haven't found a long-established research culture in place so they have examples

8. Do you agree that enrolling low-profile students in MA and doctoral programs and recruiting low-profile doctorate holders in permanent teaching positions further deteriorate scientific research both as input and output?

   A Strongly Agree; B Agree; C Neutral; D Disagree; E Strongly Disagree

9. Do you agree that low-profile supervision leads to low research quality?

   A Strongly Agree; B Agree; C Neutral; D Disagree; E Strongly Disagree

10. Do you agree that the heavy dependence on French as a language of instruction and research and the limited access to and mastery of English for most Moroccan academics is hindering scientific research in Morocco?

11. Are you really aware and does it really matter toy you that insufficient knowledge and wrong application of research methods generate defective research findings?

    Yes: ____ No: ____

12. Will you tolerate the submission of a research paper with defective methodology and findings?

    Yes: ____ No: ____

13. In case your research methodology and results are proven wrong, will you accept to reconsider your data collection and data analysis processes?

    Yes: ____ No: ____

14. Can you overcome your desire to finish and earn a degree soonest and easiest possible, and make sure you sufficiently learn, effectively use appropriate research methodology, and eventually produce a research paper of high scientific quality.

    Yes: ____ No: ____

15. Do you agree for research to flourish it needs to be given enough (more than one option can be chosen)

    a. Care in both undergraduate and graduate syllabi
    b. Financial support from the public and private sectors
    c. Belief in the importance of research in national development

16. Do you agree that Moroccan universities have to syncretize efforts in order to cultivate and spread scientific research culture neatly adapted to the Moroccan socioeconomic context?

    A Strongly Agree; B Agree; C Neutral; D Disagree; E Strongly Disagree

17. Do you agree Morocco will develop once its universities follow well-glocalized sustainable patterns and strategies or scientific research?

    A Strongly Agree; B Agree; C Neutral; D Disagree; E Strongly Disagree

References

Aboutajdine, D. (2013). Morocco promoting scientific research as key focus for education. Interview. Retrieved from https://oxfordbusinessgroup.com/analysis/morocco-promoting-scientific-research-key-focus-education.

Bihmidine, I. (2013). Scientific research in Morocco lags far behind global standards: Lahcen Daoudi". Morocco World News. https://www.moroccoworldnews.com/2013/11/112560/scientific-research-in-morocco-lags-far-behind-global-standards-lahcen-daoudi/.

Bradley, D. B. (2001). Developing research questions through grant proposal development. *Educational Gerontology, 27*(7), 569–581.

En-Nehas, J. (1997). *The writing guide for students of English in Moroccan universities*. Rabat: El Maarif Al Jadida Press.

Ennam, A. (2017). Systematic analysis of the effects of digital plagiarism on scientific research: Investigating the Moroccan context: Ibn Tofail University as case study. *Journal of Education and Practice, 8*(2), 133–141.

Ennam, A. (2018). The ICT usability and functionality in perpetuating institutional multilingualism in higher education in postcolonial Morocco: Investigating attitudes and effects: Ibn Tofail University as a case study. Ibn Zohr University (IZU), Morocco. To be issued by IZU Press in 2020.

House, J. (2010). *Translation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Khalfaoui, M. (2018). Opening word on scientific research in Morocco. Centre National pour la Recherche Scientifique et Technique (CNRST). https://www.cnrst.ma/index.php/fr/cnrst/a-propos/mot-du-directeur.

UNESCO. Medina of Fez. Retrieved from https://whc.unesco.org/en/list/170.

www.cnrst.ma.

Wisker, G. (2008). The Postgraduate Research Handbook. 2nd edn. Palgrave Macmillan: New York.

Abdelghanie Ennam is Associate Professor of International Media, Communication, and ICT in Higher Education at Ibn Tofail University Kenitra (ITU), Morocco. He is a member of the DILILARTICE Research Lab, (Didactics, Literature, Language, Arts, ICTs), at ITU. He holds a Ph.D. from Hokkaido University in Japan. His research interests cover fields of media, translation, postcolonial literature, higher education, and ICTs.

Chapter 16
The Challenges and Future of the English Department in Neoliberal Morocco

Jamal Bahmad

Abstract This chapter explores several challenges facing English studies at the Moroccan University with a focus on how the English department is affected by the neoliberal policymaking environment of successive Moroccan governments since the 1980s. The contribution provides a political economy analysis of the problems and challenges facing the English department. The chapter is based on empirical data gathered through and enriched by the author's first-hand experience as a professor in the English department at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities, Mohammed V University in Rabat. The analysis also builds on the existing literature, even though scanty, on the English department and the public university in Morocco. It places the crisis of the English department and the Moroccan university today within the specific context of Moroccan education and economic policy since the neoliberal market reforms in the 1980s. The first part of the chapter explores the evolution of the mission of the English studies department and some of the challenges it has faced since its inception in 1963. The following part puts these challenges in context by foregrounding the latent causes of the crisis of the English department and the Moroccan university in an era of neoliberal governmentality and private-sector competition. This contextual factor has hitherto been ignored in the literature even though it is a key aspect of the crisis of the English department in particular and the Moroccan university in general. Finally, the chapter provides a number of practical measures susceptible to taking the English department out of its current crisis in spite of the overwhelming pessimism among academic staff and policy observers in the Moroccan education sector.

Keywords English department · Neoliberalization · Overcrowding · Research output · Humanities matter

J. Bahmad (✉)
Mohammed V University in Rabat, Rabat, Morocco
e-mail: jamal.bahmad@um5.ac.ma

© Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd. 2020

H. Belhiah et al. (eds.), *English Language Teaching in Moroccan Higher Education*,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-3805-6_16

16.1 The Beginnings

When the first English department at the Moroccan university was created in the 1960s, its main mission was the training of human resources for the newly independent nation. Morocco achieved its independence from France and Spain in 1956, and the shortage of Moroccan staff was one of the main challenges facing the nascent postcolonial nation. Two years after independence, the first Moroccan university was born in the capital Rabat. In fact, Mohammed V University was created and consisted only of one institution, namely the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences. The latter was born as an act of Moroccanizing the erstwhile colonial-era Institute of Advanced Moroccan Studies (est. 1920). The new university's mission was the training of Moroccan teachers through its sole faculty in order to replace foreign nationals in the Moroccan education system. An integral part of this mission was the provision of teachers capable of teaching Arabic and *in Arabic* in order to achieve the Arabization of an educational apparatus still dominated by French, the language of the colonizer. It is noteworthy how this ideological aspect of the university's mission was conceptualized and implemented by the postcolonial governments with the complete exclusion of Tamazight, the native language of most Moroccans at the time. The Faculty succeeded in the mission of teacher training, which it carried out almost single-handedly until the creation of extramural teacher training centres in Rabat and other Moroccan cities since 1978 when the first teacher training college, École Normale Supérieure, opened in the capital.

The English department at the Faculty of Letters and Human Sciences of Mohammed V University in Rabat was the first of its kind in Morocco. It was created in 1963 as part of the Faculty's mission of producing Moroccan teachers and hopefully some future scholars and diplomats, too. The crucial role of the English department in Rabat, and other departments which soon came into existence in the following decades (Fez, Casablanca, Marrakech, and so on), reflected the pedagogical mission trusted upon them by the Moroccan government through the ministry of higher education. This mission has changed very little over time even though the graduates of English studies departments now find themselves working in other sectors beyond education. However, teaching remains the main work sector in demand of their skills. As Mohammed Dahbi (2003) writes,

> Almost ever since the beginning in Rabat, Departments of English have offered courses in the English language, in English and American literature, in British and American civilization (life and institutions), in linguistics, and in translation. The main staple has been, by far, English language reading, writing, Grammar [sic], and literature. (p. 14)

It is evident from the English department curricula then and now that a lot of emphasis is placed on building and honing the students' language skills and proficiency. This is understandable given that the department's main mission has been the training of teachers of English for Moroccan schools and universities. There is another reason for this strong emphasis on language skills. English is not the first or even the second foreign language in Morocco. The country was colonized and

partitioned by France and Spain from 1912 to 1956. This left Morocco with a post-colonial language map whereby Spanish was the first foreign language in the North and Sahara regions formerly ruled by Spain, and French has remained the main foreign language and even the first language of commerce and scientific education in the rest of the country. In fact, French has gained the upper ground over Spanish by becoming the only language of instruction at the faculties of medicine, engineering, architecture, business, and the natural sciences in all Moroccan universities.

Outside the walls of the university, the progress of English in the Moroccan language landscape has been slow despite the long history of Moroccan–British and Moroccan–American relations (Ben-Srhir, 2005) and the status of English as a global language par excellence with the advent of globalization and the spread of American movies and culture all around the world. In recent years, however, the English language has made significant inroads in many areas of life in Morocco, and young people in particular are learning it in great numbers in the belief that it is the language of the future. This great appeal of the English language goes beyond the student population. Indeed,

> Not only is English favoured by students, educationalists and policymakers, but it is also gradually becoming a serious rival of French in higher education. A good number of university students and researchers learn English to be able to read the English references relevant to their speciality. Additionally, more and more scientific research carried out by native Moroccan academics is nowadays published in English. (Ennaji, 2005, p. 114)

The growing influence of English in Morocco is likely to continue unabated. As the Moroccan linguist Moha Ennaji (2005) puts it,

> In all likelihood, English will become more important in the future and may fiercely compete with French as a means of communication with the outside world and as a vehicle of Western values and norms. It is equally possible that globalisation, through international exchange via business life, satellite television and the internet, will make English both accessible and necessary for Moroccans (cf. Gill, 1999). (p. 114)

Ennaji's two statements above can give the impression that the current fluorescence of English as a foreign language in the country means that the English studies departments at the Moroccan university are or would be doing well in consequence. However, the reality is that the spread of English and the infatuation of young Moroccans with it have not translated into advanced levels of academic language skills, the staple of the English department, nor in more resources being allocated to these departments to adequately meet the needs of their growing student populations. In fact, the growing appeal and reach of the English language in Moroccan society has compounded the structural problems of the English department (more about this later). To better account for this problem, one must put things within the context of Moroccan educational and economic policies in the era of neoliberal globalization, the historical moment that has endeared English to Moroccans.

16.2 The English Department in Neoliberal Times

In the early 1980s, the Moroccan government embarked on the first wave of neoliberal market reforms as part of the Structural Adjustment Program (SAP). This radical turn away from the principles of the developmentalist state created upon independence was due to the soaring budget deficit and pressure from international lending agencies, mainly the two Bretton Woods institutions: the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (Bahmad 2013). In the first years of its independence, Morocco elected to follow the dominant paradigm of economic and social development in postcolonial Africa, Asia, and Latin America. The state accordingly held itself responsible for the country's development and embarked on ambitious five-year strategic economic plans throughout the 1960s and 1970s (Cohen & Jaidi, 2014, p. 35). In the first Strategic Plan 1960–1964, the focus was on the modernization of the economy and the increase of agricultural production. This expanded to include tourism and industrial production in the 1970s with the 1973–1977 Strategic Plan. Aided by the high prices of the country's main export, phosphates, GDP growth averaged 7.3% in the 1970s (Cohen & Jaidi, 2014, p. 36). However, phosphate prices plummeted in the global markets in the last years of the same decade and the country found itself in the thrall of social uprisings in different parts of the country when the government planned to implement austerity measures to reduce the national budget deficit and gain credibility with international lending institutions (IMF and the World Bank). The largest of these upheavals took place in Casablanca in June 1981 when people answered the call of trade unions to strike. They took to the streets in peaceful protests. This came after the government decided to increase the prices of basic food staples such as sugar, cooking oil, and flour. The state reacted with brutality and deployed the army in the streets of Casablanca to crush the street uprising. Hundreds were killed, detained, or "disappeared" at the height of the Years of Lead, the era of human rights violations and political violence in the country from the first years of independence to the demise of King Hassan II in 1999. In addition to the soaring cost of living, the high rates of poverty, corruption, and social inequality were behind the street protests, which the police quelled with force (Zoubir & White, 2015, p. 102).

The government went ahead with its IMF market reforms in spite of popular protests in Casablanca and other cities in the 1980s (e.g., Hoceima, Tetouan and Nador in January 1984; Fez in December 1990). "As in many other countries engaged in market reform," Cohen and Jaidi explain, "budget cuts, debt reimbursement, currency devaluation, and insufficient economic growth have negatively affected living conditions, particularly for the urban poor dependent on public services. Public sector expenditure decreased from 34.4 to 22.2% of GDP from 1982–1986" (p. 38). The university as a public service was drastically affected by the austerity measures, which were a key part of the market reforms. The other component of this neoliberal agenda was the privatization of public companies and services. The financial and hospitality industries were among the first state services to be affected by the transfer of ownership from public to private bodies (Saulniers, 2003, pp. 225–226). The second major sector to be affected was the telecommunications field where the

country's public telecom operator Maroc Telecom was gradually sold to international investors with the state holding part of the shares.

The education system was initially spared in this wave of privatization probably for two reasons: first, Moroccan education in the last century was not a lucrative business; secondly, it was important for the regime to preserve social peace in the last two decades of the Years of Lead characterized by social strife and political turbulence. At the turn of the new century, the Moroccan government intensified its licence granting for private schools up and down the country. The process had started in the 1990s but gained pace in the new millennium. The Moroccan middle classes joined the upper classes in sending their kids to private rather than public schools and universities. In addition, the austerity measures implemented since the 1980s meant both budget freezes for public education and the inability of the state to provide jobs for university graduates. In real terms, as Sa'id El-Naggar (1987) notes, state expenditure on education declined "by 25–30% between 1985 and 1990" (p. 63). The phenomenon of the *diplômés chômeurs* (unemployed graduates) was born in the late 1980s when for the first time in Morocco's postcolonial history the government was no longer willing or able to employ all the graduates of its different academic institutions (Badimon Emperador, 2007, pp. 297–298). The market reforms had put the brakes on the state's investment in this regard, and young Moroccans were left to fend for themselves with unstable or low paying jobs in the private sectors. Larger numbers remained unemployed. As Montserrat Badimon Emperador (2007) points out,

> Following the introduction of macroeconomic adjustment measures since the 1980s, the recruitment policy in the Moroccan civil service has become much more restrictive. For some categories of graduates, this change in policy has meant the loss of employability prospects. (p. 2; my translation)

From an annual public employment figure of 50,000 in 1983, only around 10,000 public sector employees were recruited every year after (Akesbi cited in Badimon Emperador, 2007, p. 10). The state thus absolved itself of one of the fundamental policies of developmentalism: public employment as a means of social mobility and equality. As part of the new market reforms, the neoliberal state is no longer responsible for providing jobs or creating a middle class capable of ushering in social justice and democracy.

The budget cuts in the public sector drastically affected Moroccan universities. The academic institutions found themselves with increasing numbers of students and very limited means to offer a quality education that would allow them to get jobs upon graduation. What has made things even worse is the state's decision to no longer provide jobs for university graduates since the 1980s. The unemployment rate in Morocco therefore went from 9% in the early 1970s to 16% in the late 1980s (Bureš, 2008, p. 19). Even though acclaimed by the IMF and the World Bank and their subservient Moroccan governments as the engine of job creation and social development, the private sector has not been able to replace the state as the provider of job security, decent pay, and guarantor of social mobility and peace. Thus was born authoritarian neoliberalism whereby the state has turned a blind eye and deaf

ear to the real needs of people for jobs and decent living conditions. The different popular uprisings from Casablanca in 1981 to the Democratic Spring of 2011 have not been strong enough to thwart the neoliberal governmentality of the Moroccan state. Government policies in all areas, including education, are no longer based on vox populi but rather on the dictates of the Bretton Wood institutions. It is no wonder that people, especially the young and students, are today alienated from politics and any belief that the state can do good. The state has betrayed them by refraining from playing its crucial role as the protector of the public good from what Harvey (2009) refers to as capitalism's logic of "accumulation by dispossession." The more neoliberal policies have been adopted in Morocco, the more the size of dispossessed classes of people has grown.

The neoliberal condition led to one of the first challenges that have faced the English department since the 1980s. While the population of Morocco was soaring and the demand for higher education growing, the state left the universities stranded without the necessary budgets to upgrade their infrastructure, create new campuses, and improve the quality of their educational offer. Overcrowding in classrooms became a routine scene across all universities. This led to the deterioration of working conditions for teachers and learning conditions for the students. Tertiary education has been further harmed by the spectre of unemployment awaiting its graduates. It has led to low morale, lower motivation among students, and high dropout rates. In the English department, where a variety of courses such as Composition I & II and Listening and Speaking necessitate small classrooms and lab equipment, the situation has been even more catastrophic. As Mohamed Dellal also points out in this volume (see Chap. 15), a lot of English studies departments across Morocco simply do not have the required equipment. Teachers are forced to teach such subjects to the best of their means, often by giving lectures instead of leading workshops or teaching small seminars. Despite this alarming situation, the state has maintained an open door policy in the area of student enrolment at the public university. The state is more interested in staving off student protests than reforming the system. Students are free to enrol in any department after obtaining their baccalaureate (high school) degree. This has compounded the problem of overcrowded classrooms year after year. Due to the growing appeal of English in Morocco, the departments devoted to teaching this language and its literature have found themselves overwhelmed by student numbers. The ratio of students per teacher is very high. The rate starts from 34 students per instructor at our department in the Faculty of Letters and Humanities in Rabat, which has the highest number of academic staff (31) and lowest number of first-year students (560) as of the academic year 2018/2019. However, the picture is gloomier outside of Rabat. For example, at the English department of the Faculty of Letters and Humanities at Ibn Zohr University in Agadir, the ratio has reached 587 students per teacher during the same period. With 4,783 students in the first year alone, the 27 faculty members in Agadir are beyond overwhelmed. Although still outnumbered by their students, the academic staff in Rabat are lucky to be the only English department in Morocco allowed to administer an entrance exam for its incoming students. Only a minority of the applicants pass the test, but the faculty administration allows a few hundred students who did not pass the test to enrol in

the department because of the high demand on English studies. That is how we had 560 new students in 2018/2019 although only 140 (out of 778 candidates) passed the test with a grade of or higher than 10/20.

The second consequence of the neoliberal fallout for the English department is a perennial staff shortage. The universities have never been able to recruit enough lecturers because of the small hiring budget allocated by the Moroccan ministry of higher education. The government has played by the IMF book of public sector cuts even at the expense of the future of generations of young Moroccans. This has inevitably created an almost barren research landscape where active researchers are frustrated by heavy teaching loads, the lack of research equipment, grants, and other incentives to sustain a consistent research output. Brain drain has become a natural situation with frustrated Moroccan researchers opting to stay abroad after the completion of their doctoral studies, and those educated in part or in full in Morocco take the route of overseas migration to fulfil their research potential (Rhissassi, 2003, p. 83). The low wages have also played a role in the inability of the Moroccan universities to recruit or retain world-class researchers.

The English department's academic staff have found themselves with considerable amounts of weekly teaching to do in difficult conditions characterized by the lack of basic teaching equipment (e.g., spoken English classes), sky-high class sizes, and unforgiving marking duties. Under these working conditions, it should not come as a surprise that research production is the last item on the agenda of most professors. At the institutional level, there is hardly any research infrastructure for those willing to produce scholarly outputs. There is no grant system at the level of the university or even nationally. The few available grants administered by the National Centre for Scientific and Technical Research (CNRST) are allocated to the disciplines of engineering, computer science, medicine, and the natural sciences. The humanities and social sciences are often discounted from such funding competitions because they are not considered a priority area by the Moroccan government. Another plausible explanation would be that the political regime is still not at ease with the kind of scholarship produced by humanities and social science scholars, many of whom were prosecuted during the Years of Lead. As the historian Pierre Vermeren (2010) reveals: "Already in 1968, the Institute of Sociology run by Abdelkébir Khatibi and Paul Pascon had been dismantled in Rabat. At [Mohammed V] University, Professor Abdelaziz Lahbabi, Dean of your Faculty of Letters in Rabat, had the French section of philosophy closed there" (p. 64; my translation). To remedy the situation, CNRST launched a special grant programme called Ibn Khaldun in 2018. Launched amid much fanfare at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities in Rabat, the programme targeted researchers in the hitherto ignored social science and the humanities fields. However, the grants were miniscule, and there has been no second launch of the grant programme at the time of writing this chapter.

The neoliberalization of the Moroccan university through budget cuts, open-door student recruitment policies, and the shortage of research funding has been accompanied by a change in the perception of academia in society. Due to the media war on intellectuals and the difficult living conditions of the majority of Moroccans due to market reforms over the last four decades, views about the role of the university

in society have changed considerably. The main function of the university under the development state from independence to the 1980s was not only the training of teachers, but also the formation of an intellectual class capable of scrutinizing and understanding its society and the wider world. People believed in the power of ideas and informed debates during and after their academic years. The university was an engine of social debate and a supplier of progressive intellectuals. This was seen by the regime of Hassan II as providing fodder to the Moroccan left, which opposed the monopoly of political and economic power by the monarchy (Vermeren, 2010, p. 64). The state closed sociology and philosophy departments and opened Islamic Studies ones at the university in the early 1980s in order to remain in control of a changing and secularizing society. With the spread of neoliberal values and social and economic precarity after the market reforms, the public university has been reduced to a shadow of its former self. In Moroccan public and media discourse, the university is now derided as a factory for the production of unemployable and low skilled graduates. Although there is some truth to their attacks, the holders of this anti-university discourse elect not to foreground the aforementioned political economy of weakening the Moroccan university. Within this discourse, the university is called upon to teach practical subjects and train students to join the workforce in the country's lower-middle-income economy. The teaching of literature, history and philosophy is singled out as futile and a money-wasting pursuit in this plebeian discourse propagated by the government and the mass media. This neoliberal discourse is sometimes espoused by unsuspecting academics and students.

In the neoliberal era, the Moroccan government has allowed private schools and universities to open and flourish with state help. Investors in this lucrative business area benefit from tax breaks, low-quality assurance control, and the equivalence of their degrees to those delivered by state institutions. These neoliberal measures have led to a steady growth in the private education sector, which has reached 25% as a share of the number of all students. In higher education, the country boasts 22 private universities and 163 private tertiary education schools as of the academic year 2017/2018 (Ministry, 2018, p. 116). These numbers are likely to continue rocketing while the number of public universities has stagnated at 12. The private higher education institutions are proliferating with the help of the government and banking sector. Their students, who made up 10% of the national university student population in 2017/2018, benefit from small class sizes, excellent equipment, and dedicated teachers, whether they are permanent staff or hourly paid, moonlighting teachers from the public university. Unlike public universities, private institutions have not invested in research production because their primary concern is profit through high tuition fees and tax breaks. Still, the spread and appeal of these private providers have been lauded by the media and the government. The public universities are called upon to follow their model, but the callers stop short of discussing the public university budget and gargantuan student populations in a country where only 0.8% of GDP is allocated to research and development (Ouadghiri, 2019).

16.3 The Oak Tree and the Reeds: Survival Strategies

In *Aesop's Fables* (2003), there is a fairytale about a tall and strong oak tree that stood close to a thicket of reeds on the bank of a river. The oak tree boasted of his size and strength and laughed off the slender and weak reeds. One day, a severe windstorm blew on the forest and uprooted the oak tree, which fell into the river. The oak, who had never thought such a fate would befall him on account of his strength, was all the more surprised to see that the reeds had survived the storm unharmed. He asked them why the storm did not break them too. They told the fallen oak that they know how to kneel when a storm is blowing, which is something the oak is incapable of. Today a similar storm is blowing in Moroccan academia and society, and the English department's fate depends on whether it behaves like the oak tree or rather like the savvy slender reeds in the face of the winds of change.

Against the odds of a neoliberal environment with its austerity measures and government hostility to public services, the English department needs to question its role while maintaining its distinct identity. Now that the teaching of English is carried out across dozens of institutions in the private and public sectors, the English studies departments must foreground what is unique about them. What they have and can do better than all the other English teaching providers is their humanities origins and mission. Our core identity is that we belong to the humanities as a universal tradition of knowledge and a set of ways of seeing the world. In these neoliberal times when the value of the humanities and the university is questioned, the English department needs to preserve its humanities core because it is what makes it distinct from all the other providers of English language instruction. In recent years and under the influence of government discourse and policies, some English departments have deviated from their core mission by closing down their literature streams and replacing them with communication or cultural studies ones. While the English department has never been closed to society and its needs, the loss of literature as an area of student training and staff recruitment will only hasten the demise of the English department. Deactivating the literature stream in the curriculum, as has been the case of the department at the Faculty of Letters and Humanities in Rabat since the academic year 2014/2015, has hollowed out the humanities identity of the English department. Literature and its study build the students' critical thinking skills, improve their vocabulary and writing skills, expose them in great depth to cultures and worldviews different from their own, and endow them with empathy and other soft skills which they need to exist and act as *human* beings.

Another area where the English department can excel and promote its role in the Moroccan university is research production. Faculty members must step up their research productivity in order to enhance the image of their departments because teaching alone is no longer enough. Private institutions do it sometimes even better than their public counterparts because they are better equipped to deliver good teaching. In this situation, English departments at the public universities need to capitalize on what would make them unique, namely advanced academic research. In addition to producing quality research outputs, this would help the faculty members develop

cutting-edge research programmes at the MA and doctoral levels. This would over time restore public trust in the university. To carry out advanced research, the faculty would need to seek funding from abroad and hopefully force the Moroccan government to allocate more resources for national research. Science is a vocation, as Max Weber (1958) famously put it, and English department researchers should stop at nothing to exercise this vocation.

The next stage in the research vocation of the English department is impactful outreach. While impact is often used by the government to undermine universities and divert attention from structural issues such as budget freezes or cuts, English studies academics at the Moroccan university need to do more to share their research and informed opinions with the rest of society. This potential is abundant not only in the natural and social sciences but also in the humanities. In fact, as a recent study (Anders, 2017) found out, the humanities and the skills they provide are the most needed in our digital age. In his book *You Can Do Anything: The Surprising Power of a "Useless" Liberal Arts Education* (2017), George Anders celebrates the values that students of the humanities are endowed with because of their education.

> Curiosity, creativity, and empathy aren't unruly traits that must be reined into ensure success. Just the opposite. The human touch has never been more essential in the workplace than it is today. You don't have to mask your true identity to get paid for your strengths. You don't need to apologize for the supposedly impractical classes you took in college or the so-called soft skills you have acquired. The job market is quietly creating thousands of openings a week for people who can bring a humanist's grace to our rapidly evolving high-tech future. [...] The more we automate the routine stuff, the more we create a constant low-level hum of digital connectivity, the more we get tangled up in the vastness and blind spots of big data, the more essential it is to bring human judgment into the junctions of our digital lives. (pp. 4–5)

The English department professors need to valorize their work and the values that only a humanities education can provide. We are training not only employable graduates, but unique human subjects capable of navigating the complexities of modern life. The value of the humanities is timeless, but it needs to be promoted not just in literature classes. Professors of the humanities must shed their classical reticence and reach out to society by being involved in theatre and film events (literary scholars) and education policy (linguists), among other arenas for the promotion of the humanities and human values against the destructive logic of consumer capitalism and the dictatorship of the market.

References

Aesop. (2003). *Aesop' fables* (D. L. Ashliman, Trans.). New York: Barnes and Noble Classics.

Anders, G. (2017). *You can do anything: The surprising power of a "Useless" liberal arts education*. New York: Little, Brown and Company.

Badimon Emperador, M. (2007). Diplômés chômeurs au Maroc: Dynamiques de pérennisation d'une action collective plurielle. *L'année du Maghreb, 3,* 297–311.

Bahmad, J. (2013). Casablanca unbound: The New Urban Cinema in Morocco. *Francosphères, 2*(1), 73–85.

Ben-Srhir, K. (2005). *Britain and Morocco during the embassy of John Drummond Hay, 1845–1886* (M. Williams & G. Waterson, Trans.). New York: Routledge.
Bureš, J. (2008). *Main characteristics and development trends of migration in the Arab world*. Prague: Institute of International relations.
Cohen, S., & Jaidi, L. (2014). *Morocco: Globalization and its consequences*. New York: Routledge.
Dahbi, M. (2003). The Moroccan department of English. In A. Youssi, M. Dahbi, & L. Haddad (Eds.), *The Moroccan character: Studies in honour of Mohammed Abu Talib* (pp. 13–23). Rabat: Amapatril.
El-Naggar, M. S. (Ed.). (1987). *Adjustment policies and development strategies in the Arab world.* Papers presented at a seminar held in Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates, 16–18 Feb 1987. Washington, DC: International Monetary Fund.
Ennaji, M. (2005). *Multilingualism, cultural identity, and education in Morocco*. New York: Springer.
Harvey, D. (2009). The 'new' imperialism: accumulation by dispossession. *Socialist Register, 40*(40), 63–87.
Ministry of National Education, Vocational Training, Higher Education and Scientific Research (MNEVTHESR). (2018). *L'enseignement supérieur en chiffres 2017/2018*. Rabat: MNEVTHESR.
Ouadghiri, Z. (2019) Minister: Less than 1% of Morocco's GDP went to research in 2017. *Morocco World News*. Retrieved from 18 Jan 2019 https://www.moroccoworldnews.com/2019/01/263689/morocco-gdp-research/.
Rhissassi, F. (2003). *Femmes, violence et université au Maroc*. Casablanca: Eddif.
Saulniers, A. H. (2003). Privatization in Morocco. In V. V. Ramanadham (Ed.), *Privatisation: A global perspective* (pp. 212–229). London: Routledge.
Vermeren, P. (2010). *Histoire du Maroc depuis l'indépendance*. Paris: La Découverte.
Weber, M. (1958). *Science as a vocation*. *Daedalus, 87*(1), 111–134.
Zoubir, Y. H., & White, G. (Eds.). (2015). *North African politics: Change and continuity*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Jamal Bahmad is Assistant Professor of Literature and Cultural Studies in the Department of English at Mohammed V University in Rabat. He earned his Ph. D. degree from the University of Stirling (UK, 2014) with a dissertation on contemporary Moroccan urban cinema. He has held a British Academy postdoctoral fellowship at the University of Leeds and, prior to that, was a research fellow at Philipps-Universität Marburg (Germany). Bahmad was most recently a research fellow at the University of Exeter on the AHRC-funded project: "Transnational Moroccan Cinema." He specializes and has published widely in the field of North African cultural studies with a focus on cinema, cities, literature, memory, and youth cultures. He recently co-edited a special issue of French Cultural Studies (SAGE, August 2017) on trash cultures in the Francophone world. Bahmad is also the co-editor of a special issue of The Moroccan Cultural Studies Journal on Moroccan cinema (November 2017). In addition to working on his first monograph on Moroccan cinema and globalization, Bahmad has recently finished a book (co-authored with Will Higbee and Florence Martin) on Moroccan transnational cinema to be published by Edinburgh University Press in 2020.