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**Exploring the Rhetorical and
Communicative Impacts of Native Culture
on the Argumentative Writing of Algerian
Master Students of EFL
Towards Designing a University Course for the
Teaching of Argumentative Essay Writing**

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DEDICATIONS

I dedicate this work:

*to the memory of **my father**... the person who taught me to read and write,*

to my mother,

and to my family.

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ABSTRACT

Argumentative writing, a fundamental part of academic writing, is reported to pose problems for learners of English as a foreign language. The present study examines the factors engendering difficulties in writing an argumentative essay by a group of Arabic-speaking Master students of English in Algeria. This case study seeks to accomplish the following objectives: To explore the effect of the rhetorical patterns and communication styles of the learners' native language and culture on their argumentative essay writing, to explore the teaching practices of argumentative essay writing in the Algerian university context, and to develop innovative instructional ways of argumentative essay writing based on understanding the nature of learners' problems. To achieve these goals, a blend of quantitative/qualitative methods was employed. A writing test was used to elicit 104 argumentative essays from 52 Master students out of 199 registered for the academic year 2012_2013 at the Department of English at Kasdi Merbah University, Ouargla, Algeria. The participants were chosen via convenience sampling. An interview was administered to 4 teachers of writing out of 10 at the same department chosen via purposive sampling. Its aim is to explore the instruction pursued when teaching the specified genre. The analysis of the data involved firstly a quantitative treatment of the learners' texts. The purpose of this analysis is to detect the impacts of the rhetorical patterns and communication styles of the learners' native culture on their argumentative essays in English. The rhetorical patterns covered are excessive coordination, through-argumentation and non-deductive text development, and the communication style under investigation is indirectness. Further, qualitative techniques, based on the procedure of coding, were employed in the analysis of the teachers' interview responses. The results demonstrate that the learners' argumentative texts contain rhetorical and communicative features that can be attributed to the effect of their native culture, but the latter is not the sole factor leading the student writers to deviate from the discourse norms governing the construction of the genre under focus. In fact, learners' low linguistic proficiency and the received instruction contribute equally to the problem. On the basis of the findings, a course for the teaching of argumentative essay writing to Arabic-speaking university students of English as a foreign language has been designed based on the genre-process approach. Through this study, the present researcher has attempted to aid the learners of English to write argumentative texts which respond to the standards of academic writing and to contribute to the development of current research in the field.

Keywords: Argumentative essay, Arabic language, Arab culture, communication styles, rhetorical patterns, English writing.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CN:	Conditionals
CR:	Contrastive Rhetoric
CTU:	Coordinate T-Unit
DB:	Discourse Block
Dem.:	Demonstratives
Den.:	Denials
Dis.:	Disclaimers
DU:	Discourse Unit
EAP:	English for Academic Purposes
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
ESL:	English as a Second Language
ESP:	English for Specific Purposes
FL:	Foreign Language
FTA:	Face Threatening Act
HCC:	High Context Communication
IC:	Intercultural Communication
Indef. 1:	Universal and Negative Indefinite Pronouns
Indef. 2:	Assertive and Non-Assertive Indefinite Pronouns
KWIC:	Key Word in Context
L1:	First Language
L2:	Target Language
LCC:	Low Context Communication
LMD:	Licence-Master-Doctorat
N°:	Number

NNS:	Non-Native Speaker
NS:	Native Speaker
PV:	Passive Voice
Q:	Question
RQT:	Rhetorical Questions and Tags
SCP:	Simple Concordance Program
TEFL:	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TSA:	Topical Structure Analysis
T-unit:	Terminal Unit

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1. Scope of the Study

Existing literature and daily practices of language teachers at various educational levels and in different settings give evidence that teaching writing is a very challenging task with regard to the complex nature of the skill of writing and the strenuousness language learners usually find when venturing into it. This holds both in learning one's native language or another language (Hyland, 2003; Kroll, 1990; Tribble, 1996; Raimes, 1983; Rivers, 1981). To attain optimum results, practices in teaching writing in English as a foreign or second language ought to be in principle informed by the novelties taking place in the theoretical research on the nature of writing and on the way people learn to write (Kroll, 2001). It is generally held that a solid foundation in theoretical issues of first and second language writing and an awareness of the extensive array of pedagogical issues that manipulate classroom practices are highly required for a successful performance of writing instruction (Silva, 1990). While the efforts of the practitioners of teaching writing, especially in academic environments which require proficiency in specific forms of written communication, are principally directed to fostering ESL or EFL learners' competence in using English effectively, this would not be possible unless advances in research are translated into teaching methodologies and routine practices. The present study on EFL argumentative writing goes in line with such enduring connections between theoretical research on the one hand and language instruction on the other.

Argumentation is seen to lie at the heart of academic writing. The ability to argue persuasively plays a major role in enhancing objective discussion of controversial issues, in developing more profound understandings of viewpoints, and in fostering the learners' critical thinking potentials (Björk, 2003; Boardman & Frydenburg, 2008; Graff, 2003; Smagorinsky, Johannessen, Kahn, & McCann, 2011; Axelrod & Cooper, 2012; Stirling, 2009; Mayberry, 2009; Oshima & Hogue, 2007). It is reported in the literature, however,

that many ESL and EFL students of various linguistic backgrounds and in many parts of the world do face difficulties, especially at the discourse level, in projecting this relatively complex form of communication, particularly in writing (Al-Abed AI-Haq & Ahmed, 1994; Bouchard, 1996; Ferris, 1994; Godó, 2008; Hinkel, 1999; Hinkle, 2002; Kim, 1995; Lux, 1991; Zhu, 2001). As a result, their writing seems not conform to the discourse norms advocated in the English academy. The explanations of such problems are based on various theoretical perspectives, including cultural factors (Kaplan, 1966), developmental factors (Cheng & Chen, 2009; Chen, 1999; Fakhri, 1994; Mohan & Lo, 1985; Wang & Wen, 2002) and contextual factors (Clyne, 1987; Connor, 1996; Mauranen, 1994).

Focusing on the Algerian university context and informed chiefly by the two theoretical mainstreams of contrastive rhetoric and intercultural communication, the present study explores the rhetorical and communicative impacts of the native culture of Arabic-speaking learners of EFL on their argumentative writing in English. Such influences are considered a potential major explanatory factor of their problems in producing this kind of written discourse. In addition, the study endeavours to suggest a model to the teaching of written argumentation at university level based on a thorough discernment of actual problems and the common teaching practices in this academic setting. In this way, it is believed that university teachers of English writing in the Algerian context are assisted to make reasoned and learned decisions as regards argumentative writing instruction, especially the inexperienced ones. On the whole, it is believed that little improvement can be attained in any aspect of language teaching without it being informed by sound theoretical principles derived from rigorous empirical evidence. This study aims at helping to partially improve the present writing courses in the light of an examination of real problems.

To attain the goals designed for this study, the essay genre is opted for owing to its being one of the principal argumentative genres and especially to the prominence attached to it in the academia. Standard textbooks on academic writing present the essay as one of the most common types of written work that students have to be acquainted with. It is regarded as the exemplary discourse form and a typical writing assignment in academic or intellectual circles. Indeed, the essay is often described as the “default genre” since it cuts across all the disciplines (Andrews, 2003; Bailey, 2011; Scollon & Scollon, 1995). It is not only this commonness as a writing task that gives essays such standing in academic writing but also their frequency of occurrence as an assessment instrument (Nadell, Langan, & Comodromos, 2009). Essays are required for the purpose of determining whether students are capable of selecting, organizing and interpreting relevant facts so that the ideas become lucid to the readers who are not familiar with the topic under discussion (McMillan, 1984). Essays are also an integral part of large scale tests of English proficiency such as the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) and TOEFL iBT (Internet-Based Test of English as a Foreign Language) (Connor, 2003; Stirling, 2009).

2. Rationale

The motivation for undertaking this study is partly related to some theoretical issues in the study of argumentation and composition which remain open to further enquiry and empirical corroboration, and partly to some observed day-to-day problems encountered in the teaching of argumentative writing in English as a foreign language in the Algerian university context.

– Theoretical Motivation

Argumentation is thought to be accomplished differently in various cultures (Hatch, 1992). Indeed, the principles of reasonableness, which is the essence of argumentation, are not independent of cultural assumptions (Condon & Yousef, 1975). This is substantiated

by observation of the performance of argumentation by speakers in a variety of cultural settings, which indicates that they tend to cast and perceive it in their own perspective, a perspective that basically stems from a system of cultural norms. Starting from the 1960s, a relatively new tendency in argumentation theory has centered on cross-cultural differences in the performance of this type of discourse. Accordingly, an increasing number of studies on the subject have been recorded. One important hallmark of these instances of scholarship is their treatment of partial facets of argumentation, such as argumentation style (Eller, 1989; Hatim, 1989), argument quality and evaluation (Siegel, 1999), the organization of argumentation (Warnick & Manusov, 2000), argumentative strategies (Issakson-Wikberg, 1999; Abbadi, 2006), rhetorical appeals (Kamimura & Oi, 1998), indirectness (Aldrich, 2003) and many other aspects.¹ The fact that argumentation, as an object of study, is exceedingly complex and multifaceted accounts for such selective tendencies.

The study of such inherent cultural disparities between languages in the practice of argumentation can help to understand the nature of certain problems that often arise in EFL composition classes. Indeed, one of the major trends in second language writing scholarship advocates the hypothesis that a learner's culture has strong impacts on second language writing and that a lot of writing difficulties are principally due to the influence of learners' native culture (Hyland, 2003; Kroll, 1990; Zhang, 2008). The impact of the native culture can affect various aspects of argumentative writing. Following the contrastive rhetoric perspective, which is the most flourishing across a variety of writing genres and a number of languages, dissimilarities can be detected at the level of text organisation (Connor, 1996; Connor, Nagelhout, & Rozycki, 2008; Johnstone, 1991; Kaplan, 1966), while for intercultural communication research, divergences extend to the general

¹The terminology used to describe the different aspects of argumentation is the same as the one employed by the original authors, ranging from conventionalized usages to general non-technical ones.

communication style used in argumentative discourse as a result of the general socio-cultural characteristics of language users. The present study attempts to explore the hypothesised cultural effect of Arabic, the native language of most of Algerian students, on their English argumentative essays both at the rhetorical and communication style levels. Working on both axes, it is meant to present a more comprehensive picture of the impact of native culture on argumentative writing in the target language.

A number of theoretical lines converge to give this study such a theoretical focus, including argumentation theory, studies of culture, contrastive rhetoric, intercultural communication, second and foreign language writing studies and English composition research.

– Practical Motivation

This research work is also motivated by practical issues. The present researcher has often observed in her English writing classes that the argumentative essays written by learners of English contain rhetorical and communicative features which do not conform to the discourse conventions required in the Western academic contexts, despite abiding by many of the sentence-level rules of English writing. This complies with what Ostler (1987) designates as “foreign sounding essays” and what Reid (1984) attributes to the application of “culturally learned strategies”, which might not be perceived as native-like writing. Such problems in written argumentative discourse engender a sort of language failure that oftentimes leads to reduce the effectiveness of argumentation or even to misunderstanding the intended persuasive goals of the whole text.

Students often do not consider their selected discourse features as deviant, and this makes the task of the teacher even more challenging, for the teaching of EFL writing at university level is in the first place to prepare students to make themselves understood without cultural impediments, notably when it comes to the use of language for persuasion

in academic settings. Failure to attain this very communicative effect for the resolution of intellectual and scientific differences of opinion is considered a breach in their general competence in English, especially that they are expected to be future EFL teachers or researchers participating in the international academic community. It is postulated that the observed discourse problems in the students' argumentative writing are at least partly the result of the instructional ways and teaching practices, which do not sufficiently consider the potential influence of cultural tendencies on the rhetorical and communicative layers of discourse when learning EFL writing. It should be stressed at this level that working towards teaching EFL learners the English model is by no means a way to denigrate "non-English" models or writing styles. The point is to meet the expectations of the academic discourse community (Swales, 1990) where English has become the academic lingua franca (Duszak, 1994) and where Anglo-American discourse norms are the touchstone. In this connection, Hyland (2009) stresses that student writing troubles are much more a matter of striving to manipulate the standards of a new target community rather than personal weaknesses of individual writers.

Following these theoretical and practical considerations, it appears that there is a need for a comprehensive study of the argumentative writing problems of EFL students in relation to their cultural backgrounds or other factors. Insights on *how* argumentation in written English differs if one moves along the axis of culture can certainly provide EFL teachers with a solid background to devise instructional ways for the improvement of how their learners grasp, produce and respond to argumentative discourse. After all, EFL instruction aims at improving the learners' communicative competence in this language, including discourse competence (Canale & Swain, 1980) as a central component, so that their interlanguage approximates the target language system used by the native speakers in all its modes and layers. The present study is not meant to be, and cannot be, an all-

inclusive project to attain this intricate objective, but it is thought that by undertaking separate complementary empirical investigations, a clearer picture on the way cross-cultural differences in argumentative discourse obstruct EFL writing could be obtained. This study seeks to contribute to the existing literature on teaching EFL academic argumentative writing.

3. Objectives of the Study

With regard to the major differences detected between languages in the performance of argumentation and the resulting potential influences on the learning of foreign or second languages, and with regard to the importance of acquiring the English discourse tools necessary for argumentative writing to participate successfully in the English international academic settings, the present study focuses on essay writing, being a predominant genre in the academia, and it attempts to achieve the following objectives:

- (1) To explore the extent to which the rhetorical patterns and communication styles of the native language and culture affect the argumentative essays of the Algerian EFL learners at the discourse level,
- (2) To explore the teaching practices concerning argumentative essay writing in the Algerian university context,
- (3) To suggest innovative instructional ways to handle actual problems in this kind of writing on the basis of the nature of problems and the actual practice of teachers.

4. Statement of the Research Questions

In the light of these objectives, the following research questions are formulated:

Question1: Do the argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features which can be attributed to the effect of transfer of Arabic rhetorical patterns?

Question2: Do the argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features which can be attributed to the effect of transfer of Arab communication styles?

Question3: Does transfer of native rhetorical patterns and communication styles constitute the major factor leading to problems in argumentative essay writing?

Question4: How do the Algerian university teachers accomplish the teaching of argumentative essay writing: how do they perceive the observed problems of students in writing this genre? And how do they proceed to solve them?

5. Hypotheses

The hypotheses of the study are as follows:

Hypothesis1: The argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features that can be attributed to effect of transfer of Arabic rhetorical patterns.

Hypothesis2: The argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features that can be attributed to effect of transfer of Arab communication styles.

Hypothesis3: Transfer of native rhetorical patterns and communication styles constitutes the major factor leading to problems in argumentative essay writing.

6. Research Methods

To verify the postulated hypotheses and answer the research questions, two research tools are designed: a writing test for EFL postgraduate students and an interview for university teachers of EFL writing.

– The Writing Test

A writing test involving the composition of argumentative essays is employed as a research instrument to elicit data from the student participants. The results of the test represent a corpus on the basis of which answers to Question 1, Question 2 and Question 3 are sought.

– The Interview

The interview is meant to understand the teacher participants' common practice of teaching the target genre, their perception of the observed problems in students' writings and their treatment of such problems. The results of the interview provide data to answer Question 4.

7. Definitions of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the terms “argumentative writing”, “rhetorical patterns” and “communication styles” need to be delineated in general and operational terms. *Argumentative writing* is generally defined as “attempts to support a controversial point or defend a position on which there is a difference of opinion” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 337). Unlike persuasion, the objective of argumentation is to convince the reader by means of rational tools. Nadell et al. (2009) state:

Using clear thinking and logic, the writer tries to convince readers of the soundness of a particular opinion on a controversial issue. If, while trying to convince, the writer uses emotional language and dramatic appeals to readers' concerns, beliefs, and values, then the piece is called persuasion. (p.455)

The range of rhetorical patterns and communication styles to which reference can be made in the description of cultural influences on argumentative writing is extensive and variegated. Practically, due to limitations of time and space, it is unattainable for a single study to depict all the aspects of such influences. Several studies could be conducted to obtain a more comprehensive treatment. Furthermore, some of these linguistic phenomena are still not measurable due to the lack of theorising and previous empirical models that could be pursued. Their treatments are only conducted in broad, non-technical ways. On account of these constraints, it is necessary to demarcate the scope of the terms “rhetorical patterns” and “communication styles” to provide precise analytical axes for this study.

Firstly, the term *rhetoric* generally refers to “the role of discourse toward some end: how language can be used to persuade, convince or elicit support” (Hyland, 2009, p. 210).

Rhetorical patterns are recurring patterns of discourse organisation and stylistic preferences (Connor, 1996). In this study, they are limited to the following:

(i) Excessive Coordination: In English syntax, coordination is a kind of relationship holding between units of the same rank and the same constituent structure (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik, 1985). It can be of two types: syndetic and asyndetic: “Syndetic coordination is marked by overt signals of coordination (and, or, but), whereas asyndetic coordination is not overtly marked” (ibid, p. 918). It is syndetic coordination that is considered in the present work.

(ii) Through-argumentation: It is a general argumentative pattern distinguished from *counter-argumentation*. According to Hatim and Mason (1990), *through-argument* “involves citing a thesis and arguing it through” (p. 152).

(iii) Non-deductive text organization: Hinds (1990) states that “deductive writing has the thesis statement in the initial position” (p.89). Non-deductive development can be of two forms: *inductive*, “having the thesis statement in the final position” (ibid) or *quasi-inductive*, “getting the readers to think for themselves, to consider the observations made, and to draw their own conclusions” (ibid., pp. 99-100). That is to say, the thesis statement is not explicitly stated in any part of the essay.

Secondly, a *communication style* is “a meta-message that contextualizes how individuals should accept and interpret a verbal message” (Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey, 1988, p. 100). In the present study, the examined communication style is *indirectness*. Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1992) define indirectness as “verbal messages that camouflage and conceal speakers’ true intentions in terms of their wants, needs, and goals in the discourse situation” (p. 224). This linguistic phenomenon is the most widely studied

feature designating communication in non-Western contexts. Several models have been developed to measure it in discourse.

8. Structure of the Thesis

The present thesis comprises seven chapters that explicate the theoretical background of the study, its methodology and its main findings.

To construct a conceptual framework for the study and to contextualise its findings in the existing body of knowledge, the review of literature commences with an account in Chapter 1 of the study of argumentation in discourse to depict its state-of-the-art. Firstly, this chapter briefly sketches out the key concepts and the main approaches in the study of argumentation, and it briefly traces the development of argumentation research over time. Also, it delineates the various theoretical lines according to which argumentation is approached, thus removing the ordinary ambiguity that surrounds the term “argument” by determining which of the existing perspectives the study pursues.

The review goes on in Chapter 2 to expound on the practice of argumentation across cultures. This chapter informs the present work by specifying the areas that are postulated to be problematic in the argumentative writings of the student participants. In the first place, the account covers the contrastive rhetoric treatment of the subject through the presentation of major writing genres in which cross-cultural discrepancies were empirically investigated with emphasis on the characteristics of argumentation in Arabic and in the writings of ESL Arabic-speaking learners of English. In the second place, it expounds on intercultural communication research on cross-cultural differences in argumentation, focusing on the specifics of Arab argumentation. On the basis of this, areas of the native culture’s influence on the students’ writings are identified. Some of these constitute the analytical lines of the present work.

At last, the review explores in Chapter 3 second language writing research and argumentation. It examines the major approaches in the field, following a chronological order. Further, it enumerates the various explanatory paradigms of students' problems in written discourse. This covers transfer of first language norms, developmental factors and contextual factors. In the end, the chapter provides a lengthy delineation of the rhetorical and stylistic characteristics of the argumentative essay genre as it is construed in the Anglo-American academic settings. This would provide clear-cut criteria for the evaluation of the writings of EFL learners.

The practical section of the study comprises four chapters. In Chapter 4, the research design and methodology of the study are accounted for, covering the general approach, the participants, the materials and the procedures of data collection and analysis. Chapter 5 and 6 provide a report of the findings of the writing test and the teachers' interview respectively. Finally, in chapter 7, the present researcher has attempted to suggest a model for the teaching of argumentative essay writing at university level, which is derived from the analysis of actual learning and teaching problems.

CHAPTER ONE

The Study of Argumentation: History and Basics

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Introduction

The most prominent characteristic of the study of argumentation is its wide-ranging, multi-disciplinary scope, including ancient disciplines, such as philosophy, logic and rhetoric on the one hand and many of the recently emerging scholastic fields like linguistics, speech communication and social psychology on the other. Being a point of overlap of such diverse spheres and sciences makes the study of argumentation so complex a business, which still seeks to determine in precise terms what its object is and how it should be approached. This chapter is meant to offer a global review of argumentation and its various approaches. In the first place, it includes a systematic part where focus is laid on the nature of argumentation itself together with the basic characteristics that constitute the common core of its subject matter. Also, some fundamental concepts that bear some relevance to the study of argumentation and that seem indispensable in any discussion of it are elucidated. In the second place, it encompasses a historical map of the different approaches to argumentation and a theoretical map of the various modern distinctions in its study.

1.1. Defining Argumentation

To delimit the subject of study in argumentation, one will wander in a number of realms in search of a clear-cut definition of it. These realms do show some conflicting attitudes as regards the nature of arguments, depending on the general lines of vision, but despite the existing clashing views, a common core does exist.

To start with, the word *argument*, which is almost used interchangeably with *argumentation*, denotes in most dictionaries, on the one hand, the act of disagreeing or questioning something (a dynamic sense), and on the other, the reason or reasons put forward for proving the truth or falsehood of something (a static sense). In either case, an element of disagreement is present since even in the second sense, no reason is given

unless some objection to what one says is present. In line with this general literal signification of argument, a number of theorists generally agree on regarding argumentation a justificatory attempt. Zarefsky (2001a), for example, considers it as “the study of reason giving used by people to justify their beliefs and values and to influence the thought and action of others. Its central concern is with rationality or reasonableness of claims put forward in discourse” (p.33). It appears in this definition that *reasonableness* is a cardinal element of argumentation, which adds a normative veil to it. In other words, analysing argumentative discourse involves a tacit evaluation of it in accordance with some pre-established criteria of reasonableness.

Not far from this statement, Barnet and Bedau (2005) put argument under the cover term *persuasion* and set it apart from the other forms of persuasion by its being dependent on reason: offering statements as reasons for other statements and not appealing, for instance, to other persuasive tools such as emotions or torture. Further, they distinguish argument from “dispute” by restricting the latter to the dictionary’s dynamic sense of it. Finally, in an earlier definition, Baker and Huntington (1905) seem to focus on the same essential features of argumentation. For them “Argumentation is the art of producing in the mind of another person acceptance of ideas held true by a writer or speaker, and of including the other person, if necessary, to act in consequence of his acquired belief” (p.7). This definition alludes to the effect argumentation can produce on the others’ thinking and actions, but it does not specify the tools used to achieve that effect.

In a more elaborate and technical discussion of the nature of argument, van Eemeren, Grootendorst and Kruiger (1987) attempt to provide a meticulous analysis of its central elements. In their view, still a broad view, there are seven general features that mark language as argumentation. These are briefly recapitulated below:

- The first feature is that the act of arguing is basically a social activity, which two or more participants express in their discourse by advancing arguments and reacting to them².
- The second feature is that argumentation is an intellectual activity essentially based on reason (emotions may have a subordinate function).
- The third feature is that argumentation must involve the use of language both in its spoken or written modes, with the aid (in some cases) of non-verbal means. Argumentative language may vary considerably in style from one context to another.
- The fourth feature is that argumentation pertains to a subject about which people hold colliding expressed opinions. Using a substantial analogy, difference of opinion is a “nucleus” around which arguments turn.
- The fifth feature is that argumentation has the objective of justifying or disproving an opinion, hence establishing two interacting coexisting lines: that of *justification* and that of *refutation*. Both give argumentation a critical role.
- The sixth feature is that argumentation comprises a constellation of statements, or “arguments”, advanced to show that an opinion should be accepted or to demonstrate that an opinion ought to be withdrawn.
- The seventh feature is that argumentation seeks to convince an audience. Being convinced rests on rational judgement on the part of that audience since arguments themselves are based on reasonableness (feature 2).

The authors, taking the seven features together, have come up with the following structural definition of argumentation: “Argumentation is a social ^[feature 1], intellectual ^[feature 2], verbal ^[feature 3] activity serving to justify or refute an opinion ^[features 4, 5], consisting of a

² This includes monological argumentation: a single interlocutor’s working out of arguments for or against something, which naturally presupposes anticipated reactions.

constellation of statements ^[feature 6] and directed towards obtaining the approbation of an audience ^[feature 7],» (p.7).

This sketchy discussion shows the essential characteristics of the object of study in argumentation theory. It should be emphasized, however, that looking at argument is not that simple on the grounds that a number of theoretical distinctions in approaching argument can be made (see 1.4).

1.2 Key Concepts in the Study of Argumentation

Discussions of argumentative issues often make use of some terms and key concepts, the understanding of which is vital to apprehend the different aspects of argumentation, especially for a novice reader.

First of all, as indicated in 1.1, a central notion is disagreement or *difference of opinion*, from which argumentation originates. Van Eemeren, Grootendorst and Snoeck Henkemans (2002) explain, in this connection, that “A difference of opinion or disagreement always involves two parties. One party puts forward a standpoint and the other party expresses doubts about it _ or , as often happens, goes a step further and rejects the standpoint” (p. 4). To exemplify, A and B in (1) have an *explicit difference of opinion*:

(1) A: Working women with young children should be discouraged
from going out to work.

B: Ah! I am not sure if this should be done!

The authors add that there are cases in which there is an *implicit difference of opinion*, especially in written texts, where doubt is anticipated, as in (2).

(2) A: I think universities and schools should abolish all sorts of
examinations.

Important to this discussion is the notion *point of view*, or the position one takes as regards a certain proposition. Houtlosser (2001) defines it as a statement that other

statements (arguments) try to support or rebut, or justify or refute_ in the simplest terms it is “the object of argumentation”. Furthermore, he expounds on and compares some relatively equivalent terms to *point of view* known in the various approaches, such as *thesis, attitude, belief, opinion, conclusion, claim* or *debate proposition*. In his review, he focuses on the way each term is conceived of within its own theoretical perspective and on the way they are identified in argumentative discourse. A focal point in his discussion is that identifying the point of view(s) is necessary in the analysis and the evaluation of argumentation, though the methods and cues for doing so differ from one approach to another.

To talk of a difference of opinion is to allude to two parties involved in argumentation about this difference. These participants are in non-technical terms dubbed the “interlocutors”, the “discussants” or the “arguers”. Some more restricted terminology is employed with regard to their roles in argumentation: the person (or persons) defending a point of view is the *protagonist* and the one attacking it (or anticipated to be attacking it) is the *antagonist* (van Eemeren et al., 1996). The arguments advanced by each party are *pro-arguments* and *contra-arguments* respectively: the former are meant to justify a point of view, and the latter are meant to refute it (van Eemeren, Grootendorst & Kruijer, 1987). The obligation that one has to defend his position is called the *burden of proof*.

Another very frequently encountered notion is *premise*, originally used in logic and expanded to argumentation theory at large. A premise is a statement assumed in advance and used as a reason in an argument (Barnet & Bedau, 2005). Using logical terms, if two premises are combined to lead to a conclusion, the whole construct is called a *syllogism*, as in (3a):

- (3a) - Algerians are quick-tempered (premise)
 and - Fares is Algerian (premise)
 then - Fares is quick-tempered (conclusion)

In argumentative discourse, some premises are at times unspoken. In that case, they are called *unexpressed premises*, as opposed to *explicit premises*, as in (3b):

- (3b) - Fares is Algerian
 and - (Algerians are quick-tempered) (unexpressed premise)
 then - Fares is quick-tempered

Whether the premise is explicit or implicit, it does count as a building block in argumentation.

Moving one step further in accounting for argumentative discourse, two other fundamental concepts merit elucidation on the grounds that they constitute key axes in the analysis and evaluation of arguments. These are *argumentation structure* and *argument schemes*. A cardinal distinction is posited between two complementary approaches to argument: firstly, the examination of the links between individual arguments advanced by a language user and the ways they hang together to constitute a defence (the *inter-argument* relationships), and secondly, the examination of the links between the components of every single argument, i.e. the premises and the point of view (the *intra-argument* relationships). In the first case, it is argumentation structure that is being scrutinized; in the second, argument schemes (van Eemeren et al., 1996). The example in (4) illustrates this distinction between the two concepts:

- (4) [Ouargla is an important city in Algeria]^{point of view} because [the largest oil and gas fields of the country are located in it]^{argument (1)}. Apart from that, [it contains a unique heritage that contributes to the country's cultural diversity]^{argument (2)}.

In this example, to focus on argumentation structure is to find out in what way argument (1) and argument (2) are related to one another, and to analyse argument schemes is to reveal the kind of relationship between each of the arguments and the point of view. This can be schematised as follows:

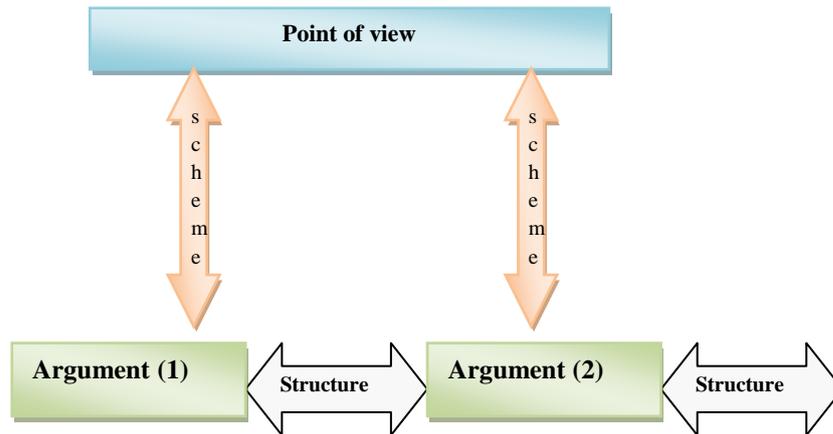


Figure 1. Argumentation structure and argument schemes.

At last, one further concept is worth considering, that of *fallacy*. Being reasonable is a feature which every arguer should bear so that one attains the convincing of the other party of one's point of view. In the course of ordinary argumentation, however, the participants in many instances commit aberrations, errors or mistakes of various natures affecting the soundness of their arguments and weakening their tenability but which are at times very convincing for some audiences. Such transgressions or flaws are traditionally termed "fallacies". Using a more technical wording, a fallacy is broadly defined as an imperfect move in argumentative discourse (van Eemeren, 2001). Fallacies have long attracted scholarly attention so that logicians, dialecticians and rhetoricians have elaborated various inventories in which these argumentative flaws are classified and labelled. Different theoretical conceptions of fallacy have led to the production of dissimilar taxonomies throughout centuries of work³.

1.3 The Study of Argumentation: a Historical Overview

Originating in ancient Greece, argumentation studies have a reputable history, and they did throughout centuries amass the zeal of the great thinkers of humanity. Indeed, proficiency in reason-giving, eloquence and persuasion have always been the pursuit of

³ See van Eemeren (2001) for a rich historical overview of the various approaches to fallacies and their related taxonomies.

politicians, philosophers, writers, priests and the courtiers of every society. Although the paths followed in earlier works were so diverse and sometimes conflicting, the totality of classical works is held to be the cardinal pillar of the modern approaches to argumentation, and most of the current notions are in fact more or less the thoughts that Greek, Roman and other peoples have conceptualised earlier in time.

1.3.1 The Classical Greek Approaches

The classical approaches of logic, dialectic and rhetoric form a solid background for many of the central theoretical issues raised nowadays in argumentation theory. All of them date back to the Greek philosophical scholarship and are greatly inspired by Aristotle's works⁴. In what follows, a brief examination of what the three disciplines are about is given with focus on Aristotle's contribution.

1.3.1.1 Logic

Logic, formerly called *analytic*, is concerned with the principles of good reasoning and the notion of argument is the central issue in logical discussions (Johnson, 2002). The logical account of argument is originally formulated and elaborated by Aristotle in his outstanding works *Prior analytics* and *Posterior Analytics*. The impact of these works on argumentation theory and modern logic is very remarkable. Indeed, many of the classical constructs of logic are still very popular today (Kneale & Kneale, 1962).

In the logical paradigm, argument is treated as a syllogism. It is the basic structure of reasoning, comprising typically two statements (or premises) and a third statement resulting from them (a conclusion) (Zarefsky, 2001b), as shown in the general form below:

1. Major premise
2. Minor premise
-
3. Conclusion

⁴ Aristotle's writings were collected by his followers in the *Organon* in 322 B.C. It consisted of six parts: The *Categories*, the *Topics*, *Sophistical Refutations*, *On Interpretation*, *Prior analytics* and *Posterior Analytics* (Kneale & Kneale, 1962).

In a syllogism, the conclusion is inferred from the premises. If the premises are true, then the conclusion must be true.

Syllogisms are categorised in several ways. According to the types of premises they contain, syllogisms can be *categorical*, *conditional* or *disjunctive*, as shown and exemplified in Table 1. Another classification divides syllogisms into *inductive* syllogisms, where the conclusion is a general statement that follows from specific cases mentioned in the premises, and *deductive* syllogisms, where what is asserted in the premises must lead to the conclusion.

The evaluation of arguments depends on two factors: the truth of the premises and the logical relationship between the premises and the conclusion. In this respect, Kelly (1988) clarifies:

An argument is a method of establishing the truth of a proposition by relating it to the facts we already know. So we have to start from facts; false premises don't prove anything . . . it is not enough that the premises be true; they must also be relevant to the conclusion. Their truth must give a reason for thinking the conclusion is true. (p. 94)

In logic it is important to distinguish between *validity* and *soundness* in the evaluation of arguments. Validity is related to the inferential relationship between the premises and the conclusion: an argument is valid when the premises are relevant to the conclusion, regardless of their truth or falseness. In case the argument is valid and has true premises, it said to be sound.

All in all, it appears that the logical approach revolves around the notion of syllogism as a cardinal model for arguments. This model is essentially an abstract, formal derivational tool, and in its evaluation, emphasis is primarily laid on its validity. Van Eemeren (2009) observes that many scholars nowadays find the logical account of argumentation insufficient because it discards many linguistic, contextual, situational and other pragmatic variables that affect argumentative communication.

Table 1*Types of Syllogisms*

Types	Premises	Example	
Categorical	Major premise	Asserts a generalisation about a category.	1. All Christians believe in God.
	Minor premise	Locates a specific case within the category.	2. Fred is Christian.
	Conclusion	Applies the generalisation on the specific case by deduction.	3. Fred believes in God.
Conditional (if/ then)	Major premise	An “if/then” statement that sets up the condition and the consequent.	1. If students study they get better grades.
	Minor premise	Affirms or denies the antecedent.	2. The students will (not) study.
	Conclusion	Affirms or denies the consequent.	3. The students will (not) get better grades.
Disjunctive (either/or)	Major premise	An either/or statement that includes all the possible alternatives.	1. The University must either raise tuition or cut faculty and programmes.
	Minor premise	Selects or rejects one of the options.	2. The University is unwilling to make cuts.
	Conclusion	Eliminates one of the alternatives.	3. Tuition must be increased.

Note. Adapted from *Arguments and Arguing: The Products and Processes of Human Decision Making*, by T. A. Hollihan and K. T. Baaske, 2005, Long Grove, Illinois: Waveland Press, Inc.

1.3.1.2 Dialectic

The term *dialectic* designates a form of argumentation typical of metaphysics. It is a derivation of the Greek verb “διαλέγεσθαι” which means “discuss” (Kneale & Kneale, op.cit. p.7). As a form of reasoning, it originated in the Greek philosophy. Socrates and Plato did contribute to shaping this philosophical trend, but thanks to Aristotle’s insights in the *Topics*, it developed into a more intricate model of argumentation founded essentially on Zeno of Elea’s earlier formulation. In fact, Aristotle himself acknowledges that Zeno is the inventor of dialectic (Smith, 1999).

In essence, dialectic is a dialogical method of argumentation that employs critical questioning between two interlocutors for the purpose of resolving disagreement between them (Zarefsky, 2006). The participants in a dialectical encounter are engaged in a mutual question-answer sequence. The procedure starts, as Walton (1999) explains, by the questioner first posing a controversial problem for discussion and the respondent assuming a position vis-à-vis that problem. The questioner then goes on to trying to refute this position using logical inferences in order to show its falsity. The exchange continues by advancing arguments for and against the given position, building in each time on the previous answers. The discussants use logical reasoning and ultimately aim at finding the truth. In this connection, Kastley (2001) comments:

The guided attempt to move to a higher understanding by an engaged method of question and answer in which the soul and opinions of a single interlocutor are probed, represents dialectic . . . dialectic begins in opinion with the intent of transcending the realm of empirical experience and arriving at truths more securely grounded because they have been purified by the operation of reason. (p. 221)

In this sort of reasoning the premises are “generally accepted” opinions, and this regulated procedure attempts to pinpoint contradictions and logical problems in such kind of opinions in order to refute them.

According to van Eemeren et al. (1996), the Aristotelian view of dialectic, which is well-articulated in the *Topics*, specifies the exact course of action that the interlocutors have to take during the discussion. In the first place, Aristotle makes it clear what questions should be asked, in which order and how the discussion goes on in the direction of contradicting initial theses. Furthermore, he provides an account of the *topoi* (or moves) the interlocutors can employ to win the debate depending on the answers of their opponents. He suggests a four-fold categorization of these moves into *definition moves*, *property moves*, *genus moves* and *accident moves* (Kneale & Kneale, op.cit.). Furthermore, he even talks of the tricks the debaters can use to cheat the other party. Indeed, the Aristotelian conceptualization of dialectic sets it as a formalised style of disputation which is rule-directed.

Overall, Leff (2000) observes that arguers in dialectic appeal to rationality, formality and abstractness in an interactive context. There is a focus on inference per se and a close connection with reason, starting from what is generally accepted and moving towards a logically justified truth. Mendelson (2001) sums up the dialectical method as “an idealized form of rationality, a ‘propositional calculus’ that seeks to identify the fixed and determinate nature of its subject and, ultimately, to put one position or thesis beyond dispute” (p. 277).

1.3.1.3 Rhetoric

Like logic and dialectic, the discipline of rhetoric has Greek roots. Conley (1990) in an in depth discussion of its origins distinguishes four different models in Greek rhetoric: the Gorgianic, the Protagorian, the Platonic and the Aristotelian, which can be designated as motivistic, controversial, dialectic and problematic respectively. The word “rhētorikē” itself was first used in Plato’s *Gorgias* (written 380 BC) in which it signifies the art of

public speaking and good oratory, and it was Aristotle's work *On Rhetoric* that could expand this discipline into a respected educational branch of knowledge (Kennedy, 2001).

Substantially, rhetoric is one line which arguers can track having the "persuasion of a real audience about a real case" as an objective. Unlike logic and dialectic, which appeal to rationality and seek the truth, rhetoric is the art of eloquence and cogency without necessarily bringing reasonable tools into play⁵. In this respect, Braet (1996) alleges:

Rhetoric has traditionally been concerned not with 'rules for rational discussion', but rather with guidelines for effective persuasion of an audience which is by no means always capable of a rational judgement. These guidelines encourage the speaker to make use of all kinds of irrational techniques. (pp. 347- 348)

Rhetors consider the audiences the primary focus during their argumentation. Thus, rhetorical argumentation is sensitive to its social context and requires adaptation to particular circumstances. Ryan (1992) explains that the majority of members in an audience are people who show incapability of connecting logical conclusions in arguments or grasp several things at once. For this reason, orators do resort to other persuasive means alongside sound arguments to win their audience's assent.

Aristotle's *On Rhetoric* sets the basic guidelines of the discipline. Divided into three parts, the source contains a full account of what rhetoric entails. Aristotle defines rhetoric as "the faculty of discovering the possible means of persuasion in reference to any subject whatever" (Malmkjær, 1991, p. 511). In the first place, according to Kennedy (op. cit.), Aristotle is renowned for his intricate cataloguing of the means of persuasion. By and large, he divides them into nonartistic (extrinsic) and artistic (intrinsic) means. The former, as van Eemeren et al. (op.cit.) explain, do not hinge on the speaker's skill but rest on pre-existing material such as laws, documents, statements by witnesses or confessions. On the

⁵ Indeed, this is an aspect for which rhetoric is sometimes reproached. Plato is the leading opponent of such trait of rhetoric: the search for eloquence at the expense of truth.

other hand, the latter are conditional on the speaker’s artistry and talent and are designed to persuade their audience of a given point of view. Figure 2 shows further divisions in the artistic means:

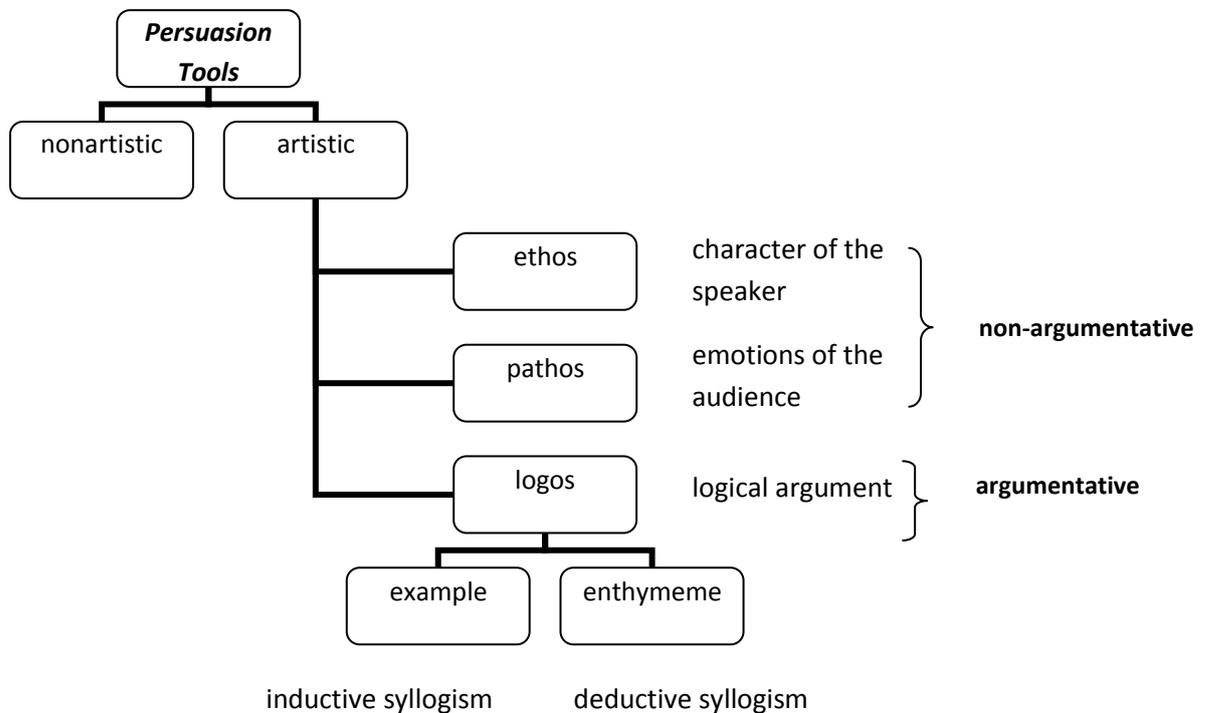


Figure 2. Categorization of persuasion means.

As shown in the diagram, *ethos*, *pathos* and *logos* are three artistic means of persuasion in persuasive discourse. *Ethos* is used to build a positive character of the speaker or writer; *pathos* is resorted to when the audience is put into an emotional state by the speaker; and *logos* is utilized when the speaker appeals to the reasonable side of the audience through the use of arguments based on reason. The variety of artistic tools available for orators enables them to adjust their speeches to the audience they address. For example, Aristotle demonstrates that “Deductive reasoning can best be used in the presence of experts but that inductive reasoning is better for a discourse addressed to an unlettered multitude, because in inductive reasoning examples are given” (van Eemeren, Grootendorst & Kruijer, 1987). *On Rhetoric*, in the second place, provides a theory of genres (or rhetorical species)

according to the type of audience. Aristotle divides them into the judicial species, the deliberative species and the demonstrative species. They are related to juridical situations, political situations and ceremonial occasions respectively. For each sort, he discusses matters of style such as word choice, rhythm and so on. On the whole, Aristotle's work is by far a very influential account on which many modern courses of rhetoric rely.

In this brief outline of the essentials of the three classical approaches to argumentation, two points need to be stressed. Firstly, throughout the long path which each of the three disciplines has taken, the marked disparities in perspective between them have always existed. In spite of this, close affinities have also been detected. The distinctions between them still hold in contemporary theory, regarding them as general perspectives of scholarly work. However, it is important to emphasize the fact that they are not regarded as mutually-exclusive right from the very outset of their existence. For instance, Aristotle's conception of the connection between rhetoric and dialectic was that the former is the "counterpart" of the latter (van Eemeren & Houtlosser, 2007). Secondly, as Zarefsky (2006) maintains, each of the three intellectual traditions did contribute to the refinement of argumentation studies in a particular way, but each has failings as well: the disconnection of logic from argumentative reality and audiences, the deficiency of rhetoric in the normative plane and the postulation of an atypical context of a critical discussion in dialectic. This urged some argumentation theorists now to make cross-disciplinary borrowings of insights to bridge the theoretical gaps in each area.

1.3.2 Later Developments in Argumentation Studies

Influenced by the Greek heritage and across long centuries, the ramified issues of argumentation continued to evolve and flourish in the works of a number of Roman and later European philosophers.

In Rome, two outstanding figures excelled in the pedagogy of public speaking, hence giving rhetoric in particular a giant boost. Most remarkably, Marcus Tullius Cicero (106 BC _ 43 BC) had an unparalleled impact on the entirety of the European rhetorical tradition. In his *De Oratore* he elaborates on the theory of public speaking and persuasion by picturing the ideal statesman. It has been observed that his work sets close bounds between oratory, philosophy and statesmanship, being an orator, philosopher and politician himself. Cicero did leave finger prints on dialectic as well, and he considers it a stream of rhetoric (Conley, 1999). Later, Marcus Fabius Quintilianus (35 AD_96 AD) pursued the lead of Cicero in critical practice and philosophical perspective (Mendelson, 2001). Stimulated by the Emperor's concern about education and public careers, he composed his renowned work *Institutio Oratoria (The Education of the Orator)*, which develops the technicalities of rhetoric with an unprecedented thoroughness about oratory and style (Kennedy, 2001).

In the Latin Middle Ages, Anicius Manlius Severinus Boethius (475 AD_ 526? AD), as Marenbon (2013) observes, was distinguished in the intellectual landscape of that era. Through his writings on various issues, he has been considered a fundamental author for philosophy and theology in general and argumentation theory in particular. His most influential work was *De Differentiis Topicis* where he accounts on logic, rhetoric and dialectic, taking Aristotle and Cicero as his authorities; but unlike Cicero, he holds rhetoric to be dependent on dialectic. In his conceptualization, dialectic “governs the genus of argumentation, and rhetoric becomes a subordinate part of dialectic because it is a species of that genus” (Conley, *ibid*, p.80).

During the Renaissance, a significant flourishing took place in Europe in all scholarly spheres. The mainstay of scholars and artists was the exploration of the individual as part of the humanist movement. Advances were made in every intellectual

field, and argumentation was no exception, taking rhetoric and dialectic to the fore. An ardent interest of humanists in the classical texts of Cicero and Quintilian marked the scene at that time (ibid), and seminal works were written by Lorenzo Valla (1406–1457) and Rudolph Agricola (1443–1485). Valla’s main philosophical contribution was *Repastinatio dialecticae et philosophiae* (*Reploughing of Dialectic and Philosophy*), a criticism of the main precepts of Aristotelian philosophy. Agricola as well was one of the leaders of the rhetorically oriented logic through his book *On dialectical invention* (*De Inventione dialectica*, 1515). According to Valla and Agricola, since language is firstly an instrument for communication and debate, arguments should be assessed in terms of their effectiveness and usefulness rather than in terms of their formal validity (Casini, 2012). In the sixteenth century, many works in logic bore in their titles the term *dialectics* instead, such as the three works of Philip Melanchthon (1497-1560), *Compendiaria dialectics ratio* (1520), *Dialectics libri quattuor* (1528), and *Erotemata dialectics* (1547) as well as the works by Petrus Ramus (1515-1572) and Petrus Fonseca (Conley, ibid).

In the following centuries, there had been a general rise and fall and an unceasing rivalry between the classical approaches of rhetoric, dialectic and logic in the European scholarship. The chief hallmark then was always the close affinities to earlier philosophical works in the form of elaborations, additions or at times even criticisms. Van Eemeren et al. (1996) argue that this situation persisted until the first half of the 19th century with primacy given to rhetoric and logic. Then the theoretical study of argumentation in ordinary language with practical goals emerged in some public speaking and writing courses at the American schools and universities only in the second half of the century at the departments of rhetoric and speech communication. Important textbooks also appeared with focus on logical thinking. By and large, it is stated that the cardinal broad lines and perspectives of modern argumentation theory were only drawn in that phase of history without making “an

absolute break with the classical tradition” (van Eemeren, Grootendorst & Kruiger, 1987, p. 110).

1.3.4 Late 20th Century Argumentation Theory

In the late nineteen fifties, the classical rhetorical perspective attracted a new interest on the part of some argumentation theorists who sought to investigate the factors that influence the efficacy of argumentation, giving birth to what has come to be known as *new rhetoric*. Conley (op.cit) refers to four chief figures who have been involved: McKeon, Toulmin, Perelman and Habermas. The two most influential works in new rhetoric appeared independently in 1958: the first by Stephen E. Toulmin in *The Uses of Argument* and the second by Perelman and Olbrecht-Tyteca in *La Nouvelle Rhétorique*. Van Eemeren (2009) equates their weight on modern scholarship to that of Aristotle in antiquity and considers them the “cradle” of modern argumentation theory. By and large, the two approaches disapprove of the syllogistic model and see that it is inapplicable to ordinary argumentative practice. In this respect, Zarefsky (2001b) argues:

Their most basic position is that the syllogism is an inappropriate paradigm for argument. It describes a very atypical mode of reasoning, that which occurs within a closed system where the conclusion merely rearranges information already implicit in the premises. Reasoning about matters of human affairs . . . could not and should not approach this standard. (p. 35)

1.3.4.1 Toulmin’s Contribution

Toulmin proposes a model of rhetorical argumentation in which an argument comprises six elements that can be diagrammed as follows:

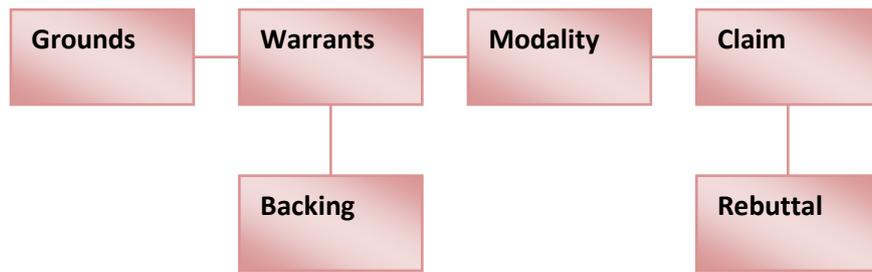


Figure 3. Toulmin's model. Adapted from *Arguments and Arguing: The Products and Processes of Human Decision Making* (p. 108), by T.A. Hollihan and K. T. Baaske, 2005, Long Grove, Illinois: Waveland Press, Inc.

Claims are the beliefs which one attempts to convince the audience to accept. The *grounds* are the assumptions which underlie the claim. *Warrants* are the type of reasoning that permits the inference operation or the link between the grounds and the claim. The *backing* refers to the support given and the *modality* to the degree of certainty the arguer has about the claim. Finally, the *rebuttal* is the exception to the claim. Conley (op. cit.) observes that Toulmin's model first looks at arguments not as inferences but as justifications. Secondly, and most importantly, the model emphasises the notion of *argument fields*. That is, sound arguments are said to be so only in a given field. Soundness is far from being universal; it is in fact dependent on the field in which argumentation occurs. However, Toulmin argues that his model follows the procedural form (see Section 1.4.1) which is field-independent: the same steps are always pursued in a procedure; what varies from context to another is the kind of backing (van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 2004). In the evaluation of argumentation, van Eemeren (op. cit.) argues that field-specific norms are referred to and that such assessment criteria are not transferable to other fields. Zarefsky (2001a) shows that Toulmin's model gained a wide acceptance for many decades and was the basis for a number of courses of argumentation.

1.3.4.2 Perelman and Olbrecht-Tyteca's Contribution

Perelman and Olbrecht-Tyteca, in turn, are representatives of rhetorical neoclassicism. In *La Nouvelle Rhétorique: Traité de l'Argumentation*, focus is put on the

techniques employed by people in practice to persuade an audience. This work is taken to be a highly regarded contribution to the development of the theory of argumentation that departs from formal logic. Firstly, these theorists argue that in argumentation the target audience determines the soundness of an argument. In more explicit terms, for an argument to be assessed as sound, it should comply with the force values held by the addressees intended. Van Eemeren et al. (1996) thus assert that arguers ought to have sufficient knowledge of their audiences' preferences which can be exploited to convince them to accept a certain point of view. At this point, an important distinction is made in Perelman and Tyteca's account between a particular audience and a universal audience. Secondly, La *Nouvelle Rhétorique* presents an insightful typology of premises, which appears in Figure 4.

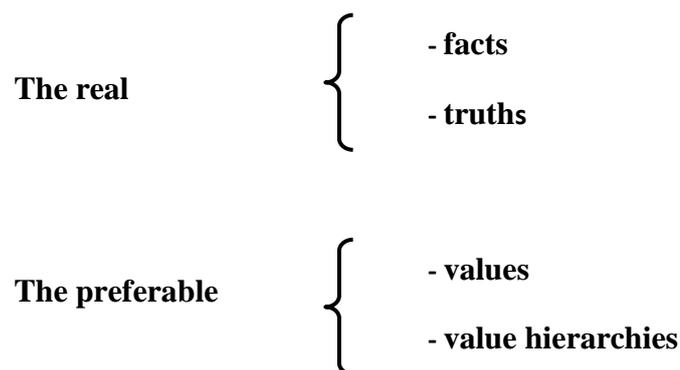


Figure 4. Premises which may serve as points of departure.

Last but not least, Perelman and Tyteca also suggested important distinctions as regards argumentation schemes. Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (2004) state that the success of argumentation in this perspective depends on the selection of the right starting points and the appropriate schemes for the target audience.

1.3.4.3 Recent Developments

In the decades following the work of the new rhetoricians, the modern theory of argumentation has undergone marked developments in a variety of directions which have

turned it into one of the most heterogeneous scholarly fields. However, a universally established standard theory of argumentation has not been reached yet. The recent works have in general the tendency to rectify the limitations of the existing approaches, but in essence most of them are based either on the ancient rhetorical tradition or the on the dialectical one. Attempting to present a brief overview of the state of the art of argumentation theory, van Eemeren (1995) distinguishes six principal paradigms: Formal Dialectics, Informal Logic, Radical Argumentativism, Communication and Rhetoric, the Formal Analysis of Fallacies and Pragma-dialectics. In the discussion below, focus is put on the first two of them.

1.3.4.3.1 Formal Dialectics

Modern argumentation theorists who look at argumentation as a dialogic exchange aimed at resolving a difference of opinion have suggested in the 1980's a neoclassical dialectical approach. This trend in argumentation theory appeared under the name of Formal Dialectics. The first to use the term was Hamblin (1970). Formal dialectics derives its primary building blocks from the works of two dialogue logic philosophers from the Erlangen School. But the completed version of this perspective was given shape in Barth and Krabbe's work (1982). What is meant by "dialectic" in this paradigm is a critical discussion whose aim is to terminate a dispute and what "formal" refers to is the state of being controlled by rigorous rules (van Eemeren, 2009; van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 1992).

According to the formal dialectical perspective, reasoning is held to be a procedure in which two parties are involved in an argumentative dialogue: the proponent and the opponent. Jointly and through a regulated exchange of critical attack against each other's statements, or *concessions*, the two participants attempt to rationally dissolve a difference

of opinion between them over a definite thesis (van Eemeren, 2001; van Eemeren & Grootendorst, 2004). Seen in this way, argumentation is regarded as:

the totality of moves made by the interlocutors taking part in the discussion in their argumentative roles as proponent and opponent. The rules presented in formal dialectics lay down what moves are permissible in a discussion, in which circumstances a proponent has successfully defended a thesis, and in which circumstances an opponent has successfully attacked one. (van Eemeren et al., 1996, p. 264)

It is understood from this conceptualisation of argumentation that the rules of discussion are the standards that regulate argumentative practice. It is this very aspect of the formal dialectical approach which attracted the interest of other argumentation scholars later and led them to develop new research perspectives always with a dialectical orientation.

1.3.4.3.2 Informal Logic

Growing out of dissatisfaction with the contents and methods followed in the introductory courses to logic, a multi-dimensional trend appeared in argumentation studies by the 1970s in Canada and the USA called Informal Logic. The most salient trait of this branch, according to Johnson⁶ (1999) is that the theorists' views are considerably incompatible as to what it is exactly, and this renders "informal logic" a fuzzy term compared to the others. Blair and Johnson (1987) attempt to offer a broad characterization of it as follows:

We believe that informal logic is best understood as the normative study of argument. It is the area of logic which seeks to develop standards, criteria and procedures for the interpretation, evaluation and construction of arguments and argumentation used in natural language. (p. 148)

They state that the first insights to this discipline originate from Toulmin (1958), Olbrechts-Tyteca (1958) and Scriven (1976), known for their stance against formal

⁶ R. H. Johnson and A. Blair are the leading figures of the trend and the editors of the scholarly journal *Informal Logic* since 1978.

deductive logic. Add to that, they allude to another major contributing stream to the field, i.e. Hamblin's (op.cit) distinguished study on informal fallacies. Indeed, for them the theory of fallacy is held to be the most "comprehensively cultivated" land of informal logic. Van Eemeren (1995) mentions other pursuits that informal logicians have in addition to the above mentioned ones, such as questions of the way to analyse argumentation structures, the way to categorize argumentation schemes and the way to assess argumentation.

Informal logicians attempt to distance themselves from the formal models to argument and get closer to real language practice. In this vein, Dons (2001) explains that, for example, they consider the premises-conclusion model inadequate to account satisfactorily for arguments when they vary from field to field or when their subject-matter changes since in each case the warrants differ. Also, it is alleged that the most generally renowned contribution of informal logic to argumentation thought is the substitution of the criterion of *argument cogency*, also called the *R.S.A. standard*, for the criterion of soundness in argument evaluation (Walton & Godden, 2007). The standard of cogency concerns the norms that premises should meet for an argument to be good in the informal logical sense: First, premises have to be adequately linked to the conclusion (*relevance*); second, they have to give enough support or evidence for the conclusion (*efficiency*); and third, they ought to be true (*acceptability*) (van Eemeren, 2009).

1.3.4.3.3 Other Approaches

In an in-depth examination of the state of the art of argumentation theory, van Eemeren et al. (1996) elaborate on all of the above mentioned trends and allude to other less theoretically refined ones.

In their account of Radical Argumentativism, for example, they place it within a larger non-English context of research which is generally language-oriented. Developed in

France by Ducrot and Anscombe (1983) and having purely descriptive non-evaluative purposes, the theory looks at argumentation as a trait that pertains to all language use, not to one form of it, hence the term “radical”. It is concerned with the argumentative interpretation of sentences with regards to their syntactic and semantic content, for example, the words and expressions that add an argumentative dimension to a sentence. Within the same descriptive stream, they mention the natural logicians’ work in the 1970s, led by Grize (1973) in Switzerland, which has a logical rhetorical bench, and the argumentative grammar model developed by the Italian-born Lo Cascio (1991) with its Chomskyan generative form.

As for the Communication and Rhetoric line, van Eemeren et al. (op. cit.) trace it to the US debate pedagogy emerging in the late 19th century in such domains as law, government and politics. Central to this province of argumentation scholarship is the desertion of the formal logical tools of reasoning and the adjustment of argumentative practice to audiences. Here again argumentation proceeds in the traditional rhetorical path. Further, van Eemeren (1995) explains that in Communication and Rhetoric, the rhetorical interest in persuasiveness in a given social context is intertwined with the dialectical conception of argument as dialogical and interactional. The works of Willard (1989) and those of Jackson and Jacobs (1980) on the rhetoric of conversational argument exemplify this movement. The approach, therefore, seems to have normative as well as descriptive dimensions.

Concerning the Formal Analysis of Fallacies, the well- renowned account of it is provided by the Canadian logicians Woods and Walton (1982) in the early eighties. It globally centres on the role formal logic plays in the study of fallacies. Chiefly, they make use of the structures and terminology of logical systems and consider argumentation in a

dialogical context, hence giving their approach a dialectical bent (van Eemeren, *ibid*). The chief impetus to this approach was the work of Hamblin on fallacies.

Pragma-dialectics, developed by Frans van Eemeren and Rob Grootendorst in the 1970s up to the present decade at the Speech Communication Department of the University of Amsterdam, has been gaining ground among the most recent and popular approaches to argumentative discourse. It is characterised by a binary perspective which unites normativity and description as regards its data, and it is built in essence on the speech act theory on the one hand and the procedural dialectical conceptualisation of argument on the other. The pragma-dialectical approach derives its methodology of analysing argumentative discourse from four meta-theoretical principles, as developed by van Eemeren and Grootendorst (1984), aiming at handling argumentation more adequately than earlier researchers. This embraces the *externalisation*, *functionalisation*, *socialisation* and *dialectification* of the object of study. Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (*ibid*) give a thorough discussion of how speech act theory is applied to the analysis of argumentative discourse. The whole thing is embedded within a postulated framework called the *ideal model of a critical discussion*.

Other less elaborate methodologies characterise the scene in modern argumentation theory and are also discussed in van Eemeren, Grootendorst, Snoeck Henkemans et al.'s (1996) survey. On the whole, such approaches have origins in various disciplines and are the product of non-Anglophone studies. The inventory of these swiftly progressing investigations includes the philosophically oriented works of the Erlangen School scholars and Habermas (1984) theory of communicative rationality. Added to these are the rhetorical approaches appearing in France, Germany and especially Italy with focus on stylistic aspects of argumentative language used in various domains and genres. Further, modern approaches include the linguistically inspired studies of the German researchers in

speech act theory, conversational analysis and discourse analysis, which are fundamentally descriptive and empirical in perspective.

1.4 Distinctions in Approaching Argumentation

Broadness of scope and diversity of perspectives, the hallmark that characterizes modern argumentation scholarship, prevents the analysis of argumentative discourse from being systematic and comprehensible. Thus, it is important for the analyst to delineate in precise terms what perspective(s) is/are pursued. In the literature on modern argumentation, several acknowledged divisions are encountered. They set the main lines along which the study of argumentation proceeds. Bearing such distinctions in mind, one can approach any aspect of argumentation with more vigour and lucidity.

1.4.1 The Process, Procedure, Product Distinction

Wenzel (1992) distinguishes three basic conceptualizations of argument that originate from the antique spheres of human intellectual inquiry: rhetoric, dialectic and logic. Wenzel's tripartite classification, though more elaborate, has its seeds in Maurice Natanson's discussion of argumentation movement. Basic to the distinction is to view argumentation as a *process*, a *procedure* or a *product* respectively⁷. The three perspectives differ in the purpose to which the argumentation is put, the situation in which it takes place, the rules to which it should adhere, and the speakers and audiences who take part in it.

The first (rhetorical) account of argumentative behaviour is to view it as a process. An arguer is a social actor striving chiefly for the others' persuasion. Thus studying

7 O'keefe (1992) suggested a binary categorisation of the senses of "argument" that overlaps significantly with this perspective. It is derived from the dictionary's literal denotations of the word, and it is known in the literature as the "product-process" dichotomy. "Argument", on the one hand, signifies a communicative act or utterance that can be classified on the speech act spectrum. In this sense, an argument is looked at as an end-point in itself. On the other hand, "argument" refers to an interaction taking place between two or more participants: It is something people take part in. This difference of senses is evidenced by the collocation discrepancies between them: (1) "arguing that" and "arguing about" or "making an argument" and (2) "having an argument" respectively.

argumentation equates with probing into the intricacies of persuasion. Arguers seek out influencing audiences, and “fine-tuning” discourse to attract particular audiences remains a major purpose of argumentation in this outlook. Concerning the situation, it is a real construct with tangible components, and argumentative behaviour is an act of adaptation to this factual construct following social rules that are implied in nature. The participants in argumentation as a process are “naïve social actors” addressing “particular” persons. On the whole, this outlook conceives of argument as a concrete act of persuasion fully implanted in factuality. Within the process category, Zarefsky (2001a) locates studies in interpersonal communication emerging in the 1970s. In this sphere of research, focus is laid on the way naturally occurring argument is conducted in everyday situations. The works of Jackson and Jacobs in conversation analysis fall within this rubric. Again, Charles Willard’s research on argumentation as interaction is noted. Above all, an axis of research by O’keefe and Benoit (1982) focussing on the developing argumentative competence of children and its relationship to conversation structure is highlighted.

The second (dialectical) perspective conceives of argumentation as a procedure. To “conduct” an argument here is to try cooperatively to achieve joint decisions or understanding by complying with overtly agreed upon rules of discussion, or regulative conventions. As opposed to the first view, arguments here are aimed at fostering critical scrutiny. As for the situational factor, this perspective locates arguments not in the concrete world, but in a “contrived” context of hypotheses and abstractions, “an arena for discourse that is created for the purpose of facilitating a critical process” (Wenzel, op. cit., p. 129). The rules of argumentation in this view are explicitly expressed, for the act itself is regarded as a well-defined critical procedure whose success is determined by its *candidness*. Further in this perspective, a speaker is an advocate who is aware of his role in the discussion, while a receiver is not considered as a person as such, but rather an

individual typifying a universal audience, a particular person “straining for universality”(Wenzel, *ibid*, p. 133). By and large, the second perspective emphasises the fact that argument is a strictly guided procedure of criticism where the participants, assuming precise roles tend to embody some universal abstract matter. Within the procedure category, where argumentation is centrally governed by procedural conventions or norms, as exemplified in the legislative and scientific settings, Zarefsky (*op. cit.*) classifies the approach of the Dutch scholars Frans Van Eemeren and Rob Grootendorst known as the *pragma-dialectical* approach, which is primarily built on the speech act theory with emphasis on felicity conditions and predetermined stages of argumentative discussion, in addition to Walton’s important work on formal fallacies in dialogue.

In the third (logical) perspective, argument is conceived of as a product that can be subjected to rational judgement. Removed from actual communication, an argument is a set of statements liable to logical analysis and evaluation. The purpose in that case is to attain *soundness*. Good argumentation, then, is one that conforms to the canons of correct inference. The contextual considerations are out of the scene because in this perspective argumentation is completely detached from reality. What counts in the evaluation of argument is just the “logical context”: The ideas and their interrelatedness within a specific field of argument. The fields themselves can be loose or can be highly structured. A critic is not so much concerned with rules of effectiveness or candidness, but rather with the rules of soundness, for the focal point is the set of statements seen as a product, not as a process or procedure. The third perspective tends to “de-humanise” the participants: the speaker is construed as an impersonal explicator addressing a universal audience because the argument *per se* is absolute and timeless in nature. Within the product category, Zarefsky (*ibid*) mentions traditional text studies of argumentative discourse as opposed to other genres, such as narration, description and exposition. Central to these studies is their

dependence on the logical standards of validity and their adoption of the syllogism as the nuclear form of argumentation. The syllogism model was disputed by a number of philosophers, informal logicians, and by scholars in rhetoric.

1.4.2 The Normative/ Descriptive Distinction

A further outstanding division in approaching argumentative discourse is drawn between the descriptive trend and the normative (or critical) trend. Descriptivists call for an empirical examination of the actual use of language. Van Eemeren et al. (1993) clarify that social scientific research, such as in linguistics and discourse analysis, is usually descriptivist in nature. It is interested in the characteristics of real argumentation. They also assert that humanistic research, such as in modern logic and rhetoric is normative, for it takes an evaluative attitude as regards argumentative practice. It tries to assess the way people argue by reference to some predetermined norms or models. The following statement captures concisely the essence of this discrepancy of views between descriptivists and normativists in the treatment of argumentative discourse:

Social scientific approaches generally claim to be value-free. They generally portray themselves as avoiding questions of how individuals in principle *should* and *should not* argue in favor of simply asking how individuals in fact *do* and *do not* argue. In contrast, critical approaches are often more concerned with the properties of models of ideal argumentation than with features of real argumentative practice. (p. vii)

Van Eemeren et al. (1996) argue that the two perspectives are apparently separate, but combining them constitutes an interesting outlook on which they establish their own theory of pragma-dialectics.

1.4.3 The “Emic/ Etic” Distinction

The third distinction that influences and directs research in argumentation theory is the “emic / etic” classification of approaches. The terms are originally borrowed from the work of the American linguist Pike (1967), and they are basically employed to study

linguistic data but are extended to analyse culture and human behaviour at large. In linguistics, as Crystal (2008) explains:

An 'etic' approach is one where the physical patterns of language are described with a minimum reference to their function within the language system. An 'emic' approach, by contrast, takes full account of functional relationships, setting up a closed system of abstract contrastive units as the basis of a description. (p. 167)

The "emic/ etic" treatments apply to the scrutiny of cultural data as well. From an "emic" angle, description of culture is intrinsic, in the sense that it emphasizes the aspects of culture that are meaningful for the members of a given community. From an "etic" angle, on the other hand, the description of data is more objective since it is extrinsic. That is, it focuses on the description of data for an outsider observer regardless of their meaningful distinctions for the members of the community.

In the same line, the distinction holds in argumentation theory. Van Eemeren and Grootendorst (2004) state that "emic" approaches to argumentative discourse are interpretive: taking an insider perspective, they aim at depicting the interpretive procedures which are employed in actual practice by the users of language in a given community. "Etic" approaches, conversely, are analytical: they take an outsider outlook and aim at analyzing argumentative discourse systematically with no reference to the perceptions of the language users. It is shown that the neutrality of "etic" approaches makes them so comprehensive that they subsume the "emic" ones (van Eemeren et al., op. cit.).

1.4.4 The Conceptualization of Reasonableness Distinction

The purpose of argumentation is in principle to convince another party of a given viewpoint, but the arguments advanced can attain this goal or not: argumentation can be rational or not, reasonable or not. Beneath such considerations lie some standards of reasonableness. At the theoretical plane, the conceptions of reasonableness differ among argumentation scholars, depending on their philosophical orientations.

In line with Toulmin's (1976) analysis, van Eemeren (1992) and van Eemeren et al. (op. cit.) distinguish and expound on three philosophical conceptualizations according to which reasonableness is assessed: the geometrical perspective, the anthropological perspective and the critical perspective. They see that for the geometrical philosopher, the rationality of an argument is weighed in formal logical term. That is, the argument is regarded as a case of logical inference whose validity can be tested by referring to the truth value of the constituent premises and the formal layout of arguments. Indeed, this approach is said to be an absolute and context-free account of reasonableness. The anthropological perspective, by contrast, is more relative as it treats arguments within their cultural context. In other words, an argument is reasonable if it complies with the norms of a given community as regards its persuasiveness. This outlook considers the cultural context as a determiner of rationality; thus, it is said to be inter-subjective. Finally, the critical perspective focuses on argument schemes and the efficiency of the argumentative procedures. What counts for the philosophers in this trend is whether the arguers succeed in complying with the discussion rules to attain a resolution for the dispute under question.

All in all, van Eemeren (op. cit.) observes that such philosophical conceptualizations constitute an important step towards formulating more precise theoretical propositions that shape the different lines of argumentation research.

1.4.5 Other Distinctions

In addition to the preceding distinctions, the study of argumentation varies also in scope and focus⁸. It is observed, according to Zarefsky (2001a), that some studies of argumentation take a micro conception of it, considering a single argument as a unit of investigation and assessing its internal texture and strength. On the other end of the scale, macro studies are much more "discourse level" approaches, in the sense that they are

⁸ The distinctions appearing in this section are less encountered in the literature on argumentation compared to the previous ones.

interested in the dynamics of interpersonal controversy, even that which extends across time. Between the first and the second positions, a third perspective takes midrange stretches of discourse such as speeches and essays as a focal point and attempts to pinpoint the persuasive tools employed in them as coherent wholes.

It is also possible to have another axis on which argumentation studies can be located, depending on the nature of text under scrutiny. In this connection, some analysts regard the object of study as a self-contained discourse type, as opposed to the other types of description, exposition and narration. Argumentation is designated as such on the grounds that it has peculiar textual features that set it apart from the other text types (Hatim & Mason, 1990). Other analysts consider argumentation as a communicative function underlying the various discourse types by examining their persuasive dimension.

Conclusion

Argumentation theory is not as homogeneous as it may be reckoned, and its exploration is indeed the exploration of the most knotty types of communication. Argumentation is primarily concerned with reasoning and persuasion, which had long been attributed to the intelligentsias of every society_ though for the current language oriented theorists, argumentation is thought to be a daily practice of every user of language. This very nature of the realm undoubtedly underlies the interest of the ancient thinkers in argumentation issues. In fact, the traditional disciplines of logic, rhetoric and dialectic did set the foundations of modern argumentation theory and have supplied it with a rich constellation of concepts and a medley of approaches that reflect a laborious work to account for it in systematic and standardised terms. Later and along many centuries, studies in the field took an extended path with unceasing flourishing at each stage. With the advent of more scientific approaches to language, culture, society and communication in the twentieth and the twenty first centuries, more innovative perspectives emerged and

added to the evolution of argumentation theory, and the goals have become more wide-ranging.

CHAPTER TWO

Argumentation across Cultures

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Introduction

It is explained in the previous chapter that argumentation as a form of communication has a “common core and a unique goal”, for in all cases it has to do with reason giving to persuade another party of the tenability of a position as regards a given proposition. In the last few decades, the treatments of argumentation began to be more context-oriented, and a remarkable interest in the cultural differences in argumentation has taken place. A survey of the available research on such disparities shows that the approaches as well as the aspects of argumentation being investigated vary from one study to another. Researchers have adopted a multitude of theoretical stances and have used dissimilar analytical tools to examine cultural differences in some layers of argumentation across a number of spoken and written genres. That is due to the fact that argumentation is a multifaceted and a highly complex form of communication. The aim of this chapter is to expatiate on the major studies in this area of investigation mainly in the fields of contrastive rhetoric and intercultural communication. Ultimately, this chapter delineates the levels at which argumentation in Arabic differs from English argumentation as identified in the literature. This can assist in setting well-grounded parameters to determine the extent to which the native culture of the Algerian learners of EFL affects their English argumentative writing.

2. 1 Culture, Communication and Argumentative Writing

If the sense of culture is discerned cautiously and meticulously, it would not be difficult to demonstrate the close bounds that connect it to communication in all its modes and hence to argumentative writing. Although the study of culture has a relatively respectable history dating back to the work of anthropologists at the beginning of the 20th century, the concept of culture is usually described in the available literature as a confusing

term in view of the multitude of interpretations attributed to it (Gudykunst, 1991). The following survey includes some of the widely accepted definitions of culture.

While a few scholars look at culture in terms of observable traits of some groups of individuals, most specialists agree on the conventional and two-layered nature of culture, that is, its implicit existence in the form of a set of values and its materialization as a set of behaviours. In one of the earliest works, Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952) articulate the sense of culture as follows:

[A set of] patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, and on the other as conditioning elements of further action. (p. 181)

Spencer-Oatey's (2008) definition goes in the same line, emphasising the role that culture plays in shaping and understanding individual behaviour. In her words, culture is "a fuzzy set of basic assumptions and values, orientations to life, beliefs, policies, procedures and behavioural conventions that are shared by a group of people, and that influence (but do not determine) each member's behaviour and his/her interpretations of the 'meaning' of other people's behaviour" (p. 3). Lustig and Koester's (2010) conception takes the same direction. Culture, as they demarcate it, is "a learned set of shared interpretations about beliefs, values, norms, and social practices which affect the behaviours of a relatively large group of people" (p. 25). Also, Gushylyk and Gushylyk (2010) nearly delineate it in the same way, "[it is] the total way of life of people, composed of their learned shared behavior patterns, values, norms and material objects" (p. 21). The "learned" aspect of culture seems to be essential in the last two definitions.

Other researchers highlight the cognitive manifestation of culture, stating that it is a determinant of "the logic" according to which people order the world (Porter, 1972). At

last, Novinger (2001) spells out in details the elements that constitute the implicit layer of culture. To him, this encompasses “knowledge, experience, meanings, beliefs, values, attitudes, religions, concepts of self, the universe and self-universe, relationships, hierarchies of status, role expectations, spatial relations, and time concepts accumulated by a large group of people over generations through individual and group effort” (p. 14). In addition, he specifies the explicit exponents of culture, among which communication occupies a prominent position. “Culture manifests itself both in patterns of language and thought, and in forms of activity and behavior. Culture filters communication” (ibid).

Specialists in cultural studies use some analogies to illustrate the layers of culture. One interesting analogy is drawn by Peterson (2004), among a dozen of other analogies. According to him, culture is like an iceberg, with two essential planes. On the surface lies a small portion, “above-the-waterline” culture, in the form of perceivable behaviours; beneath the surface lies the largest hidden part, “under-the-water” culture, which constitutes the foundation of the upper part, including opinions, attitudes, philosophies, values and convictions. For Peterson (ibid), values are “principles or qualities that a group of people will tend to see as good or right or worthwhile” (p. 22). Indeed, values determine a large set of behaviour and thought preferences. The manifestations of the “tip” and “bottom” aspects of culture are summarized in Table 2. Peterson emphasizes the importance of the underlying bottom plane of culture, for it shapes the main facets of the tip plane. According to him, just as the largest part of the iceberg is underwater, most of the central aspects of culture are unseen and unconscious.

Table 2

Manifestations of Tip and Bottom Cultures

<i>“Tip-of-the-iceberg” culture</i>	<i>“Bottom-of-the-iceberg” culture</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Language• Architecture• Food• Population• Music• Clothing• Art and literature• Pace of life• Emotional display• Gestures• Leisure activities• Eye contact• Sports	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Notions of time• How the individual fits into society• Beliefs about human nature• Rules about relationships• Importance of work• Motivations for achievement• Role of adults and children within the family• Tolerance for change• Expectation of macho behavior• Importance of face, harmony• Preference for leadership systems• Communication styles• Attitudes about men’s/women’s roles• Preference for thinking style— linear or systemic

Note. Adapted from *Cultural intelligence: A guide to Working with People from other Cultures*, by B. Peterson, 2004, Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Through this brief examination of the senses of culture, it appears that it is a determining factor of people’s action in general, but more specifically, a pivotal byproduct of culture is people’s ways of communication.

It is argued that culture and communication influence one another reciprocally and, as a result, cultural differences can constitute veritable obstructions to successful communication. Hall (1959) states that “Culture is communication and communication is culture” (p. 169). That is to say, the way individuals communicate is shaped by the culture in which they are raised, and an entire culture is influenced in the course of time by the communication patterns of the individuals who share it. Because of this cyclic relationship,

understanding cultural orientations has important implications for understanding communicative tendencies (Jaganathan & Kaur, 2003). When people communicate, they exchange messages and create meanings. The speaker assigns a specific meaning to the transmitted message, while the receiver would attach his own meaning to the message received. The effectiveness of communication is relative to the sameness between the speaker's and the sender's meanings (Gudykunst, 1991). This, in turn, is largely contingent on whether they share the same culture. In the same line, Di Stefano, Imon, Lee, & Di Stefano (2005) consider cultural differences one of the main factors leading to ineffective communication. For them, "The cultural background of people involved plays an important role in the communication process. Here culture is defined as the shared beliefs, traditions, habits and values controlling the behavior of a social group" (p. 1). Žegarac (2008) explains that culture creates a sort of preconceptions which are carried into intercultural encounters and which do affect the success or failure of communication, conditional on the degree to which the interlocutors' cultural norms of communication differ. Similarly, Novinger (ibid) writes:

All of our interactions with others are governed by a learned set of rules—our cultural pattern—most of which unconsciously guide our behavior and consequently affect our communication. We draw on our learned rules to understand others' behavior. . . . When engaging in intercultural communication, we often cannot understand the meaning of another's comportment, and we know that we do not understand. A yet greater peril to misunderstanding occurs when we think we understand and do not. We misinterpret. (pp. 17-18)

For Novinger, cultural differences present more serious obstructions to communication than do linguistic dissimilarities. Knowledge of how barriers to communication arise due cultural divergence would certainly increase one's effective communication skills with all people. In this respect, Gudykunst (1991) comments, "The greater our cultural and

linguistic knowledge, and the more our beliefs overlap with the strangers with whom we communicate, the less the likelihood there will be misunderstandings” (p. 25).

All this applies to written communication. In writing, the expectations and beliefs that writers and readers possess about composition stem from their native culture, especially expectations on how texts are organized. In this respect, McCool (2009) argues “Individual people have unique perspectives on the world, but many of the ingredients for developing these perspectives are informed by the culture in which a person spent their formative years. People transfer these same values to the writing process” (p. 59). Hyland (2009) emphasizes the fact that by and large language and learning are strongly connected to culture as language is a vehicle for the expression of presupposed cultural values. The latter subsume the values used to learn and communicate in writing. Elsewhere he explains that the differing expectations about text organization in various cultural settings are among the most examined facets of writing. Indeed, cultures differ in “what is seen as logical, engaging, relevant, or well-organized in writing, what counts as proof, conciseness, and evidence” (Hyland, 2003, p. 45). These cultural preconceptions may obstruct effective writer/reader communication.

The case of argumentation as a form of communication is no exception: One cannot achieve the ultimate goal of persuasion in argumentation if the underpinning expectations (especially about writing) are different between communicators. Expatiating on intercultural writing of arguments, McCool (op. cit.) states:

Argument and persuasion is a culturally based activity, a process easily viewed through the window of writing. Effective writing adheres to a culturally specific structure, and it is this anatomy that goes unnoticed by people writing for a different culture. Understanding a paper’s anatomy or structure is critical for intercultural writing. Anatomy is analogous to logic and the way people think, but it also relates to basic principles, matters of form, and style. (p. 58)

Thus, when learning to write argumentatively in English as a second or foreign language, students are faced with the challenge of abiding by a whole set of cultural conventions as regards English argumentative writing to meet the Western audience's expectations and to obviate misinterpretation of their texts. Hinkel (1994) comments that cultural dissimilarities and notions related to writing can develop into obstacles in the acquisition of L2 communication patterns, mainly when these notions pertain to purposes absent from the learner's culture such as precision in discourse, rationality of argument, and the need for reason-based substantiation of claims. Starting from such assumptions, the differences in argumentation across cultures have been thoroughly explored, and their study has flourished within two areas of investigation, namely, contrastive rhetoric and intercultural communication.

2.2 Contrastive Rhetoric Studies

There is a bulk of contrastive rhetoric research reporting findings on the various features of argumentation in which manifest differences are spotted in various cultural settings. These findings are significant in that they could place cultural differences in argumentation within highly systematic theoretical frameworks.

2.2.1 Core Assumptions and Origins of Contrastive Rhetoric

Contrastive rhetoric (henceforth CR) constitutes an important tributary to second language acquisition and applied linguistic research, and it is concerned mainly with written discourse. In Connor's terms, this discipline:

Examines similarities and differences in texts and writing, and how writing is taught in different languages and cultures, and then tries to predict issues and problems that writers in second languages, especially in English as a second language, have, based on some of their experiences and understanding that they have about writing. (Moreno & Suárez, 2005, p. 163)

CR starts from the assumption that there exist significant differences between languages in the internal organisation of texts and that the rhetorical norms of one's native language can influence composition in subsequently learned languages (Crystal, 2008).

The inception of the field of CR dates back to the publication of Robert Kaplan's pioneering article "Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education" in 1966. Focusing on the extra-sentential level, Kaplan generated a whole theoretical apparatus for the study of written texts, which is meant to explain and solve some problems encountered in second language writing. In Kaplan's philosophy, language and writing are culturally-bound and accordingly the rhetorical conventions of each language are said to be peculiar to it. Further, writing in English as a second language is subject to interference from the linguistic and rhetorical conventions of the learners' first language (Connor, 1996). In the same vein, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) and Hyland (op. cit.) argue that in the context of learning to write in a second language, cultural factors lead people to have dissimilar expectations as regards the organization of texts; as a result, L2 students' schemata differ from those of L1 writers causing problems of communication. For them, CR aims at pinpointing such opposing preconceived anticipations and their impacts on L2 literacy development, including L2 writing skills.

By and large and along years of evolution, CR inquiries have been directed by two substantial constructs: (1) focus on multilingual writers, and (2) persuasion and the effect on the audience (Connor, 2008) _ indeed, the descriptions of argumentative discourse undertaken by contrastive rhetoricians are valuable. Depicting the overall picture in which CR appeared and highlighting the way in which it was resourceful, Connor (ibid) observes that CR firstly gave an unprecedented importance to writing_ which was noticeably ignored within the audio-lingual method. Secondly, it surpassed sentence boundaries to

deal with the discourse level. Finally, it came into existence in a time when the teaching of rhetoric and composition in US colleges was only making its first footsteps.

As for the underpinning approaches that have inspired this innovative trend in its earliest phase, Matsuda (2001) cites three broad lines: contrastive analysis, the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, and studies of composition and rhetoric. Connor (op. cit.) adds a fourth contributing discipline, that is, language teaching pedagogy. Along several years of evolution, however, CR expanded in theoretical scope and additional coexisting theories have had a significant impact on it (Connor, 1996). Figure 5 illustrates such influences.

The focus in CR is the rhetorical organization, or the arrangement⁹, of texts. Kaplan (1997), referring to the strongest version of CR, asserts that “The logic expressed through the organization of written text is culture-specific; that is . . . speakers of two different languages will organize the same reality in different ways” (p. 18). That is, the “thought styles” vary across cultures and accordingly the rhetorical patterns or styles in different cultures also vary (Connor, *ibid*). This postulated interconnectedness between culture and the logic and organization of texts in CR has yielded a number of theoretical and pedagogical outcomes.

⁹ The term *arrangement* corresponds to the ancient fivefold division of rhetoric into invention, memory, arrangement, style and delivery (Connor, 2008). Focus on this aspect of writing shows the influence of Aristotelian thought on Kaplan’s original ideas. However, this interpretation seems to be a narrow interpretation since the other components of Aristotle’s rhetoric were ignored, i.e. rhetorical appeals and persuasive language (Connor, 1996).

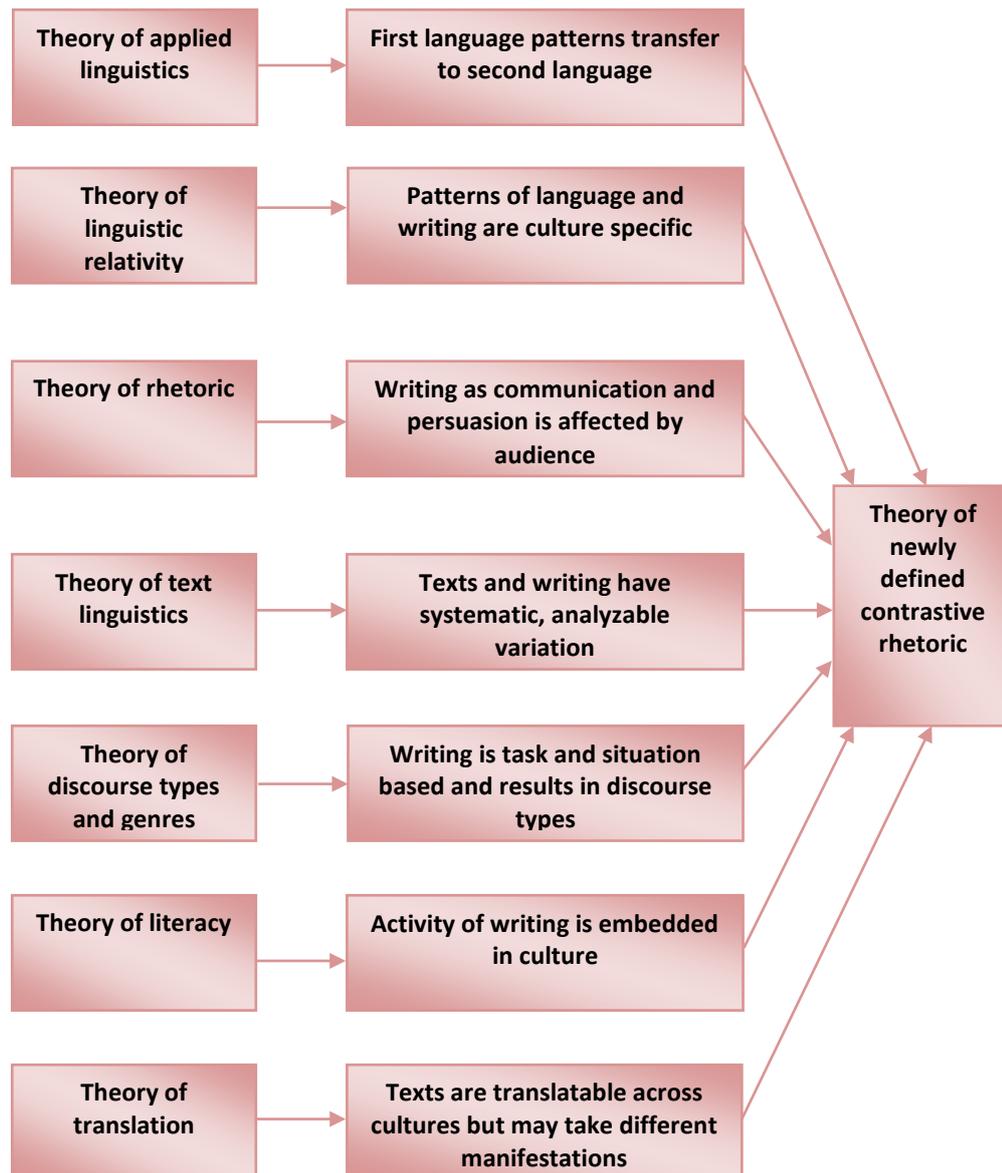


Figure 5. Influences on newly defined contrastive rhetoric. Adapted from *Contrastive Rhetoric: Cross-Cultural Aspects of Second Language Writing* (p. 9), by U. Connor, 1996, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kaplan's (1966) initial work in CR consisted in analyzing paragraph development patterns in English expository essays written by more than 600 nonnative English speaking students with dissimilar first languages, including English. The findings of his investigation suggest that there are five discernible cultural types of paragraph development across the essays he elicited. He graphically represented these rhetorical

patterns in a way that demonstrates the paragraph's line of progression in each group of languages, as shown in Figure 6.

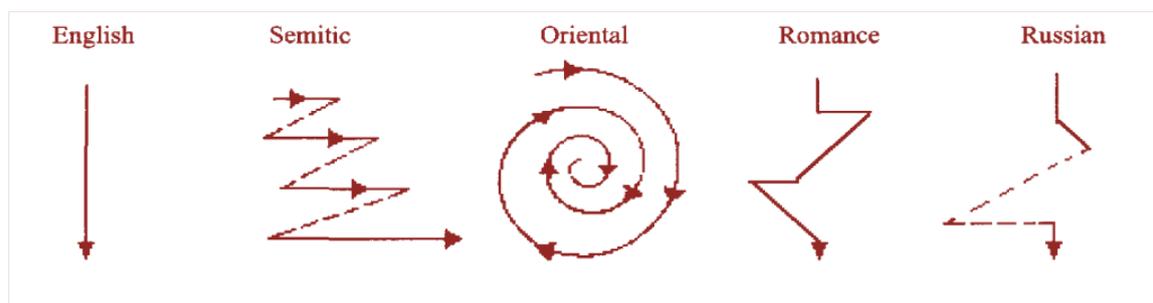


Figure 6. Diagrams on cultural thought patterns in paragraphs. Adapted from “Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education,” by R. Kaplan, 1966, *Language Learning*, 16, p.15.

The diagrams came to be designated as “the doodle” diagrams (Kaplan, 1987). Examining these diagrams, it appears that linear development is preferred in English expository essays. That is, the ideas come in straight line from the first to the last sentence. However, Kaplan (1966) observes that “Paragraph developments other than those normally regarded as desirable in English do exist” (p. 10). In Semitic languages, like Arabic, a succession of parallel coordinate clauses is frequent (even excessive from an English reader’s angle), constituting a zigzag line. In Oriental languages the pattern is indirect and circling around a topic: the main point comes only at the end. In Romance and Russian languages, there is much room for digressing and including unrelated materials, which is not a usual practice in English writing (Connor, 1996; Cahyono, 2001; Ferris & Hedgcock, op. cit.).

Following these ground-breaking findings, the diagrams have gained a wide acceptance, especially in ESL composition textbooks, and consequently CR itself was placed within the *current traditional* approach to teaching ESL writing (Ferris & Hedgcock, *ibid*). Kaplan used a technique, originally derived from rhetorical studies developed in the 1960s, for the analysis of texts. It accounts for textual organization in

terms of two analytical units: the discourse bloc (DB) and the discourse unit (DU). The former refers to the central idea and the latter to the supporting material. It has been observed, however, that the model misses the description of some basic aspects of texts which are highlighted in modern textual analyses (Connor, op. cit.).

Following this early version of the discipline, Connor (2003) comments, the impact of CR on understanding cultural differences in writing became remarkable, and it has intrigued a considerable amount of research in the form of conference proceedings, seminars, academic theses, colloquia papers and research reports. Consequently, CR established for itself a stable position in applied linguistics. More importantly, since that time the effect of CR research on the teaching of writing in ESL and EFL contexts has been momentous (Connor et al., 2008).

2.2.2 Criticism of Traditional Contrastive Rhetoric

Kaplan's initial work has been subject to comprehensive assessment and even scrutiny. Hyland (2003) delimits five main aspects of traditional CR which were subject to criticism. CR is reproached:

- For lumping different language groups together, for example, all Asians as Oriental,
- For being too prescriptive in taking a rigid view of "correct" English rhetorical patterns,
- For being too ethnocentric in privileging the writing of native English speakers as linear,
- For being too simplistic in attempting to see L1 thought patterns in L2 essays,
- For oversimplifying both L2 and L1 forms of writing.

Connor (1996) draws attention to two additional aspects which were subject to censure. Firstly, CR examines only L2 products and ignores educational and developmental process variables. In this connection, Leki (1991) states:

Contrastive rhetoric research examines the product only, detaching it from and ignoring both the contrastive rhetorical context from which the L2 writers emerge and the processes these writers may have gone through to produce a text. Furthermore, as a result of this research orientation toward the product, when the findings of contrastive rhetoric have been applied to L2 writing, they have, almost by definition, been prescriptive. In English we write like this; those who would write well in English must look at this pattern and imitate it. (p. 123)

Secondly, CR considers transfer from a first language a negative influence on second language writing. Surveying a number of published works on the same issue, Ferris and Hedgcock (op. cit.) note that among other reservations is the fact that CR attempts to extract L1 rhetorical patterns through compositions written in students' L2. Thus, the method seems to be exceedingly unsophisticated. Finally, Connor (2008), referring to a series of journal articles published between 1997 and 2001, attests that traditional CR involves an "alleged insensitivity" to cultural divergences, and it establishes a cultural dichotomy between East and West, with a superior status given to Western writing.

2.2.3 Later Developments and Analytical Techniques

Along four decades of time, CR has markedly undergone a number of theoretical adjustments based on wide-ranging reviews of Kaplan's original ideas. In response to the various reservations made about the "traditional" version of CR, Connor (2002) comments that such criticism stems partly from the detractors' lack of understanding of the contemporary outlooks and of the drastic changes that have occurred in this discipline. Kaplan himself, she adds, has called his initial stance "a notion", which was hampered by the less advanced text analysis techniques available at that time. Indeed, Leki (op. cit.) explains, the expansion of such areas as discourse analysis and text linguistics in the 1980s has given birth to a fresh version of CR.

Ulla Connor is regarded as "an active promoter and researcher of contrastive rhetoric" (Connor, *ibid*). Indeed, she is one of the outstanding figures who have led the

area of CR to its current sweeping boundaries. Since the publication of Connor's (1996) work, a number of new-fangled developments have emerged in the scope of research and the methods of analysis of CR. "Two major reasons _ the acknowledgment of more genres with specific textual requirements and the social contexts of writing _ have motivated scholars of contrastive rhetoric to adjust and supplement research approaches in their work" (Connor et al., op. cit., p. 3). In the last decades, theoretical modifications in CR have affected even the definitions and the general objectives of the field at large. Thus, Connor (2008) proposes the alternative term *intercultural rhetoric* to delineate the new boundaries of the field including both cross-cultural and intercultural studies. It is important, however, to stress that some basic assumptions held by CR theorists have not been abandoned. Kaplan (2005), for example, asserts:

Contrastive rhetoric has consumed much of my thought and much of my time over the past 40 years . . . I do not deny that my thinking about contrastive rhetoric has become denser and I do not deny that I have changed my mind about some aspects of the notion but not about the basic conceptualization. In fact, I would still contend that English is more linear than many other languages, as least in the sense that English does not permit the intrusion of quantities of unrelated (or vaguely related) tangential material into a text. (p. 388)

Connor (1996) specifies the new directions that CR has taken in four domains: contrastive text linguistics, the study of writing as a cultural activity, classroom-based contrastive studies, contrastive genre-specific studies and contrastive studies on intellectual traditions and ideologies.

2.2.4 Text linguistics and Contrastive Rhetoric

Research in text linguistics has been transferred to the area of contrastive rhetoric. In fact, the insights derived from text linguistics provide CR with meticulous analytical tools for the study of written texts. This has led some scholars to readily delineate the whole discipline in entirely textual terms (Connor, *ibid*). In the 1980s, the descriptions of

English writing conventions and the comparisons of L1 and L2 texts drew heavily on the analytical techniques used in text linguistics, especially at the levels of cohesion, coherence and the discourse superstructure of texts (Connor, 2002). In her words, “In summing up the research paradigm of the 1980s, it is fair to say that more or less decontextualized text analytic models characterized the field of study” (p. 496).

2.2.4.1 The Study of Cohesion

In text linguistics, cohesion refers to “those surface-structure features of an utterance or text which link different parts of sentences or larger units of discourse” (Crystal, 2008, p.85). These features constitute a set of resources which transcend grammatical structure and form a way in which texts make sense syntactically (Baker & Ellece, 2011). For this reason, cohesion is considered one of the *standards of textuality*¹⁰ (De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981). Halliday and Hasan (1976) have designed an inclusive model consisting of five major categories of tools, called “cohesive devices”, which can connect the parts of a text syntactically. Table 3 summarizes these main categories. According to Connor (1996), a number of CR studies were conducted to contrast the use of cohesive devices across the writings of ESL students with different L1s. Among the areas which were scrutinized are cohesion density and variety.

¹⁰ De Beaugrande and Dressler (1981) hold that there are seven standards of textuality which define texts: (1) cohesion, (2) coherence, (3) intentionality, (4) acceptability, (5) informativity, (6) contextuality and (7) intertextuality.

Table 3

Categories of Cohesive Devices

Cohesive devices	Subcategories
• Reference	a. Personal reference b. Demonstrative reference c. Comparative reference
• Substitution	a. Nominal substitution b. Verbal substitution c. Clausal substitution
• Ellipsis	a. Nominal ellipsis b. Verbal ellipsis c. Clausal ellipsis
• Conjunction	a. Additive conjunctions b. Adversative conjunctions c. Causal conjunctions d. Temporal conjunctions e. Continuatives
• Lexical cohesion	a. Reiteration - Same word - Synonym - Superordinate - General word b. Collocation

Note. Adapted from *Cohesion in English*, by M. A. K. Halliday and R. Hasan, 1976, London: Longman.

2.2.4.2 The Study of Coherence

Coherence is another textual principle related to the semantic organization of texts. It is thought to explain the underpinning interconnectedness in a chunk of language, either spoken or written (Crystal, op. cit.). It is defined as:

[the set of] relationships which link the meanings of utterances in a discourse or of the sentences in a text. These links may be based on the speakers' shared knowledge. . . . In written texts coherence refers to the way a text makes sense to the readers through the organization of its content, and the relevance and clarity of its concepts and ideas. (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, pp. 85-86)

Closely related to cohesion, coherence is also regarded in text linguistics as a main standard of textuality (De Beaugrande & Dressler, op.cit).

In the field of CR, among the attempts to account for coherence in written discourse is the work of Lautamatti (1978). This linguist developed an approach called *topical structure analysis*, (or TSA), which is based on the distinction of “topic- comment” derived from the Prague School notions of *theme* and *rheme*¹¹. The *topic* (or theme) is what the sentence is about, and the *comment* is what is said about the topic (Baker & Ellece, op. cit.). In essence, TSA “examines how topics repeat, shift, and return to earlier topics in discourse” (Connor, op. cit., p. 84). Chiu (2004) states that TSA has the goal of analyzing the semantic relationships between sentence topics and the global discourse topic (what the text, taken as a whole, is about), constructing meaning gradually. Considered as a useful strategy for the study of discourse coherence, TSA focuses on the maneuvering of information to create clarity in writing. Lautamatti (op. cit.) highlights the hierarchy of subtopics within the text and the types of sequences that its sentences can form. In her words,

The development of the discourse topic within an extensive piece of discourse may be thought of in terms of a succession of hierarchically ordered subtopics, each of which contributes to the discourse topic, and is

¹¹ The analysis of sentences and utterances in terms of their organization of information was pioneered by the linguists of the Prague School in the early twentieth century, especially by the Czech Vileum Mathesius, under the name functional sentence perspective. Instead of **given** and **new**, Mathesius used the terms **theme** and **rheme**, and these are still in use today, especially by the proponents of Systemic Linguistics, though the terms are used here in a slightly specialized way. Still other linguists prefer the terms **topic** and **comment** in the same senses. (Trask, 2007, p. 102). See Sornicola (2006) for a rich discussion.

treated as a sequence of ideas, expressed in the written language as sentences. The way the written sentences in discourse relate to the discourse topic is ... called topical development of discourse. (p. 71)

More importantly, Lautamatti (ibid) coins the term *progression* to refer to the way information is organized moving from sentence to another. In her model, three kinds of topical progressions can be distinguished: *parallel progression*, *sequential progression* and *extended parallel progression*. Connor (op. cit.) explains them as follows:

- Parallel progression: topics of successive sentences are the same,
- Sequential progression: topics of successive sentences are always different, as the comment of one sentence becomes the topic of the next,
- Extended parallel progression: the first and the last of a piece of text are the same but are interrupted with some sequential progression.

As regards the methodology of TSA, Lautamatti (op. cit.) explains that the first step in the analysis is to highlight all the sentence topics in the text. The second step is to determine sentence progression. The third step is to make a chart corresponding to the topical structure of the essay. In the diagram, Connor and Farmer (1990) clarify, “Sentence topics with parallel progression are placed exactly below each other. Sequential topics are indented progressively, and extended parallel progressions are aligned under the parallel topic to which it refers” (p. 130).

2.2.4.3 The Study of Superstructures

A third main line of research in text linguistics which has directly affected the methods of CR is the study of discourse *superstructures*. Van Dijk (1980) defines superstructures as the “schematic global structures, which pertain to the global ‘form’ of the discourse” (p. 5). He distinguishes them from the global meaning structures of complex information, often referred to as (*semantic*) *macrostructures* and from the simpler local (*semantic*) *microstructures* covering meanings of words, clauses and simple actions. Also,

it is explained that a superstructure involves functional categories and rules to specify which category may follow or unite with what other categories. These rules have to be socio-culturally established, learned, used and commented upon by (most) adult language users of a speech community (ibid). Superstructures are the conventional, hierarchical forms in which the content of the macrostructures is presented. Examples of superstructures include categories like *headlines*, *lead*, *context* and *event* for news discourse. Superstructures apply to larger stretches of text rather than successive sentences; thus, they are of a global nature. Furthermore, a superstructure analysis progresses *top-down*. That is, it commences from the highest text plane (Sanders & Sanders, 2006). In text linguistics, theories of superstructures have been employed to describe the text types of exposition, argumentation and narration¹². In the field of composition, they have been used to assess student writing (Connor, op. cit.).

2.2.5 Reader Responsible Vs Writer Responsible Languages

Research in CR is not confined to textual analyses. Many scholars have developed additional concepts and tools for the investigation of cultural differences in writing. Prominently, Hinds (1987), working towards an account for coherence, proposed a linguistic typology of languages based on the extent to which they place burden on the writer or reader to achieve text semantic connectedness. Two new terms are introduced to establish the distinction in written texts: *reader responsible* as opposed to *writer responsible* texts, based on the division of responsibility between readers and writers, namely, “the amount of effort writers expend to make texts cohere through transitions and other uses of metatext” (Connor, 2002, p. 496). In some languages like English, Hinds (op. cit.) explains:

¹² Werlich (1976) distinguishes five text types: description, narration, exposition, argumentation and instruction.

[The] person primarily responsible for effective communication is the writer,” but in Japanese (and perhaps Korean and classical Chinese too) it is the reader. Writers compliment their readers by not spelling everything out, while readers are said to savor hints and nuances. (p. 143)

Hinds’ (op. cit.) findings on writer versus reader responsibility are mainly about argumentation styles in Japanese and English. Commenting on these findings, Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) state that in English argumentation, statements of points of view are found to be explicit and are usually placed near the beginning of the text. In comparison, Japanese-speaking writers conceal their standpoints while presenting the different sides of an issue, with their position coming only at the end. To arrive at an explanation, Hinds investigated the two parties’ evaluation of the others’ style. He concluded that “Japanese readers found the linear, deductive argumentation style associated with English-language texts to be dull, pointless, and self-involved. At the same time, English speaking readers perceived Japanese argumentative patterns to be circuitous, abstract, and occasionally evasive” (Ferris & Hedgcock, *ibid*). A number of other pieces of research modeling Hinds’ cross-linguistic typology are recorded. For instance, it is found that, unlike English texts which contain lucid, well-organized statements, German and Spanish texts put the burden on the reader to excavate for meaning (Clyne, 1987; Valero-Garces, 1996). In another study, it is concluded that writing in Hebrew has the same feature (Zellermayer, 1988). Arabic is classified as a reader-responsible language (Almehmadi, 2012). Thus, it is postulated that Arabic-speaking writers tend not to use deduction in their writing.

To illustrate the way in which English skilled writers can attain clarity in their writing, Hyland (2003) lists several *metadiscourse markers*, or signposts, used to overtly arrange the text and comment on it as an aid for readers to follow the writer’s argument. His list includes the following devices:

- **Sequencing points** (*first, next, last*)
- **Connecting ideas** (*however, therefore, on the other hand*)

- **Showing what the writer is doing** (*to summarize, in conclusion, for example*)
- **Reviewing and previewing parts of the text** (*in the last section we . . . , here we will address . . .*)
- **Commenting on content** (*you may not agree that . . . , it is surprising that . . .*)

In a more comprehensive work on metadiscourse strategies, Hyland (2005) presents an all-embracing account which is intended to “review, discuss and critique existing conceptions of metadiscourse, to discover their strengths and weaknesses, and to explore what they have to tell us about communication in general and academic writing in particular” (p. x).

2.2.6 Other Research

Other research in CR has attempted to combine both linguistic analyses with the available rhetorical ones. Connor (op. cit.) mentions the attempts made by Connor and Lauer (1985 and 1988) to merge the linguistic and the rhetorical approaches in one analytical system for the analysis of persuasive discourse. The system handles the linguistic features of cohesion, coherence and discourse organization on the one hand, and the classical persuasive appeals_ logos, pathos and ethos together with Toulmin’s 1958 model of argumentation (see Chapter 1). McCool (2009) links the rhetorical appeals to the reader/writer responsible distinction. He states that writer responsible cultures prefer logos, in which appeals to logic, sound reasoning, and facts are basic and most convincing. By contrast, reader responsible cultures opt for ethos and pathos.

In addition to that, other rhetorical aspects of texts have received the interest of many CR researchers. Notably, Hinds (1990) examines the contrast between *deductive*, *inductive* and *quasi-inductive* patterns of developments in expository writing in Japanese, Chinese, Thai and Korean. The spotlight in this contrast is related to whether the thesis statement appears in the initial position, in the final position or it is just implied respectively. Later studies have followed the same path to study such rhetorical patterns

used in other types of discourse. Warnick and Manusov (2000), for instance, have investigated the variation of the justificatory macrostructures in relation to cultural beliefs and values in four cultural groups: African Americans, Asian Americans, Asians and European Americans. In their study, it is shown that the inductive and deductive modes of reasoning, which are the principal forms of argumentation known in the Western European tradition, are not the sole patterns used in persuasion if one moves from community to another. Additional macrostructures such as abduction and narration are prevalently employed by speakers from other cultural groups. Some scholars establish connections between writer / reader responsibility and the patterns of development used in writing. McCool (2009) states that reader responsible cultures “emphasize flowery and ornate prose, subjects over actions, theory instead of practice, and an inductive or quasi-inductive line of reasoning” (p. 2).

2.2.7 Contrastive Rhetoric Studies of Argumentation in Arabic

2.2.7.1 General Rhetorical Features of Arabic

Interest in the study of differences between Arabic¹³ and English rhetoric and the way they may interfere in writing English prose by ESL or EFL students is motivated by the growing concern with non-Western rhetorical traditions (Hinkle, 2002). Various CR studies have identified rhetorical features that typify Arabic and that are often transferred to ESL writing.

¹³ Research on the sociolinguistic situation in the Arab world demonstrates that it is diglossic. The high variety, Standard Arabic is the official language (the variety used as a means of instruction and in the mass media). In everyday spoken purposes, this variety is not used. Despite being given the highest status by Arabs, it is not acquired natively but only through formal learning and is not associated with a particular social group in the Arab communities. Colloquial varieties (dialects of Arabic) in the Arab world, varying considerably from region to region, are the ones that members of the Arab communities usually speak natively. The two varieties are in a state of permanent mutual influence depending on a number of social variables, especially education (Al-Wer, 2009)

2.2.7.1.1 Parallelism and Coordination

In almost every study on Arabic stylistic characteristics, the high frequency of coordinate and parallel structures is reported. In the earlier version of CR, it is maintained that, like all Semitic languages, Arabic writing, as distinguished from other languages, in general contains chains of parallel constructions in the form of coordinated sentences and paragraphs. In this respect, Kaplan (1966) explains:

In the Arabic language . . . (and this generalization would be more or less true for all Semitic languages), paragraph development is based on a complex series of parallel constructions, both positive and negative. This kind of parallelism may most clearly be demonstrated in English by reference to the King James version of the Old Testament. Several types of parallelism typical of Semitic languages are apparent there because that book, of course, is a translation from an ancient Semitic language. (p. 5)

Kaplan adds that from an English reader's perspective, such organization would not be easy to grasp since English is a language in which subordination is preferred to coordination. A number of later studies performed on a variety of text types came to similar conclusions. Ostler (1987), comparing English essays written by Saudi Arabian students and some passages extracted from books written by native speakers of English, asserts that the first display a relatively higher number of coordinated sentences, resulting in parallelism. She states that while the inclination of Arabic writers to balance clauses appears in the English writings of Arabic speaking students, English writers are reluctant to employ clausal modification in coordinate clauses. Another study by Reid (1992), analyzing the English writing of Arabic, Chinese, Spanish, and English native speakers, shows the tendency of Arabic writers to use more personal pronouns and coordinating conjunctions and less subordinating conjunctions than English writers. Also, Mohamed and Omer (1999) chiefly compared coordination and subordination in Arabic short stories and their English translations. They found that the Arab stories contained more coordination, whereas the English translations contained more subordination. An interesting example is

offered by Holes (2004) to demonstrate the density of coordinations and parallel structures in Arabic in this translated version of the beginning of a newspaper article written by an Egyptian social reformer, who has long lived in Europe and who knew European languages¹⁴. The author wrote:

What soothes the breast, *and* relieves the spirit, *and* gives us confidence in our future is what we see of our countrymen performing charitable deeds, *and* acting seriously *and* energetically in bringing everyone together *and* everything together, *and* their unity of purpose for the success of the country *and* its progress, *and* their adoption of the true means to . . . [italics ours]. (p. 334)

Various views are held concerning the origin of this phenomenon. Hottel-Burkhart (2000) explains the abundant use of coordination and parallel structures in narrative text in terms of the macrostructures of the Arabic text rather than the typical syntactic features of its sentences. In her words:

In the case of narrative, the use of *wa* and conjoined parallel sentences may be but two details in complex pattern of arrangement, a pattern that because of its very complexity needs parallel structures and the "coordinate conjunction" to demarcate two different lines of development that are interwoven in one time-ordered train of prose. (pp. 103-4)

Ostler (op. cit.) holds a dissimilar view. She observes that such syntactic tendencies are related to the bounds between written Arabic and the Qur'an, whose language is oral in structure although the text per se is written. Thus, balance and rhythmical coordination are sought. Sa'adeddin (1989) offers a different account. He clarifies that this feature is the result of transfer of L1 norms to ESL writing, but he observes that L1 in that case is not Classical Arabic. Indeed, parallelism and coordination stem from the influence of the

¹⁴ The article belongs to the Egyptian cleric and social reformer Mahammad 'Abduh. It appeared in *al-Waqā'i al-Misriya* Egyptian government newspaper on October 1880 on the subject of charitable foundations (Holes, 2004).

colloquial “aural” style of dialectal Arabic¹⁵. For him, Arab ESL students probably lack training in Classical Arabic rhetoric, which is not deficient in the qualities of composition used in Western texts, such as conciseness, coherence and logical reasoning.

2.2.7.1.2 The Use of Commonplaces and Closing Superordinate Statements

Another prominent rhetorical feature of Arabic is the use of commonplaces and concluding superordinate statements. According to Ostler (op. cit.), Arabic essays in the corpus of her study typically start with a superordinate universal statement, only broadly linked to the topic under discussion, and they end with some ready-made statement of a formulaic or proverbial nature. Hottel-Bukhart (2000) noticed the same phenomenon of concluding essays in the writing of a Moroccan Arabic speaking ESL student. The student, closing a text in which she talks of how she was saved from drowning, wrote: “This event made me learn that we have to rely on God and only on Him and to be more wary next time”. The instructor, who used Anglo-American criteria for evaluation, considered the item a cliché:

To the student, this ending had been a desirable conclusion in her rhetorical strategy; to her instructor, from an Anglo-American point of view of rhetorical strategy, the student's ending was hackneyed, unnecessary, and disconnected from the rest of the text. (p. 100)

Hottel-Bukhart argues that this practice is influenced by the Arabic Muslim typical ending phrase “*wa min Allah al-tawfiq* or *wa Allahu ‘alam*”, in which writers recognize dependence on the Creator.

¹⁵ Sa’adeddin (1989) distinguishes between the “aural” and “visual” styles as two linguistic options available to Arab speakers, who live in a diglossic linguistic situation where Classical Arabic is the High variety associated with formal settings and colloquial Arabic as the low variety predominant in conversational everyday settings. In the aural style, the writer makes use of the features of orality, including parallel constructions and development by addition and accumulation, but in the visual style all these features are avoided. For him, this proves that deviation from the Western patterns of composition is not to be interpreted as a deficiency of Arabic in logical reasoning, but rather as lack of consideration to the sociolinguistic expectations of the audience.

2.2.7.1.3 Cohesion and Coherence

Some research is reported on coherence and cohesion in Arabic and the English writings of Arabic speaking students. As regards the use of theme-rheme developments to achieve coherence, Williams (1984) asserts that Arabic texts contain instances of exact coreference of the theme in every sentence, resulting in parallel progression. Also, they are found to display repetitions of lexical items for cohesive and aesthetic purposes. Mohamed and Omer (2000) have investigated cohesion in English and Arabic. Their study reveals that Arabic cohesion is generally context-based, generalized, repetition-oriented and additive in nature (while English is text-based, specified, change-oriented, and non-additive). Mohammed-Sayidina (2010), exploring academic research papers written by Arabic speaking ESL learners, has found that, similar to L1 texts, additive transition words are more frequently used in the compositions than other kinds of transition words. Further, the reiteration of the same noun is statistically more recurrent as a cohesive device than grammatical cohesion. Fakhri's analysis of ideational aspects demonstrates that the writing of Arab ESL students revealed that they employed a higher number of topics and subtopics without explanation by only stating indiscriminate ideas and unproven claims, which result in a pseudo-sequential development (as cited in Hinkel, 2002).

2.2.7.2 Argumentation in Arabic and in ESL Writing of Arabic-Speaking Students

The study of the rhetorical features of argumentation in Arabic has been the subject of a relatively large body of CR research. An important hallmark of this research is its varied analytical parameters. A number of traits are found to characterize this kind of discourse in Arabic in comparison with English, and as a result it is thought that such salient features may be transferred to ESL or EFL students' writing. The following is a survey of the most prominent works in CR which seek to formulate generalizations concerning the rhetorical features of argumentation in Arabic.

Firstly, it is found that Arabic argumentation is characterized by repetition. Al-Jubouri (1984), in this connection, states that Arabic argumentative discourse possesses a fixed system for replication identified at different levels: the morphological level, the word level and the chunk level. As far as the effect of this device on the effectiveness of argumentation is concerned, it is the chunk level tokens of repetition that ought to be emphasized. For him, at this level repetition is revealed through two chief processes: parallelism and paraphrase, the duplication of form and of substance respectively. While parallelism is shown to be a salient feature of almost all Arabic prose (see Section 2.2.7.1), paraphrase plays a special role in persuasion. It is thought that when an argument is restated a number of times, this would create the desired effect on the recipient. “The ingredients of an argument are assembled in such a way that a situation, an action or an event is persistently re-examined, possibly from different directions, with the effect of intensifying the reality of the claims and thus achieving a forceful assertion” (Al-Jubouri, *ibid*, p. 111).

Other scholars attempt to clarify the effect of repetition on argumentation. According to Aziz (1988), Arabic text depends on the topic/theme and predicate phrase/rhyme repetition patterns as a tool of rhetorical persuasion. He observes that such thematic repetition is recurrently employed in parallel constructions and can create the thought that the topics in Arabic essays are deficient in progression. Johnstone (1991) uses the term *rhetorical presence* to refer to the effect of repetition of arguments on the success in convincing another party of one’s view. Instead of attempting to convince following the Aristotelean syllogistic argument_ which is an “alien” concept to Arabs, Arabic speakers resort to reiterate arguments. In Johnstone’s words,

An arguer presents truths by making them present in discourse: by repeating them, paraphrasing them, doubling them, calling attention to them . . . Arabic argumentation is structured by the notion that it is the presentation of an idea--- the linguistic forms and the very words that are used to describe

it--- that is persuasive, not the logical structure of proof which Westerners see behind the words. (p. 117)

Johnstone suggests that presentation persuasion is most often employed in cultural settings “in which religion is central, settings in which truth is brought to light rather than created out of human rationality” (as cited in Feghali, 1997, p. 361). Ismail (2010) intricately criticizes this explanation. Hatim (1997) has made a significant contribution to the study of Arabic argumentation. Like Johnstone, he holds that Arabic speakers argue via presentation, and he affirms Olster’s (op. cit.) and Sa’adeddin’s (op. cit.) claim that the argumentative styles used in Arabic are the result of orality. Kamel (2000), in an empirical study on the comprehension of argumentative discourse, gives an interesting review of the major contrasts between Arabic and English in the rhetorical conventions of the argumentative text type. Her study concurs that in Arabic there is a purposeful repetitive style at the semantic and the syntactic levels_ instead of presenting a counter-argument, the writer attempts to fix the argument into the reader’s awareness by means of replicating it.

Another distinctive feature of argumentation in Arabic is identified at the superstructures level. Hatim (1990, 1991 and 1997) developed an important distinction to describe argumentation superstructures in Arabic. In this respect, he coins the term *through-argumentation*, as opposed to *counter-argumentation*. Abbadi (2006) explains them further. The structure of through-argumentation texts involves a thesis-cited to be argued, extensive substantiation and conclusion. In this type, there is no reference to any opposite view. In counter-argumentation, however, there is a thesis-cited to be opposed, opposition of the thesis cited, substantiation of the rebuttal and conclusion. In this connection, Hatim (1990) clarifies:

Through argumentation advocates or condemns a given stance and makes no direct concession to belief entertained by an adversary. . . Counter-argumentation involves two protagonists confronting each other, an absent protagonist, who has his or her thesis cited to be evaluated and a present

protagonist, performing the function of controlling the debate and steering the reader in a particular direction. (p. 136)

The formats that Hatim (1991) proposes for the representation of these two types of argumentative organization are shown in Figure 7. Both types may have an optional part called the tone-setter. The function of this unit in argumentative texts in general is to manage the situation in a manner that is propitious to the text producer's purposes. It is a marker of evaluative texture and often involves comparisons or judgements (Hatim & Mason, 1990).

THROUGH-ARGUMENTATION	COUNTER-ARGUMENTATION
↓Thesis to be argued through	↓Thesis cited to be opposed
↓Substantiation	↓Opposition
↓Conclusion	↓Substantiation
	↓Conclusion

Figure 7. The structure of argumentative texts. Adapted from “The Pragmatics of Argumentation in Arabic: The Rise and Fall of a Text Type,” by B. Hatim, 1991, *Text*, 11(2).

Hatim (1997) distinguishes between two variants of counter-argumentation. The first is the *balanced argument* where the text producer has the choice of indicating the contrastive shift between what may be viewed as a claim and a counter-claim either explicitly or implicitly. The second is the *lopsided*, or *the explicit concessive argument*, in which the counter-claim is anticipated by an overt concessive (e.g. *although*, *while*, *despite*, etc). These are diagrammed in Figure 8.

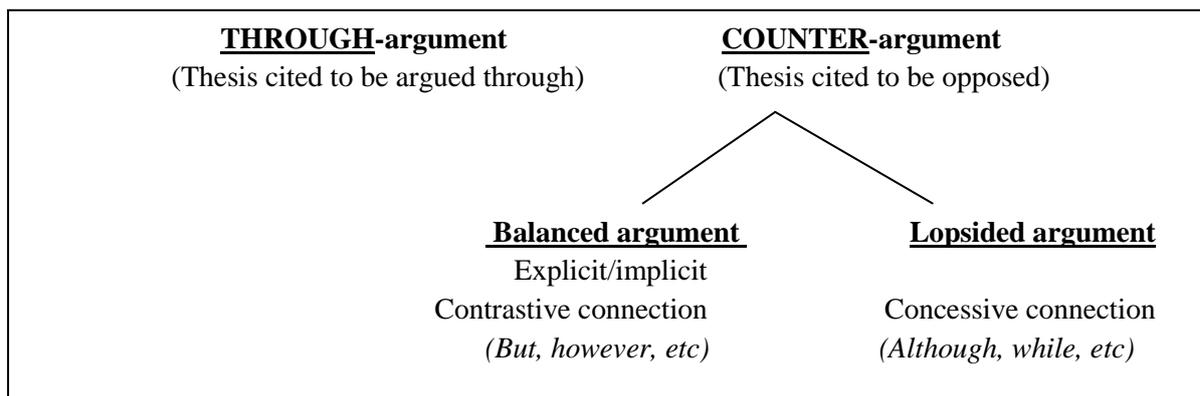


Figure 8. Variants of counter-argumentation. Adapted from “The pragmatics of argumentation in Arabic: The rise and fall of a text type,” by B. Hatim, 1991, 11(2), *Text*

Hatim (1997) argues that the choice of argumentative pattern does not seem to be random. In his words:

The preference for one or the other form is motivated by all kinds of factors. These range from politeness to ideology and power, and sometimes include aspects of social life such as the political system or the nature and role of the family. (p. 41).

As far as Arabic and English are concerned, Hatim (1990) claims that Modern Standard Arabic prefers through-argumentation, which seems to be a kind of “loose logical connectivity” between one proposition and another; whereas in English the more explicit method of counter-argumentation is favoured. However, he argues that this preference is the outcome of the incompetent use of Arabic and of a number of extraneous factors, not of the Arabic language by itself¹⁶. In his words, “The dormancy in Arabic of viable strategies of argumentation is analyzable not in terms of any intrinsic deficiency in the linguistic system as such, but rather in terms of the complex relationship between language and

¹⁶ Hatim (1990) examined a medieval model of argumentation in the third century BC in a work known as *Naqd al-Nathr (The Criticism of Prose)* and concluded that this model recommended the use of counter-argumentation following the Aristotlian thoughts. Thus, Hatim does not regard counter-argumentation as an alien way of reasoning in the Arabic rhetorical tradition.

society, between discourse and ideology” (p. 54). In more explicit terms, Hatim mentions factors like solidarity, politeness and face-saving as chief influences on the Arabic style of argumentation. Abbadi (op. cit.), working on the same model, examines argumentation in English and Arabic editorials, an acknowledged genre which aims principally at influencing public opinion. The results show that it is not only the textual structures of argumentation that differ but also the linguistic strategies. Kamel’s (2000) study also affirms the absence of counterargument (rebuttal) in Arabic argumentative writing.

Another area that was subject to scholarly interest in CR is the use of metadiscourse in Arabic Argumentation. El-Seidi (2000) conducted a contrastive study on Arabic and English using a model developed by Vande Kopple (1985). She underscores the use of validity markers, including the subcategories of hedges and emphatics, and attitude markers. The findings of this study, while emphasizing the universality of the use of such devices, demonstrate that there is a noticeable variation in the frequency and the preferred forms. This work ends up with useful insights about the applications of the study in the field of L2 writing.

Working in the same line, Hottel-Burkhart (2000) emphasises the rhetorical contrasts between cultures. In her study, she attempted principally to explore the Aristotelian canons of rhetoric to illustrate their convenience in CR studies. Her account alludes to some features of Arabic argumentation in terms of these canons. One relevant illustration on Arabic ways of argumentation is provided. It is related to the canon of *invention*, which concerns the knowledge on which the discussion of a subject can be based. She holds that what counts as an argument is determined by rhetorical traditions across cultures and can even vary within the same tradition over time. Hottel-Burkhart cites an instance as regards the mutual assessment of two parties of each others’ arguments in terms of distinct cultural values of what constitutes an argument. She alludes to

Johnstone's (1986) analysis of renowned interview of the Ayatollah Khomeini by the Italian journalist Oriana Fallaci. The journalist offered factual justifications for her argument, following a Western logic, while Khomeini relied on a totally dissimilar style involving the use of Quranic verses and Hadith, a very forceful argument from Khomeini's viewpoint. The journalist considered such a style as a form of "hedging"; Khomeini in turn felt his proof to be designated as "irrelevant" and of no value. In essence, this sort of miscommunication stems from cultural dissimilarities in the background building blocks of arguments themselves. Abu Rass (2011) holds that as far as Arabic is concerned, it is possible to admit that persuasion advocates tools which are strongly connected to religion, especially the use of allegories from the Koran, the "Word of God", the use of analogies and reference to the authority of Islam. In her words, "Supporting arguments in Arabic is done by quotations of verses from the Qur'an, the Holy Book, and sayings of Prophet Muhammad (Ahadeeth) as well as citing of prominent leaders or Islamic scholars" (p. 207). Tuleja (2009), contrasting Arab and US American argumentation, stresses the firm connection between inspired language and religion in the Arab context. This is partly due to the place Arabic occupies in the performance of daily religious rituals for Muslims. In fact, according to her, the Qur'an is considered "the ultimate book of style and grammar for Arabs" (p. 69). In comparison, for US Americans, she adds, "Rarely, if ever, does figurative, religious, or divine reference finds its way into persuasive argumentation" (ibid). Hinkel (2004), in this respect, comments that the construction and organization of discourse in various languages are deeply implanted in the culture, the history of rhetoric, and the socio-cultural frameworks which establish what is and what is not prized in text.

More features are identified by Kamel (op. cit.) which differentiate Arabic and English argumentation. She has shown that at the level of surface formats and logical markers, Arabic style is more explicit and cohesive than English style. Concerning topics,

in Arabic topic sentences may not be explicit, and the typical English topic shifts, especially when presenting rebuttals in argumentation, are unusual and confusing for Arabic speakers. As for coherence and ellipsis, there is a manifest tendency to assert in Arabic: for example, it is possible to say what something is and then what it is not, violating the principle of presupposition used in English. At the relevance level, Arabic speakers do not have the same underlying background knowledge for the construction and interpretation of texts as English speakers, including knowledge of superstructures. Furthermore, fronting, as a way of structuring information, is used in Arabic as opposed to clefting, passive voice, and subordination in English. As regards the logic employed in Arabic Argumentation, Kamel demonstrates that Arabic uses coordination of ideas. Further, she argues that the concept of paragraph as a unit of thought and logic and the independence of text structure does not exist in Arabic. Finally, the ideational structure is characterized by the absence of nuclear hierarchical structure of ideas in paragraphs and texts.

2.3 Intercultural Communication Studies

Broader in scope than contrastive rhetoric, the findings of intercultural communication (IC) studies provide more resources for the understanding of the various aspects of cultural differences in argumentation. For intercultural communication specialists, the act of argumentation is heavily shaped by culture. In Tuleja's (op. cit.) words,

Culture unquestionably influences what a society believes is persuasive and what is not . . . Each person's way of reasoning can be as valid to that individual as it is foreign and unconvincing to another. So the potential for misunderstanding is high unless we understand this particular dimension of culture. (p. 69)

In fact, such findings prove to be applicable to resolve some problems encountered in the context of teaching the skill of argumentation to EFL learners in both speaking and writing.

2.3.1 Origins and Scope

Intercultural communication research has expanded significantly in the last decades of the 20th century. The inception of this sphere of knowledge dates back to the work of linguists and anthropologists in the early 1920s. Communication specialists usually acknowledge Edward T. Hall as the father of the field of IC studies (Condon, 1981). It was not until the late 1970s, however, that the theoretical boundaries of the discipline came to be delimited. The growing interest in IC research is due to the urgent need to live in a diverse, multicultural world, in which intercultural contacts between people are boosted by professional, commercial, academic, political and social needs. Almost every section of the world has been transformed, owing to such powerful needs for interconnection, into a culturally “dappled” spot.

Lustig and Koester (2010) define IC as “a symbolic, interpretive, transactional, contextual process in which people from different cultures create shared meanings” (p.46).

Giri (2009), in more explicit terms, demarcates this scope of inquiry as:

the interpersonal interaction between members of groups that differ from each other in respect to the knowledge shared by their members and their linguistic forms of symbolic behavior. As such, intercultural communication is affected by how people from different countries and cultures behave, communicate, and perceive the world around them. (p. 532)

Effective communication happens as long as people who participate in any sort of interface belong to the same cultural group. Mutual understanding is almost guaranteed since the participants roughly share the norms for the construction and interpretation of messages (see Section 2.1). However, complexities arise when the parties have dissimilar cultural backgrounds. In this respect, Corbett (2011) argues, “Divergent cultural assumptions result

in members of different groups having conflicting communicative styles that may be the cause of anything from vague unease and mild irritation to misunderstanding and active hostility” (p. 308). In intercultural situations, the risk of misunderstanding is particularly high. Exploring the intricacies of such interaction constitutes the primary goal of IC studies at large.

Looking for a learned understanding of the workings of intercultural encounters, IC research probes into the norms underlying communication in individual cultures. Then it tries to arrive at practical ways of exploiting the finding to ease contacts within variegated groups by increasing awareness of cultural differences in order to develop people’s communication skills while lessening the likelihood of misunderstandings (Seidel, 1981). Borrowing insights from studies of communication, anthropology, cultural studies and psychology, Giri (op. cit.) explains, IC research continues to have wide-ranging applications in communicative situations, such as general business, management and marketing. Connor (2008) categorizes studies of IC into two major branches: (1) research on face-to-face encounters between individuals and (2) interactional sociolinguistic research, whose main concern is to probe into the rules of communication style variations in interethnic communication.

2.3.2 Communication Styles and Argumentation

For the purposes of this study, it is important to give some account on communication styles seen as crucial determinants of the act of argumentation and persuasion. A communication style is generally defined as “a meta-message that contextualizes how individuals should accept and interpret a verbal message” (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988, p. 100). Spencer-Oatey (2008) regards communication styles as generalized forms of interaction or manners of language use and behavioural interaction with sets of concomitant features. According to her,

All aspects of language use and interactional behaviour can be reflected in the style, including choice of vocabulary and syntax, prosody and paralinguistic behaviour (e.g. intonation, stress, tone of voice, pitch, pacing, pausing and loudness) as well as non-verbal behaviour (e.g. gestures, spatial relations and touch). (p. 28)

According to Feghali (1997), introductory texts on communication usually treat communication styles within a wider framework for the study of cultural differences, which consists of three basic paradigms: basic cultural values, language and verbal communication, and non-verbal and paralinguistic patterns. Spencer-Oatey (op. cit.) observes that the sets of features that characterize communication styles are usually presented in dichotomous forms. Distinctions frequently referred to in linguistics and communication studies include the following: (1) positive politeness vs. negative politeness, (2) directness vs. indirectness and (3) self-enhancement vs. self-effacement. Moving across cultural groups, one notices that differences in communicative styles may impede intercultural communication since misunderstanding is far more complex than mere dissimilarity in linguistic system. "Linguistic knowledge alone, however, is not enough to ensure that our communication with people from other cultures or ethnic groups will progress smoothly and/or be effective" (Gudykunst, 1991, p. 2).

2.3.2.1 Persuasion Styles

The treatment of cultural differences in argumentation from an IC angle is, in fact, wider in perspective than that of contrastive rhetoric since IC highlights the general typical communication traits of cultural groups. Applying the concept of communication style to the context of argumentation, Lustig and Koester (op. cit.) demonstrate discrepancies in ways of persuasion, or *persuasion styles*, across cultures. In their words,

Cultural patterns supply the underlying assumptions that people within a culture use to determine what is "correct" and reasonable, and they therefore provide the persuader's justification for linking the evidence to the conclusions desired from the audience. These differences in the ways people

prefer to arrange the evidence, assumptions, and claims constitute the culture's persuasive style. (p. 231)

They emphasize that culture controls the convenient forms of evidence, reasoning and rationality, a fact which can affect intercultural communication. In their account, they list a number of styles that different cultures make use of in argumentation and persuasion, but they hold that a culture's preferred style is not inevitably opted for by every person in this culture. In fact, a persuasion style is a general cultural penchant¹⁷. According to them, three styles can be distinguished: the quasilogical style, the presentational style and the analogical style.

2.3.2.1.1 The quasilogical style

Objective statistics and testimony from witnesses are used as evidence, which is connected to the conclusion following the principles of formal logic. Speakers explicitly signal this connexion by using inference words such as *thus*, *hence*, and *therefore*. On the basis of this form of reasoning, it is possible to discover what is true or false and right or wrong about a particular experience (ibid).

2.3.2.1.2 The presentational style

It appeals to the emotional facets of persuasion. Speakers use language and manipulate its various tools (especially sensory devices) for the purpose of producing an expressive response. In this style, it is not the ideas that persuade, but rather the vivid way in which they are portrayed. Believing something comes as a result of feeling. Therefore, an absolute truth does not exist, and there are no obvious rights or wrongs to be revealed (ibid).

¹⁷ Indeed, their taxonomy of styles is based on Johnstone's division, already referred to in CR and still considered influential in IC research. This overlap demonstrates that the whole field of contrastive rhetoric seems to fuse in intercultural communication studies and form one of its central components.

2.3.2.1.3 The analogical style

It looks for proving an idea (a conclusion) and persuading the listener by supplying an analogy, a story, or a parable in which there is either an implied or overt point to be learned. In this style, persuasion seems to be embedded in the collective experience of groups rather than the ideas themselves or the individuals projecting them. Proficiency in persuasion lies in selecting and narrating a pertinent story which encapsulates the core of the persuader's intended standpoints (ibid).

Tuleja (2009), comparing the US Americans' and Arabs' persuasion strategies, explains that while the former demonstrate a deep deference for empirical data, present-day Arabs, who hold the Bedouin ethos¹⁸, have a tendency to respect storytelling. According to her, "One person's fact can be another person's lie in the Bedouin world, while the power of storytelling is simply 'policy by anecdote' in the West" (p. 69).

2.3.2.2 Argumentation in Arabic

The study of argumentation in Arabic from an IC perspective has attracted the concern of some researchers interested in non-Western traditions. They tried to fathom the attributes that characterize the general communication patterns used in Arabic and offer an informative account of its typical culturally-driven argumentation and persuasion tools. Zaharna (1995) distinguishes five defining parameters for the analysis of culture: (a) high context vs. low context, (b) indirect vs. direct, (c) doing vs. being, (c) oral vs. literate and (d) linear vs. non-linear. In addition to these, he explains that there are other factors that affect communication stemming from socio-historical forces. These forces play an important role in determining the function of language and thus shaping the methods of persuasion. Based on a multidimensional examination of the cultural contrasts between Arabs and Americans, Zaharna arrives at five "specifics" of Arab communication. The

¹⁸ Gudykunst and Kim clarify that current Arab culture holds the Bedouin ethos as an idea to which it would like to correspond despite that only 10 percent of present-day Arabs are Bedouins (as cited in Tuleja, 2009)

second rich description of Arab communication styles appears in Feghali (1997) where only four features can be listed. On the whole, the two accounts largely overlap. Incorporating insights from both descriptions and examining other relevant literature, one can postulate that argumentation in Arabic bears the following characteristics.

2.3.2.2.1 Repetition

Similar to contrastive rhetoric findings, communication research confirms that repetition typifies Arabic communication. Generally, Zaharna (op. cit.) demonstrates that repetition is used in Arabic within and among messages. This duplication of words and phrases is seen as a positive feature. While encouraged in Arabic, English people use it only sparingly for emphatic reasons or as a form of communicative repair. “For the speaker, it [repetition] could imply that the statement was not heard, or was not taken seriously and thus necessary to repeat it. For the listener, repetition can imply that the listener was not paying attention or perhaps is not mentally capable of comprehending” (p. 248). For Feghali (op. cit.), this phenomenon permeates Arabic communication in the form of reiterating pious formulas and swearing religious oaths on the Qur’an or the Prophet. Also, Arabs usually tend to use reiterate proverbs and ritualistic phrases as complimentary behaviour. In Arabic argumentation, belief is not moved by logic but can be affected by recurrent phrases and words.

2.3.2.2.2 Imagery

For Zaharna (op. cit.), the Arabs, implanted within an oral tradition in which group experience is potent, tend to use metaphors, analogies and story-telling instead of facts to communicate a point. The purpose is to hold the imagination and feelings of the addressee. Arab speakers tend to use vivid and strong examples to justify a point. Also, they are inclined to use descriptive adjectives and adverbs profusely. Feghali (op. cit.) attributes this style to a general cultural propensity which he calls *affectiveness*, or the *intuitive-*

affective style of emotional appeal, and which he links to Johnstone's (1983) concept of *presentation style* in argumentation mentioned above (see Section 2.3.1.2). Tuleja's (op. cit.) account of Arab argumentation goes in the same line. She holds that Arabs show a high appreciation of the persuasive weight of rhythm and sound of words, leading to a style whose effect depends immensely on devices that highlight the emotional influence of messages. When certain words are used, it is not their denotative meaning that counts as much as their preconceived "seal of definiteness and sincerity on the part of the speaker" (p. 69).

Feghali mentions a number of studies investigating the difficulties of communication arising out of using the affectiveness style as opposed to the quasilogical style in intercultural encounters.

2.3.2.2.3 Exaggeration

Zaharna (op. cit.) shows that over-assertions are widely used in the Arab culture, being an oral culture, as a form of eloquence. "For an Arab, eloquence trumps evidence . . . An Arab writer establishes credibility by displaying ability and artistry with language. By contrast, U.S. Americans are more than willing to sacrifice eloquence for evidence" (Tuleja, *ibid*). Indeed, this tendency is often perceived by Westerners as a form of brutality, boasting and deceit (Zaharna, *ibid*). Feghali (op. cit.), again, asserts that exaggeration (*mubalagha*) and assertion (*tawkid*) are typical rhetorical patterns in Arabic which affect communication styles and which lead to create the broader trait of *elaborateness* in the Arabic language. The latter refers to the rich and expressive use of language in place of conciseness characterizing other cultures. "While it is unclear how accurate a word count is to our understanding of Arab speech patterns, it might be more effective to simply state that native Arabic speakers may use substantially more words to communicate verbally than do speakers of some other languages" (Feghali, op. cit., p. 359). Ellis and Maoz

(2002) hold that in the Arab culture, elaboration produces more profound bonds with the other interlocutor and assists in establishing the social positions of the speakers.

2.3.2.2.4 Indirectness and Vagueness

Many intercultural communication specialists report that Arabic is a language that favors indirectness of expression in communication due to some inherent characteristics of the Arab culture (Feghali, op. cit.; Nelson, Al Batal, & El Bakary, 2002; Zaharna, op. cit.). Indirectness refers, according to Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1988), to the degree to which language users disclose their intentions by means of overt communication. They define an indirect style as the “verbal messages that . . . conceal speakers’ true intentions in terms of their wants, needs, and goals in the discourse situation” (p. 100). Among the many aspects of cultural variability, two particularly are most useful to fathom the workings of communication across cultures in general and the use of indirectness in particular: individualism-collectivism and low and high-context communication¹⁹ (Ting-Toomey, 1999). Ellis and Maoz (op. cit.) state, in this connection, that indirectness is reflective of the cultural predisposition to discretion and sensibility to the context in the course of interpersonal interaction. It is a tool to achieve politeness and save face. Gudykunst (1991) demonstrates that such cultural attributes are manifested in communication even when people are not speaking their native language.

Firstly, it is maintained that there exists a one-to-one correlation between the direct/indirect dichotomy of communication styles and the cultural dichotomy of individualism/collectivism respectively²⁰:

¹⁹ The distinction between collectivistic and individualistic cultures is developed by Hofstede (1980, 1991), who suggested a framework for measuring cultural variability, consisting of four dichotomous dimensions: individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance and masculinity-femininity; while the notions of high-context versus low-context cultures were first elaborated by Hall (1976).

²⁰ Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai and Lucca (1988) explain that in collectivistic societies, the personal goals of individuals tend to be directed in a way that complies with the goals of some stable collective. As a result, individuals remain attached to their ingroups even if they exercise high demands. Such general

The *collectivist-individualist* continuum, from ‘high-collectivist’ to ‘high individualist’, concerns the individual’s preference to identify him or herself as an individual, with personal and even idiosyncratic goals, or as a member of a group, with goals defined by that group. The group may vary in characterization; it may be conceived of as the family, the tribe or ethnic group, the professional group, or even the nation. (Hyland & Paltridge, 2011, p. 310)

On the whole, Arabs are found to demonstrate features of collectivism²¹. Gudykunst (op. cit.) holds that it is customary in collectivistic cultures to be indirect because collectivists run the risk of offending the other members of the group if they are too direct. Thus, indirect language use is preferred for face keeping reasons within the ingroup²². Applying this to the Arab context, Zaharna (op.cit) shows that Arabs prefer indirect, vague and ambiguous statements as a way to prevent public loss of face. “This . . . stems from the function of language as a social lubricant aimed at promoting social harmony” (p. 249).

Other scholars account for indirectness in Arabic in terms of high-context versus low-context communication. Hall (1976) differentiates these communicative tendencies

features manifest themselves in the individuals’ verbal communicative styles, particularly the use of indirectness.

²¹ It has been shown that collectivism is generally found in Asia, Africa, Latin America, the Middle East and the Pacific; while individualism characterizes most northern and western European countries and North America (Inkeles, 1983; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Nelson & Fivush, 2004; Triandis et al., 1988). A monumental study reported in Hofstede (1980) gives more accurate maps through empirical data collected from a sample of about 117.000 employees at the subsidiaries of an international corporation (IBM) along a number of years. According to this study, in the Arab world (including samples from the countries of Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia and the United Arab Emirates) individualism was found to be the lowest dimension ranking at 38, compared to a world average ranking of 64. This is interpreted as a feature of collectivism. It is assumed that countries in the Arab world have more or less the same general cultural traits.

²² In politeness theory, indirectness is the way to avoid face-threatening acts (FTAs). The notion of “losing face”, or being humiliated, is brought to English from Chinese (Hofstede, 1991). In the course of communication, interlocutors might be compelled to express some utterances that are intrinsically face-threatening. Within Brown and Levinson’s (1987) face-saving reading of politeness, FTAs can be performed in a number of ways, and the strategy opted for by a speaker determines the degree of indirectness of utterances. The strategies for the performance of FTAs rank from the least polite to the most and correlate with a relative ascending indirectness.

and shows how dependence on contextual clues affects the explicitness of messages.

Hofstede (1991) explains:

[In high-context communication] little has to be said or written because most of the information is either in the physical environment or supposed to be known by the persons involved, while very little is in the coded, explicit part of the message. This type of communication is frequent in collectivist cultures . . . A low-context communication is one in which the mass of information is vested in the explicit code, which is typical for individualist cultures. (p. 109)

Ting-Toomey (1999) summarizes the main contrasts between high-context and low-context communication as shown in Table 4.

Table 4

The Low-Context Communication (LCC) and High-Context Communication (HCC)

Frameworks

LCC characteristics		HCC characteristics	
Individualistic values		Group-oriented values	
Self-face concern		Mutual-face concern	
Linear logic		Spiral logic	
Direct style		Indirect style	
Person-oriented style		Status-oriented style	
Self-enhancement style		Self-effacement style	
Speaker-oriented style		Listener-oriented style	
Verbal-based understanding		Context-based understanding	
LCC examples		HCC examples	
Germany	United States	Saudi Arabia	Japan
Switzerland	Canada	Kuwait	China
Denmark	Australia	Mexico	South Korea
Sweden	United Kingdom	Nigeria	Vietnam

Note. LCC = low context communication; HCC = high context communication. Adapted from *Communicating across Cultures* (p. 101), by S. Ting-Toomey, 1999, New York: The Guilford Press.

As far as Arabic is concerned, the ethnographic studies of Katriel introduced the general notion of *musayra* (or *musayara*), a term referring to the act of accommodation to the other party in the course of communication for the sake of maintaining face and

congruent social relations with them. It is thought that it shapes Arab communication patterns (Ellis & Maoz, op. cit.). In this respect, Feghali (op. cit.) states, “A major function of *musayara* is to constrain individual behavior in such a way as to protect the social realm from the potential disruption that may result from individual expression” (p. 358). This general communication pattern is thought to be the source of repetition, elaboration, affectiveness and indirectness in Arabic (as cited in Ellis & Maoz, 2002 and 2003).

To analyse indirectness in discourse, researchers have developed measures according to which discourse can be said to have directness or indirectness features. Hinkel (1997), largely relying on Brown and Levinson’s (1987) model, proposes an analytical framework consisting of 21 indirectness markers that fall into three broad categories: (1) rhetorical, (2) lexical and referential, and (3) syntactic. These are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5

Hinkel’s (1997) Model of Indirectness Strategies and Devices

Rhetorical strategies and markers	Lexical and referential markers	Syntactic markers and structures
- Rhetorical questions	- Hedges (5 categories)	- Passive
- Disclaimers/denials	- Point of view distancing	- Nominalisation
- Vagueness/ambiguity	- Downtoners	- Conditionals
- Repetition	- Diminutives	
- Irony	- Discourse particles	
	- Demonstratives	
	- Indefinite pronouns (2 categories)	
	- Understatement	

Note. Adapted from “Indirectness in L1 and L2 academic writing,” by E. Hinkel, 1997, *Journal of Pragmatics*, 27.

The model developed by Hinkel (op. cit.) is meant to measure the extent of indirectness in writing, and hence to offer operational tools that can pinpoint differences across languages. With regard to its comprehensiveness, a number of studies have applied (sometimes partially) the parameters outlined in this model for the analysis of indirectness in various genres across languages (Alijanian & Dastjerdi, 2012; Hinkel, 2002; Tran, 2007; Uysal, 2012 ; Uysal, 2014). The present study goes in line with these applications.

Conclusion

It has been shown in this chapter that argumentation in general is context-oriented. People of dissimilar cultural backgrounds do differ in projecting this kind of discourse in speech or in writing. Culture, being a determinant of people's communication, affects how people construct evidence and advance it in support of their opinions. In line with this claim, speakers of Arabic and English, according to the findings of CR and IC research, are found to bring to their development and understanding of arguments assumptions and beliefs about normative communicative practices resulting from their socialization into different cultural settings. The ways in which they organize their perceptions and expectations of argumentation are taken for granted within their respective cultures. When it comes to translating these into linguistic behavior, patterns and styles collide, leading to failures in communication. The EFL writing classes are an area where such malfunctions manifest themselves. Considering EFL students' written products, instructors as well as native speakers of English observe that FL writing at times seems non-native-like, sometimes even vague, irrational and unintelligible simply because different cultural assumptions embedded in transferred L1 norms are at work. The findings of CR and IC studies substantiate the claim that argumentative practice is not uniform in all contexts and that it cannot be detached from the socio-cultural system underlying discourse. This claim

has far-reaching implications for the teaching of written argumentation to non-native speakers of English in a second or a foreign language context.

CHAPTER THREE

Second Language Writing and Argumentation

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Introduction

The craft of writing has always been considered an important component of language courses due to the status that this skill occupies as a marker of literacy. Notwithstanding the recognised eminence of writing in language curricula, teaching writing in ESL or EFL contexts is at times performed as a haphazard and an unprincipled classroom activity despite the fact that scholarly research on composition and second language writing has become a well-established discipline. It has undergone a massive metamorphosis over decades. Researchers in second language writing have taken a range of stances and pursued a variety of theoretical perspectives to fathom the nature of this skill and the way it is learned. Also, they have explored a number of variables which are thought to interfere with it. The aim of this chapter is to review the main approaches which form the rich continuum of research on second language writing and to cast light the explanatory paradigms of EFL and ESL learners' writing problems. Most importantly, it puts special emphasis on argumentative essay writing and the way this genre is construed in the Western academic contexts. The purpose is to delimit a set of criteria according to which EFL students' argumentative essays can be assessed.

3.1 Approaches in Second Language Writing Research

It is widely acknowledged that the field of second language writing has a brief history as a distinguished discipline (Fujieda, 2006; Matsuda, 2003) dating back to the 1960s. The relevant literature on second language writing theory generally alludes to four distinguished successive, self-contained approaches underlying and dictating classroom practice: controlled composition, writing as product, writing as process and writing as genre (Raimes, 1983; Tribble, 1996). Their examination reveals that they represent dissimilar conceptions of the nature of writing, and it demonstrates that the mechanisms which are thought to be in action when people write have not been developed from the

same theoretical stance. Viewed diachronically, the four paradigms also reflect a continuous critical espousal and a constant amendment of existing instructional customs. It is possible thus to designate these perspectives as phases marking the evolution of a young discipline.

3.1.1 Controlled Composition

In its earliest forms, writing instruction was but an auxiliary component and a by-product, which appeared in a strictly regulated model called *controlled composition* in the 1940s and persisted until the early 1960s under the dominant influence of the oral approach and the audio-lingual method to second language teaching. Within this framework, teaching writing did not hold the primacy in language curricula and controlled composition was a manifestation of the popular structural-behaviourist precepts of the time (Kroll, 1991)

Writing in this paradigm is sentence structure oriented (Matsuda, op. cit.), and the writer is essentially required to construct error-free text, which is a graphical representation of already rehearsed and strictly controlled spoken grammatical forms. In Silva's (1990) words:

[In the controlled composition model] learning to write in a second language is seen as an exercise in habit formation. The writer is simply a manipulator of previously learned language structure; the reader is the ESL teacher in the role of editor or proofreader, not especially in quality of ideas or expression but primarily concerned with formal linguistic features. The text becomes a collection of sentence patterns and vocabulary items _ a linguistic artefact, a vehicle for language practice. (p. 13)

According to the audio-lingual method, it is believed that speech is more basic to language and that second language acquisition follows a course similar to that of first language learning and, therefore, writing appears as an end point in the sequence of skills (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Accordingly, Rivers (1981) explains, writing is set as a follow up activity to structural pattern drills, and it is only introduced after learners have sufficiently acquired

and gained confidence in manoeuvring the desired structures. The task of students is to combine the acquired patterns in a controlled manner. The rationale behind this routine is to eliminate or at least to minimise error production, for the whole approach advocates accuracy rather than fluency. Saturated with behavioural ideas, Pincas (1962) argues that free composition is a “random, hit-or-miss activity” (p. 185), which increases the risk of performing transfer errors. Hyland (2003) presents an array of writing techniques which translate such beliefs about the nature of writing into actual classroom practice, such as gap filling, sentence completion, structural transformations, and substitution exercises, which are said to generate “risk-free” forms. Seen from this angle, writing is but a good control of the lexico-grammatical system of language at sentence level.

3.1.2 Writing as Product

By the mid_1960s, the precepts and results of controlled composition were put into question. Scholars noticed that this model of instruction managed to lead students towards the production of grammatically correct written sentences, but it was far from getting them to produce original free writing, which extends beyond the sentential level. Also, it was noticed that texts are seen as “objects that can be taught independently of particular contexts, writers, or readers, and that by following certain rules, writers can fully represent their intended meanings” (Hyland, *ibid*, p. 7). Departing from such drawbacks, the rationale and methodology of teaching writing in a second language took a new orientation, in which focus is put on the overall organisation of larger chunks of language. This came to be known as *current-traditional rhetoric* (Silva, *op. cit.*), *the traditional paradigm* (Hairston, 1982), the *text-based approach*, or sometimes the *product approach* (Tribble, *op. cit.*). Indeed, the variety of terms reflects different aspects of whole perception. Silva (*op. cit.*) shows that this approach addresses paragraphs and essays and their development options, and he explains that classroom procedures tend to accentuate

the internal layout of these texts seen as wholes of different patterns. In his words, “Writing is basically a matter of arrangement, of fitting sentences and paragraphs into prescribed patterns. Learning to write, then, involves becoming skilled in identifying, internalizing, and executing these patterns” (p. 14).

Repercussions of Robert Kaplan’s seminal ideas on language differences at the discourse level constituted the central impetus to this paradigm. As shown earlier, Kaplan’s viewpoint is that the organisational structures of texts, or their rhetoric, are language and culture specific (Matsuda, 2001). Kaplan (1997), referring to the case of English as a second language, asserts that “If students could see differences between the way they organized text in their L1 and the way ‘typical’ English texts were organized, they could more closely approximate the text-logic _ the propositional relationships _ characteristic of English” (p. 19). Second language writing problems are thus thought to be a result of transfer of the students’ native language rhetorical prototypes.

Second language writing instruction in this approach involves the study and imitation of samples of authoritative texts, usually literary texts, of various rhetorical patterns such as exposition, description, narration, argumentation, etc (Tribble, *op. cit.*). Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) explain that a conventional cycle guides the whole process: It begins with the definition of the rhetorical pattern set as a rule-governed whole. The next stage involves dissecting a model text to uncover the characteristic linguistic devices of the defined pattern. Then, the students are given a writing task which requires the reproduction of the acquired textual features guided by an outline. Finally, the produced texts are assessed by the instructor before going again through the same sequence using a new literary text.

Hyland (*op. cit.*) observes that the writing textbooks which embody this paradigm usually sequence their content in terms of the functional patterns of writing. Typical units

usually contain a variety of exercises, ranging from comprehension checks on a model text, focus on the linguistic exponents of particular functions, extending outlines into essays and reproducing the patterns of parallel texts in the students' essays. One hallmark of such practice is that the writers' purposes and personal experiences do not seem to have a place in writing. This is perhaps the reason why the whole perspective is dubbed the "product" approach, since "The primary concern with writing was really with the completed written product, not with the strategies and processes involved in its production" (Kroll, 1991, p. 246).

3.1.3 Writing as Process

It was not until the 1970s and the 1980s that a significant alteration took place in second language writing research as new foci started to supplant the relatively long-established concern with the form of written texts. Matsuda (2003) explains that "the paradigm shift" that took place in second language writing instruction at that time calls for considering writing an evolving cognitive process, a notion that was first initiated by Zamel (1976), and he holds that this shift was but a reflection of a theoretical transmutation in composition studies and in the prevailing second language research. Hyland (*op. cit.*) sees that the writing-as-process paradigm stresses two important tenets: the writer's autonomous production of texts and the teacher's role in fostering this process. Also, he highlights the non-linear nature of writing. He views the acknowledged stages of planning, drafting, revising and editing as "recursive, interactive, and potentially simultaneous" (p. 11). In other words, writing is performed in a cyclic manner and is boosted by recurrent feedback from peers and teachers throughout the different phases. Figure 9 schematically demonstrates such features.

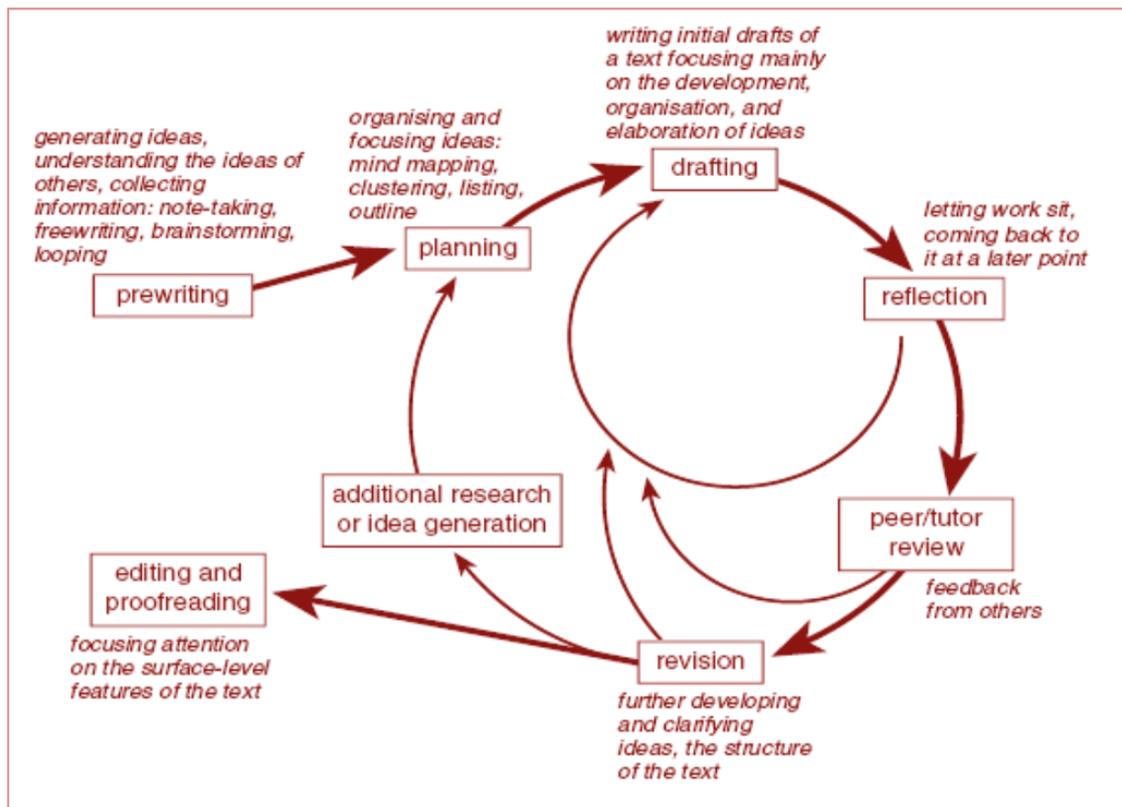


Figure 9. The writing process approach. Adapted from *Teaching Academic Writing: A Toolkit for Higher Education* (p. 34), by C. Coffin et al., 2003, London: Routledge.

“The student who is given the time for the process to work, along with the appropriate feedback from readers, such as the teacher or other students, will discover new ideas, new sentences, new words as he plans, writes a first draft, and revises what he has written for the second draft” (Raimes, 1983, p. 10).

The emphases of the process approach differ significantly from those of the product approach. Firstly, it is clear that the process approach concentrates more on the writer and overlooks the resultant text. In this respect, Hasan and Akhand (2010) explain, “The process writing represents a shift in emphasis in teaching writing from the product of writing activities (the finished text) to ways in which text can be developed: from concern with questions such as ‘what have you written?’, ‘what grade is it worth?’ to ‘how will you write it?’, ‘how can it be improved?’ ” (p. 80). In addition, Badger and White (2000) argue

that in the new paradigm, what writers do receives more stress than the linguistic properties of texts: “Writing in process approaches is seen as predominantly to do with linguistic skills, such as planning and drafting, and there is much less emphasis on linguistic knowledge, such as knowledge about grammar and text structure” (p. 154). Finally, according to Dyer (1996), the teacher acts as a “facilitator” and the students naturally learn to write by means of the process of writing itself.

3.1.4 Writing as Genre

Starting from the mid-1980s and early 1990s, approaches to L2 writing have taken new orientations in which the focus has moved away from composing processes to seeing writing as a social and cultural activity which attempts to communicate with readers in particular settings (Hasan & Akhand, *op. cit.*). Success of communication is bound up with the reader’s recognition of the purpose of a text (Tribble, 1996). Criticism of earlier perspectives centred on one chief aspect of the process approach, that is, its operating in “a sociocultural vacuum”. This line of research was seen to focus on the individual’s psychological functioning, to seek to involve writers, to highlight content, but this was held to be impractical as the approach fails to prepare students for the requirements of authentic academic work (Silva, 1990). In agreement with this disapproval of the process principles, Hyland (2004) states that the cognitively-oriented process approach has undoubtedly assisted in infusing better respect for individuals as writers and for the writing process *per se*. However, as it overlooks how meanings are socially coped with, it was not successful in considering the external forces that shape purposes, set up relationships and eventually delineate the form of writing. Tribble (*op. cit.*) also raises questions against the utility of enabling writers to generate texts at the expense of context considerations. In his words, “While a process approach will certainly make it possible for apprentice writers to become

more effective at generating texts, this may be of little avail if they are not aware of what their readers expect to find in those texts” (p. 45).

This has given birth to the research paradigm known as “the genre approach” to writing, principally supported by EAP and ESP practitioners²³ and concerned with the teaching of particular genres in specialised contexts (Matsuda, 2003). Essential in the genre approach is to highlight the purpose of writing as related to the context in which writing occurs and to the conventions and formats of texts expected by the target discourse community²⁴. This conceptualization of writing is formulated by Hyland (2003) as follows:

We don't just *write*, we write *something* to achieve some *purpose*: it is a way of getting something done. To get things done, to tell a story, request an overdraft, craft a love letter, describe a technical process and so on, we follow certain social conventions for organizing messages because we want our readers to recognize our purpose. These abstract, socially recognized ways of using language for particular purposes are called *genres*. (p. 18)

As its name suggests, the genre approach takes genres as the basis of writing instruction. A genre is a written or spoken text which serves a specific function in society and which consists of a series of segments dubbed *moves*, some of which are obligatory, while others are optional. Each of the constituent moves has its own sub-purpose and contributes to the global purpose of the genre (Henry & Roseberry, 1998). Genres are seen as socially recognizable text types characterized by a *generic integrity*, that is, conventional lexicogrammatical and discursive patterns (Hyland, 2002). In other words, genres are controlled by their communicative purposes and are identified by a set of linguistic features and move sequences.

²³ This approach is sometimes called the “English for Academic Purposes approach” (Silva, 1990) or the “English for Specific Purposes approach” (Dudley-Evans, 1997).

²⁴ A discourse community is defined by Barton as “a group of people who have texts and practices in common, whether it is a group of academics, or the readers of teenage magazines. In fact, discourse community can refer to the people the text is aimed at; it can be the people who read a text; or it can refer to the people who participate in a set of discourse practices both by reading and writing” (as cited in Hyland, 2009, p. 35).

On the whole, the practice in this paradigm is to explicitly familiarize student writers with the structural and communicative properties of different genres by conducting a kind of text analysis and finally to assist them in producing their own texts in conformity with the established conventions in a particular socio-cultural setting (Dudley Evans, 1997). Writing instruction goes on in systematic manner through three consecutive stages: (1) *modelling*, (2) *joint construction* of text and (3) *independent construction of text*. Figure 10 outlines these phases.

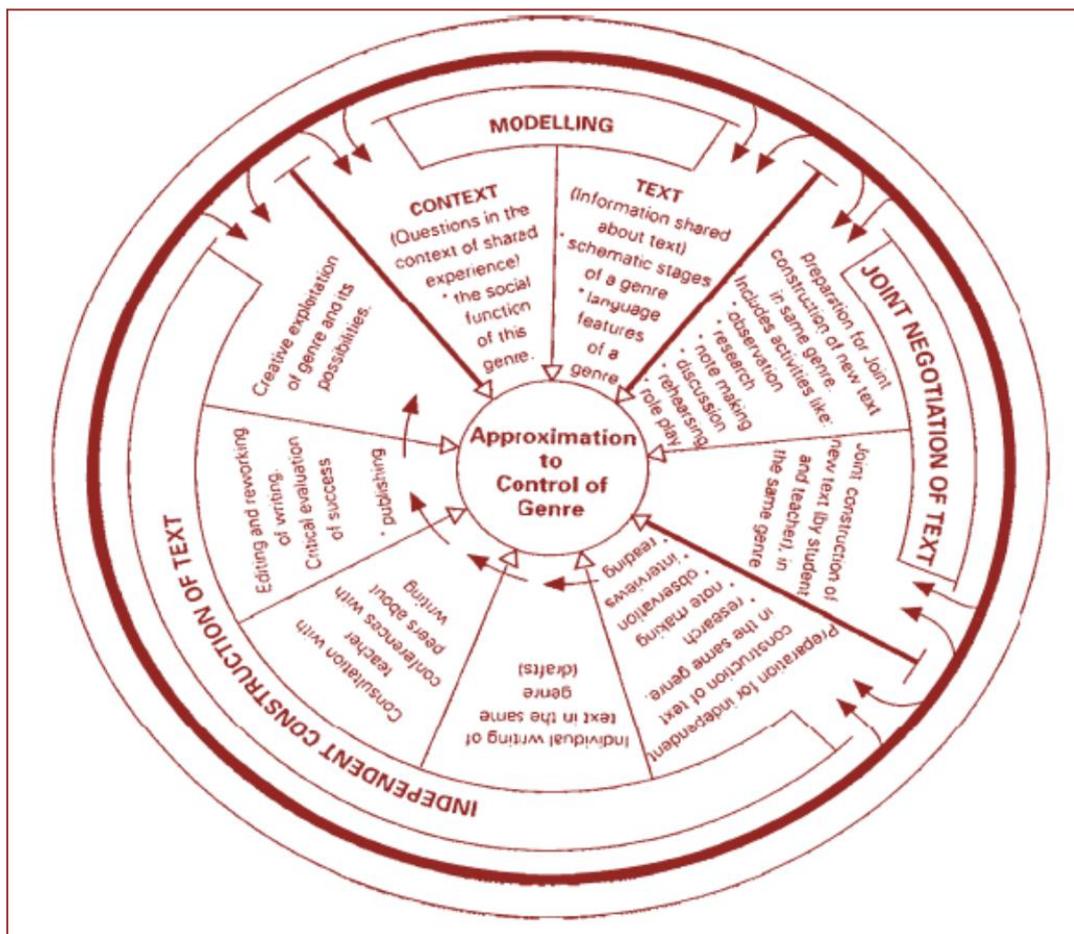


Figure 10. The “wheel” model of teaching and learning cycle. Adapted from *Teaching Factual Writing: A Genre-Based Approach*, by M. Callaghan and J. Rothery, 1988, Sydney: Metropolitan East Disadvantaged Schools Program.

Hammond, Burns, Brosnan, and Gerot (1992) explain how writing instruction is conducted in the genre approach. In the first stage, the students are exposed to a model of the target

genre. Its social purpose is discussed and its structure and language are analyzed. The second stage consists in performing a variety of exercises which permit students to maneuver language forms. The last stage aims at an autonomous production of texts by students within the same genre. It appears that the genre-based approach depends on explicitness and that the role of the teacher starts as an “interventionist” but at later stages learner autonomy is crucial (Hyland, op. cit.). It is argued that experiment and exploration on the part of the learner are not favoured in this pedagogy; instead, student writers are overtly led to reproduce expert texts and therefore their writing has predetermined social goals. Grammatical forms are highlighted but always within the context of what is appropriate to specific genres (Hyland, 2003).

3.1.5 The Choice of an Approach

This brief overview of the orientations of teaching ESL writing reveals that this skill is not construed in the same way moving from one approach to another. The foci are divergent as each limits itself to a single facet of writing. The outcomes of such diversity of perspectives are important.

On the one hand, the multitude of pedagogies is thought by some specialists to stimulate mystification and uncertainty among ESL composition practitioners. “This merry-go-round of approaches . . . generates more heat than light and does not encourage consensus on important issues, preservation of legitimate insights, synthesis of body knowledge, or principled evaluation of approaches” (Silva, 1990, p. 18). Raimes (1983) considers this situation an explanatory factor of eclecticism, which is becoming a common practice. Indeed, many composition teachers draw on everything that is available to them, and they seldom constrain themselves to a rigid application of one pedagogy. Perplexity is intensified, according to Matsuda (op. cit.), by lack of professional training in the teaching of ESL writing. In many cases, available textbooks and personal experience are the main

sources of insights for the teachers. To evade the risks of such attitudes, Kroll (1991) recommends that ESL writing teachers have to formulate a well-grounded “philosophical stance” to underlie their choices of methodologies and materials. Their decisions as regards their profession have to be principled. Otherwise, they would be compelled to make impromptu preferences which might not be the best for the student. In addition, they run the risk of performing unproductive activities and eventually conducting uninformed evaluation of student writing.

To maximize the benefits of theoretical advancement in ESL writing research, some scholars proposed hybrid paradigms, which attempt to incorporate insights from the existing ones as a way to bridge their gaps. Some integrated approaches are encountered in the literature, for example, the *process-product approach* (Dyer, 1996; Hasan & Akhand, 2010) and the *process-genre approach* (Badger & White, 2000; Flowerdew, 1993). The latter has been elaborated and applied in a variety of settings and has been subject to evaluation in a number of studies, which demonstrated its effectiveness in addressing multiple aspects of writing simultaneously (Jarunthawatchai, 2010; Muşlu, 2007; Voon Foo, 2007; Yan, 2005). Some scholars, adopting hybridization of approaches and taking the perspective to extremes, call for a wider all-encompassing attitude which does not favour any central element of writing at the expense of others. Tribble (1996), for instance, states:

If writers know what to write in a given context, what the reader expects the text to look like in a given context, and which parts of the language system are relevant to the particular task in hand, and has a command of the writing skills appropriate to this task, then they have a good chance of writing something that will be effective. (p. 68)

In this outlook, it is indeed argued that successful writers should be equipped with multi-dimensional knowledge of writing, incorporating four components: (1) content, (2) context, (3) language system and (4) writing process as shown in the following diagram.

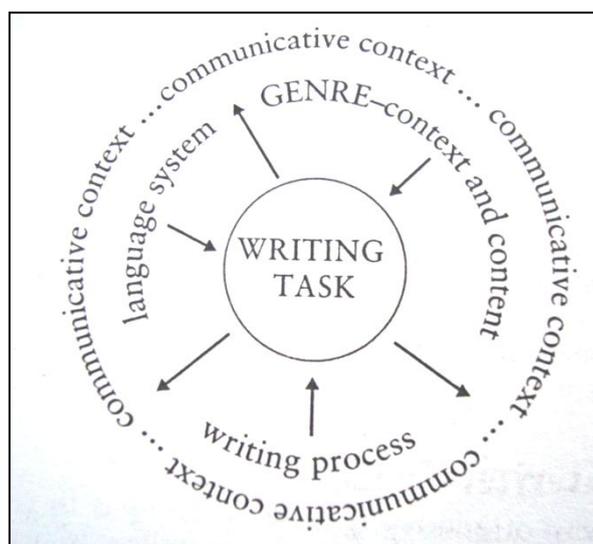


Figure 11. What writers need to know. Adapted from *Writing* (p. 68), by C. Tribble, 1996, Oxford: Oxford University Press

In line with this view, Hyland (op. cit.) rebuffs the idea of reducing writing instruction to developing cognitive and technical abilities, mastering a system of rules or enhancing a set of composing and revising skills. He highlights awareness of the multitude of aspects which constitute writing efficiency and adds a fifth component, which is genre. He stresses that all five kinds of knowledge have to be attended to when teaching writing and that teachers should draw on the best of what the rich spectrum of paradigms offers.

3.2 ESL/EFL Problems in Written Discourse

Learning to write in a language is thought to be a strenuous activity in L1, L2 and FL learning contexts. Despite the continuous efforts of researchers and teaching writing practitioners to fathom the intricacies of writing and to develop the utmost instructional practices, it remains a skill in which ESL and EFL learners encounter most difficulties and in which they spend more time to attain a passable quality compared to other skills. In this connection, Rivers (1981) shows that all over the world, the majority of college and university students, after so many years of learning another language, do have troubles in communicating clearly, correctly and intelligibly in writing. In the same vein, Tribble

(op.cit) maintains that this skill is “one in which relatively few people are required to be expert” (p. 3). The difficulties that ESL and EFL learners come across manifest themselves in deviations at the various linguistic levels: lexical choices, grammatical forms and most importantly discourse patterns. Discourse problems persist even in very advanced stages of ESL and EFL learning (Reid, 1984). Research in second language acquisition and foreign language learning does not attribute such deviations to a sole factor but postulates various explanations. Most prominently, writing problems in such contexts are explicated by reference to the role of the learners’ L1, developmental factors and instructional context factors.

3.2.1 Interference from L1 Thought Patterns

Early contrastive rhetoric research, representing a discourse-level adaptation of the Whorfian ideas and the contrastive analysis hypothesis, ascribed the problems second language writers undergo with discourse structure of the target language to interference²⁵. In this research line, it is held that L2 writing is culturally influenced by the rhetorical norms of the writers’ L1 (see Chapter Two). The whole approach rests on cognitive principles as regards second language acquisition, that is, the effects of thought patterns across cultures on the organization of written discourse (Kaplan, 1966). Detailed and thorough analyses of second language writers’ texts revealed important findings on the non-native-like writing, which stems from the various background rhetorical traditions of students other than Anglo-American (Hinkel, 2002).

3.2.2 Developmental Factors in L2

Another line of research has criticized the cognitively-oriented claims of interference from the organization patterns of L1 in L2 and FL writing and proposed an

²⁵ *Interference* in second language acquisition research is a form of language transfer in which the use of a native-language pattern or rule leads to an error or inappropriate form in the target language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002)

alternative explanation of learner difficulties in the light of interlanguage developmental factors (Abu Radwan, 2012; Hamp-Lyons, 1989). Mohan and Lo's (1985) account, for instance, takes the case of English writing by Chinese students and suggests that lack of experience in L2 affects the quality and effectiveness of student writing. It is the student's general level of development in composition rather than L1 forms that cause students to produce deviant discourse patterns. In their words, "Ability in rhetorical organization develops late, even among writers who are native speakers, and because this ability is derived especially from formal education, previous educational experience may facilitate or retard the development of academic writing ability" (p. 528). Exploring a number of related studies, Wong Su Chu (2012) cites empirical evidence which concurs that L2 proficiency plays a momentous role in the success of second language writing. It is shown in these studies that there is a strong correlation between a writer's L2 proficiency and his/her ability to produce effective texts and his/ her fluency. In the same vein, Wang and Wen (2002) and Chen (1999) showed that L1 interference appears at early stages of L2 learning and declines when L2 proficiency progresses. Also, Cheng and Chen (2009) have come to the conclusion that that culture may not essentially explain fully some of the features manifested in Taiwanese writing of English. Other factors, such as L2 proficiency and developmental factors, also affect the use of specific structures. In the context of the Arab ESL students' writings, Fakhri (1994) corroborates these findings and observes that with the exception of excessive use of coordination, the subjects' unconsciousness of the adequate writing techniques or simply the developmental factors frequent with all ESL learners are thought to be a more plausible explanation of problems in English writing.

3.2.3 Other Factors

Other accounts of L2 writers' divergence from the discourse norms approved by English native speakers are relatively more recent. Some have to do with the

embeddedness of discourse and writing in culture, a relationship strengthened by educational practices. In this connection, Rienecker and Jörgensen (2003) explain that differences in educational systems can lead ESL learners to produce non-native-like writing as they transmit to them culturally preferred discourse patterns. Working in the same line, Clyne (1987) investigated the differences between norms governing essay writing in German and English. The writings displayed cardinal dissimilarities as regards organization and linguistic characteristics, which are taught and emphasized in both educational systems. Indeed, certain uses of language are emphasized and given value in educational institutions along the lines of existing cultural preferences, hence generating specific views of what is “good writing” and what qualities a well-written text must display.

Connor (1996) puts this within the larger framework of *national culture*. She argues that late contrastive rhetoric research influenced by studies in psychology, education and applied linguistics, works towards identifying national cultures. It is thought that orality, literacy, schooling and instruction do influence cultural tendencies; as a result, writing preferences, seen as part of this socialization process, differ from one cultural context to another. On the other hand, Mauranen (1994) accounts for L2 writing problems in terms of intercultural differences in study genres. For her, a number of written study genres, including essays, although having similar labels across cultures may be noticeably dissimilar. Thus, L2 writers may have different assumptions and expectations about the type of writing they have to produce. Elsewhere she explains, “All writing is strongly anchored in the values of the writing cultures that people get socialized into as they learn to write” (Mauranen, 1992, p. 239).

On the whole, Connor (2002) emphasizes that various possible factors influence L2 writing. According to her, variation in writing stems “from multiple sources, including L1,

national culture, L1 educational background, disciplinary culture, genre characteristics, and mismatched expectations between readers and writers”(p. 504). Later, she goes even further by postulating that when we study and teach writing in a second language, we have to consider various intersecting social institutions and practices in a classroom as shown in Figure 12 below. These can be seen as interlocking cultures in the writing and communication situation. The idea is taken as the basis of the shift towards the discipline of *intercultural rhetoric*.

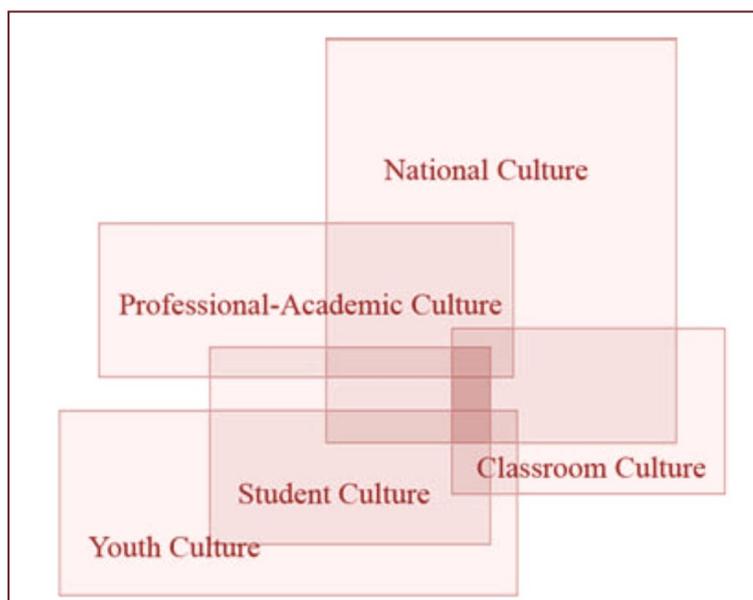


Figure 12. Interacting cultures in an educational setting. Adapted from *Contrastive Rhetoric: Reaching to Intercultural Rhetoric* (p. 308), by U. Connor, 2008, Philadelphia, PA: John Benjamins.

3.3 Writing an Argumentative Essay

Writing an argumentative essay is a kind of writing which involves the production of a piece of discourse of a distinctive nature. To project this type of discourse in English, a number of dimensions come into play. In the first place, it is a form of language in which argumentation as a text type is manifested. In the second place, an argumentative essay is a major academic genre set as one of the tasks that are widely used in academic settings as a tool to measure academic success. Finally, in learning EFL or ESL, it is reported in the

literature that this type of writing often poses difficulties for learners, who seem to diverge from the norms established in the Western contexts for a number of hypothesized reasons. To expound on writing argumentative essays and to depict their typical templates in the Western contexts, it seems useful to give a preliminary account of the notions of *text type*, *genre*, and *essay*.

3.3.1 Argumentation as a Text Type

Writing an argumentative essay is in the first place a projection of a piece of written discourse that belongs to the argumentative text type. The classification of discourse into text types is one of the oldest issues developed in the field of rhetoric, and it continues to exist in contemporary theoretical and instructional linguistic materials (Faigley & Meyer, 1983). According to Hatim and Mason (1990), a text type is “a conceptual framework which enables us to classify texts in terms of communicative intentions serving an overall rhetorical purpose” (p. 140). Björk (2003) considers a text type a broad inter-disciplinary classification based on the criterion of the *overriding communicative purpose* such as explaining the causes of something, solving a problem and the like. He explains that specific text types permit the presence of minor purposes, but these are employed to serve the principal goal, and it is this dominant function that is the measure for a text’s categorization. He also adds that the criteria of classifying texts are “text-internal” criteria, and they intersect across disciplines. Trosborg (1997) explains that to talk of text types is to refer to categories which are functional in nature. In addition, she demonstrates that text types cut across registers and genres and that they constitute a closed set with a restricted number of categories. For her, “[discourse] may be classified according to text type . . . The focus is on functional categories, also termed rhetorical strategies, which is not normative, but abstract knowledge, fundamental in the creation of texts” (p. 12).

In the literature, a number of taxonomies have been offered over the years to describe the functional typology of texts following cognitive, rhetorical or linguistic bases (Biber, 1989; De Beaugrande & Dressler, 1981; Faigley & Meyer, 1983; Hatim & Mason, *op. cit.*; Kinneavy, 1980; Trimble, 1985; Werlich, 1976), most of which regard argumentation as a major type along with narration, description, exposition and instruction. Rhetoricians specify certain features that characterize argumentation. In Werlich's account, which is purely cognitive in orientation, the overriding communicative purpose of argumentation involves essentially judging, that is, "evaluation of relations between and among concepts through the extraction of similarities, contrasts, and transformations" (as cited in Trosborg, *op. cit.*, p. 15). In the same line, Hatim and Mason (*ibid*) hold that "the argumentative text type has as a contextual focus the evaluation of relations between concepts" (pp. 153-154). De Beaugrande and Dressler (*op. cit.*) stress the evaluative aspect of argumentation text type and discuss some of the recurrent conceptual relations involved in it:

Argumentative texts are those utilized to promote the acceptance or evaluation of certain beliefs or ideas as true vs. false, or positive vs. negative. Conceptual relations such as reason, significance, volition, value, and opposition should be frequent. The surface texts will often show cohesive devices for emphasis and insistence, e.g. recurrence, parallelism, and paraphrase. (p. 184)

On the other hand, other linguists emphasize the use of reasoning in argumentative text types and its communicative effect of convincing another party. Mayberry (2009) delineates argumentation as a kind of discourse which "seeks agreement about a point through the use of reasonable evidence" (p. 4). Similarly, Baker and Huntington (1905) use the term argument to describe speech or writing whose aim is to convince by means of reasoning. In their words, "Argumentation is the art of producing in the mind of another

person acceptance of ideas held true by a writer or speaker, and of inducing the other person, if necessary, to act in consequence of his acquired belief” (p. 7).

Exposition and argumentation are sometimes confused although the boundary between them is clear-cut. Kane (1983) clarifies that while exposition is aimed at informing the readers, argumentation has the goal of changing the way they think or act. Siepmann, Gallagher, Hannay, and Mackenzie (2008) hold the same position and use the term “argued text” to set the two text types apart. According to them, an argued text has two main purposes: presenting information (the expository function) and adopting a stand on that information (the more narrowly argumentative function). Hinkel (2004) as well considers argumentation a form of exposition with an element of persuasion. In argumentative tasks, according to her, “The writers are required to recognize that issues have at least two sides and present the facts or information to develop a reasoned and logical conclusion based on the presented evidence . . . presentations of unsupported assertions are not considered to be argumentation” (p. 30).

Hatim and Mason (*op. cit.*) attempt to remove the confusion existing between argumentative and expository text types by setting a checklist of basic features for each type. Firstly, the former has to do with situation managing as opposed to the latter, which involves monitoring of the situation. Secondly, argumentation contains a tone-setter, while exposition has a scene-setter. Thirdly, argumentation involves an evaluative element, which is absent in exposition. Finally, argumentative texts are characterized by further internal syntactic, semantic and modal traits that set them apart from expository texts. In fact, Kamel (2000) claims, argumentation is more complex than other text types, such as description, narration, and exposition since it can use all these three types as evidence.

The argumentative text type can be projected in speech or in writing. In both cases it has two central components: a defensible *claim* and adequate *support* (see Section 1.2),

and it is highly sensitive to the audience to whom it is addressed. Argumentative writing in particular has been given much importance in teaching this text type due to the additional demands of the writing skill put on the arguer when using the writing medium. Argumentative writing is generally delineated as that which “attempts to support a controversial point or defend a position on which there is a difference of opinion” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, p. 337). According to Connor (1987), this kind of written discourse is aimed at persuasion and it combines the rational and affective appeals and the appeals to reliability. She adds that the act of persuasion is an intricate cognitive process of problem-solving which needs the writer’s awareness of the audience anticipations, the writer’s intention, the rhetorical pattern, and the context of situation. Argumentative writing is ultimately intended to alter the reader’s original contrasting position to a position that is similar to the writer’s (Connor, 1990). Baker and Huntington (op. cit.), however, distinguish argument in writing from persuasion, which “manipulates” the readers and as such is downgraded to an inferior moral order. In their words, “In persuasion one may produce desired action either by arousing emotion in regard to the ideas set forth or by adapting the presentation of one’s case as a whole or in part to special interests, prejudices, or idiosyncrasies of a reader” (p. 7). This differentiation from persuasion persists in the modern accounts of argumentative writing. In this respect, Nadell et al. (2009) comment:

Using clear thinking and logic, the writer tries [in argumentation] to convince readers of the soundness of a particular opinion on a controversial issue. If, while trying to convince, the writer uses emotional language and dramatic appeals to readers’ concerns, beliefs, and values, then the piece is called persuasion. Besides encouraging acceptance of an opinion, persuasion often urges readers (or another group) to commit themselves to a course of action (p. 455).

Mayberry (2009) provides a thorough account of what a written argument is and clearly defines its fundamental components. According to her, an argument is a stance

sustained by clear thinking and reasonable proof based on a stable link to sound facts. Arguments are not meant to ascertain the absolute truth of a conclusion, but they determine the likelihood of that conclusion. A successful written argument is ethical and built on reason with open and honest points. It avoids devious methods and forged promises and seeks to remove vagueness. An argument's *claim* is a brief summary of its main point or points. Not considering where and whether it appears in an argument, the claim directs the argument, giving it organization and strength. Claims can be positioned up front in the argument, at the end of the argument, or they can be unstated. Writers must have a very good reason to choose one of these methods, for the placement of claims does interfere with the clarity of argumentation and its effect on the audience. *Support* is all the data which transforms an uncertain claim into a warranted conclusion. Support is the principal constituent of argument. Without ample and appropriate support, a claim becomes merely a guess or an opinion; with proper support, it develops into a judicious and convincing conclusion. Coffin et al. (2003) argue that what counts as appropriate evidence is relative as the means for establishing truth are conventional and context based. Sources of evidence are bound to cultural preferences. On the whole, it seems that in argumentative writing, the writer, who is required to argue for his/her position on a given issue and to create conversion in attitudes, beliefs, and points of view of the readers, is at the same time expected to go through complex stages of writing and to attend to other constraints of writing, such as those of writing genre.

3.3.2 Argumentation and Academic Writing

The position that argumentation occupies in academic settings is unquestionably of paramount importance as it is the tool through which opinions can be presented and substantiated either in speech or in writing as a token of efficient critical thinking. A number of specialists have stressed that the ability to incorporate argument within the framework of the written text is integral to academic success. Indeed, argumentation is at

the heart of academic writing (Björk, 2003; Boardman & Frydenburg, 2008). In Graff's (2003) words, making arguments is "the name of the game in the academia" (p. 3). It is indeed seen as a way to enhance discussion and deliberation and to develop more profound understanding, forceful resolution, and better judgments (Smagorinsky et al., 2011). According to Zhu (2001), in Western contexts, the ability to produce a piece of argumentative writing is an essential prerequisite in second language learners' college career with regard to the nature of this kind of discourse. Students are assessed according to their skill to argue convincingly (Axelrod & Cooper, 2012). For example, they may be asked to sustain a managerial decision, to back an international policy or to assess a model designed to settle a particular issue. In some standardized professional tests, the ability to develop argument is held to be a criterion of the candidate's ability to speak and write academic English in English speaking universities at large (Stirling, 2009).

Oshima and Hogue (2007) explain that developing and supporting one's opinion are among the dexterities students are expected to develop in writing. In their words, "The U.S. system of education places a high value on students' ability to think for themselves. Professors want students to express their own opinions and even disagree with them as long as students can support their own views" (p. 196). Mayberry's (2009) opinion goes in the same direction. According to her, much of the writing students will do in college and in their careers after college is a kind of writing that searches for concord about an issue through the use of rational substantiation. She cites a number of tasks such as research papers, lab reports, literary interpretations, case studies and others as forms of writing whose aim is to convince an audience (usually a professor) of the reasonableness of certain claims. These forms of writing, in addition to application letters, instructional manuals, and corporate annual reports, have the plain goal of making a reasonable point.

Due to the pervasiveness of argumentative tasks in the academic courses and due to their challenging nature, promoting students' argumentative writing skills constitutes a central component of ESL writing classes (Zhu, op. cit.). According to Ramage, Bean and Johnson (2010), a writing course concentrating on argument can offer students a number of profits in the curriculum and in their lives. Argument is seen as a vehicle to teach the skills of critical literacy, it is a medium through which identity is constructed and defended, and it is a means whereby ethical reasoning can be projected. In academic contexts, it is often held that written argument is perhaps the most central and most exigent function to master. Therefore, the skill of advancing an argument is one which is cultivated over time through exercise, feedback, and reading (Murray & Hughes, 2008). Despite this complexity, the principles lying beneath efficient, cogent arguments are well-established and are explicitly presented in composition handbooks for instructional purposes.

3.3.3 The Argumentative Essay as an Academic Genre

At university context, EFL and ESL students have to possess knowledge of a variety of genres, including argumentative essays, to perform academic tasks. What is observed, however, is that writing an essay is cited as one of the most difficult and persistent problems encountered by EFL and ESL students. To be able to identify the nature and causes of such difficulties, it seems crucial to expound on the notion of genre itself and to present the conventional anatomy and the salient features of the argumentative essay in the contexts where English is used as a native language.

3.3.3.1 Genres and Genre Analysis

Genres are generally construed as abstract text categories which represent socially recognized ways of using language (Hyland, 2002). The English genres include, for example, novels, newspaper articles, editorials, academic articles, public speeches, radio broadcasts, everyday conversations, guidebooks, nursery rhymes, poems, business letters, plays and advertisements (Biber, 1989; Trosborg, 1997). The array of such textual

categories in English is continuously extended and subdivided, creating a massive amount of variety and ramification. Genres are the conventional and repeated configurations of everyday, academic and literary texts that occur within a particular culture (Hammond & Derewianka, 2001). They are essentially context-bound and are addressed to specific audiences. In this respect, Hyland (op. cit.) explains the general assumptions of genre theorists as regards the importance of context in genre creation and description. According to him:

Genre analysis is based on two central assumptions: that the features of a similar group of texts depend on the social context of their creation and use, and that those features can be described in a way that relates a text to others like it and to the choices and constraints acting on text producers. Language is seen as embedded in (and constitutive of) social realities, since it is through recurrent use and typification of conventionalized forms that individuals develop relationships, establish communities, and get things done. (p. 114)

Overall, linguists have conceived of genres as oral and written text types identified by reference to their formal features and by their communicative purposes in definite social contexts. Swales (1990), for example, whose research has been influential in establishing genre theory, regards genres as “communicative events” that are distinguished both by their communicative purposes and by diverse patterns of structure, style, content and target audience. The functional analysis that he proposes for the description of the rhetorical content of a given genre makes use of the discourse units of “moves”, following his original model for the description of the internal structure of research article introductions. The generic rhetorical patterning is termed the *schematic structure* of a given genre, and the moves make up its constitutive parts. According to Hyland (op. cit.), move analysis is the process of defining the succession of moves that make up a genre through the analysis of a characteristic sample of texts. Every component move is seen as a minor communicative act employed to fulfill a single principal communicative function of the

whole text. Moves are liable to further subdivisions into *steps*. Both constituents are rigorously constrained by the sequence in which they occur and may be subject to embedding and repetition.

3.3.3.2 Genres and Academic Writing

Writing genres is something crucial in academic settings. Björk (2003) argues that, unlike those used for the classification of text types, the criteria for the identification of genres are text-external criteria. They are shaped by the conventions approved by the writing community where the genre is used. In other words, the presence of particular moves and steps and their sequencing are strictly confined to the rules developed in specific academic or professional discourse communities and even cultures. That is why genres are said to be discipline and culture-bound. Writing in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) context is no exception since the activity of writing in such contexts is embedded in genre. Yakhontova (2003) states that “Learning writing in the majority of cases is learning genres, that is developing knowledge of the rules of organization and the structure of integral texts” (p. 24). Silva (1990) expounds on how writing as genre is linked to specific contexts. For him, learning to write is part of a socialization process to the academic community. Students learn about and attempt to approximate what is expected by the community. The writer seeks academic success and, therefore, has to conform to standards and requirements, while the reader, an experienced member of the academic community, possesses clear schemata for academic discourse which dictate what is convenient. The text constitutes a predictable response to a particular task type that belongs to an identifiable genre, and the context is the academic community and the typical tasks connected to it. Hinkel (2004) also affirms that writing in the academia is defined in terms of precise textual expectations. In her words, “Students rarely need to be proficient narrators of personal experiences and good writers of personal stories. In fact, what they

need is to become relatively good at displaying academic knowledge within the formats expected in academic discourse and text” (p. 17).

Seen from this angle, writing instruction in academic contexts has to start with delimiting the totality of genres which students have to be familiar with in particular disciplines. In this respect, Rankin (2001) observes that even though the array of genres is extensive and differs across disciplines, it is possible to delineate common academic genres that students are supposed to know about and to generate. These include “scholarly books, edited volumes, chapters contributed to an edited collection, journal articles, book reviews, essays, textbooks, grant proposals —[action research projects, dissertations, masters degree theses, letters, and] — even syllabi and course material” (p. 33). In the same vein, Jordan (1999) includes reports, case studies, projects, exam answers and research papers/ articles. Many other researchers and authors of academic writing handbooks list almost the same genres, adding to the aforesaid some minor genres or subgenres such as summaries, notes, abstracts, exercise, lab reports, reflective accounts and critiques (Bailey, 2011; Gillett, Hammond & Martala, 2009; Moore & Morton, 1999; Richards & Miller, 2005; Yakhontova, *op. cit.*). Indeed, the extensive variety of genres poses real challenges and painstaking writing demands for students to complete their degrees (Richards & Miller, *ibid*). Thus, many recent approaches to academic writing have formalized their objectives in terms of assisting students to become conscious of the characteristic features of various genres, and hence a number of courses have been developed to teaching particular genres, such as theses, dissertations, essays, experimental research reports and so on (Hewings, 2001).

The essay genre ranks among the most common type of written work in academic settings (Bailey, *op. cit.*). It is regarded as the exemplary discourse form in academic or intellectual circles (Scollon & Scollon, 1995). Indeed, according to Andrews (2003), the

essay is often described as the “default genre” since it cuts across all the disciplines. It is not only this commonness that gives essays such prominence in academic writing but also their frequency of occurrence as a writing assignment or a form of assessment (Nadell et al., 2009). Essays are required for the purpose of determining whether students are capable of selecting, organizing and interpreting relevant facts so that the ideas become lucid to the readers who are not familiar with the topic under discussion (McMillan, 1984). Bruce (2008) elaborates on some research findings on the most common writing requirements of the university assignment tasks (genres) and the expectations of university staff in respect of responses to such tasks. He mentions one significant study conducted by Moore and Morton in the Australian context, in which twelve categories of university writing tasks were identified²⁶. In this study, it has been found that essays were the most frequent, constituting 58% of the total tasks.

3.3.3.3 Writing Argumentative Essays: The English Model

3.3.3.3.1 General Structure

Writing an essay is a common assignment in which writers respond to a title or a question, or it may be a division of a longer piece of writing, for instance, the discussion section of a dissertation or report. Generally, the structure of an argumentative essay follows the general conventions of writing the essay genre in English. Handbooks on English academic writing signal three central parts of this textual category: the introduction, the body and the conclusion. It typically consists of a number of paragraphs, each discussing a single point. Every paragraph coherently continues from the preceding paragraph and leads straight to the subsequent one. The paragraphs are linked together with an introduction and a conclusion. The introduction of the essay sets the scene, the body

²⁶ Moore and Morton (1999) use the term *task type* to refer to genre types. In their study, the tasks categorized include the following: essay, review, literature review, experimental report, case study report, research report, research proposal, summary, exercise, written argument/ case, etc.

outlines and develops the writer's argument and the conclusion brings everything together (Reid, 1982; Oshima & Hogue, 2007). Indeed, what is recommended is to be completely straightforward and unambiguous in the presentation of material when writing English academic prose at large. According to Reid (1984), it is a common practice to teach students this typical feature of English in the early years of education at paragraph level. In his words:

From elementary school on, the native speaker is instructed to write paragraphs with the traditional direct assertions at the beginning, a lengthy middle supporting initial statements, and a brief conclusion: tell 'em what you are going to tell 'em, tell 'em, and then tell 'em what you told 'em'. (p. 449)

As in any other kind of English academic writing, it is stressed in Western college settings that linearity is preferred in constructing an English essay: embellishments, digressions, repetitions and circuitousness should be avoided (Reid, 1982). In addition, essays are usually written as unbroken pieces of writing without headings and subheadings. As a rule, diagrams and tables are not used in this text type, nor are bullet points or numbered lists. The development segment of the essay depends on its purpose, which ought to be plainly indicated by the title or assignment question. If the writer refers to other people's ideas or works in his/ her essay, such material has to be made explicit using a standardized system of referencing (Gillett et al., op. cit.). Despite the apparent simplicity of structure which characterizes the essay genre in English, it is noticed that many ESL students, despite being able to theoretically identify its format, encounter difficulties of various sorts at the production level due to several reasons (Crème & Lea, 1997). It is thus recommended that theoretical instruction has to be coupled with adequate practice.

3.3.3.3.2 Purpose

As in any piece of argumentative discourse, when writing an argumentative essay, which is also called an *opinion essay*, it is assumed that the goal is twofold: (1) to present a

viewpoint to the reader through explanation, clarification and illustration and (2) to persuade the reader through strong supportive detail that the viewpoint is valid so that s/he is moved to action or is convinced that the opinion is correct (Reid, op. cit.). In agreement with this definition, McMillan (1984) sees that persuasion is the goal of argumentative essays:

The writer's purpose in this essay is to persuade the reader to consider the idea objectively, to look at it from a different perspective, to change his attitude if hostile, or to commit himself to a position if neutral. Sometimes the writer's purpose is to go a step further: he may wish to induce his reader to take action. (p. 90).

It is held that argumentation differs from other kinds of writing in that it presupposes disagreement and deals with opposing standpoints (Nadell et al., op. cit.). Usually used as a form of assessment, an argumentative essay is a text type in which objective tools are employed to win disputes through the presentation of calm, rational reasoning and unyielding evidence, which leads readers to accept a point of view on a given subject (Wyrick, 2011).

3.3.3.3 Rhetorical Organization

In standard composition textbooks, a range of organizational patterns are recommended in writing argumentative essays seen as a distinct common genre in Western tradition. Moreover, some composition specialists have put forward models that elucidate the generic structure of this academic genre. In such accounts, explicit rules on the global organization of an argumentative essay have been offered to assist novice writers to structure their essays appropriately by specifying the moves and steps of this text type. The versions offered have been employed in ESL and EFL writing classes as instructional models and as tools for the assessment of the quality of learner writing. Overall, in the templates provided, argument develops along three divisions in an argumentative essay, which correspond to the main parts of any composition: the introduction, the body and the

conclusion. According to Hyland (1990), each division represents a functional stage and consists of a number of moves. The moves have various formal lexical and grammatical exponents:

– **The Thesis Stage**

In the introductory paragraph of an argumentative essay, which represents *the thesis stage*, the writer essentially presents a topic, indicates how s/he will approach it and provides a statement of the main argument in a thesis statement involving his/her point of view (Coffin et al., 2003). Oshima and Hogue (op. cit.) explain that the introductory paragraph consists of two central parts: (1) some general statements, which aim at explaining an issue and (2) one thesis statement, which projects the writer's opinion on the stated issue and which often alludes to the opposing view first. Hyland (op. cit.) gives a more elaborate genre analysis, and suggests that this initial stage comprises five moves, four of which are optional:

(1) **Gambit** (optional): This move is not meant to inform but to attract the reader's attention to the issue. It appears in the form of a controversial issue or a dramatic illustration.

(2) **Information** (optional): This move involves the presentation of background material about the issue. At this level, definitions, illustrations, classifications or critiques may be used as contextualization tools.

(3) **Proposition**: This move, which need not be expressed so succinctly, presents the writer's standpoint, and it is the central move around which the whole essay is focused. In many cases, writers derive their propositions from the previous informing moves or present them in the form of a gambit.

(4) **Evaluation** (optional): This involves a general backing of the proposition through a positive comment.

(5) **Marker** (optional): This move is a piece of metadiscourse which usually announces the following sections of the essay, providing the reader with a very brief scheme of the composition.

The fundamental move in the thesis stage is the proposition. According to McWhorther (2012), argumentative propositions can express claims of three types: a claim of fact, a claim of value or a claim of policy. The first is based on verifiable facts. The second is a subjective judgement which shows how something is seen as more advantageous than another. The third, offering solutions to a problem, involves an action that should be undertaken.

– The Argument Stage

In the body, or the *argument stage*, supporting evidence is advanced. One hallmark of this stage is its reiterative patterning. The writer puts forward sub-arguments with each one relating (explicitly or implicitly) to the global position. Evidence to support main and sub-arguments is presented and evaluated. Further arguments and evidence may then be presented and evaluated. Counter-evidence may be presented and evaluated, usually negatively. This process continues until the case for the writer's main argument is strong (Coffin et al., op. cit.). In Hyland's (op. cit.) model, the argument stage consists of an indefinitely recurring four-move sequence:

(1) **Marker**: This metadiscourse move “frames the sequence and connects it to both the steps in the argument and to the proposition” (p. 72). The formal exponents of this move are usually listing signals or transitional expressions establishing various semantic relations between the sequences, such as addition, contrast, condition, specificity, etc.

(2) **Restatement of the proposition**: This move can be an adjunct to every item in the evidence presented and acts as a reminder of the subject.

(3) Claim: This central move involves the reasons backing the proposition. Claims can be based on shared assumptions, on generalizations derived from factual or expert evidence, or on forceful declaration of opinion.

(4) Support: This move is the second fundamental part tied to the claim to endorse it and to show its relevance to the proposition. Essentially the support move makes use of various sources of evidence and supporting data.

A variety of possible patterns are put at the disposal of the writer for the internal organization of the body section while advancing supporting evidence. Important in these patterns is the anticipation of the opposition's views and their refutation. Indeed, the organization of an argumentative essay in the Anglo-American academic tradition takes as a central component the counter-arguments (Bailey, 2011; Duigu; 2002; Evans, 1998; Galko, 2001; Wyrick, 2011). To counter-argue, writers use three fundamental strategies: *acknowledging*, *accommodating* and *refuting*. Writers demonstrate they are responsive to the readers' oppositions and questions (acknowledge), adapt their position to accept readers' concerns which they think are valid (concede), or openly argue that readers' objections may be unsound or that their concerns may be beside the point (refute). Readers would consider arguments more compelling if writers have anticipated their concerns in these ways (Axelrod & Cooper, 2012). "If the writer does not show an awareness of the counterarguments, the readers might think either that the writer has not explored the subject thoroughly or that the writer is presenting one-sided propaganda, afraid to admit the counterarguments" (Reid, 1982, p. 101). Writers are advised to consider possible critics to demonstrate their awareness of opposing views and their ability to react to them (Fawcett, 2012). According to Murray and Hughes (2008), the writer has to think of the argument in his/her essay as a debate with another party and has to act all roles by presenting his/ her personal view as well as those of the adversaries and then offering

evidence to refute them. Considering counter-argument is a way to obviate bias, which is not advocated in academic writing at large (Gillett et al., 2009).

Four patterns, which incorporate counter-arguments, are proposed for the organization of the argument stage (Wyrick, op. cit., pp. 291-292):

- ▶ **Pattern A**
Thesis
Body paragraph 1: you present your first point and its supporting evidence
Body paragraph 2: you present your second point and its supporting evidence
Body paragraph 3: you refute your opposition's first point
Body paragraph 4: you refute your opposition's second point
Conclusion

- ▶ **Pattern B**
Thesis
Body paragraph 1: you refute your opposition's first point
Body paragraph 2: you refute your opposition's second point
Body paragraph 3: you present your first point and its supporting evidence
Body paragraph 4: you present your second point and its supporting evidence
Conclusion

- ▶ **Pattern C**
Thesis
Body paragraph 1: you present your first point and its supporting evidence, which also refutes one of your opposition's claims
Body paragraph 2: you present a second point and its supporting evidence, which also refutes a second opposition claim
Body paragraph 3: you present a third point and its supporting evidence, which also refutes a third opposition claim
Conclusion

- ▶ **Combination**
Thesis
Body paragraph 1: A point for your side
Body paragraph 2: One of your points, which also refutes an opposition claim
Body paragraph 3: Your refutation of another opposition claim
Conclusion

Reid (op. cit.) also suggests a number of standard patterns to organize the supporting evidence in the argument stage. His model comprises three types:

- ▶ **Type 1**
 - I. Introduction (thesis)
 - II. Weakest argument that supports your opinion
 - III. Stronger argument that supports your opinion
 - IV. Strongest argument that supports your opinion
 - V. Counter-arguments and refutation
 - VI. Conclusion

- ▶ **Type 2**
 - I. Introduction (thesis)
 - II. Counterarguments and refutation
 - III. }
 - IV. } Arguments that support your opinion, arranged from least
 - V. } important to most important point or vice versa
 - VI. Conclusion

- ▶ **Type 3**
 - I. Introduction (thesis)
 - II. Counter-argument 1 and refutation
 - III. Counter-argument 2 and refutation
 - V. Counter-argument 3 and refutation
 - V. Strongest argument that supports your opinion
 - VI. Conclusion

In fact, there is no unique prototype that should be rigorously followed. There is always room for additional points, combination and variety. It all depends on the material available to the writer, the writer's ability to structure complex evidence, the sophistication of the subject itself and the assigned length of the essay. What is stressed is clarity, logic and persuasiveness (Wyrick, op. cit.).

– The Conclusion Stage

The last paragraph of an argumentative essay represents the *conclusion stage*. In the conclusion the writer provides a general review of the arguments and evidence together with a final assessment. This adds force to the position taken in the introduction (Coffin et al., 2003). The writer may restate the essay's main idea to seek the readers' agreement to

the thesis or s/he may even call for action at this stage. It depends on his/ her purpose (Oshima & Hogue, 2007). In agreement with this, Hyland's (1990) model shows that the conclusion section of an essay is not a mere summary. It usually involves a synthesis of the discussion and affirmation of the validity of the thesis. It contains a four-move sequence, one of which is obligatory:

(1) **Marker** (optional): It is a metadiscourse move aimed at delimiting the boundary of the conclusion.

(2) **Consolidation**: This basic move establishes the link between the argument stage and the essay's thesis.

(3) **Affirmation** (optional): It involves a restatement of the essay's proposition.

(4) **Close** (optional): The aim of this move is to put the essay's thesis into a wider perspective by alluding to unstated facets of the discussion.

3.3.3.3.4 Rhetorical Appeals: Primacy to Logos

When writing argumentative essays in academic contexts, the ultimate aim is to influence readers through arguments to acknowledge the advanced claim or to take action. To achieve their goals, writers in general employ, to varying degrees, a mixture of the long established methods central to the efficiency of argumentation: *ethos*, *pathos* and *logos*, which correspond to using the writer's character, emotion and logical reasoning respectively. These are diagrammed in Figure 13. It is emphasized in Western tradition, as Murray and Huges (2008) argue, that writers ought to be as objective as possible. Therefore, academic writing in English generally exploits logic and reasonableness more than the other appeals. "All argument in academic writing should make an appeal to reason rather than emotion" (p. 37). Nadell et al. (2009) take the same position by stating that the writer's main interest in an argumentation-persuasion essay should be with the soundness of an argument. Other appeals might be used but are less weighty if used alone.

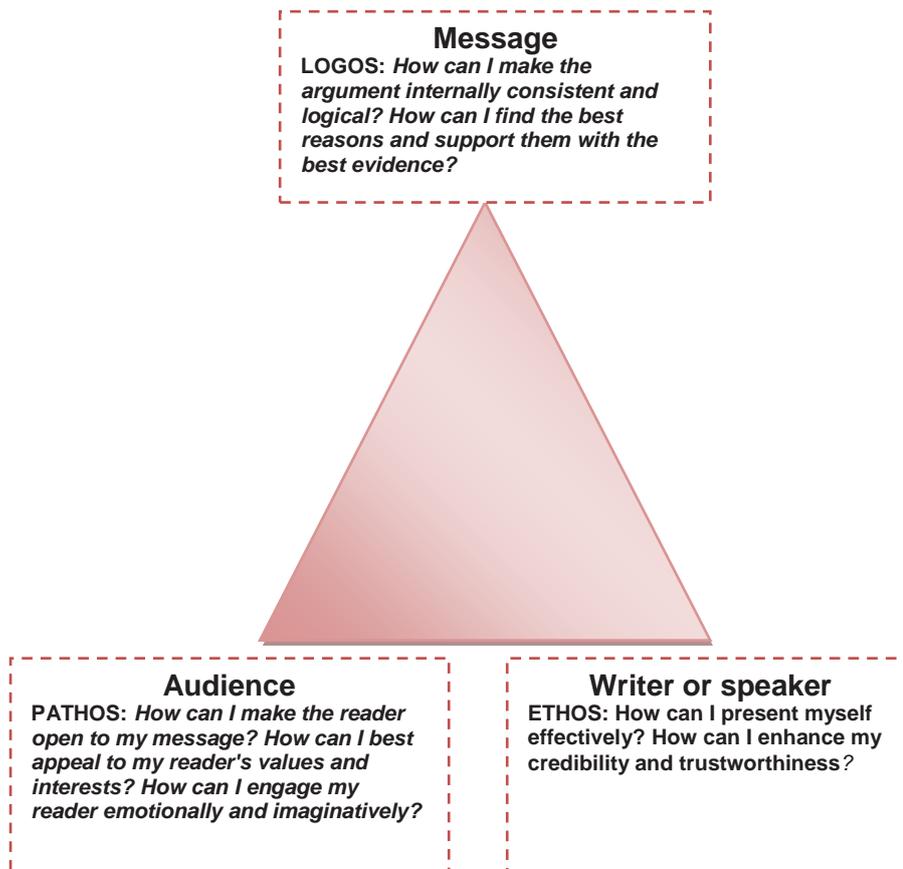


Figure 13. The rhetorical triangle. Adapted from *Writing Arguments: A Rhetoric with Readings* (8th ed.) (p. 308), by J. D. Ramage et al., 2010, New York: Pearson Longman.

McCool (2009) attributes this quality of English argumentative writing to the cultural affiliation of English to the reader-responsible languages.

Writer responsible cultures assume that emotion clouds judgment and that pathos adversely affects an argument. Further, some writer responsible cultures are likely to classify an emotional writer as incapable of thinking clearly about his topic, an obvious barrier to logical thinking. (p. 8)

Good writers in such languages are recommended to depend largely on logical appeals. Such appeals are considered “well-thought-out arguments” as they rest on the readers’ ability to rationalize and to distinguish good sense from irrational judgment (Wyrick, op. cit.). The strength of argument depends for the most part on the quality and the quantity of

the rational supporting evidence presented, which determines success of the writer in convincing the reader (Reid, op. cit.).

Despite the fact that writers should essentially rely on logos to construct their argumentation, appeals to emotion, pathos, are often encountered in English argumentative essays. According to White (1992), such appeals are very influential in persuasion, but they lack rationality. A good writer ought to achieve equilibrium between logos and pathos. A detailed account of the nature of pathos, the way it can lead to persuasion of audiences and its negative impact is offered in Wyrick (op. cit.). For him, writers often depend solely on triggering the readers' emotions to realize their persuasive objectives by deflecting or fooling audiences. Pathos is distinguished by specific language that provokes highly approving or disapproving reactions since it "plays on" readers' fears, material desires, prejudices or sympathies. This practice is very frequent in advertising and political contexts. Misled by emotive language, people do not query the logic of the argument presented in such cases. Although pathos is tricky and for the most part not rational, writers can use it sparingly with logical evidence for sensible purposes:

Appeals to emotions are tricky: you can use them effectively in conjunction with appeals to logic and with solid evidence, but only if you use them ethically. And too many appeals to the emotions are overwhelming; readers tire quickly from too many tugs on the heartstrings. To prevent your readers from suspecting deception, support your assertions with as many logical arguments as you can muster, and use emotional appeals only when they legitimately advance your cause. (p. 295)

Nadell et al. (op. cit.) hold the same view. According to them, pathos relies essentially on connotative language_ words filled with high emotional load. Writers have to choose thoughtfully language that highlights their message but should not entirely make their arguments dependent on it. "Such language should *support*, not *supplant*, clear thinking" (p. 458). Overuse of pathos undermines the professionalism of any paper.

Finally, good writers can use the third type of rhetorical appeals, the ethos: “use of persuasive reasons and examples coming from the trustworthiness and credibility of the writer as the authority himself” (Uysal, 2012). In that case, a writer works to establish in the readers’ minds that s/he is well-informed and reliable. It is not easy to achieve this goal in writing, especially for apprentice writers. However, according to a model developed by Connor and Lauer (1985) for the analysis of student persuasive writing, it is possible to assess ethos by reference to the following parameters:

- Presenting first-hand experience,
- Showing respect for audience’s interests and points of view,
- Exposing writer-audience shared interests and points of view,
- Emphasizing writer’s good character and/ or judgment.

Overall, the production of a convincing argument in academic argumentative essays requires that writers abide by the constraints of logical reasoning in the first place since the anticipated readers are members of the academic discourse community. It is true that writers ought not to be so rigid in the treatment of debatable issues. Thus a judicious interplay of the three types of appeals should be sought with primacy given to logic. According to Nadell et al. (op. cit.), “Each type of audience requires a different blend of logos, pathos, and ethos in an argumentation-persuasion essay” (p. 458). This can better be achieved through a careful analysis of the attitudes of the target readers, their knowledge about the issue, their feelings about the position of the writer, their values and their motivating factors. Bias and stereotyping have to be evaded.

– **Constructing Strong Evidence in Logos**

Writers ought to be selective as to the most appropriate evidence to enhance the logos²⁷ of their position. Logical conclusions are extracted from assumptions and decisions

²⁷ The term logos in this context refers to “reasoning” as distinguished from other senses (Wells, 2001)

derived from weighing a collection of solid supporting evidence. Standard composition textbooks suggest the following array of techniques to introduce supporting evidence that writers might draw on when using reason in writing an argumentative essay (Fawcet, 2012; Govier, 2010; Nadell et al, 2009; Rosa & Eschholz, 2008; Wyrick, 2011):

Facts: This type of evidence involves the use of statements whose truth can be verified. They are primarily addressed to the reader's mind. Writers have to be clear about the source of the facts they include in their argumentation. Also, the sources have to be unflinching. Fawcet (op. cit.) argues that imprecision through the use of expressions like "everyone knows that", "it is common knowledge that", or "they all say" leads readers to be doubtful of the presented facts.

Referring to an authority: This method relies on the testimony of an expert in the field to supply unprejudiced data and facts about a point. Govier (op. cit.) demonstrates that an authority is one who possesses specialized knowledge of the subject. To appeal to an authority, however, certain criteria have to be met: "the claim supported is in an area that is genuinely an area of knowledge; the person cited is recognized as an expert within that field; the experts in the field agree; and the person cited is credible and reliable" (p. 146). Quotes from authorities can be rationally weighty if readers consider them well-informed and unswerving. Writers can even paraphrase or refer briefly to a respected authority's ideas. In academic contexts, such citations from authorities appearing in an argumentative essay have to be accompanied by a list of the works cited at the end (Axelrod & Cooper, 2012). Research findings can be put within this broad category of rational evidence since they display the results of scientific studies conducted by specialists.

Testimony of others whose views are relevant to the topic: Writers can refer to the personal observation or experience of others to prove their claims. It is argued that an

individual's experience remains restricted if not put within the broader realm of human experience. In Govier's (op. cit.) words,

Our personal experience is limited with respect to both place and time. In conversation, in writing, and through media such as television, film, and video, other people communicate a broader experience to us. They tell us of sights, sounds, places, and personal encounters to which we have no independent access. Life would be short and knowledge limited if human beings could not extend their knowledge by relying on the experiences of others. (p. 121)

Like the other techniques, the use of a person's testimony is powerful provided that certain conditions are met. Three factors may weaken the reader's sense that the testimony is dependable: 1) the doubtfulness of the claim asserted; (2) the reduced reputation of the person making the claim; and (3) the claim having subject matter that evidently goes outside the experience and competence of the person who asserts its truth (ibid).

Statistics: Statistics are facts articulated in numerical form. According to Axelrod and Cooper (op. cit.), the use of this technique is adequate especially when discussing economic, educational or social issues. The data that writers employ in that case ought to respond to some standards as regards their content and sources: When statistics are used, writers have to make sure that they are up-to-date, pertinent, and exact. In addition, they ought to be selected from trustworthy, first-hand sources which are reputable and authoritative.

Examples: To use examples is to cite specific cases related to the argument (Rosa & Eschholz, op. cit.). Fawcet (op. cit.) states that a necessary condition for examples to constitute forceful evidence is that they should be representative of the general case. Axelrod and Cooper (op. cit.) add that the examples used to substantiate a claim ought to be familiar to the reader and sufficient in number to allow for safe generalization. For them, this technique reduces the abstraction of an argument and urges readers to empathize with those involved in the issue.

Anecdotes: To mention a brief story about events or experiences can be very convincing to accept a point of view. In that case, relevance, narrative impressiveness and genuineness are highly required. Meeting such requirements makes an anecdote, which is distant from the readers' experiences, a believable event (Axelrod & Cooper, op. cit.).

Writers of argumentative essays are advised to present evidence of one or more kinds, choosing from the variety of techniques which are available. When doing so, Wyrick (op. cit.) emphasises, the purpose and the audience have to be considered, the possibilities should be assessed and the most effective kind of backing has to be chosen.

– **Logical Fallacies**

An important factor that has to be attended to when using logos is to avoid logical fallacies. Any substantiation of claims based on lack of judiciousness is designated as fallacious and weak. It is argued that logical fallacies are in essence baseless; however, they are superficially credible and commonly have immense persuasive potential. The following are some frequent logical flaws fatal to cogent arguments (Axelrod & Cooper, op. cit.; Gillett et al., 2009; Govier, op. cit.; Mayberry, 2009; Reid, 1982; Rosa & Escholz, op. cit.; Wyrick, op. cit.):

Hasty generalization: Writers offer only weak or limited evidence to support a conclusion, or they progress to conclusions through the use of words like “everybody”, “all”, “nothing”. This fallacy is due to deriving invalid conclusions from restricted samples. Stereotyping is a kind of overgeneralization applied to people.

Oversimplification: The writer does not consider all causes or effects of an issue and offers simple solutions and easy answers to complex problems.

Post Hoc, Ergo Propter Hoc: Here causality between events is mistakenly linked to their coincidence. It can be formulated as: X happened before Y; therefore X caused Y.

Red Herring: This means lack of relevance between a statement and a topic. It is a purposeful digression from the issue to ward off attention from the core point to an irrelevant one.

False Authority: The writer commits this faulty reasoning when the sources referred to are vague or dubious, or are not considered an authority in the field.

Faulty statistics: The statistics used are not accurate, not applicable, dated, biased, partial, speculative or of an unknown source.

Vice and Virtue Words (emotive language): It involves the use of slanted and value-laden language, that is, words with a high emotional load either positively or negatively without logical proof. This prejudicial language is common in evaluative arguments.

Irrelevant premises: It means the use of a conclusion that does not develop out of the premises.

Begging the question (circular argument): What is to be demonstrated is assumed at the inception of argument. The premises that build up the argument are controversial. That is to say, the supporting statements merely repeat a key term in the claim in different words. Thus, they present as truth what is expected to be attested by the argument.

False analogy: Faulty analogies essentially involve inadequate extension of similarities between two logically unrelated ideas. This form of flawed reasoning ignores major differences and erroneously entails that if two things share some attributes, then they are similar in all respects.

Ad Hominem (personal attack): It involves diverting the reader's attention from the main argument by casting criticism against or even debasing the protagonist's character rather than attempting to refute his/ her point of view. It is seen as a way to evade discussing the issue.

Bandwagon: it means arguing that one ought to do something because others are doing it. Often encountered in publicity, this trick is resorted to when the arguer escapes the discussion of the problem under consideration.

Straw man: This fallacy occurs when the writer attempts to defeat the opponent's most unimportant argument in opposition to his/her own standpoint and disregards the strongest ones.

Quick fix: The writer commits this erroneous reasoning when s/he depends on captivating sayings and vacant slogans. Although such formulas sound nice, they might be simplistic or even irrelevant if put under close rational assessment.

Either/or reasoning: The writer ignores the totality of aspects of an issue and presents it in the form of two diametrically opposed sides, one right and one wrong. Usually, writers assume their viewpoint to be the correct one. Oversimplified in such a manner, the issue would not be adequately treated.

Hypostatization: The writer presents an abstract notion, such as "history", "science", etc, as if it were a tangible reality. It is more rational to quote a respected authority or moderate the statement with quantifiers like "many" or "some" than to generalize about a whole field or discipline.

Non sequitur fallacy: The writer makes invalid conclusions because the evidence offered is logically unrelated to that conclusion and does not necessarily lead to it.

Equivocating: The writer commits this fallacy when s/he resorts to misleading or hedging by using two or more senses of the same word. The premises seem to support the conclusion just because the senses are not recognized. The argument is prone to appear forceful if the ambiguity is not discerned.

Failing to accept the burden of proof: The writer states a claim and fails to advance rational arguments to substantiate it.

On the whole, writers of argumentative essays, although not committing fallacies intentionally, are advised to be cautious about faulty reasoning as it may undermine their central objective to convince readers of the acceptability of a given standpoint.

3.3.3.3.5 Patterns of Argument Development

Generally speaking, conventions on the placement of arguments and claims and their clarity in an argumentative essay differ from one cultural context to another. As shown in the previous chapter, it is common to speak of inductive, deductive, quasi-inductive and other organizational styles in speech and writing. Such distinctions are in fact modes of justificatory reasoning which are embedded in cultural beliefs and values (Warnick & Manusov, 2000). Conducting a contrastive study of expository writing in many languages, Hinds (1990) found that deductive organizations are more characteristic of English. In English written discourse, it is indispensable to have straightforward verbalization of the principal ideas related to the text's thesis right at the beginning (Swales, 1990). Thus, the deductive mode, in which the expression of claim precedes the advancing of arguments, is seen as the predominant or the "default" approach in English writing. In specific situations, however, English writers do use the inductive development, which starts by the presentation of evidence and proceeds to draw a conclusion. Hinds (op. cit.) writes in this connection:

English-speaking readers typically expect that an essay will be organized according to deductive style. If they find that it is not, they naturally assume that the essay is arranged in the inductive style. English speaking readers know that an inductive style must have certain characteristics and is used in certain circumstances. The author expects a hostile audience and feels the audience must be led step-by-step to the legitimate conclusion based on evidence presented. (p. 99)

The choice to write deductively or inductively when arguing the validity of a claim is largely dependent on the writer's needs and the preferences of the subject (Gillett et al., 2009). Most remarkably, in the sciences the inductive method is usually employed,

whereas in other disciplines argument usually is developed deductively to prescribe a particular conclusion (Murray & Hughes, 2008). On the whole, English writing is highly deductive. In this connection, Scollon and Scollon (1995) state that standard composition textbooks tell that the deductive structure is not only typical of essays in English, but is the norm in writing paragraphs or even whole books.

In a short essay of several paragraphs or several pages, that thesis should appear in the first paragraph. In a longer essay or in a book, the thesis might be delayed until after a bit of preliminary material, but in any event, the reader should be able to determine the main point within the first formal section of the text. . . . Each paragraph, according to standard composition textbooks, should have a topic sentence, and that sentence should be the first sentence in the paragraph. . . There is little question that the essay, as it is presented in standard composition textbooks, is a completely deductive rhetorical structure. (p. 103)

The differences between inductive and deductive organizations manifest themselves in thought arrangement, reader expectations and focus. Gillett et al. (op. cit.) explain how thoughts are structured in inductive and deductive argumentative essays. In the first, which they dub the *balanced* approach, the writer discusses both sides of an argument, not essentially including any opinion. The latter follows the evidence and is expressed only at the end of the essay. The structure of such essays therefore goes as follows:

- a. Introduction of the argument to the reader (e.g. why it is particularly relevant).
- b. Reasons against the argument (state the position, the evidence and the reasons).
- c. Reasons in favour of the argument (state the position, the evidence and the reasons).
- d. After summarizing the two sides, the writer's point of view is stated and justified.

In the second type, which they call the *persuasive* approach, the order of evidence and claim is reversed. The writer's point of view is stated right away. Then, it is supported by evidence to convince the reader of its validity. On the whole, the thought movement is controlled by the writer. The form of a deductive essay is as follows:

- a. The topic is succinctly and generally introduced, and then the writer's point of view is stated.
- b. What is intended to be corroborated is explained
- c. Reasons against the argument are advanced.
- d. The main oppositions to the writer's case are disposed, providing evidence and reasons.
- e. Reasons for the writer's argument are presented and supported with evidence, reasons and examples.
- f. In the conclusion, the writer restates his/her claim and explains why it is important.

McMillan (1984) demonstrates the way these two types of development affect reader expectations and focus in the product texts. In the deductive essay the reader already knows the point of the writer and only expects fuller elaboration on it. By contrast, the interest of the reader of an inductive essay is held as s/he encounters a question or a problem at the inception which leads him/her to share thinking and arrive at an inevitable conclusion with the writer through the evidence unpacked to him. As far as focus is concerned, a deductive essay is thought of as product, whereas an inductive one is seen as process: the deductive essay stresses the outcomes and repercussions of a claim and works to achieve an approving reaction from the reader by presenting details to explain and justify the claim; conversely, the inductive essay reconstructs the thought process itself by exhibiting the way the conclusion develops out of the details.

Conclusion

In argumentative writing_ a principal task that students have to perform at university in the course of their study_ learners are involved in an intricate process of establishing claims and working judiciously towards their substantiation to make a potential disagreeing reader accept them. Research shows that in order to project this

multipart form of communication in an essay of the Western template, EFL or ESL learners are liable to deviate from the discourse norms that English native speaker academics expect in this genre. Algerian EFL learners are no exception. The explanatory paradigms of such inconsistencies vary. Although cultural influences have been put to the fore, empirical findings highlight proficiency and contextual factors as well. Putting the issue in a wider pedagogical perspective, it is important that the breach between the requirements of academia and the actual learning difficulties is bridged in some way. The field of second language writing, which is becoming a mature discipline, may lend insights to resolve the matter. In fact, the traditions that appeared on the stage of second language writing research history offer teaching writing practitioners chances to reflect critically on knowledge of pertinent theory so that they can develop their own models, selecting for themselves what makes sense for their immediate contexts. However, adopting ready-made instructional formulas from second language writing research remains a one-sided solution unless it is coupled with an investigation of the nature and the causes of the discourse deficiencies that students produce when writing argumentative essays. For the purposes of this study, an exploration of both the learning and the teaching aspects of argumentative essay writing by Algerian university students is sought to back up the theoretical findings on second or foreign language writing pedagogy and to assist in designing appropriate materials.

CHAPTER FOUR

Research Design and Methodology

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Introduction

The present study investigates the rhetorical and communicative influences of native culture on argumentative writing by Arab learners of English as a foreign language and endeavours to suggest a model to the teaching of written argumentation at university level based on a systematic discernment of genuine problems and of the common teaching practices in this academic setting. The preceding chapters have presented the main theoretical lines that inform this study by briefly reviewing the research literature relevant to the topic. This chapter addresses the research design and methodology employed in this work and reports its findings. In the first place, an account of the general approach adopted in this work is given. Then, there is a description of the methods drawn on for the collection of data. Further, the sample of the subjects involved in this study is depicted through a discussion of the sampling strategy and the participants' background variables. At last the chapter offers an account of the procedures followed in the analysis of the data.

4.1 Research Design and Methodology

With regard to the two-fold objective of this piece of research, the general approach of the present study is descriptive in perspective with quantitative and qualitative methodological layers. The descriptive approach, in Best's words, is concerned with:

Conditions or relationships that exist; practices that prevail; beliefs, points of views, or attitudes that are held; processes that are going on; effects that are being felt; or trends that are developing. At times, descriptive research is concerned with how *what is* or *what exists* is related to some preceding event that has influenced or affected a present condition or event. (as cited in Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 205)

Walliman (2011) explains that the descriptive framework depends on the use of observation and employs a variety of tools such as interviews, questionnaires and visual or sound records, whose choice rests on the type of information sought. McDonough and McDonough (1997) highlight the consideration given to contexts in descriptive research.

Given its general objective of making plain the major effects within the context itself, this kind of research endeavours to yield a holistic account of the entire situation. They (ibid) attribute this orientation to two reasons:

The first is that in most educational situations the list of possible confounding variables is so large, with some systematic and some unsystematic ones, that realistic and satisfactory control and counterbalance are nearly impossible. The second, and more positive reason, is that it is increasingly realized that individual effects which can be isolated rarely work alone: therefore the pattern of context in which they are embedded is all important. (p. 45)

The study employs a blend of quantitative and qualitative methods to attain its objectives. The quantitative method usually involves the formulation of hypotheses as well as the quantification and numerical analysis of data. By contrast, qualitative research is non-experimental; its data are not susceptible to quantitative or statistical treatments (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Dörnyei (2007) establishes the main contrasts between the quantitative and qualitative methods in a set of salient features. According to him, quantitative research has the following aspects:

- Using numbers
- A priori categorization
- Variables rather than cases
- Statistics and the language of statistics
- Standardized procedures to assess objective reality
- Quest for generalizability and universal laws

By contrast, qualitative research is characterized by the following traits:

- Emergent research design
- The nature of qualitative data
- The characteristics of the research setting
- Insider meaning

- Small sample size
- Interpretive analysis

As stated earlier in this work, the present study sets three objectives as lines of inquiry: (1) To explore the extent to which the rhetorical patterns and communication styles of the native language and culture affect the argumentative essays of the Algerian EFL learners at the discourse level, (2) to explore the teaching practices concerning argumentative essay writing in the Algerian university context and (3) to suggest innovative instructional ways to handle actual problems in this kind of writing on the basis of the nature of problems and the actual practice of teachers. These research aims require the use of data of different types. Added to that is the fact that the multiplicity of aspects necessitate that methods have to be triangulated.

In general, triangulation “entails the use of multiple, independent methods of obtaining data in a single investigation in order to arrive at the same research findings” (Mackey & Gass, op. cit., p. 181). Rothbauer (2008) argues that the underlying assumption of the concept of triangulation is that the investigated phenomena are best fathomed when approached with a mixture of methods. He adds that this multimethod approach to data collection allows qualitative researchers to spot, survey, and comprehend different components of the units of study. This would strengthen their findings and enrich their interpretations. Triangulation may take different forms. Denzin distinguishes six types: *time triangulation*, *space triangulation*, *combined levels of triangulation*, *theoretical triangulation*, *investigator triangulation* and *methodological triangulation* (as cited in Cohen and Manion, 1989). In the present work, the researcher opts for methodological triangulation, involving the use of different research methods.

The first objective of research requires the collection of actual textual data from EFL learner subjects and their quantification in order to measure the degree to which they

display transferred rhetorical patterns and communication styles, hence the use of quantitative tools. As for the second objective, the observation of actual teaching practices and reducing an entire teaching system to predetermined categories is practically unattainable. To delve into attitudes, judgments and opinions and to probe into beliefs that underlie teaching behaviour, qualitative tools are deemed to be the most appropriate. The outcomes of triangulation would be more prominent when it comes to achieving the third research objective of the study. Being a byproduct of the study, a combination of all the data gathered can constitute a solid, multidimensional ground on the basis of which proposals to amend teaching practice can be made. Figure 14 schematizes how triangulation of quantitative-qualitative tools is employed for the purposes of this study:

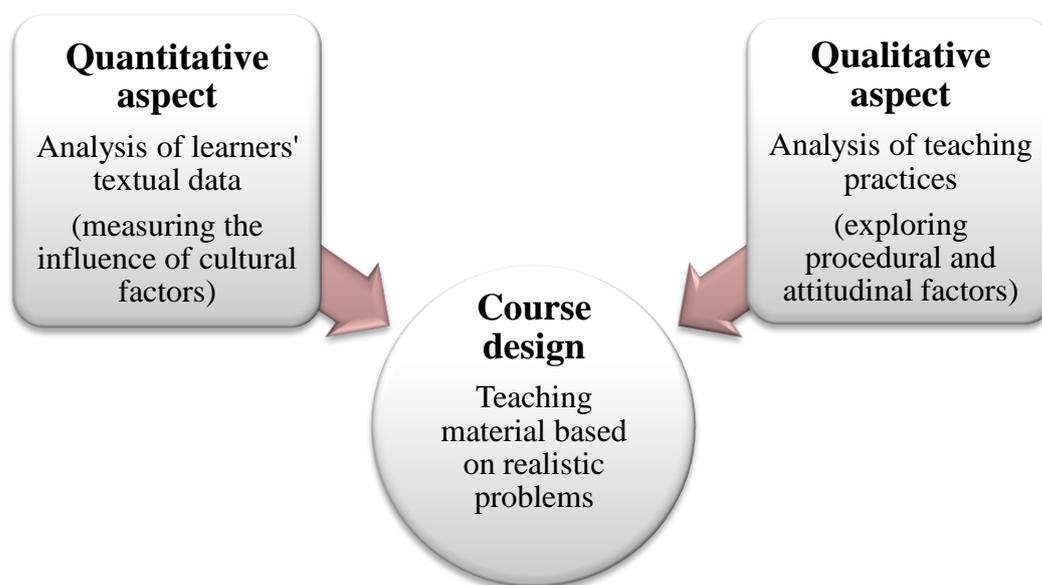


Figure 14. Triangulating research methods.

4.2 Participants

The participants involved in this study belong to two different categories. The first category consists of Algerian postgraduate students of EFL, whose writings in the specified genre constitute the textual corpus under scrutiny, while the second category includes Algerian university teachers of writing, providing data on teaching the specified

writing genre. In-depth descriptions of sampling procedures and the participants' characteristics are provided in the following sections.

4.3 Research Setting

The present study can be affiliated to single case research. It investigates the target learning and teaching variables at a departmental level and does not seek to generalize its findings. Single case research, according to Kothari (2004), is *clinical* or *diagnostic* in orientation in the sense that it seeks profundity rather than extensiveness of treatment of a social unit. "The object of the case study method is to locate the factors that account for the behaviour-patterns of the given unit as an integrated totality" (p. 113). The case under study is the Department of English at Kasdi Merbah University (in Ouargla, Algeria). Working within the same setting, the present researcher explores both the learning and the teaching contexts by referring to the students and the teaching writing staff at the same department to be able to draw parallels between students' writing tendencies and instructional practices. The department has existed for twenty-three years. Teaching English at the department has undergone a drastic shift with the introduction of the LMD (Licence-Master-Doctorat) system in the Algerian higher education. The system was adopted in the department in 2008 and necessitated curricular and instructional reforms, whose assessment can enhance the teaching of EFL in Algerian universities.

Concerning the language learning experience of the students, all of them major in English language following the LMD three-cycle system. On completion of the first cycle, the students have obtained a bachelor three-year degree and were pursuing a Master's course. English in the Algerian educational system is a foreign language, in which learners receive formal instruction after having learned Standard Arabic (the means of instruction at primary, middle and secondary school) and French (as a subject). In spite of its socio-economic status and its use in a wide range of settings outside school in the Algerian

society, French has now the status of a first foreign language. As for the teaching of writing staff, all the instructors are non-native speakers of English and are holders of Algerian university degrees.

4.4 Research Methods

To collect data for the present study, the researcher draws on two research instruments with dissimilar purposes delivered to the two distinct groups of participants. The first instrument is a writing test designed to elicit written essays from the EFL post-graduate student participants; the essays constitute the text corpus for this study. The second research tool is a survey interview addressed to EFL university teachers of writing.

4.4.1 The Writing Test

4.4.1.1 Objectives of Using a Test

Researching writing can make use of various data collection methods. Hyland (2003) and Hyland (2009) argue that the act of writing itself constitutes a major source of data for writing research, that is, the use of texts as objects of study. Commenting on the advantages of using text data, especially to understand what underlies the observable salient features of writing, Hyland (2003) writes:

Textual data allow us to see how texts work as communication and may comprise the writing that learners produce, the texts they need to produce, or simply texts that seem intrinsically interesting. Analysis of such texts can help identify the features of effective writing in different genres or among different groups of users and perhaps also the influences that contribute to these features, extending our understanding beyond the text itself to the multidimensional constraints of its context. (pp. 260-61)

Connor (1994) emphasizes the usefulness of textual analysis for the description of the norms governing larger chunks of language and the examination of their discourse features. According to her, “text analysis can help ESL researchers, teachers, and language learners identify rules and principles of written or spoken texts at a variety of levels: sentences, sentence relations, and complete texts” (p. 682).

The present study uses a writing test to elicit student texts. According to Seliger and Shohamy (1989), “In second language acquisition research, tests are generally used to collect data about the subject’s ability in and knowledge of the second language in areas such as vocabulary, grammar, reading, metalinguistic awareness, and general proficiency (p.176). An essential component of test construction is its content. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), the selection of a test type depends on the principle of *fitness for purpose*, which dictates that “The purposes, objectives and content of the test will be deliberately fitted to the *specific* needs of the researcher in a specific, given context” (p. 418). Following this principle, the open essay test, which is cited among the many forms of tests available to researchers, is opted for in this study. It is argued that “An essay . . . enables complex learning outcomes to be measured, it enables the student to integrate, apply and synthesize knowledge, to demonstrate the ability for expression and self-expression, and to demonstrate higher order and divergent cognitive processes” (ibid, p. 428). Most importantly, when investigating the salient features of discourse, larger chunks of language rather than isolated linguistic items ought to be elicited to ensure that the linguistic features under scrutiny are contextualized.

4.4.1.2 Respondents to the Test

The number of the student participants in this study is 52. The present researcher used a non-probability sampling design, which Kothari (2004) defines as “that sampling procedure which does not afford any basis for estimating the probability that each item in the population has of being included in the sample” (p. 59). The technique opted for is *convenience sampling*: “a nonrandom (nonprobability) sampling technique that involves using whatever participants can conveniently be studied” (Beins & McCarthy, 2012, p. 99). Despite the fact that this strategy lacks external validity, it has the merits of being time- and cost-effective (Saumure & Given, 2008).

Information about the participants was collected through the introductory questionnaire described below (see 4.4.1.3). The students who responded to the test were 56 out of a total number of 199 Master students registered for the academic year 2012-2013 at the English section at Kasdi Merbah University in two streams: (1) applied linguistics and English for specific purposes and (2) Anglo-Saxon literature. Four students were discarded from the sample because their first language was Kirundi and they had not learnt Arabic at any level of study. All participants, 41 female and 11 male, are Algerian first-year or second-year master students, whose first language is Arabic²⁸ and who have been learning English for more than ten years. The participants' age mean value is 24.34. All participants have first learned Standard Arabic (which was used as means of instruction) from primary to secondary school, then French as a first foreign language starting from the third or fourth year of their education and finally English as a second foreign language starting from middle school.

4.4.1.3 Description of the Test

The test employed in the present work comprises a free writing task, which involves the production of two short argumentative essays on topics specified by the researcher (see Appendix I). A short introductory questionnaire precedes the writing task. It is aimed at eliciting background information about the subjects, and it contains two sections: (A) the demographic characteristics of the participants (age, gender, level of education and speciality) and (B) their linguistic background. The participants are explicitly instructed to use the language forms and text organisation that they consider the most appropriate to their purposes. The length of the essays ranges between 200 and 400 words, which is the common length of short essays usually allotted to the students, especially in examinations.

²⁸ Algerian dialectal Arabic.

The test is non-parametric in the sense that it does not show concern for the characteristics of the wider population. It is not a published test but it is designed for a given precise context. “Non-parametric tests have the advantage of being tailored to particular institutional, departmental and individual circumstances. They offer teachers a valuable opportunity for quick, relevant and focused feedback on student performance” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, *op. cit.*, p. 415). The selection of this test form goes in line with the general orientation of the study, which treats some problematic phenomena of a particular group of EFL learners and teachers, and does not seek to generalize the findings.

The test is researcher-designed. That is, it is adapted by the researcher in such a way that it fits the research objectives. This enhances the validity of this measuring device by ensuring that it tests what it is supposed to test (Dörnyei, 2007). In the first place, motivational factors are taken into account in the selection of the essay topics. The argumentative topics are of the kind that does not demonstrate and repeat knowledge about already established, indisputable facts. Rather, they are controversial, recent issues extracted from the participants’ very immediate environment. This adds to the authenticity of the topics and urges the student-writers to take positions and to advance arguments in support of them. In the second place, the writing task is articulated in the form of open-ended questions with maximum precision so as to lead the participants to produce a text type which is centred on the defence of a standpoint, i.e. an argumentative text. Also, students are overtly instructed to project their argumentative texts in the form of an essay.

4.4.1.4 Piloting of the Test

Considering that a pilot study is a significant tool of determining the viability and convenience of the data collection methods and making the requisite corrections prior to their use with the research participants (Mackey & Gass, 2005), the writing test was administered to 5 participant students. They were allotted one week to accomplish the

writing tasks. Then, the students were asked to report any inconveniency as regards the test's content, form, topics as well as the assigned time. This small-scale trial could inform the present researcher and could aid in making the following revisions:

- The issues addressed in the writing tasks were altered to avoid bias and highly emotive responses.
- The writing instructions were reformulated in such a way that they do not encourage the students to hold predetermined opinions. Further, the target readers were not specified, similar to the academic essays usually found in the ordinary assignments.
- The length of essays was extended to the standard length of 400 words, instead of 300 words, which permits them to make the paragraph divisions they see most appropriate to their essays.
- The time allotted to write the essays was extended to 2 weeks.

4.4.1.5 Administration of the Test

The test was administered two weeks before the winter leave. The participants were notified that they would receive the test one week beforehand. The researcher met the four classes separately and explained to the participants what they were required to do. The students received individual copies of the test. The personnel who were requested to collect the copies are the delegate students of each class. A two-week deadline was set to retrieve the copies. Only a number of the students responded to the test and returned the copies (see 4.4.1.2).

4.4.1.6 Data Analysis Procedure

Each of the 52 participant students has written two essays, yielding a corpus of 104 essays. The text corpus is analyzed according to a three-stage procedure.

Stage one:

In the preliminary stage, the collected essays are given codes consisting of two numbers to make their recognition possible, where the first number refers to the participant (from 1 to 52) and the second number designates either the first essay or the second one for each participant (1 or 2). For example, the code (34-1) stands for the first essay of the 34th participant, and the code (34-2) refers to his/her second essay (see Appendix VI). Subsequently, the essays are subjected to standardized discourse segmentation that uses quantitative indices. These are the Discourse Bloc (DB), Discourse Unit (DU) and the Terminal Unit (T-unit). According to Pitkin (1969), a DB refers to an extended unit of discourse larger than a sentence. In her words:

Connected discourse is a hierarchy of discourse blocs. Discourse blocs, whatever their form, are function units. At any given level of the hierarchy there will be only two blocs, unless the level represents a coordinate series, which, theoretically at least, can have any plural number of members. And at any given level, the blocs will be related according to one of the four possible broad relations - two vertical (superordination and subordination) and two horizontal (coordination and complementation). (p.142)

Connor (1996) states that the DB is the central idea and the DUs are the supporting ideas. Ostler (1987) clarifies that in the DB constituent, ideas are connected to one another syntactically and semantically thus allowing paragraphs or even whole essays to be subsumed under this rubric. She adds that a DB unit is liable to segmentation into DUs, or supporting ideas, which are linked to the discourse bloc syntactically and semantically and which may or may not be counterparts of sentences. In this study, all essays develop complete themes. Thus they are considered discourse blocs. As for the T-unit, Hunt (1965) defines this segment as “a single clause (or independent clause) plus whatever subordinate clauses or non-clauses are attached to, or embedded within that one main clause” (p.93). Ostler (op. cit.) argues that segmentation into T-Units is a technique chiefly designed to cope with writing which is fragmentary or lacking proper punctuation, a feature of L2

writers On the whole, the sentential and extra-sentential decomposition of essays allows the present researcher to give a systematic account of the corpora both at the lexicogrammatical and the ideational levels.

Stage two:

This stage involves a quantitative identification of all the rhetorical patterns and communication styles used in the corpora. For the purposes of this study, only the dimensions outlined in Table 6 are explored. The purpose of this step is to provide a general account of the actual rhetorical and communicative preferences of the student writers.

Table 6

Dimensions of Analysis

Rhetorical Patterns	Communication Styles
1. Excessive coordination	1. Indirectness
2. Through-argumentation	
3. Non-deductive text organization	

Stage three:

The most prevalent patterns and styles are signaled in proportion to the total measurements to determine the degree of cultural transfer at the rhetorical and the communicative levels in the students’ English argumentative essays. In operational terms, the analytical tools explained below are used in the present study to explore the discourse dimensions listed above.

(1) Excessive coordination

Using a slightly modified version of Ostler’s (op. cit.) model, the structure of the T-units in each essay is examined. At the T-unit level, the number of all clauses is computed. At the clause level, the numbers of main clauses, dependent clauses and coordinated

clauses are counted. Table 7 summarises the operational markers by which all clausal units are identified.

Table 7

Indicators of Coordination and Subordination

All clauses	Main clauses	Coordinate clauses	Dependent clauses
Word groups with subject-verb combination	Clauses not preceded by coordinating conjunction <i>and</i> , <i>but</i> , <i>or</i> .	Clauses preceded by coordinating conjunction <i>and</i> , <i>but</i> , <i>or</i> .	Adverb clauses, adjective clauses, noun clauses

Note. Adapted from *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*, by R. Quirk, S. Greenbaum, G. Leech and J. Svartvik, 1985, New York: Longman.

(2) Through-argumentation

To identify the argumentative patterns that the participants opt for, the model developed by Hatim (1997) was followed. Operationally, a distinction is made between two patterns: “through-argumentation” and “counter-argumentation”. In the latter, two further subtypes are identified: the “balance format” and the “explicit concessive format” according to Hatim and Mason (1990). Table 8 summarises the indicators of each pattern.

Table 8

Indicators of Argumentative Patterns

	Through-argumentation	Counter-argumentation	
		Balance format	Explicit Concessive format
1	(tone-setter)	1 (tone-setter)	1 (tone-setter)
2	↓Thesis to be argued through	2 Thesis cited to be opposed	2 Thesis cited to be opposed
3	↓Substantiation	3 ↓Opposition	3 ↓Opposition
		4 ↓Substantiation	4 ↓Substantiation
4	↓Conclusion	(Explicit or implicit contrastive shift between claim and counter-claim/ explicit markers <i>but, however...</i>)	(Explicit concessive connection/ Explicit markers <i>although, while, despite...</i>)
		5 ↓Conclusion	5 ↓Conclusion

(3) Non-deductive text organization

Following Hinds (1990), text organisation is measured according to (1) the placement and (2) explicitness of the essay's thesis statement. According to these criteria, essays can be deductive, inductive or quasi-inductive. In the argumentative essay genre, the thesis statement presents the writer's standpoint, and it is the central move around which the whole essay is focused (Hyland, 1990). Operationally, the thesis statement of the analysed essays is the one in which the participant writers express their opinions as regards the topics given to them (see Appendix I). To locate exactly the placement of the thesis statement in the essays, the technique developed by Tirkkonen-Condit and Leiflander-Koistinen (1989) was followed. First, when the thesis statement appears in the first one-third of an essay, it is said to be at the beginning and the organisation is deductive. Second, if it appears in the second one-third, it is taken to be in the middle and if it appears in the final one-third, it is said to be at the end of the essay. In either case, the organisation is said

to be inductive. Thirdly, if there is not an overtly expressed statement that summarises the writer's standpoint in the essay, the thesis is seen as being implicit and the organisation is quasi-inductive. The content of the T-unit and the DU divisions of each text is analysed and the essays are classified accordingly.

(4) Indirectness

For the purposes of this study, six indirectness strategies extracted from Hinkel's (1997) model are under focus in the students' argumentative essays. Table 9 summarises the indirectness devices and explains their exponents at the T-unit level.

Table 9

Indirectness Devices

Indirectness device		Markers
Rhetorical strategies	1. Rhetorical questions and tags	- Interrogative forms
	2. Disclaimers/ denials	- <i>do(es)/ be-</i> forms <i>not mean (meant) to/ imply/ intend/say</i> - <i>xxx is not yyy</i> - <i>not (+ adjective(s))</i> - <i>not (+ verb (s))</i> - <i>not (+ noun(s))</i> - <i>not (+ adverb (s))</i> - <i>not even</i> - <i>no way</i> (and contractions) distinguished from negatives and negation
Lexical and referential markers	1. Demonstratives	- <i>that, this, these, those</i>
	2. Indefinite pronouns	- Universal and negative: <i>all, both, everybody, everyone, everything, neither, nobody, none, no one, nothing, every, each</i> - Assertive and non-assertive: <i>anybody, anyone, anything, any, either, somebody, something, some</i>
Syntactic markers and structures	1. Passive voice	- passive voice (+ <i>by</i> -phrase)
	2. Conditionals	- <i>if</i> + conditional tense, <i>unless</i> + conditional tense

To obtain frequency counts of the specified indirectness features in the corpus, the Simple Concordance Program 4.0.9 (SCP) is used. The SCP computes the number of words in each text, provides counts of the tokens of each item and produces concordance lists of the sentences in which the item occurs. This makes the examination of every occurrence of indirectness devices in context possible. The study of contexts in concordance lists permits the analyst to exclude the instances which are non-relevant. For example, to make a frequency count of the occurrence of the demonstrative pronoun “these” in text (38-2), the concordance for this item yields the following counts:

<i>Line</i>	<i>Key word in context (KWIC)</i>
1	. . . <i>their study also each one of these modules has a specific goals. . .</i>
5	. . . <i>In the end we can see that these subjects are very important to. . .</i>

4.4.2 Teachers’ Interview

4.4.2.1 Objectives of Using an Interview

The interview is the second instrument employed to collect data for the present study. In general terms, an interview is a tool based on questioning. “[It] involves the presentation of oral-verbal stimuli and reply in terms of oral-verbal responses” (Khothari, 2004, p.97). Interviews are further distinguished by interaction as well as joint construction of knowledge. Brinkmann (2008) expatiates on the interdependence between these two features. According to him, in the context of research, interviews are seen as a conversational practice aimed at generating knowledge by means of the interaction that takes place between the parties involved. He (ibid) distinguishes this data gathering instrument from everyday conversations by stressing that the research interview is performed to attain the researcher’s goals, which are secondary to the conversation itself, for instance, to acquire knowledge about a certain topic or some sphere of human experience. In the same line, Kvale (1996) designates interviews as “inter-changes of

views”, and he stresses their role in knowledge production. He emphasises that they have structure and purpose and that they possess further traits:

It [the interview] goes beyond spontaneous exchange of views as in everyday conversation, and becomes a careful questioning and listening approach with the purpose of obtaining thoroughly tested knowledge. The research interview is not a conversation between equal partners, because the researcher defines and controls the situation. The topic of the interview is introduced by the researcher, who also critically follows up on the subject’s answers to his or her questions (p.6)

Being one of the chief paths of qualitative data collection in survey research (Ruane, 2005), the interview bears the fundamental characteristics of the survey method as outlined by Dörnyei and Csizér (2012). According to them, surveys have the merits of informing SLA researchers about the following:

- language learners’ intended language behavior, that is, how students plan to respond to certain language learning situations ;
- people’s opinions and attitudes concerning specific L2s and the language learning process in general;
- participants’ feelings;
- learners’ knowledge of certain issues in SLA;
- various background information and biodata from the students.

Added to these general features, Mackey and Gass (2005) explain that the interview instrument possesses advantages that set it apart from other methods. In the first place, it permits researchers to examine unobservable phenomena, such as perceptions and attitudes. Furthermore, interviews, being interactive in nature, not only can generate supplementary data if initial information is not sufficient, but also can make respondents more comfortable to provide complete answers using the conversational mode. Finally, interviews make a room for the use of the respondent’s first language, and this would

reduce the effect that lack of proficiency can have on the quantity and quality of the data gathered. Also, unlike questionnaires, which are more appropriate for quantitative, statistical analysis, and which are principally designed to verify predetermined hypotheses (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010), interviews are thought to be powerful qualitative means characterised by profundity and intricacy in the treatment of the observed phenomena:

The interview is a flexible tool for data collection, enabling multi-sensory channels to be used: verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard. The order of the interview may be controlled while still giving space for spontaneity, and the interviewer can press not only for complete answers but also for responses about complex and deep issues. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 349)

A further trait of interviews is that they function as a window on the contexts that underlie and shape behaviours. That is, they enable researchers to have access to the situational factors of observed practices and to understand their individual experiences (Seidman, 2006). In the context of researching writing, Hyland (2009) writes:

Interviews generally represent a very different way of understanding human experience, regarding knowledge as generated between people rather than as objectified and external to them. Participants are able to discuss their interpretations and perspectives, sharing what writing means to them rather than responding to preconceived categories. This flexibility and responsiveness means that interviews are used widely in writing research to learn more about writing practices, such as what people do in approaching a writing task, about teaching and learning writing, and about text choices, to discover how text users see and respond to particular features of writing. Interviews are particularly valuable as they can reveal issues that might be difficult to predict. (pp. 146-147)

In view of its exploratory nature and its level of in-depth information-gathering, free response and flexibility (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989), an interview is employed in this study to investigate the instructional practices followed by the Algerian university teachers of writing as regards argumentative essay writing. Using this tool, the present researcher seeks to fathom the way they perceive the observed problems in writing this genre by EFL learners, and the way they proceed to solve them. The interview tool permits the researcher

to explore the contexts underlying pedagogical attitudes. Although interviews may be the primary tool through which research issues are resolved, interviews may serve as auxiliary checking apparatus to triangulate data gathered from other sources (McDonough & McDonough, 1997). Taking this into account and for the purposes of the present study, the present researcher makes use of the interview instrument, with the support of the student test instrument as a preliminary method.

4.4.2.2 Respondents to the Interview

The number of teacher participants in this study is 4 out of a total of 10. All are members of the English Department at Kasdi Merbah University who have taught writing at university level for some time as full-time or part-time teachers. The sampling strategy selected is *purposive sampling*. Although it is said to be intentionally selective, biased and yielding non-generalisable results, this strategy is the only possible one since it allows researchers to handpick the instances to be subsumed in the sample on account of their decision that they are typical and that they possess the particular characteristics required (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, op. cit.). Three of the teachers were not selected because they have never taught essay writing: their experience was limited to teaching first-year students the techniques of sentence and paragraph writing. Two other teachers were not selected on account of their unavailability: they taught essay writing as part-time teachers for some past time at the department before their departure to other institutions.

4.4.2.3 Description of the Interview

Interviews are of various sorts. Depending on the degree to which their content is controlled, they can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured (Dornyei, 2007; Nunan, 1992). Walliman (2011) explains that the first, like written questionnaires, contain standardized questions strictly itemized in advance and occurring in the same order; answers are of a closed format. Added to that is their largely quantitative data analysis

procedure. Usually a structured interview has a pre-prepared, detailed *interview schedule* (Dornyei, op. cit.). The semi-structured interviews, on the other hand, do have a prearranged general *guide* of topics and issues to be covered but with more internal flexibility in terms of questions' choice and order. In this type, researchers allocate themselves the chance to search ahead of the procedure laid in the guide (Lodico, Spaulding & Voegtle, 2006), but the interview still has a clear direction. Dörnyei (op. cit.) elaborates on the two-sided nature of this category of interviews. For him, "The interviewer provides guidance and direction (hence the 'structured' part in the name), but is also keen to follow up interesting developments and to let the interviewee elaborate on certain issues (hence the 'semi-' part)" (p.136). At the end of the scale, he explains, is the unstructured interview, with no predictable direction and a maximum flexibility. In this type, almost no guide is prepared, seeking deeper understanding of the explored experience.

It is possible to combine interview categories in the same research event (McDonough & McDonough, op. cit.). In this study, a blend of structured and semi-structured interviews is used in a single session for each respondent. It is maintained that structured interviewing is suitable when the researcher is concerned with quantifying information about the research population (Ruane, 2005) or when he/ she looks for uniform and specific information (Seliger & Shohamy, op. cit.). In view of that, the first set of questions dealing with background information is strictly structured. The rest of the interview is semi-structured seeking depth of treatment and breadth of respondent's account within specified areas. This choice is also meant to reduce *procedural reactivity*.²⁹ The present researcher did not opt for unstructured interviews as they pose problems of internal comparability of results due to their flexibility (Khothari, 2004).

²⁹ 'Procedural reactivity means that the very artificiality of highly structured methods leads to the respondents withdrawing from the situations in which they normally act' (Wilson & Sapsford, 2006, p. 112).

To provide a general framework for the interview, an interview guide (or protocol) involving the set of issues to be investigated and the key content questions has been developed (see Appendix II). It is held that “the protocol helps to ensure a certain degree of standardization during the data collection process” (Lodico et al., 2006, p. 124). The guide contains an introductory script for explaining the purpose of the study to the interviewees. The question types are mostly open-ended, allowing the researcher to occasionally add detail-oriented and clarification probes to make the most of the use of this qualitative research instrument. To obtain a comprehensive picture of the teaching practices concerning argumentative essay writing in the Algerian university context, the questions to be asked were thematically grouped into six sections:

- The questions in **Section One** (Q1 - Q2), which constitute the structured part of the interview, are aimed at eliciting information on the participants’ general teaching profile as well as their experience in teaching EFL writing at university context.
- The questions in **Section Two** (Q3 - Q4) are about the context of teaching writing and the teacher’s assessment of it. The components of the context which seem to be focal are the form of classes, the number of students, the time allowance, the facilities and materials offered at university to assist writing classes and the official syllabi of writing available at the department. It is thought that any description of teaching practices ought not to exclude the contiguous conditions, which might influence some pedagogical preferences.
- The questions in **Section Three** (Q5 to Q14) concern the way the interviewees accomplish the teaching of essays in general. This includes the academic level at which this is usually done, the time devoted to deal with the essay genre during the academic year, the guidance offered in the official syllabus, the teachers’ attitudes vis-à-vis syllabus specifications, the resources drawn on to enhance essay teaching

and most importantly the procedures opted for by the instructors to accomplish the task of teaching essay writing and the underlying beliefs and factors influencing their choices.

- The questions in **Section Four** (Q15 to Q20) are about teaching the argumentative essay genre. The data sought concern the specifications offered in the official syllabus on argumentative essays, the features that teachers underline when dealing with them and the moves they instruct the learners to build in the different sections of the essay.
- The questions in **Section Five** (Q21) are aimed at understanding the teachers' perception and treatment of observed rhetorical and communication problems. In this section a point-by-point presentation of the frequent rhetorical and communicative tendencies reported in learners' data is used as a basis to probe into the teachers' explanations and attitudes.
- The questions in **Section Six** (Q22 to Q24) are concluding questions which deal with potential factors to non-nativelike argumentative essay writing, the solutions that teachers suggest to ameliorate the teaching of this academic genre and any supplementary ideas that might be relevant to the issues under focus.

4.4.2.4 Piloting the Interview

To ascertain that the questions would yield the kind of data required and to remove potentially ambiguous and mystifying questions, the interview was piloted with one respondent. This step revealed that certain terms employed by the researcher were indefinite and sometimes led the participants towards predetermined replies. Further, some divisions were effected in some questions which were relatively loaded. Piloting also helped in eliminating irrelevant questions and readjusting the timing of the interview sessions. Technically, piloting helped in assessing and improving the quality of recording.

4.4.2.5 Administration of the Interview

After establishing the interview objectives, translating them into a workable protocol and piloting, the interviews were personally conducted by the researcher in two sessions with each participant, using a slightly modified version of Polkinghorne's (2005) three-session procedure. The first sessions were meant to establish relationship with the participants. More importantly, in these introductory sessions a brief explanation was provided on the areas to be examined. This was thought to allow the respondents to review the necessary materials and to think profoundly about the various issues to be discussed. The second sessions, which are the main sessions, were conducted in two stages, following Nunan's (1992) procedure:

(i) Briefing and Explanation

In this stage each respondent was briefed and given further clarifications on the nature of the research and the rationale of the interview. All interviewee questions were answered regarding the way the data were to be handled, the method of recording and the way the findings would be used in the study. For ethical considerations, the respondents' consent was sought as regards reporting the findings anonymously. At this stage, the researcher has attempted to set the tone and to establish maximum rapport with the interviewees. Important in this stage was the effort made by the interviewer to highlight the relevance of the subject and its usefulness, for most of the interviewees showed interest in fathoming the goals of the study and in knowing its potential outcomes.

(ii) Questioning

A range of question types and strategies were used to enhance the respondents to provide profound recounts of experiences and opinions with minimum bias on the part of the researcher. The interviews were tape-recorded to preserve the integrity of the data

(Lodico et al., op. cit.), and the recordings were supplemented with written notes to enhance transcription and interpretation (Nunan, op. cit.).

Both phases took place in the two weeks preceding the final examinations, with extension to the examinations' period with two participants. The first sessions of the interviews were conducted either face-to-face or on the phone and lasted from 15 to 20 minutes. This phase was efficiently done but without recording as no answers were expected on the participants' part. The researcher did not have any impediments to reach the goal of obtaining the respondents' consent to participate and providing global description of the following phase. The second sessions were conducted in the department. The locations used are either a classroom or the staff room to perform the recordings with more efficiency. The details of each case are provided below:

- With participant 1, the session, which took place in a classroom, lasted one hour. No complications were recorded.
- With participant 2, the session took place in the staff room, noise and interruptions unexpectedly affected the continuity of questioning. Due to time limits, the interview session was divided into two parts. Each lasted about 40 minutes, with an interval of one week. Nevertheless, the interviewer could elicit the maximum data from the respondent as scheduled in the interview guide.
- With participant 3 and participant 4, the sessions took place in a classroom. No complications were recorded. The sessions lasted about one hour and a half and were interrupted for few minutes.

4.4.2.6 Data Analysis Procedure

Stage One: Transcription

The interviews were transcribed in full using Standard English orthography.

Stage Two: Analysis of Content

The answers elicited from the respondents through the interview were subjected to coding (analysis that looks for existing patterns and categories). As the researcher is interested in the content, a content analysis was conducted using *grounded theory*, in which conclusions are drawn from actual data. The process involves a three-stage coding, as described by Friedman (2012):

- (i). **initial coding** (or open coding), in which the researcher goes through a subset of the data line by line and assigns labels or codes that designate actions, events, or topics;
- (ii). **axial coding**, which involves finding patterns in the data by comparing coding categories within and across cases (e.g., different accounts of the same incident by different participants, different points in time for a single participant), relating larger categories to subcategories, and establishing connections between categories;
- (iii). **selective coding** (or focused coding), in which selected codes from the initial coding (e.g., the most frequent) are applied to the rest of the dataset and are further developed or refined (p. 191).

Following this procedure, the transcripts of two interviews were first thoroughly explored line by line in the initial stage of open coding. Using the Microsoft Word utilities of copying, pasting and highlighting, the data were fractured into thematic chunks (phrases, sentences or even paragraphs), and appropriate tentative theoretical labels were attached to each of them regardless of their relationships. The researcher adopted a combination of deductive and inductive approaches in labeling process. The former was used when assigning labels derived from the probing questions themselves, while the latter was applied to the emerging themes within each pre-established category. No bit of data was excluded at this stage. Constant comparisons were undertaken within and between the two interviews to establish similarities and differences. Next, when conducting axial

coding, the researcher attempted to establish the existing connections between the large numbers of codes resulting from the first analytical stage. By sorting the existing codes, this procedure led to establishing “main categories”. In other words, the data are reassembled into a coherent thematic whole. Ultimately, in selective coding, the core categories or conceptual units that have been identified are applied to the rest of the interviews data. That is, after deciphering the core themes, the researcher, examined the rest of transcripts and selectively coded any data that relates to the core themes that have been identified earlier. The objective of this *post hoc* process is to reduce the replies into a set of manageable theoretical concepts. The grounded theory method of analysis is useful in so far as it leads to stockpile theoretical knowledge about phenomena that have not been investigated before (Dörnyei, 2007). It took the present researcher two months to finish the whole operation of coding.

Conclusion

This chapter discussed the methodological framework in which the study is situated. The first part was devoted to elaborate on the descriptive, mixed-methods approach opted for by the researcher. Further, it explained the rationale behind selecting both quantitative and qualitative methods and juxtaposing them in view of the stated research objectives. Next, exhaustive information were supplied about the setting in which the study was conducted, the participants, the test and interview instruments and the data analysis procedure. To provide answers for the stated research questions, Chapter Five and Chapter Six provide respectively a critical examination of the textual data yielded by the students’ test and of the interview responses accumulated through the teachers’ interview. The findings form the groundwork for the recommendations proposed in Chapter Seven.

CHAPTER FIVE

The Rhetorical and Communicative Impacts of Native Culture on the Argumentative Writing of EFL Learners: Analysis of Textual Data

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Introduction

Chapter Four identified the methodology and design that were chosen to examine the research propositions. The aim of this chapter is to report partly on the findings of the data collection stage. That is, it is meant to offer a quantitative treatment of the data collected through the test research instrument designed for this study. Ultimately interpretations are developed and conclusions are drawn as regards answering the first three research questions that direct the present work: (1) Do the argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features which can be attributed to the effect of transfer of Arabic rhetorical patterns? (2) Do the argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features which can be attributed to the effect of transfer of Arab communication styles? (3) Does transfer of native rhetorical patterns and communication styles constitute the major factor leading to problems in argumentative essay writing? A students' writing test was specially designed to explore these questions. The generated textual corpus consists of 104 argumentative essays. Considering the massive literature in contrastive rhetoric and intercultural communication on the role of native culture influences on the structure and organisation of ESL and EFL learners' discourse and on the detected cultural disparities between English and Arabic argumentative writing, the textual data is subjected to a comprehensive examination to corroborate or refute such theoretical assumptions. The analysis proceeds by examining first the recurring rhetorical patterns then the exponents of the indirect communication style.

5.1 Rhetorical Patterns

The first hypothesis in this study states that the argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features that can be attributed to effect of transfer of Arabic rhetorical patterns. The rhetorical patterns under focus in this piece of

research are (1) excessive coordination, (2) through-argumentation and (3) non-deductive text organization. The third hypothesis states that transfer of native rhetorical patterns (and communication styles) constitutes the major factor leading to problems in argumentative essay writing. In the following sections, the findings are described and interpreted.

5.1.1 Excessive Coordination

To examine whether the student participants use excessive coordination as a common rhetorical pattern in their English argumentative essays, the essays were initially subjected to T-unit segmentation (see Section 4.4.1.6). Next, in each essay, at the T-unit level, the number of all clauses was computed. At the clause level, the main clauses, dependent clauses and coordinated clauses were identified using the operational markers specified in Table 7, and they were counted. A sample of this segmentation process is provided in Appendix III. Then, for each single essay, the proportion of coordinate T-units (CTU) to the total number of T-units was found. Then the mean of the sum of proportions was computed. As Table 10 shows, considering the structure of T-units, the total number of T-units in the corpus was found to be 1526. Most importantly, the mean of coordinate T-unit proportions per essay was found to be 12.96 %.

This quantitative analysis of the content of T-units appearing in the corpus in terms of clausal constituents yielded the results shown in Table 10 (see Appendix IV). In a similar study, Ostler (1987) found that in the corpus of her comparative study that 28 % of the T-units of Arabic-speaking writers were coordinate clauses, while only 11 % of the English T-units were. The results indicate that the tokens of clausal coordination are fewer compared with those of subordination in the present work. That is, excessive coordination is not a general tendency of EFL writers.

Table 10*Clausal Classification of T-units*

	T-units	All clauses	Main clauses	Subordinate Clauses	Coordinate clauses (CTU)	Mean of CTUs
Total	1526	2509	1358	958	203	12.96 %

Note. CTU = coordinate T-unit

The following are excerpts of the instances of excessive coordination. The vertical lines set the boundaries of T-units. The extracts show the influence of the participants' first language patterns but in low frequency:

(a) *My personal point of view in this matter is that woman cannot hold this positions / **but** I think our religion shows many examples of great woman who worked side by side with men/ **and** they were in the shaddows/ **and** time and history really gave them their awards/ **and** humanity witnessed of their greatness. (2-1)*

(b) *In addition, women should not underrate themselves and should believe in themselves even if others do not,/ **and** since women have achieved great contributions for peace and democracy building **and** since this does not come with easy but with great fightings. The awareness among men have been raised/ **and** they come to a conclusion that women have the same rights as men in everything/ **and** they should not be marginalized since their right in elections should be provided by supports and encouragements to contribute for a better future. (17-1)*

Exploring all the non-conventional patterns that the student participants were found to employ when attempting to balance the use of coordination and subordination in their argumentative essays, it was found in the corpus that additional rhetorical tendencies in using coordination and subordination are common, apart from the participants' L1 features. Table 11 summarises these patterns.

Table 11***Problems in Using Subordination and Coordination***

Rhetorical pattern	N° of T- units	%
(i) Problems in using subordination	101	6.61%
a. Excessive subordination	51	3.34 %
b. Lack of subordination	21	1.37 %
c. Wrong choice of subordinator	18	1.17 %
d. Problems in subordinate clause structure	11	0.72 %
(ii) Problems in using coordination	20	1.31 %
a. Lack of parallel structure in coordinated elements	16	1.04 %
b. Coordinating conjunction missing, doubled or misused	4	0.26 %
(iii) Problems in T-unit load	19	1.24 %
Total	140	9.16 %

(i). Problems in using subordination

This category constitute (6.61%) of the totality of T-units in the corpus. In this set, (3.34 %) are T-units with a remarkably excessive subordination, which competes for the reader's focus. The architecture of such T-units shows that while the student writers manage to construct grammatical complex sentences, they do not observe the constraints of subordination. The T-units in extracts (a) and (b) illustrate this tendency:

(a) | *therefore, English as a second or third language should be connected with other subjects. Like linguistics in **which** students can find not only technical words, but also developments and approaches of language **that** can thrust learners to follow one of these approaches **that** could be taken as a source to learn and extract more information about language.* (37-2)

(b) | *Of course, linguistics is a basic one in language since it provides theories about learning and guides for both teachers and learners about strategies **which** facilitate those processes. Taking into account **that** learning language requires building the four competencies of language **which** are grammatical, sociolinguistic discourse and strategic*

*competence. In order to complete the framework of communication **which** means to some extent mastering language.* ¶ (46-2)

In addition, (1.37 %) of the T-units display the writer's failure to use either a subordinating conjunction or a relative pronoun where it is grammatically obligatory, and in (0.72 %) of T-units, the writers encounter problems in structuring the subordinate clause. Finally, (1.17 %) of T-units are instances of wrong choice of subordinator. The following extracts show these cases respectively:

- (a) - *Another field [**that**] should be taken into consideration is linguistics (5-2)*
 - *As we see, there are three fields [**which**] are useful for the student of English (6-2)*
 - *On the other hand, there are students [**who**] neglect these subjects for many reasons (10-2)*
- (b) - *For this reason **women in Algeria when they participate in election they got the smaller persantage (14-1)***
 - *As a matter of fact, **English, when it is put in its context, it will be well studied.** ¶ (27-2)*
- (c) - *Woman is trying to find her place between society's individuals, **as long as**, many human rights organizations and humanity are singing of woman's eaten rights and conventions. (15-1)*
 - ***Although**, linguistics can not be of value to USP learners, since their objectives beyond learning the language is meant for specific purposes, notably computer science, Economic and language of law. (47-2)*

(ii). Problems in using coordination

This category constitute (1.31 %) of the T-units. First, the writers have problems with reiterating the grammatical patterns to achieve parallelism between coordinated elements in (1.04 %) of T-units in this category:

- (a) *And this end opened a large debate between **those who are with and who are against giving her such responsibility.** ¶ (23-1)*
- (b) *Also, civilisation is another important element by which the university student of English can know about **their culture, religion, traditions and how the different tribes of this nation developped from the old days to these ones.** (28-2)*

(c) *hence she should properly use her wisdom to accurately judge and choosing the prominent candidate.* ¶ (47-1)

Also, they do not use, double or misuse coordinating conjunctions in (0.26 %) of T-units in the same category:

(a) *Algerian women worked together with men in the war against the French colonization. They took the burden of being both head of family and soldier to defend home. They were recruited just as men, planted bombs, and carried confidential papers to desired spots. They were tortured and humiliated to spare information on the secrets of the revolting squads. Their role was more important after the Algerian independence. Women were given the chance to work and take positions of responsibility. They worked side by side with men in fields which were men-restricted. Their efforts were appreciated during and after the French colonisation.* (3-1) (no conjunction)

(b) **but yet** no man will understand us.¶ (44-1) (doubled coordinating conjunction)

(c) **Even though** they agree that the women are equal to men, but they cannot hold positions in the society (45-1) (wrong use of coordinating conjunction)

(iii) Problems in T-unit load

This category constitute (1.24 %) of T-units. The T-units are so packed with coordinated phrases, infinitives and prepositional word group elements that the sentence is highly complex and difficult to comprehend. Following are illustrations of this stylistic tendency:

(a) | *It tackles all issues that are related to teaching English in termes of different approaches, and methods that attempt to study the development of English language scientificaly, then, provide the learner with techniques in teaching and learning method, moreover a good background about the language to be aqainted with it,* (39-2)

(b)| *Finally about civilisation level there is a strong important to read it to understand those native speakers cultures and be aware about their habits to know the real way to response and deal with them correctly without any misunderstanding or conflicts.* ¶ (16-2)

5.1.2 Through-Argumentation

The examination of argumentative patterns in the corpus considers whether the participants opt for “counter-argumentation” or “through argumentation” to attain the goal of convincing the reader of the acceptability of their standpoints, in other words, whether the writers support or denounce a given stance by making/ or not making a direct concession to the belief entertained by a potential adversary. Counter-argumentation, a typical argumentative approach in English, gives the impression that the claims of the other side are being impartially represented and that argumentation is unbiased. Table 12 displays the ratios for each kind of arrangement. The results show that out of the total of 104 essays, 50% follow the through-argumentation pattern, 47.11%, the counter-argumentation pattern and 2.88% do not track any form of argumentation.

Table 12
Argumentation Patterns

Pattern	Number of essays	Percentage
Counter-argumentation	49	47.11 %
Through-argumentation	52	50 %
Other	3	2.88 %
Total	104	100 %

More importantly, the analysis of the essays developed by counter-argumentation yields ample evidence of complications encountered by the student writers to construct counter-argumentative essays. The observed inconsistencies undermine the text’s layout. Table 13 summarises the main deviations from the Western model’s conventions for writing the counter-argumentative essay.

Table 13***Problems in Writing Counter-argumentative Essays***

Problem	N°	%
1. Confusing argumentation and other text types	05	10.2 %
2. Non-systematic placement of arguments and counter-arguments in the essay :	27	55.1 %
a. Counter-arguments and refutation in the conclusion	5	
b. Arguments in the conclusion	7	
c. Counter-arguments and refutation in the introduction	2	
d. Detailed arguments in the introduction	2	
e. Limited counter-arguments	11	
3. Advancing of counter-arguments without refutation: Complete separation between counter-arguments and arguments (no logical connection)	16	32.65 %
4. Presentation of gambit in the form of a rhetorical question	12	24.48 %
5. Paragraph division (random distribution of details or lack of division in the body section)	13	26.53 %
6. Superordinate informing move in the introduction	10	20.4 %
7. Other	07	14.28 %
Two introductions	01	
Very long introduction	01	
Failure to establish stance	01	
Unfocused or biased gambit	02	
Offering resolutions in the body of the essay	01	
No conclusion	01	

Such nonstandard patterns are explicated and illustrated below:

(i). Out of 49 counter-argumentative essays, 10.2 % display confusion of argumentation and other text types. In some texts, lengthy narratives appear in the development to establish the ground for advancing arguments. This form of story-telling is not included as evidence, a practice that is acknowledged in Western usage. Rather, it distorts the whole

essay and causes the reader to lose track of the argumentative line. Extract (a) illustrates this practice:

(a) . . . *The present paper discusses in brief why women should not be encouraged to take such positions in the Algerian society.* ¶

Algerian women worked together with men in the war against the French colonization. They took the burden of being both head of family and soldier to defend home. They were recruited just as men, planted bombs, and carried confidential papers to desired spots. They were tortured and humiliated to spare information on the secrets of the revolting squads. Their role was more important after the Algerian independence. Women were given the chance to work and take positions of responsibility. They worked side by side with men in fields which were men-restricted. Their efforts were appreciated during and after the French colonisation. But later they were treated differently. [narrative moves]¶ . . . (3-1)

In extract (b), the use of prolonged exposition produces the same effect:

(b). . . *so did women allowed to contribute in elections compaign as far as our religion is concerned ? why women like to enroll themselves in such elections?* ¶

The issue of women in Islam is highly controversial nowadays, while it is generally agreed that the rights granted to women in the holy Quran and by the prophet Muhamed see a vast improvement in comparison to the women before the advent of Islam, women are supposed to take care of her kids and own the house of her husband but now the position of women began to decline . Yet just as the women's movement in the western society of the twentieth century, that gives equality of women, the same thing occured in the muslims world in this time, in other words we can say that western's women models are shifted into muslims one, by getting rid of their veils, working with men and also contributing in election they appear mainly to be real man. Now the concept of Islam has been vanished people think just about, home, work and getting high salary within this demands Algerian women appear to ask for being free and having the same salary amount and works that men have, she asks also position in parliment and sometimes even being president. [expository moves]. In my opinion it would have been better if women stay home and give such position to male, because they are lawmaker and weak in this positions, whereas if she gets working out side her home, specially in election, it is better to be a supporter no more than a dominator by following the principle of her religion. ¶ . . . (47-1)

In extract (c), although the writer attempts to advance arguments and counter-arguments to demonstrate two opposing views, the way pros and cons are presented makes the discussion a form of exposition in which causes are clarified.

(c) Women nowadays became an important members in the society and they have a higher positions in it. There are many causes that led them to take this positions.¶

Some women have encouraged to get such position like election. They encouraged by their families which give them supports and even purpose which may give to them. Also, the society has a big influence on the position of the women in the society because they look for power and authority which they always search for them simply, they defend their presentation in many fields to convey their existence in the society or in the family itself.¶

On the other hand, some of them do not take the courage from anyone because of the tradition and our religion. First, our traditions do not give the women the right of election and this does not exist in some countries even in Algeria however in certain causes they participate. For the second on which is our religion is our prophet (PUTH) curses any society judged by a woman so that she does not have the rights of election and may be some other right which she assumes to have the right in them.¶

(50-1)

(ii). Non-systematic placement of arguments and counter-arguments appears in 55.1 % of the counter-argumentative essays. Not conforming to the convention of placing the arguments and their anticipated objections in the development paragraphs and to the systematic distribution of evidence and counter-evidence, this part of the corpus involves several types of distortions.

- Counter-arguments and refutation are positioned in the introduction before the presentation of the writer's stance in the thesis:

*In universities all over the world, the curriculum devised to students of English as a foreign language contains three basic modules; they are: literature, linguistics and civilisation. **Many students, including***

me in my three first years, wonder of the usefulness of such modules. Students see that the above mentioned modules are unhelpful and useless for them since their target is to be able to produce and process the English language. They, however, find themselves using a language which is strange to both native speakers and other learners of English. In fact, this happens because these learners do not appreciate the background knowledge transmitted to them through those three modules about the way the English language is really used by its native speakers.¶ (4-2)

- Detailed arguments are advanced in the introduction right after the standpoint. Then more arguments appear in the development:

*Nowadays, women are not just housekeeper but more than that, they have an important role and status in our society because they became to participate in various fields such as: elections. **This last, it is a challenge that faced all women because of many reasons: women are able to achieve worse and batter in their job even in politic, they can do many activities for example: making decision, interview, organizing and rule people . . . etc. Besides this, women as human being, rely on their emotion to attract and influence people to be productive. That’s why, women have a great impact in our society.¶ (10-1)***

- Counter-arguments and refutation appear in the conclusion after the affirmation of opinion:

*At last, **I do not want, as a Muslim, to leave the impression that I am against the woman. On the contrary, it is Islam that gave us, we women, the most appropriate place that we deserve. Islam does not consider the woman as an inferior creature compared with man, but it does differentiate what is more adequate for each, and hence that it is not helpful for women to take part in elections.¶ (4-1)***

- Arguments are advanced for the first time in the conclusion:

***As our prophet Muhamed (PBUH) said “a people rulled by a woman are cursed”** As long as we are Muslims and putting all other claims aside, this is enough for us to get convinced that women have some roles to play in the society, but taking high positions in it is not one of them.¶ (45-1)*

- Some counter-argumentative essays pursue mostly the through-argumentation pattern, with a brief or partial reference to adversary’s views:

We know that the real place of woman is in her house, but we can not neglect her importante place in the development of our society, cultural or educational. Therefore she should be encouraged to take some positions like participation in the elections. ¶ (49-1)

(iii). In 32.65 % of the texts, counter-arguments are acknowledged or accommodated but without refutation. It is shown in standard writing coursebooks that refutation, or rebuttal, involves both anticipation of potential objections and arguing against them by building into the writer's arguments the reasons that invalidate the objection: the writer casts doubt on the opponent's reasons or questions the accuracy, relevancy, and sufficiency of the opponent's evidence (McWhorther, 2012). Such an approach permits writers to look at their arguments from the perspective of skeptics (Ramage et al., 2010). In this section of the corpus, the writers do acknowledge the other side's position but with no attempt to logically connect their claims to those of the adversaries. Therefore, the text is structured as a pointless exposition of two drastically separated sides. The following extract exemplifies such an inconsistency in developing a counter-argumentative essay. In this text, the writer mentions two counter-arguments but s/he does not endeavor to supply counter-evidence to confute them.

University students of English as foreign language don't called themselves students if don't learn subject like « literature » , « linguistics » and « civilisation » because it is very important and need to study such subject to acquire language very well. It is not enough to study Grammar or « writen » because each field has its function, period, writers and vocabulary. ¶

In my view it is very interesting to study or form background of knowledge from « literature » when we read stories, novels, tales and poems, we derive and exchange thought, style of writing and language. Also we could not know how that language was and it is now. All this considered as the basis of any language and help us to study it becouse it is not logical to study English and don't known « Sheckspear » or « Saussure » and their works. ¶

Furthermore, there is no people or repulic without civilisation. So to study language of any people shouls know their history. ¶

But in linguistic is another thing, it is full of theory and rules to be well-educated and the origins of languages. It deal with meaning, structure and sound. So, all these thing help to cultivate student to recognition the landmarks of language that study it. ¶

*But many of the other student have different view that all these subject is not important at university because it is not enjoyable [**counter-argument1**]. Maybe because they have scientific orientation and study it for specific purposes. [**counter-argument 2**] ¶*

At last, the students who acquire all these knowledge could understand and use language and its function in the correct situation. Also, they could callassify their vocabulary word to which field belongs. ¶

(11-2)

(iv). In 24.48 % of counter-argumentative essays, the gambit section of the introduction is only a replicate of the essay's question. Hyland (1990) explains that a gambit is marked by its eye-catching effect. In the argumentative essay genre, the utility of this move is to grab the reader's attention. It is usually formulated as a conflict-ridden statement or a dramatic illustration. In this section of the corpus, the writers do not formulate a striking lead-in for their essays; this obstructs the presentation of their stance and tone. Extracts (a), (b) and (c) are essay introductions which demonstrate such a plain style:

*(a) Nowadays women take a important state in our society. We can find it in many work fields in Hospital, schools, a company, airport, and factories and other many places, so **should women be encouraged to take such positions.** ¶ (7-1)*

*(b) Life is full of problem, and it can't be continuse without problem; so that every time we find problem in society, as a result people think to make the elections, choosing a member of parliament by voting, to avoid this problem or find solution to it. The majority of the participation in election were men, sometimes women. **Do you think that women should be encouraged to take such position in society by election?** ¶ (21-1)*

*(c) The majority of people say that women are not able to govern, and the minority of them say that women can rule a situation in the society. So, **should women hold the reins of power or not?** ¶ (33-1)*

(v). Problems in paragraph division are recorded in 26.53 % of the totality of counter-argumentative essays. The middle of an essay conventionally comprises paragraphs that

sustain the proposition expressed in thesis statement. Through exemplification and ample explanations, the writer provides sufficient and precise substantiation to convince the reader that the claim is a judicious one (Wyrick, 2011). Important in the body section is that each paragraph presents and develops one main point in the discussion. Paragraph unity in English stipulates that paragraph topics do not overlap. Thus, generally a new body paragraph signals another main point in the discussion. It is observed, however, that the essays under focus exhibit no correlation between the discourse units (the supporting ideas) and the paragraph divisions of the essay. The observed distortions involve (1) random distribution of details and hence failure to establish the boundaries of each argument or (2) lack of division in the body section. The essays below show these non-conventional patterns.

Essay (46-2)

To study a foreign language is not an easy task to do, there are many aspects should be considered because they are part of language. This latter is not only mastering speaking or writing skills. For that, literature, linguistics and civilisation are dominant fields in learning foreign language and they help studying it. ¶

Those three aspects, may seem to students useless, for instance they may say: “what do we do by knowing civilization of others? since what we need is to speak and write in that foreign language effectively” ¶

It is not like that, because there are so related concepts in language, one field may complet the other one. ¶

For example, if reading is discarded and listening as such, how could we learn? Studying language is not a matter of mastering one or two skills, it is more broad than that. ¶

Literature stream , for instance may seem for some not interesting and bory as it full of ambiguous concepts. But, it is rich area of knowledge, since it can bring to learners new vocabulary and synonyms and oposites to words that can be used interchangeably depending on the context. Moreover, it develops their magination and their diction. ¶

Civilisation, also, it builds in learners an awareness of others’ culture, and make them able to distinguish between cultures of people. ¶

Of course, linguistics is a basic are in language since it provides theories about learing and guides for both teachers and learners about strategies which facilitate those processe. Taking into account that

learning language requires building the four competencies of language which are grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence. In order to complete the framework of communication which means to some extent mastering language. ¶

In this sense, studying foreign language implies the integration of the whole aspects, that can facilitate this task. ¶

Essay (12-1)

Nowadays women have important positions in society. Some of them can be mother workers at the same time. In one position they have to participate in the election candidates and managed, which make them to taking important rules position in the society. But the most important thing they faced by acceptance from one group of society or by reject from the other group. So in the society we have two views about how women be encourage to take such positions. ¶

The first view is to reject women to be taken positions from one group of society as candidates and managed. They believe that women positions are wives and mothers. Because they can not be taken the positions of the men. But some persons from this group do not refuse that women to be work ; however they can be taken particular positions like teaching. While they have participated an election as candidates and managed to ruling positions in society, it is impossible to guide the society. The second view is to encourage women should be take positions in the society. In this other group have to equal that women can take such positions of the men. When they do not have any distinction between men and women as to be effect to and influenced by the society. So they have to encourage women to participated in the elections as candidates and management to have ruling positions in the society. ¶

To sum up, I conclude that I cannot be refusing the view of women to take important ruling positions in society such as candidates and managed. Then I encourage any woman to participated in elections. But I advice them do not forget as a woman and everything that she can do in society, can not take positions of man. ¶

(vii). Super-ordinate informing moves in the introduction are found in some counter-argumentative essays. Informing moves constitute an essential part of an argumentative essay's introduction. Hyland (op. cit.) explains that a writer optionally makes use of background material to contextualise the topic. Definitions, classifications, descriptions, critiques or "straw man" arguments usually constitute this section. Standard writing

textbooks urge writers of argumentative essays to provide their audiences with “a history of the situation” and to direct their attention to the importance of the points introduced at this level. It is recommended, however, that introductory sections of an English essay be short and to the point. Lengthy introductions make the essay lopsided. (Brandon & Brandon, 2011; McWhorther, 2012). In the corpus, 20.4 % of counter-argumentative essays start with a universal statement only globally related to the topic of the paper, similar to the findings of Ostler (1987). Extracts (a) and (b) illustrate this rhetorical tendency.

(a) *From the very beginnings of life on earth, men and women lived together as the two building blocks on which human existence depended. Their relationship was bound on the superiority of men over women. And this was the fact until the rise of civilization and religion which gave women more respect and power. Women were protected by the law and were given the right to speak for themselves and fight against anything that belittles their position in society. Today, they have the right to attend courts, to witness verdicts, and to participate in elections. But however independent and responsible women are today, they are always seen from the same angle. The context of the Algerian society is a clear example of this situation. Women are called to participate in elections, to take important ruling positions in society but is it coming from fairness of men? The present paper discusses in brief why women should not be encouraged to take such positions in the Algerian society.* ¶ (3-1)

(b) *Studying foreign languages became of interest to many people nowadays, notably English language. In fact, mastering English, or any language, demands great efforts. Some university students prefer to have classes in linguistics, literature, and civilisation. Yet, others want to learn English for their special objective. So, what are the subjects that should be included in the English curriculum to meet students' needs?* ¶ (48-2)

(vii). Other minor pitfalls are recorded in 14.28 % of the counter-argumentative essays. The student writers commit miscellaneous deviations from the Western standard model. The extracts below typify each one of them:

- Two introductions:

Unlike the last few decades, women nowadays hold high and crucial position in society. That is, many women rule their communities and present them in different occasions. So, where is our society in this scale of « development » and what its population think about this ? ¶ [introduction 1]

Recently, in our society, many women participate in the election and wish to hold a crucial position. In fact, observing society's point of view, there are some people with giving women such position and there are other against such innovation. From my personal view, women should not be supported to wrk in such positions. Simply because there are hidden foreign goals behind encouraging women to demand such sensitive position. Surely, many women and will astonish from my view as a women. But it seem to me that I have build my understanding from a reasonable reasons. ¶ [introduction 2] (31-1)

- Very long introduction

From the very beginnings of life on earth, men and women lived together as the two building blocks on which human existance depended. Their relationship was bound on the seperiority of men over women. And this was the fact until the rise of civilization and religion which gave women more respect and power. Women were protected by the law and were given the right to speak for themselves and fight against anything that belittles their position in society. Today, they have the right to attend courts, to witness verdicts, and to participate in elections. But however independent and responsible women are today, they are always seen from the same angle. The context of the Algerian society is a clear example of this situation. Women are called to participate in elections, to take important ruling positions in society but is it coming from fairness of men ? The present paper discusses in brief why women should not be encouraged to take such positions in the Algerian society.¶ (3-1)

- Failure to establish stance

Women nowadays became an important members in the society and they have a higher positions in it . There are many causes that led them to take this positions.¶ [introduction]. . .

To sum up, sociaty should respect our religion and fellow it especially in the difficult choises in our life.¶ [conclusion] (50-1)

- Unfocused or biased gambit

Women's issues have been of seminal importance to many people today. These issues concern everyday life, say, working, participating in elections, and so on. The latter has rised a great challenge in the muslim

worlds. From the Islamic viewpoint can women contribute in such critical positions? Does Islam give respect and dignity for women? For which purpose women were created? ¶ (48-1)

- Offering resolutions in the body of the essay

Most of the English students, say 80%, want to study other courses rather than linguistics, literature, and civilisation. For them studying (English for commerce, English for business, English for law, etc) can match up their needs with the potential work offered after their trainings. Further, they claim that they need to be well versed in speaking and writing because they consider the mere linguistics, literature, and civilisation cannot enhance their speaking and writing skills. It is worth nothing that spending four or three years studying general English is a sort of time wasting when having students who aim at learning English for special purpose. ***Therefore, the four or three year of training-in LMD system- should be divided into two. The first two years of training will be devoted to General English by improving the students competences in grammar, oral, writing, reading , and some important courses such as, research methodology and civilisation. In the two remaining years, third and/ or fourth years students will be given chance to choose any of these majors: TEFL, ESP, EGP, literature, linguistics, applied linguistics, etc. ¶ [body paragraph] (48-2)***

- No conclusion

Woman has studied, do progress, reach a high degree in her study. Imposed herself in acquiring languages, science and knowledge. Therefore she merit to be encouraged to take important ruling position ? ¶

If we look to the number of women issue from the university, It appear clearly , that they are imposed themselves. They parents covet in their work, so they say when they arrived to that level, why we deprive them from working. Thus, they push them for working. ¶

The conditions of the market of work, for the considerable posts demand a level which make women having priority to the sovereign posts, this allow them to rule the matters of society. That is conform to what he said Saad Bouakba in the dialy El Chourouk « the society will be governe by women from the lower rank to the higher rank ». Therefore, woen and due to what she achieve from succes, must be couraged to participate in the administration of her homeland. ¶

But according to the customs, in the moslem countries, habits inspired by religion, it stay society governed by woman seen strange, difficult and undigested. This has not effect and accessible in the western countries. ¶ (24-1)

5.1.3 Non-Deductive Text Organisation

This study seeks to reveal if the argumentative essays under scrutiny follow a non-deductive text organization. As shown in Table 14, the analysis of the corpus revealed that, in the 104 essays, 47.11% of the participants showed preference for the deductive text organization, with the thesis statement placed at the beginning, while 40.38% (3.84% + 36.53%) of them followed an inductive organization, placing their thesis statement either at the very end of the composition (36.53%) or in the middle part (3.84%). Finally, 12.5 % of the essays had a quasi-inductive organization, where the thesis statement is not explicitly stated. These results demonstrate that 52.88% of the essays under consideration have a non-deductive organization.

Table 14

Frequency Distribution of the Placement of the Thesis Statements in the Essays

Text organization	Deductive organization	Inductive organization		Quasi-inductive organization	Total
Placement of thesis statement	Thesis statement in initial position	Thesis statement in middle position	Thesis statement in end position	Implied thesis statement	
N° of essays	49	04	38	13	104
Percentage	47.11%	3.84%	36.53%	12.5 %	100%

Added to the classification of the essays under the induction, deduction and quasi-induction categories, the results of the analysis revealed that the participants have further problems in the organization of their deductive argumentative essays that do not comply with the conventions of arrangement advocated in Western usage. Table 15 summarises the additional rhetorical deviations in the writings of the participants as regards deductive essay organization with their frequencies to the totality of deductive essays.

Table 15***Common Non-Conventional Patterns in Deductive Essays***

Problems in deductive organization	N° of essays	Percentage
1. Problems in statement or placement of opinion	11	22.44 %
2. Problems in the introduction	05	10.20 %
3. Problems in the conclusion	05	10.20 %

In the first category, the results show that while student writers largely opt for deductive organization, in which the writer's opinion is stated right away, it is still difficult for them to place and enunciate the opinion in the thesis stage of their argumentative essays. Firstly, the writer's opinion appears at the very beginning of the second paragraph, which is not the typical placement of a standpoint, as shown in (a)

(a) *Nowadays learning English language is very important and present events and world development makes us believe in that learning language is not only about the grammar or vocabulary only in fact it accedes that . It is about the language history, civilization, literature.¶*

The knowledge of such fields is important to learn a language.
Taking a look on civilization is knowing how the language comes, its growth and how it becomes as it is now. Literature on the other hand is a glossery of the most figures and forms of language that English was effected with. And for sure not forgetting the language. . . (2-2)

In this connection, Scollon and Scollon (1995) clarify that the reader should be able to identify the main point in the first section of the text, even though a thesis statement might be postponed until after the presentation of some background information. They also add that at the level of each paragraph, there should be a topic sentence. It is usually its first sentence. In the same category, the opinion of some essays is not formulated as a complete thesis statement, as in (b):

(b) *Women have participated in election as candidates and managed to take important ruling of society. Should women be encouraged to be such positions ? yes. ¶ (38-1)*

By definition, a thesis statement is in the first place a statement. In deductive essays, its function is to project the writer's opinion and it may even allude to the opposing view. Formulating the opinion in a single assertive word would render the whole essay a mere imposition of non-debatable standpoints.

In the second category, the deductive essays have internal deficiencies in their conclusions, which normally restate the writer's initial claim and explain why it is important. These essays have no conclusion or a very broad one, which is not directly related to the issue:

(c) *All in all, foreign language is very important language should take in universities and the way this language teach should be relevent to the needs of the learners first. To be more appropriate in their study. ¶ (7-2)*

In the third category, the deductive essays have further patterns that do not conform to Western usage as regards writing introductions. Some essays have two introductions as shown below:

(d) *Regarding the history that deals with the state of women throughout the old centuries, we can said how badly life she was living. But more and more the state began to take another path ; a way to make an advanced step to better state. Nowadays, women has a great state in the society. This value permit her even to be as member in election. ¶*

According to our culture, women should not be encouraged to participate in the election. ¶ (28-1)

Also, some have a very brief introduction with no thesis statement:

(e) *Nowadays, women have many rights which do not exist time before in our sociaty. Like their rights in education, to live in good conditions and in the election.¶ (38-1)*

Added to that is the inclusion of details in the thesis stage:

(f) Learning English as a foreign language is difficult especially at university. In university we have many subjects to learn such ‘literature’, ‘linguistics’ and ‘civilisation’. Those help us a bit to know more about this foreign language. *These helped us to know poems, language and culture...*¶ (35-2)

The inductive essays have patterns of the same kind in addition to certain deviations in the use of induction. The added non-conventional patterns in inductive essay development fall in three categories. Table 16 summarises these patterns and their frequencies to the totality of inductive essays:

Table 16

Non-Conventional Patterns in Inductive Essay Organization

Problems in inductive organization	N° of essays	Percentage
Absence of counter-argument	14	33.33 %
Opinion in the body	07	16.16 %
Problems in the conclusion	01	2.38 %
Problems in the introduction	02	4.76 %

In the first category, the essays lack the component of counter-arguments. Gillett et al. (2009), elucidating the thought development in inductive essays, hold that it is essential for this argument arrangement that both sides of the issue are impartially discussed. Through refutation of opposite claims and advancing adequate evidence, the writer establishes his/her stance and eventually projects his/ her opinion. Also, McMillan (1984) explains that in inductive development, the writer involves the reader in the thought process and attempts to develop a conclusion out of the details. The following essay illustrates how the writer fails to observe the importance of counter-arguments to develop an unbiased opinion:

Students of languages are the future teachers of those languages. Such students must acquire certain qualities and knowledge during studying at the university. Can English students be good ones if they ignore some subjects such as linguistics, literatur and civilisation. ¶

English students at the university classes are given a variety of disciplines. Each of which has its impact on those students' level. To know others' language without knowing its linguistics, literature and civilisation does have no meaning at all because they are interrelated. Moreover, to study literature means to have an idea about the publication and written works of the writers and actors of that country and this may help those students reinforce their background knowledge, to study linguistics has a big influence on students' level of understanding and enable them to practice language appropriately and more confidently; and to study civilisation leads English students know the history of human race and their way of living. ¶

One might argue that subjects such as linguistics, literature and civilisation are very useful to build the qualities of good English students at university classes and enhance their level of understanding and motivation.

¶ (32-2)

In the second category, the writers' opinions appear in the paragraph preceding the conclusion. McMillan (op. cit.) stresses that the balanced approach followed in inductive essay development usually contains a conclusion that summarises both sides and then states and justifies the opinion. Projecting an opinion before the concluding stage disrupts this essential function of an inductive essay conclusion. It can even cause the writer to add irrelevant moves in the last paragraph or just to reiterate previous material. The following extracts demonstrate this case:

(a) *For me, I disagree about the participation of woman in election because, women can be teacher, nurse. . ect but to be president or minister, she will have a politic discussion with other, and she will not the appropriate one for this job. ¶ 4*

Later on we can say that, election is very important to organise the different field in the society if it is by men however women can't be encouraged to take this position in society. ¶ 5

(21-1)

(b) *Both, man and woman can be participated in elections because , woman has her own abilities and capacities to think and to deal with political factors that are spread and knowen by using different media tools.¶ 3*

In addition, Algerian lows modifications support woman participation in politic to be more successful persen. ¶ 4 (8-1)

In the third and fourth categories, the writers use non-conventional patterns in writing introductions and conclusions. In extract (a) the essay has two paragraphs which function as an introduction, and in extract (b) the introductory paragraph is very broad in scope.

Both instances reflect a non-linear thought pattern, which is atypical in English essays:

(a) *Language is a complex phenomenon. Language is a system of communication between people. Human language is unique because it has different properties such as productivity, creativity and many other properties depending upon social context. So, do you think that literature, linguistic and civilisation is useful to/ not needed by university students of English as a foreign language to help them learn this foreign language better. ¶ 1*

Language is a mean of communication between different people students,-teachers, mother-son and etc. Learning English as a foreign language is not something easy as well as it is not difficult. Therefore, students to acquire English language they need to follow a conventional pedagogical syllabus explained by a teacher or an instructor. ¶ 2

(18-2)

(b) *In our life, the women are principal of the future so that their role is very important in the society since the woman is completed the man in bearing the responsibility of such things as: studies of the house. . . ¶*

(41-1)

At last, as mentioned earlier, quasi-induction is a pattern that appears in 12.5 % of the essays. In this organizational method, the writer holds a standpoint and defends it with evidence without a clear projection of his stance, leaving the responsibility to the reader to glimpse the underlying position, as shown in the concluding paragraphs below:

(a) *For me with few experiences, even she has proven to manipulate the man positions; there are other positions so important. Is to do others like education, medicine, good mother in which let her near her little society to create godly grew because there are who needs her a lot, not to be absent all the time for her children or parent or husband. ¶ (25-1)*

(b) *To conclude, women should not worry about the mistakes or the stereotypes because they are entitled to do wrong decisions, and they*

should be realistic and objective about themselves since men do. Moreover, democracy can not be achieved if women are excluded. (17-1)

(c) As conclusion we say that the strong society grows by doing every individual his duty and responsibility as our religion clarified without any philosophy proofs, since we were the strongest as muslims before in time our messenger and we will do so by following his instructions again by treating our points of weakness not by who will be the president because our strength in our hearts. ¶ (16-1)

What is noticed in some quasi-inductive essays is that some of them demonstrate the writer's lack of focus for there is no clear underlying opinion, as in the following essay:

Women nowadays became an important members in the society and they have a higher positions in it. There are many causes that led them to take this positions.¶

Some women have encouraged to get such position like election. They encouraged by their families which give them supports and even purpose which may give to them. Also, the society has a big influence on the position of the women in the society because they look for power and authority which they always search for them simply, they defend their presentation in many fields to convey their existence in the society or in the family itself.¶

On the other hand, some of them do not take the courage from anyone because of the tradition and our religion. First, our traditions do not give the women the right of election and this does not exist in some countries even in Algeria however in certain causes they participate. For the second on which is our religion is our prophet (PUTH) curses any society judged by a woman so that she does not have the rights of election and may be some other right which she assumes to have the right in them.¶

To sum up, society should respect our religion and follow it especially in the difficult choices in our life.¶ (50-1)

5.2 Communication Styles: Indirectness Devices

The second hypothesis of this study states that the argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features that can be attributed to effect of transfer of Arab communication styles. The communication style under scrutiny in this piece of research is indirectness. The following six indirectness strategies are examined:

(1) rhetorical questions and tags (RQT), (2) disclaimers and denials (Dis. & Den.), (3) indefinite pronouns and determiners (universal and negative [Indef. 1]) / assertive and non-assertive [Indef. 2]), (4) demonstratives (Dem.), (5) passive voice (PV) and (6) conditionals (CN). It is important to note that the array of indirectness devices is more extensive and wide-ranging. The third hypothesis states that transfer of native (rhetorical patterns and) communication styles constitutes the major factor leading to problems in argumentative essay writing. In the following sections, the findings are displayed and explained.

To analyse the data, first, the total word count of each essay was computed. The findings indicate that the cumulative word count for the corpus (104 essays) is 26615 words. The mean word count for each essay is found to be 255.91 words per essay. Using the SCP 4.09 (Simple Concordance Program 4.09) concordance results (see Appendix V), the tokens of each exponent of indirectness indicated in Table 9 are counted after examining their use in context to determine the irrelevant usages. Then, the percentage of the occurrence of each type of indirectness devices in every single essay is computed. The median for each category is also calculated to permit the present researcher to conduct comparisons with native speakers' data recorded in the seminal work of Hinkel (1997), whose model is used in the present study. Table 17 shows the global results. It is important to note that no raters other than the present researcher were engaged in the analysis of data. As a result, it was not possible to compute interrater reliability.

Table 17***Total and Median Values for the Use of Indirectness Devices***

	RQT	Dis. & Den.	Indef. 1	Indef. 2	Dem.	PV	CN
Total	36	245	132	126	361	282	45
Ratio	0.13 %	0.91 %	0.49 %	0.47 %	1.35 %	1.05 %	0.16 %
Median %	0.00	0.78*	0.42*	0.39*	1.22*	0.77*	0.00
Native Speakers' medians %	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.5	0.51	0.00	0.00

Note. RQT = rhetorical questions and tags; Dis. & Den. = disclaimers and denials; Indef.1 = universal and negative indefinite pronouns; Indef.2 = assertive and non-assertive indefinite pronouns; Dem. = demonstratives; PV = passive voice; CN = conditionals

5.2.1 Rhetorical Strategies and Markers

5.2.1.1 Rhetorical Questions and Tags

A rhetorical question is commonly employed as an indirectness means. Quirk Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1972) explain that it is “a question which functions as a forceful statement” (p. 401). Hübler (1983) holds that it is a form of “non-direct speech”. It has a proposition that despite playing the role of statement, allows the writer to deflect potential difference of opinion (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Wong (1990) shows that the use of this device allows writers to allude to their intended messages without a direct expression. Thus, they obviate imposition on the readers while involving them in the text.

The frequency counts for the use of rhetorical questions (RQT) in the corpus are displayed in Table 18.

Table 18

Rhetorical Questions

Total number of essays	Total Number of words in the corpus	Words per essay (mean)	RQT (token frequency counts)	RQT/ essay	Ratio	Category Median	NS Median
104	26615	255.91	36	0.34	0.13 %	0.00 %	0.00 %

The results show that the percentage of using RQT per essay is 0.13 %. The median value is 0.00. That is to say, in at least half of the essays, RQT are not used. With regard to the results recorded in earlier studies (Hinkel, op. cit.), the participants' use of this indirectness device equates the one found in native speakers' data. In the corpus, rhetorical questions appear in various positions. Principally, they are used instead of the thesis statement. Such use is targeted at creating an eye-catching gambit without forcing the reader to directly accept the writer's opinion, which appears only at the end of the essay.

Extracts (a) and (b) illustrate this case:

(a) *Unlike the last few decades, women nowadays hold high and crucial position in society. That is, many women rule their communities and present them in different occasions. So, **where is our society in this scale of « development » and what its population think about this ? ¶ (31-1)***

(b) *Today, the number of English language university students is increasing heavily because of the great importance of this language. Hence, to help them better learn it, teachers have designed a number of subjects, such as litterature, linguistics and civilisation. **So are those three subjects helpful? ¶ (23-2)***

In other placements, RQT appear to be employed as a technique to indirectly endorse the propositions advanced in arguments:

*(c) Moreover, it is an instinct in man that he does not like to be received orders from women. In fact, it is one of the natural rules in life that all people share. If we look around in any domain, we see that it is the woman who always needs the man. A simple example reflecting this is the family ; you always find that it is the father_the man_ who protects and looks after the family. So, if the woman cannot bear to protect her own small family, **how can she succeed in looking after a whole society?** ¶ (4-1)*

5.2.1.2 Disclaimers and Denials

According to Hinkel (op. cit.), both disclaimers and denials (Dis. & Den.) serve as tools to moderate the writer’s responsibility for the truth value of a proposition and hence they are considered indirectness devices employed chiefly as a face saving strategy for politeness purposes. Pagano (1994) clarifies that by means of such tools, “The writer replaces the absence of a physical interlocutor by a mental representation of the reader . . . and attributes to this reader certain experience, knowledge, opinions and beliefs on the basis of which the writer builds his/her message” (p. 253).

The results in Table 19 indicate that the percentage of using disclaimers and denials in the corpus is 0.91 %, with a median of 0.78 %. It is held that in the Anglo-American academic tradition, writers do employ this strategy, but the observed median exceeds significantly the one recorded in native speakers’ writings.

Table 19

Disclaimers and Denials

Total number of essays	Total Number of words in the corpus	Words per essay (mean)	Dis. & Den. (token frequency counts)	Dis. & Den/ essay	Ratio	Category Median	NS Median
104	26615	255.91	245	2.35	0.91 %	0.78 %	0.00 %

The extracts below contain illustrations of how writers rely on denials and disclaimers to reduce the chances of creating an imposition on the reader and to allow space for the opinions of others. Using denials, the writers manage to subtly compromise the opposite view and then to refute it.

(a) *Algerian women nowadays, **are not called** to participate in elections as part of their normal citizenship duties but instead they are called just as members raising the chances of one party to the expense of another. . . They are not treated as objective and rightfull (3-2)*

(b) *Islam **does not distinguish** between men and women in declaring someone legally incompetent Islam gave women the right to own and dispose property, . . . The responsibility of women not just in the home to take care of her husband and children but more than this, many jobs are available to women to work in safe place . . . also if she get a high level of education don't think she work to get money. no more than this they can first benefit their children in there study. ¶ (7-1)*

(c) *Many consider women role to be limited to house work or to ordinary jobs, but to take ruling positions in society as for example a leader in totally forbidden because for them women **are not capable** and **cannot handle** taff situations because these positions demand strong personality and strong psychology and a woman is weak by her nature (42-1)*

5.2.2 Lexical and Referential Markers

5.2.2.1 Indefinite Pronouns and Determiners

By and large, the role of indefinite pronouns and determiners is that of generalization (Urbanova, 1998) and impersonalisation (Toyota, 2005). It is elucidated in modern grammars of English that this class of words involves general reference (Greenbaum, 1996), which leads to exaggeration of claims (Hinkel, op. cit.). Using indefinite pronouns in discourse produces a form of indirectness which appears as circumlocution (Morgan, 1996). The indefinite pronouns fall within two main categories: (1) universal and negative and (2) assertive and non-assertive.

As Table 20 shows, universal and negative pronouns (Indef. 1) (*all, everybody, everyone, everything, either, nobody, none, no one, nothing, every, each*) are used in the corpus with a ratio of 0.49 % and a median of 0.42 %, compared with native speakers' median of 1.00 %. Hinkel (2002) states that, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), and Hübler (1983), their uses are often connected with overstatements and referential points on a deictic dimension that is more elevated than the real situation. Writers may use an exaggerative stratagem to make a point by amplifying contextual circumstances.

Table 20

Universal and Negative Indefinite Pronouns (Indef.1)

Total number of essays	Total Number of words in the corpus	Words per essay (mean)	Indef.1 (token frequency counts)	Indef.1 / essay	Ratio	Category Median	NS Median
104	26615	255.91	132	1.26	0.49 %	0.42%	1.00 %

The following extracts show how they carry an exaggerative tone and lack of precision, which strengthen the writers' propositional stance:

(a) *But in linguistic is another thing, it is full of theory and rules to be well-educated and the origins of languages. It deal with meaning, structure and sound. So, **all** these thing help to cultivate student to recognition the landmarks of language that study it. ¶ (11-2)*

(b) *Women should have all their opportunities in life to investigate their ambitions, because they are equall in **all** life tasks, such as their home activities and **all** desires as conducting cars..., so women in the past were not like women now, they share with men **all** activities, and they are able to be in their place. As well as the eductation level that encourages them to do **everything** freely (39-1)*

(c) *As a whole, to learn any foreign language we must to focus on the essential elements mentioned above. So, literature, linguistics and civilisation should be learnt by **every** university student of English. (28-2)*

As for the assertive and non-assertive indefinite pronouns (Indef. 2) (*anybody, anyone, anything, any, either, somebody, something, and some*), the results in Table 21 show that their ratio amounts to 0.47 % with a median of 0.39 %, while the native speakers' median amounts to 0.5 %.

Table 21

Assertive and Non-Assertive Indefinite Pronouns (Indef.2)

Total number of essays	Total Number of words in the corpus	Words per essay (mean)	Indef.2 (token frequency counts)	Indef.2 / essay	Ratio	Category Median	NS Median
104	26615	255.91	126	1.21	0.47 %	0.39 %	0.5 %

These pronouns may be used in texts to hedge or express indeterminacy, vagueness, and uncertainty. Their lack of determinacy reduces the writer's liability for the truth value and accuracy of the proposition (Hinkel, op. cit.). The extracts below illustrate the writers' use of this category of indirectness devices. The indeterminate tone is clearly noticed:

(a) *In my point of view, women have a big place in society. She can be working in **any** field such as: medicine, economic, political and education.*

(29-1)

(b) *Islam, has a dominant status in the consciousness of its people. Hence, it is difficult if not impossible to allow or ban **something** without referring to sharia law. ¶*

(48-1)

(c) *On the other hand, **some** of them do not take the courage from **anyone** because of the tradition and our religion. First, our traditions do not give the women the right of election and this does not exist in **some** countries even in Algeria however in certain causes they participate. For the second on which is our religion is our prophet (PUTH) curses **any** society judged by a woman so that she does not have the rights of election and may be **some** other right*

(50-1)

The values recorded regarding the use of indefinite pronouns in the corpus are far lower than the native speakers' stylistic preferences in this genre.

5.2.2.2. Demonstratives

Demonstrative pronouns are considered hedging devices with regard to their ambiguous nature (McCarthy, 1994; Quirk et al., 1985). Standard textbooks restrain their use in English academic writing; indeed, demonstratives are attributes of spoken English (Biber, 1988). The results of this study, as summarized in Table 22, show that the ratio for their use is 1.35%, with a median of 1.22 %, which surpasses markedly the rate of 0.51 % recorded in native speakers' texts. Demonstratives in the corpus appear much higher in ratio compared with the writings of native speakers.

Table 22

Demonstratives

Total number of essays	Total Number of words in the corpus	Words per essay (mean)	Dem. (token frequency counts)	Dem./ essay	Ratio	Category Median	NS Median
104	26615	255.91	361	3.47	1.35 %	1.22 %	0.51 %

The extracts below illustrate how the writers use demonstratives to achieve tentativeness. This is created chiefly because these referential markers lack precision.

(a) *This subject provides them with important information about various types of writing which are rich with vocabulary and different expressions. Since **those** types of writing reflect the society and the way of thinking (1-2)*

(b) *While the other voices tries to keep the woman in its secondary role and denied her great impact on the world. To be honest, they are minority and **this** due to the society boundaries that still holding this picture of taking care of her kids, husband and house. **These** voices are pushed by the force of misunderstanding of religion and sometimes holding the bad images that some women present. **These** voices are against the woman to be encouraged for **those** positions (2-1)*

(c) *the goal of **these** subjects is to build a basic information about it because they learn a foreign language for that must cover everything about this language, however when they complete their study to take such*

speciality in those subject like literature or linguistic they find themselves with background information that help them to understand the subject more easily and without any hard understanding, this is in one hand. (7-2)

5.2.3 Syntactic Markers and Structures

5.2.3.1 Passive voice

In the passive voice, the grammatical subject is commonly omitted. This sentence construction is an indicator of objective and impersonal style (Greenbaum, 1996; Quirk et al., op. cit.). By definition, passive constructions circumvent direct reference to the speaker or hearer, and thus they count as an indirectness device in view of preventing potential threats to the speaker's or hearer's face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Using the passive voice, the force of the verb is moderated considerably and the possibility that the claim advanced is overtly rejected becomes difficult. This promotes detachment and impartiality (Atkinson, 1994). In the corpus of this study, the findings displayed in Table 23 indicate that the passive voice ratio amounts to 1.05 %, with a median of 0.77 % compared to a lower median recorded in native speakers' texts 0.00 %. The use of the passive voice is seen to be excessive in the data. Indeed, this construction is not discarded in English academic writing; it is signaled, however, that the appropriate proportions ought to be cautiously considered (Hinkel, 1997).

Table 23

Passive Voice

Total number of essays	Total Number of words in the corpus	Words per essay (mean)	PV (token frequency counts)	PV/ essay	Ratio	Category Median	NS Median
104	26615	255.91	282	2.71	1.05 %	0.77 %	0.00 %

The following extracts show the writers' neutrality as regards the content of the propositions and the tendency for impersonal style for face-saving purposes:

(a) *The four or three year of training-in LMD system- **should be divided** into two. The first two years of training **will be devoted** to General English . . . In the two remaining years, third and/ or fourth years students **will be given** chance to choose any of these majors: TEFL, ESP, EGP, literature, linguistics, applied linguistics, etc. ¶ (48-2)*

(b) *The old vision with which women **were seen** hasn't changed in roots but changed in manner. Algerian women nowadays, **are not called** to participate in elections as part of their normal citizenship duties but instead they **are called** just as members raising the chances of one party to the expense of another. . . Women **are taken** from the emotional side as the weak and fragile when it comes to decision. They **are not treated** as objective and rightfull. They **are taken** to believe in words, and that is why they **are called** to assisst speeches and conferences in which political issues like elections **are raised** . . . (3-1) (21 occurences of the passive in the same text)*

5.2.3.2 Conditionals

Conditionals in English generally indicate that the truth of the main clause is contingent on the accomplishment of the condition in the conditional clause (or protasis). The condition may be either real or unreal (Greenbaum, op. cit.). Hypothetical constructions make messages indirect when the speaker reduces the illocutionary force of his/her utterance and allows room for the refusal or denial of claims (Brown & Levinson, op. cit.). Hence, Myers (2004) holds that using these constructions, writers obviate confrontation and save face by establishing involvement and solidarity with the reader while detaching themselves from complete responsibility for the truth of the proposition expressed. The results of the study, as Table 24 displays, indicate that conditionals are used in the corpus with a ratio of 0.16 % and a median of 0.00 %, which is identical to the median of native speakers' data.

Table 24

Conditionals

Total number of essays	Total Number of words in the corpus	Words per essay (mean)	CN (token frequency counts)	CN/ essay	Ratio	Category Median	NS Median
104	26615	255.91	45	0.43	0.16 %	0.00 %	0.00 %

In the following extracts, writers postulate hypothetical situations that readers usually disagree with and employ these to smooth the process of advancing their claims without opposition.

(a) *For these reasons and others, I believe that women should not be encouraged to take such positions. **If they accept to be taken as superficial**, they confirm this view and their situation will stay as it is and worse (3-1)*

(b) *Also **if she get a high level of education** don't think she work to get money. no more than this they can first benefit their children in there study. (7-1)*

(c) *To conclude, women should not worry about the mistakes or the stereotypes because they are entitled to do wrong decisions, and they should be realistic and objective about themselves since men do. Moreover, democracy can not be achieved **if women are excluded**. ¶ (17-1)*

(d) *First, student from EFL language can understand and study foreign languages more effectively, **if they master linguistics and enjoy morphology and specifically how words are formed and from what derivatives** (26-2)*

(e) *If women put in the controlling place the situation will be change. (51-1)*

(f) *In short, there is still much lack of understanding the status of women in Islam let alone **if it comes to political matters**, (47-1)*

Table: 25

Recapitulation

	Features		N°	%	Mean	Median	
Rhetorical Patterns	▪ Excessive coordination	T-units	1526				
		All clauses	2509				
		Main clauses	1358				
		Subordinate clauses	958				
		Coordinate clauses	203		12.96 %		
		Problems in subordination			6.61 %		
		Problems in coordination			1.31 %		
		Problems in T-unit load			1.24 %		
		▪ Through-argumentation	Through-argumentation			50 %	
			Counter-argumentation			47.11 %	
Other				2.88 %			
▪ Non-deductive text organisation	Deductive	49	47.11 %				
	Inductive	42	40.38 %				
	Quasi-inductive	13	12.5 %				
Communication styles: Indirectness devices	▪ Rhetorical strategies and markers	RQT	36		0.00 %		
		Dis. & Den.	245		0.78 %		
	▪ Lexical and referential markers	Indef. 1	132		0.42 %		
		Indef. 2	126		0.39 %		
		Dem.	361		1.22 %		
	▪ Syntactic markers and structures	PV	282		0.77 %		
		CN	45		0.00 %		

5.3 Discussion

The examination of the use of excessive coordination in the corpus yielded significant results. To start with, considering the mean value of coordinate T-unit proportions per essay, that is 12.96 %, it is concluded that the student writers, in comparison with native speaker writing, do not opt for excessive coordination as hypothesized. It is important to know that the essays in which coordinate T-units are noticeably excessive in relation to the total number of T-units in each essay (more than 4 coordinate T-units per essay) are mostly written by first-year master student participants (81.25%). This implies that the rhetorical pattern of excessive coordination is higher when the level of proficiency is lower. Other factors, such as L2 language proficiency level and developmental factors also affect the use of specific structures. This corroborates the findings of Wong Su Chu (2012), Wang and Wen (2002), Chen (1999), Cheng and Chen (2009) on the minor role of native culture in some settings.

What is more, according to the results, the rhetorical problems that students encounter in using clausal coordination and subordination are not in essence related to balancing the two types of clause combination. The findings indicate that what the writers find more problematic is the manipulation of the exponents of coordination and subordination themselves. Three major knotty areas in which the students are prone to produce non-native like rhetorical patterns are identified: (1) Most importantly, subordination is found to be excessive, missing or ill-structured; (2) coordinating conjunctions' use is distorted or not accompanied with a balanced clause structure and (3) the T-units are relatively so packed with phrasal components that content is difficult to track and comprehend.

As for the use of through-argumentation as a macrostructure, the results could be interpreted as follows. Since a large proportion of the essays in the corpus (47.11 %) use

counter-argumentation macro-structure and nearly the same proportion (50 %) follow through-argumentation, which is postulated to be predominant in Arabic speaking EFL learners' persuasive essays, it is construed that anticipation and acknowledgement of the adversaries' positions per se appears to be considered by student writers in argumentative essay development. This implies that the effect of the student writers' L1 (Arabic) is only moderate. The rhetorical tendencies are found not to be moulded solely by native culture's patterns; in fact, the student writers attempt to use an English-like approach to advance and support their claims. However, the participants do demonstrate multiple weaknesses in producing this pattern. On the other hand, the proportion of 2.88%, where the essays have no clear pattern, denotes that the student participants do not differentiate the major text types and their related organisational discourse features. These essays lack argumentative tone and structure: Firstly, the writers' positions as regards the controversial issue are not introduced either explicitly or implicitly. Secondly, the development explains a state of affairs by means of successive informing moves instead of attempting to convince an audience of the acceptability of some standpoint. Accordingly, the texts are expository in purpose and content. Overall, considering all proportions, it can be concluded that multiple factors are at work in the construction of argumentative essays by EFL learners. The recorded rhetorical tendencies are for the most part non-native-like. The observed defects call into question the existing instruction as regards this genre and necessitate that adequate tutoring be supplied to reduce the effect of L1 culture and maximize the understanding and manoeuvring of English discourse conventions as regards writing counter-argumentative essays.

The analysis of the text organisation of the argumentative essays indicates that 52.88 % of the essays follow either an inductive or a quasi-inductive arrangement. These findings corroborate the claim that EFL learners opt for a non-deductive organisation for

the most part. In other words, the non-linear thought pattern that is held to be a feature of reader responsible languages, such as Arabic, manifests itself significantly when Arabic speaking learners write in EFL contexts. It should be emphasised, however, that the percentage of 47.11 % of essays with a deductive organisation is not minor. This signifies that the writers seem to abide by the English language discourse conventions of organising a deductive line of argumentation. Nevertheless, the findings bring to light the fact that the rhetorical tendencies detected in the deductive essays still point towards non-native-like patterns, reflecting developmental flaws. In the same way, the essays which are inductively organised_ where induction is not alien to English writing_ do reveal signs that the student writers lack proficiency in constructing evidence and leading readers, using the force of logic, to jointly arrive at the desired claim. Finally, the percentage of 12.5 % quasi-inductive essays reflects the writers' inclination to use an oblique style, a marker of macro-level indirectness. At this level, writing instruction ought to work in the direction of substituting such transferred rhetorical features with patterns that are acknowledged in wider international contexts.

Finally, the results of this study suggest that, predominantly, there are noticeable differences between the EFL learners' and native speakers' use of indirectness devices in argumentative essay writing with two exceptions: in the use of rhetorical questions and tags, and in the use of conditionals. In the corpus, rhetorical questions have two major uses: as a thesis statement to grab the readers' attention or as a tool to obviate imposition on the readers while involving them in the text in the argumentation stage. As for conditionals, the student writers resort to them when they postulate imaginary situations that readers usually oppose; they utilize conditionals to lubricate the process of advancing their assertions without conflict. The student writers do not seem to exceed the appropriate rates of these two mitigating tools in their academic argumentative texts. Second, the

essays written by EFL learners contain a significantly higher rate of disclaimers and denials, demonstratives, and passive constructions. Disclaimers and denials serve as devices that reduce the chances of creating an obligation on the reader. Using these devices, the writers manage to cunningly negotiate the opposite view and then to rebut it. Demonstratives are found to be used relatively more excessively than all other indirectness devices, with a median of 1.22 %. This result goes in line with earlier findings in the same area of investigation (Hinkel, 2002). Indeed, demonstratives are among the chief linguistic tools to create cohesion in texts (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), but they are designated as being markers of ambiguity and vagueness; thus, their use is restrained in Anglo-American academic writing (McCarthy, 1994). In Arabic, demonstratives have further rhetorical functions, such as glorification or contempt of the antecedents (Abdul-Raof, 2006), which may be transferred to EFL writing. The passive voice constructions also occur in higher frequencies in the corpus. This is thought to be a transferred stylistic tendency. In the essays where the passive is relatively overused, the writers avoid direct reference to agents in situations where the writer disapproves of the actions; thus blatant opposition is avoided. In conformity with Brown and Levinson's (1987) views, it is thought that this tool is mainly used for face saving purposes, which is common in collectivistic, high-context communities (see Section 2.3.2.2). On the other hand, unlike earlier studies which report higher rates in the uses of indefinite pronouns in the writings of various non-native speakers' (NNS) groups, both categories of indefinite pronouns appear to be used less frequently than in the writings of native speakers. It is not easy to attribute this rhetorical tendency to one clear factor. One probable account is avoidance due to lack of mastery of the English pronoun system. Further research is required in this area.

Conclusion

It is reported in contrastive rhetoric and intercultural communication research that argumentation, like other types of discourse, differs when traversing language borders by reason of culturally based dissimilarities in the arrangement and composition of argument. The case of Arabic and English is no exception, leading EFL learners produce non-native-like argumentative discourse. The present researcher has tried in this study to investigate the validity of such claims in the Algerian university context. This section of the study is guided by the hypotheses that the argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features that can be attributed to effect of transfer of Arabic rhetorical patterns and Arab communication styles and that transfer of native rhetorical patterns and communication styles constitutes the major factor leading to problems in argumentative essay writing. Working on both axes, this work is meant to present a more comprehensive picture of L1 impact on L2 argumentative writing. The findings of the analysis of textual data are interestingly informative. In the first place, the three rhetorical patterns of excessive coordination, through-argumentation and non-deductive text organisation was found to be transferred from the learners' native language but in different rates: coordination was found not to be excessive as expected. Instead, other difficulties are encountered by the student writers in clause construction and combination. On the other hand, the predominance of using through-argumentation and non-deductive text organisation confirm the stated research hypotheses. It was revealed, however, that even when the student writers opt for native-like patterns, viz counter-argumentation and deductive text organisation, they do have difficulties in projecting them due to lack of proficiency. These results suggest that both transfer factors and developmental factors come into play. In the second place, the investigation of the effect of the indirect communication style, which is held to stem from Arab culture, yielded important findings

on the use of the specified rhetorical, lexical and syntactic indirectness devices. Out of seven, the devices of disclaimers and denials, demonstratives, and passive constructions were found to exceed native speakers' appropriate rates. Unexpectedly, the use of the different types of indefinite pronouns and determiners falls below the native speakers' rates. This implies a pressing need to highlight the pronoun system in the present courses. On the whole, these findings have important implications as they serve as starting points for teaching emphases. However, a complete picture of the factors that lead to problems in writing this genre cannot be attained unless the instructional context is also explored. As stated earlier in this work, it is believed that minor improvement can be accomplished in any aspect of language teaching without it being informed by unassailable theoretical principles derived from rigorous empirical evidence from both the learning and teaching contexts. For this reason, the next chapter will shed light on the present teaching practices as regards the argumentative essay genre. The ultimate objective is to bridge the gap between the argumentative writing of Arabic-speaking students and their target writing style.

CHAPTER SIX

Exploration of the Teaching Context: Analysis of Interview Data

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Introduction

A major goal of this piece of research is to devise a model to the teaching of written argumentation, especially writing argumentative essays, at university level based on a thorough discernment of the actual writing problems and the common teaching practices in this academic setting. This chapter presents the findings of the second data collection phase. An interview was conducted for the purpose of accumulating data on the university teaching context to supplement the data obtained through the writing test from the learning context. The analysis of interview data serves to answer Questions 4 of the present study: “How do the Algerian university teachers accomplish the teaching of argumentative essay writing: How do they perceive the observed problems of students in writing this genre? And how do they proceed to solve them?” Being qualitative in nature, the question requires that the data generated is treated_ without predetermined assumptions _ by reducing the replies into a set of manageable categories. The results are described and interpreted; then conclusions are drawn in relation to answering the research question.

6.1 Results

As explained in Chapter Four (see Section 4.4.2.6), the interview responses are essentially analysed using a thematic analysis in view of their relative open-endedness. The results of the interview are displayed in the following sections.

6.1.1 Section One

In this section, the researcher aims at gathering background information on the writing staff members who participated in the study. The responses to Questions (1 - 2) are displayed in Table 26 and Table 27.

Q1: Can you describe your general background as a teacher at university?

Table 26***Teachers' General Background in TEFL at University***

Main categories	Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3	Participant 4
Degree	Magistère	Magistère	PhD	Magistère
Experience	6 years (full-time)	8 years (full-time)	9 years (part-time) 8 years (full-time)	3 years (part-time) 10 years (full-time)
Status	Assistant lecturer	Assistant lecturer	Lecturer	Assistant lecturer
Research	Doctoral	Doctoral	Post-doctoral	Doctoral
Speciality	Comparative stylistics	Comparative stylistics	Literary text didactics	Applied linguistics and TEFL

According to the data represented in Table 26, the participants are full-time teachers who have some background in language studies and didactics but with dissimilar specialities. Three of them are Magistère degree holders, while 1 is a PhD holder. Their experience in TEFL at university level ranges between 6 and 17 years. In other words, all have been teaching at this educational level for a respectable period. As for their professional status, one is a lecturer and he presides over a research unit, while the others are assistant lecturers who are conducting doctoral research.

Q2: Can you describe your experience in teaching EFL writing at university?

Table 27***Teachers' Experience in Teaching EFL Writing at University***

Main categories	Participant 1	Participant 2	Participant 3	Participant 4
Experience	3 years	7 years	9 years	10 years
Levels	2	1, 2,3	1, 2,3	1,2
Training	None	World Learning SIT Graduate Institute	World Learning SIT Graduate Institute	High School training
System	LMD	Classical/ LMD	Classical/ LMD	Classical/LMD

The results displayed in Table 27 show that 3 teachers have experience in teaching EFL writing at university level for more than 7 years in both the classical system and the LMD system, while one has a relatively shorter experience of teaching this skill limited to the LMD system. Despite the fact that the levels they covered in their teaching career differ from one to another, all of them have taught the 2nd year level. That is, they have dealt with teaching the essay genre for some time. The respondents did not receive any training on teaching EFL writing at university in isolation. Two of them reported that they participated in a training programme designed by World Learning SIT Graduate Institute for Ouargla University faculty members of the English Department. It was an American development programme whose overall aim was to assist faculty explore and develop university graduate outcomes that will best serve graduates to successfully enter the local and global workplace/community, and to design a competency-based curriculum that links objectives across courses to overall graduate outcomes. The writing courses were among the courses which received attention in this three-year training. The programme took the form of face-to-face trainings, online discussions, classroom observations and video conferences.

6.1.2 Section Two

Section Two of the interview encompasses questions that explore the teaching context. The tables 28 and 29 show the main themes developed by the writing teachers about the context of teaching writing.

Q 3: Can you describe the circumstances under which you perform the teaching of writing to LMD students? (Focus on 2nd year)

Table 28***Circumstances Surrounding the Teaching of Writing to 2nd Year LMD Students***

Main categories	Sub-categories
1. Timing	- One session a week
2. Classes	- Teaching in tutorials only - Relatively large number of students
3. Facilities	- A traditional classroom - Availability of technological tools - Availability of printing facilities - Availability of library resources
4. Syllabus	- Clear semester division in syllabus - One goal: focus on essays - Possibility to devise syllabi by teachers themselves - Absence of approach or method specifications

For the purposes of this study, considerable insights on the teaching context have been accumulated through interview responses to question 3, as shown in Table 28. The writing staff members identified four broad components, encompassing (1) time allocation, (2) form of classes, (3) departmental facilities and (3) syllabus specifications. Presented in the form of tutorials, the writing classes addressed to the 2nd year students endure only one hour and a half weekly. The respondents reported that the number of students is relatively large, ranging between 30 to 50 students per group. Teaching takes place in traditional classrooms. In spite of the seemingly non-flexible setting, technological tools have become accessible. Participant 3 comments:

Actually we have all facilities. Everything now is at our disposal. We have electronic resources and technology: the use of data shows, slides . . . We can use miscellaneous devices and tools to teach the subject of writing. We have all facilities. We have even now electronic books and electronic handouts.

In addition, there are printing facilities and abundant documentation at the library, which facilitate many teaching tasks:

Printing is possible. This assists in providing students with clearly outlined lectures (or lecture points) and it allows us to use an unlimited number of take-home exercises. Some of them can be done in class . . . The library is full with textbooks on writing for all levels, but students do not usually make use of them unless they are asked by the teacher. (Participant 4)

The participants' descriptions of the official syllabus indicate that unlike the first year syllabus, which covers a range of separate minor aims, the one of second year has one goal: essay writing. A clear division in terms of semesters is also plainly set: in the first students are prepared for writing the specified genre; in the second they actually produce essays of various types. Yet, one aspect that hinders the application of the official syllabus is its obscurity as regards the recommended approach or method. In this connection, Participant 4 explains:

We are given freedom to follow any path in any form. There are no underlying beliefs that set the choices that ought to be made.

To compensate for this lacuna, writing teachers are compelled to develop additional more practical syllabi by themselves specifying the exact content and the sequence deemed to be of assistance in the achievement of the official goals.

Q 4: How do you assess the appropriateness of these conditions to the teaching of writing?

According to the results shown in Table 29, the writing teachers' attitudes towards their immediate conditions vary. With the exception of one participant, almost all respondents express concern and dissatisfaction with some aspects of the context of teaching EFL writing, alleging that they impede professional fulfilment. As for the time variable, multiple angles have been identified by almost all respondents pertaining to the way it constrains teaching the writing skill. Indeed, in writing pedagogy, time allotted to writing holds a paramount position.

Table 29***Teachers' Assessment of the Situation***

Main categories	Subcategories
1. Assessment of time allocation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Time inappropriate to handle mixed-ability classes - Time inappropriate to allow all students to practice writing - Time inappropriate for self expression - Satisfaction with time allocation - Time inappropriate to practice - Time inappropriate to lecture then to set exercise - Time inappropriate to cover the content
2. Assessment of classes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Number of students inappropriate to deal with individual cases - Traditional classroom setting deficient in flexibility - Tutorials inappropriate for lecturing
3. Assessment of syllabus	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Satisfaction with syllabus - Lack of underlying approach
4. Assessment of department facilities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Administrative & technical constraints
5. Assessment of students' motivation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Lack of motivating atmosphere
6. Overall assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Satisfaction - Teaching writing in this context is demanding

The responses of writing teachers indicate that the limited time allocation offered to them constitutes a veritable hurdle to deal with mixed-ability classes and to give chance of practice to every member of especially a large class. Participant 2 clarifies:

This year still we are suffering; still we have an hour and a half. Just if we take into account the students' level, we've got a great number of good achievers. In that case, we've got mixed abilities inside the classroom. We've got only one student or two who can write in a 'good' way, but most of them really face a number of difficulties in writing just one sentence. To work on developing their abilities, we need much time to do that; the two

are interrelated: the students' level and the amount of time to work on that.

Further, even for high achievers, ample time permits the instructor to set sufficient practice activities and offers students chance of self expression, which is not always possible as in listening or speaking. One participant stresses the fact that writing is developed through writing itself:

Concerning the conditions in general I am not happy. Why? Especially concerning timing. The time devoted to teach writing is not sufficient. One session a week is not sufficient. As teachers of writing, we have to teach writing by writing. If you want to learn writing so you have to write. They have to practice and one hour and a half is not sufficient. (Participant 1)

Writing teachers are “curbed” in one tutorial between lecturing and allowing students to expand their writing potentials through exercise. They are also forced to compress the content. Otherwise, covering all aspects of essay writing would be realistically unattainable. The teachers’ assessment of classes were centered around three points: (1) the large number of students per group, which deprives the teacher of the possibility of treating individual cases; (2) the traditional non-flexible classroom setting and (3) the incongruity of tutorials for lecturing. As for the departmental facilities, there is consensus among the writing staff that they are abundant, but they acknowledged the current administrative and technical complicatedness associated with their use. The participants lament this state of affairs in the following extracts:

If I try to use something different, I find myself facing a lot of troubles. So I just try to avoid using any kind of new or innovative materials just to avoid troubles right at the beginning. (Participant 2)

Facilities at the level of the department? I don't think so. Even when you try to use the data show, for instance, we have obstacles at the administration. It is not always possible to have it when you need it. (Participant 1)

. . .but I personally avoid using it because practically this is time consuming and arduous for the teacher due to the technical problems and the administrative protocols associated with its use. (Participant 4)

The writing teachers reproach the official syllabus's deficiency in a clear underlying approach and its non-conformity with the research innovations taking place in the field. An additional contextual by-product variable seeming to influence teacher pedagogy is the students' level of motivation as regards the process of writing, not its content. Participant 1 seems very much concerned with finding ways to elevate the learners' incentives to practise this skill:

Also I face a problem with students. The students don't know how to write. So that's why we always complain and ask the same question, 'why our students don't know how to write?' So what is our task? Our task is to teach them how to write not what to write. That is why we have to motivate them. We have to provide them with the atmosphere to help them know why writing. They are demotivated.

Overall, with the exception of one interviewee, who seems content with the institutional context, there is agreement that teaching writing to 2nd year students especially is arduous in practical terms.

6.1.3 Section Three

In this section, the interview questions revolve around one core issue: the investigation of teacher philosophies and routine practices of teaching essay writing. The treatment of this variable may generate further understanding of the context of teaching writing, and may aid in isolating teacher-led writing problems. The results are displayed in Table 30 to Table 40.

Q 5: Why do you usually deal with essay writing with your students in the 2nd year?

Table 30

Level Allocated to Teach Essays

Main categories	subcategories
1. Syllabus	- Implementing syllabus specifications
2. Pedagogical reasons	- The need to build basic competencies first

As Table 30 demonstrates, all the interviewed teachers of writing indicated that they are implementing the curriculum requirements when they undertake the teaching of essay writing in the second year of the LMD system. Participant 3 acclaims this curriculum requirement and states that competency building is a process that ought to begin with foundational components first. In his words:

At the beginning of the second year, the students show some preparedness or readiness to deal with essays. So I see that essays can be dealt with in the second year or in the third semester because we devote the first two semesters in the first year for building strong foundation for learners. This requires or necessitates teaching them basic elements like precision in writing, formality, academic style and so on.

Q 6: How much time do you usually allocate to teaching essay writing during the academic year (weeks)? Why this period?

Table 31

Period Allocated to Teach Essays

Main categories	Subcategories
1. One semester to prepare for writing essays and one for writing practice	- The whole academic year
2. Reasons	- Syllabus specifications - The need for developing the skill of writing from paragraph to essay - Importance of the genre

Responses to Question 6 are categorized in Table 31. All teachers report that the time allocated to teaching essays extends over the whole academic year with one semester to set the ground for writing the essay and one to practise writing essay types. While one respondent seems to be just pursuing the syllabus prerequisites, the others do show a good consciousness of attributing such a long period to one writing genre. Participant 2 stresses the need to gradually move from smaller text segments, such as the sentence and the

paragraph, to larger ones in teaching writing. Participant 4 links the issue to the academic importance of the essay genre itself. She states:

We devote all this period because this stage in writing instruction is basic and it trains them on writing essays of various sorts to cope with their academic needs in the other modules and to prepare them for more advanced writing and examinations, in which the essay is paramount.

Q 7: Can you describe the guidance that is given to you as regards essay teaching in the official syllabus?

Table 32

Syllabus Guidance on Essay Writing Pedagogy

Main categories	Subcategories
1. Lack of the basics of syllabus design	- No clear sequence - Lack of precise approaches - No explicit procedure
2. Focal points	- Focus on <i>what</i> to teach - Focus on product only - Focus on accuracy
3. Teacher adaptation	- Building on previous experience - Interest in developing contextualized writing - Teachers design syllabi

As for curricular concerns, there is a staff consensus that a perceptible lacuna in syllabus guidance on teaching essays exists. No explicit sequence or core approaches are stated as regards teaching essay writing. Moreover, there is no preferred procedure:

There is no clear approach, no clear pedagogy or classroom practices mentioned in the official program; all that depends on the teachers themselves. (Participant3)

The teachers' interpretations of the syllabus, as displayed in Table 32, involve three core elements: (1) Focus on what to teach (elements of style, wordiness . . .), (2) focus on product (writing an essay) and (3) focus on accuracy. Indeed, it is hard to glean any explicit guidance to teach essay writing in this document. To cope with the situation, the

writing staff members suggest some forms of adjustment. All of them are engaged in a yearly process of syllabus design that conforms to the early stated guidelines while providing practical assistance. For example, participant 4 works toward avoiding the pitfalls of her previous experience and strives to make her method more communicative.

She states:

I personally make changes to the content I use every year taking into account factors like previous experience and its drawbacks, level of students. . . There is one thing that I have become interested in: it is how to make learners express themselves with ease in different contexts. Indeed, I am trying to move from a structure - or language - based syllabus to a more communicative one, but still I find difficulties.

Participant 1 looks at other aspects such as gradation and assessment. She clarifies:

You know at the beginning of the year, I have to deal with teacher's syllabus and learner's syllabus. I have to prepare this myself. I specify the timing for instance, the way that I have to deal with my lecture, both for the lecture and tutorials. Also I have to deal with the way of assessment.

Q8: Do you find the presence/ absence of guidance positive or negative? Why?

Table 33

Teachers' Attitudes Towards Presence/Absence of Syllabus Guidance

Main categories	Subcategories
1. Absence negative	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Novice teachers find difficulties - Complexity of the writing skill (even for experienced teachers) - The need to get informed about new approaches - Teachers mistakenly opt for outdated material - Teachers create loaded and non-homogeneous material - Teaching should be informed by an underlying approach
2. Absence positive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Allows inclusion of innovative ideas - Allows flexibility and adaptation to class fabric, situation (students' levels, motivations, numbers)

There were clearly differences of opinions about working with a syllabus which does not actually direct writing instruction (Table 33). On the one hand, some interviewees do not espouse the idea of working without guidance for a bulk of reasons, which can be summed up in what follows:

- Novice teachers will find difficulties.
- Teaching the writing skill is complex even for experienced teachers.
- Teachers need to get informed about new approaches.
- Teachers may mistakenly opt for outdated material.
- Teachers may create loaded and non-homogeneous material.
- Teaching should be informed by an underlying approach.

On the other hand, some respondents see the situation as advantageous in so far as it makes room for inclusion of innovative ideas and allows flexibility and adaptation to class fabric, which changes from one year to another.

Q9: What kind of resources do you rely on to assist your teaching of essay writing to university students?

As shown in Table 34, although the teaching of essay writing encounters constraints at the time and syllabus levels, the instructors resort to multiple compensation strategies. In response to Question 9, the interviewees identified four broad categories of resources they draw on. Firstly, it appears that they diverge first in the choice of text types used as models of writing. At one end of the scale lie authentic texts; at the other lie non-native speakers texts and teachers' own texts.

Table 34***Resources Used to Assist the Teaching of Essay Writing***

Main categories	Subcategories
1. Seeking staff support	- Collaboration with teachers
2. Using the net for various purposes	- Internet to get writing materials - e-communication with students - e-communication with writing experts
3. Enhancing the skill of teaching EFL writing	- Standard textbooks - Reading about writing pedagogy
4. Using various text types as reading materials for students	- Authentic texts - Non-native speakers' texts - (Non-deviant) literary texts - Students' texts - Teachers' own texts

Secondly, teachers, according to what Participant 1 affirms, do not work in isolation. Thirdly, all of them assert that reading about writing pedagogy and using materials from both British and American standard textbooks is a common practice to them. In this respect, some clarify:

I am not a native speaker of English, that is why I do refer to standard textbooks to guide myself and my students to know what is acceptable and what is not acceptable in academic writing. (Participant 4)

As a teacher, this is not to bring my level at the level of the learners. I have to do something extra about what I'm teaching. I learn about, I read about the task of writing itself. I have no problem at all. I always read not only about writing but even about the other modules I teach. (Participant 3)

Finally, the responses show that the writing instructors, in addition to exploiting directly internet resources and writing experts' advice, attempt to use the net services chiefly to fill up the time lacuna by extending their contacts with students outside through electronic spaces. In brief, the compensation pedagogical strategies seem to be rich and wide ranging. On the basis of variety at this level, one expects diversity even at the procedural level.

Q 10: How do you proceed when teaching essays in general (steps)?

Table 35

Procedures of Teaching Essays

Main categories	Subcategories
Procedure A	<p>Step 1: Theme selection and outlining</p> <p>Step 2: In-class group work on parts of the same essay then building up the whole essay or take-home individual work</p> <p>Step 3: Peer correction</p> <p>Step 4: Teacher feedback</p>
Procedure B	<p>Step 1: Reading model texts with focus on structure and content</p> <p>Step 2: Individual independent writing</p>
Procedure C	<p>Step 1: Theoretical lecture on the specified essay type</p> <p>Step 2: Using ice-breakers of various types</p> <p>Step 3: Outlining (optional)</p> <p>Step 4: Study of model texts (optional)</p> <p>Step 5: Writing the essay individually or in groups</p> <p>Step 6: Collective peer/teacher correction of the same essay with discussion</p>
Procedure D	<p>Step 1: Background reading to learn about the theme and selecting a topic</p> <p>Step 2: Brainstorming in search of ideas and thesis statement formulation</p> <p>Step 3: Outlining</p> <p>Step 4: Independent essay writing</p> <p>Step 5: Teacher's feedback</p>
Procedure E	<p>Step 1: Introducing the essay genre anatomy</p> <p>Step 2: Theoretical introduction of the essay type</p> <p>Step 3: Studying model texts linguistically</p> <p>Step 4: Writing assignment (group work)</p> <p>Step 5: Peer feedback (group work)</p> <p>Step 6: Writing a second draft (group work)</p> <p>Step 7: Teacher's feedback</p>

Interview responses to Question 10 yielded insights that teaching essay writing is by and large performed using an amalgam of product and process techniques, as shown in Table 35. According to the teachers' descriptions of their courses of action, it is possible to make the following interpretations (Table 36).

Table 36
Teaching Essay Writing Procedure Orientations

Participant	Procedure	Orientation
1	Procedure A	Process
	Procedure B	Product
2	Procedure C	Process-product
3	Procedure D	Process
4	Procedure E	Process-product

In procedures A and D, the teachers highlight the pre-writing stage, which involves a variety of groundwork activities such as background reading, topic selection, brainstorming and outlining. Further, in the writing stage, they enhance students' own potentials to generate the first draft either individually or in groups, with the teacher acting as a facilitator. Finally, teacher and peer feedback seem to be paramount. In procedures C and E, the teachers employ the structural analysis of model texts to support the process techniques. This adds a product stroke to their teaching practice. At last, procedure B involves only model text analysis followed by independent production of essays. Both features render the procedure a purely product one.

Q 11: What techniques among the following do you usually encourage when teaching students to write essays?

Table 37***Preferred Approaches in Essay Teaching***

Main categories	Subcategories
Technique 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Limited use of Model texts just to motivate due to time constraints - Sometimes used but not emphasized - Model texts (not necessarily essays) used for theme understanding - Linguistic focus
Technique 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Frequently used - Sometimes used but not emphasized - Not used
Technique 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sometimes used but not emphasized - Chief technique
Technique 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Frequently used - Frequently used to eliminate L1 interference (Portfolio)/ topics must interest them - Used after many sessions of group work - Rarely used
Technique 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Frequently used - Second draft through the net - Sometimes used depending on situation - Rarely used
Technique 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Modified version - Not used

In Question 11, the writing staff teachers were presented with an array of techniques of teaching essay writing belonging to dissimilar approaches. The results in Table 37 indicate that Technique 1, which is a genre approach practice, is not used by all participants. That is, all participants assert that their use of model texts is not coupled with a reference to their communicative purpose in a social context. In addition, they show that

the rationale behind using texts is just for motivation (Participant 2) or theme understanding (Participant 3). Technique 2, a teacher-centred genre technique highlighting teacher collaboration with students and gradual withdrawal, is frequently used by Participant 2. Two other participants limit its use and one avoids it. Technique 3, a product approach involving the structural analysis of model texts, is frequently used by two participants and sometimes used by one. The fourth does not resort to it. Technique 4, stressing final product and accuracy and also common in product-oriented teaching, is frequently used by three participants, while it is rarely used by one. Technique 5, based on a chain of writing process stages, is frequently used by 3 participants and avoided by one. Finally, technique 6, involving multiple revisions and final publishing to target peer audiences and also a process procedure, is not as such used by all participants as it requires much time.

Q 12: What other techniques, which I have not mentioned, do you use? Why?

Table 38

Additional Techniques

Subcategories
- Eclecticism
- Group writing (for motivation and variety sakes)
- Use of illustrations of linguistic structures

The responses to Question 12 (Table 38) add three main teaching emphases: the tendency to be eclectic, the choice of activities that promote motivation and variety in classroom practice, and focus on structural features of texts. The responses consolidate the fact that what most of participants favour are the process and product techniques (3, 4 and 5) with a general tendency towards variety, enhancing motivation and linguistic accuracy.

Q 13: According to you, what is the ideal procedure if the time and class size, etc are appropriate? Why?

Table 39

Teachers' Ideal Procedures

Main categories	Subcategories
1. Combining product and process techniques	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Using model texts and writing in several drafts - Extensive reading, process stages, collective feedback, independent writing. - Studying model texts, reading material to work on language, process stages, peer feedback, teaching study skills
2. Process techniques	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Process stages - Focus on editing in several versions

To eliminate external factors and determine the beliefs that teachers hold about their preeminent approaches, the interviewees state, in response to Question 13 about their ideal procedure under good conditions, that they first favour the process methodology while they emphasize the usefulness of using model texts for structural analysis, which is a product routine practice (Table 39).

Q 14: What factors affect you choice of procedure?

Table 40

Factors Affecting the Choice of Procedure

Main categories	Subcategories
1. Context of teaching	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Real classes - Motivation - Students' proficiency level of - Number of students - Time
2. Teachers' beliefs and experience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Belief in an eclectic approach - Past experience

Exploring the factors that determine their choice, the responses to Question 14 take two orientations: (1) context-based factors such as real classes, students' motivation, level of proficiency, number of students and time allowance and (2) teacher-based factors, including the belief in eclecticism and reliance on past teaching experience (Table 40).

6.1.4 Section Four

Being the focal point in this study, the teaching emphases in argumentative essay writing are explored in this section of the interview. In response to Questions (15 - 20), the writing teachers elaborate on the specifications they attempt to enhance about this academic genre. Fathoming the instructional practices would shed light on a number of the observed writing tendencies. The interview results appear in Table 41 to Table 46.

Q15: What specifications are offered to you in the syllabus concerning argumentative essay writing?

Table 41

Syllabus Specifications about Argumentative Essay Writing

Main categories	Subcategories
Insufficient specifications	- Only generals - Nothing special

All the interviewees reaffirm in question 15 that no specifications are stated at the syllabus level as to what constitutes an argumentative essay and how it should be taught (Table 41). As stated earlier, what is available to the writing teacher is only a set of *essay generals*. The writing teachers take their own way in presenting this genre.

Q16: When you teach argumentative essay writing, what features do you stress to make students distinguish them from other essay types?

Table 42***Focal Features in Argumentative Essay Writing***

Main categories	Subcategories
1. Content and purpose	- Difference of opinion - Purpose of convincing another party - Advancing arguments - Types of evidence - Audiences and objectivity
2. Layout	- Outlining an argumentative essay - Position of opinion - Introduction content - Language of argumentation
3. Argumentation and academic skills	- The argumentative essay is an introduction to write other argumentation genres

According to the responses to Question 16 (Table 42), most of the writing teachers seem to be working essentially on two dimensions when teaching argumentative essays: (1) content and purpose and (2) the essay layout. In the first dimension, Participant 1 stresses the idea of first getting students recognize the difference of opinion, which is the *raison d'être* of argumentation:

I try to gather some topics which are argumentative such as 'working women', 'late homework', 'giving a cell phone to your kid as a gift'. After that I divide the class into two groups: People who are for and people who are against. After that I try to explain from this what an argumentative essay is.

Furthermore, the cardinal components of argumentation, that is, points of view, arguments and reaching the effect of convincing another party are put to the fore. All participants highlight the fact that an argumentative essay is a text in which one holds a definite position as regards a difference of opinion and defends it by advancing arguments for the purpose of gaining the acceptability of one's standpoints. In this connection, Participant 3 clarifies:

The basic thing for me is to convince or to persuade them [students] that argumentative writing is singled out, is distinguished and is very specific because in argumentative writing, one is supposed not to inform or provide information. In all the other forms, you are free to give, to explain, and to tell, to narrate. But for this kind, which I insist on, I tell my students you have to defend, to make a stand or a position. You argue means you opt for an opinion and you have to do your utmost to convert the audience or the reader to your opinion. In the other types of writing, you tell them to agree but here I insist on that point. It's to defeat the reader. Defeating here is when he surrenders, when you gain your reader and put him on your path, on your way, or converting him in your stand. This is argumentation.

However, only two of the writing teachers mention succinctly the types of evidence which can be employed to construct arguments. Participant 4 states:

Also, I tell my students very sketchily about kinds of evidence that can be included in an argumentative essay.

Additionally, although most of the instructors do direct the student writers to the significance of being objective when addressing their audiences, they do not specify the types of audiences a writer may encounter, except for Participant 4, who seems to be aware of cultural differences at this conceptual plane:

One important thing I usually say to students is that they have to be objective and to bear in mind that what they write is not always read by a person belonging to the same community. Thus they have to take into account people who do not share the same assumptions with the writer.

As for the second dimension, namely, essay layout, Participant 1 and 2 place emphasis on outlining an argumentative essay before it is written. They hold that students should be aware of the organisational options in which the essay can be structured. Additionally, they highlight two facts: the placement of opinions in the introduction and the formulation of an adequate thesis statement stating the writer's position. The responses demonstrate also that writing teachers deal with argumentative language in their instruction in some way. Participant 2 finds it useful to accentuate transitional devices, especially those expressing

contrast and concession relationships to explicitly signal the line of argumentation. She suggests that time constraints determine her choice of the presentation mode:

I may give just illustrations, such as some sentences to make things clear to my students, and sometimes I give them orally honestly. When they start writing, they should take them into account. I told you before because of time, because we do not have enough time.

Participant 4, while using nearly an identical style, adds that she highlights methods of expressing opinions and arguments using decontextualised lists of examples. She noted:

I show them a variety of forms of expressing one's opinion explicitly and also the forms of introducing arguments using a list of simple illustrations. Here I insist on achieving coherence using the right transitions, moving from one argument to another. I do not give students activities to practice these linguistic forms, I just list them.

Participants 1 and 2 do give argumentative language room in their instruction without specifying a systematic method of presentation. Finally, only Participant 3 explicitly draws the learners' attention to the fact that argumentative essay writing is a cardinal starting point for the production of extended argumentative academic genres, especially the dissertation:

This kind of writing requires a special focus. It is the most required and needed skill at university to serve learners in their dissertations because most of them are supposed to do research and to write dissertations by the end of their studies. So this kind of writing will directly or indirectly help them to do the job when they write dissertations . . . So this kind of writing receives special attention on my side. I always incite my students to give it special attention. It's very specific.

Q17: What kind of introductions do you encourage your students to write to this kind of essay? (moves)

Table 43

Types of Introductions

Subcategories

- General strategies of writing an introduction
 - Thesis statement (declarative sentence)
 - Thesis statement (question)
 - Expression of opinion
 - Contextualization of topic
 - Directness
-

In response to Questions 17 - 19, the teachers of writing elucidate the rhetorical organizations of an argumentative essay they advocate (Table 43). Concerning the rhetorical structure of the thesis stage, all participants stress in response to question 17 that the core element in the introductory section of the essay is expressing one's opinion in a thesis statement, usually a declarative sentence. Participant 4 exceptionally allows the expression of dual views in the thesis statement in the form of a rhetorical question. Participants 1 and 2 both mention that the general strategies of writing an introduction, such as the use of a quote, an illustration or an anecdote and so on, apply to the argumentative essay. Only participant 4 highlights two additional components: the contextualization of the topic and the need to be straightforward in the treatment of the issue under discussion. In this respect, she states:

The introduction should present the context of the topic and should show that there is a debate on an issue. . . I always tell students not to 'turn around the bush.'

On the whole, except for the aforementioned features, the writing teachers do not seem to lay strict instructional formulas about the moves which make up the introductory part of the argumentative essay genre.

Q18: Can you describe the typical organizations that you encourage your students to use in the body of the essay? (moves)

Table 44

Organizational Patterns of the Essays' Body Section

Main categories	Subcategories
Pattern 1	Introduction I. Counterarguments + refutation II. Arguments Conclusion
Pattern 2	Introduction I. Arguments of the first side+ writer's position II. Arguments of the second side+ writer's position Conclusion
Pattern 3	Introduction I. Arguments of the first side II. Arguments of the second side III. Writer's position as regards both arguments Conclusion
Pattern 4	Introduction I. Argument 1 + counter-arguments + refutation II. Argument2 + counter-arguments + refutation Conclusion
Pattern 5	Introduction I. Most important argument II. Less important argument III. Least important argument Conclusion (Counter-arguments accepted but not obligatory)
Pattern 6	Introduction I. Arguments of the first side II. Arguments of the second side Conclusion

According to the responses to Question 18, the argumentative essay body section layout is somewhat flexible: a clear difference is noticed between the participants. Six divergent patterns have been identified, as shown in Table 44. The patterns can be classified into two categories: the block model (pattern 1, pattern 2, pattern 3 and pattern 6) and the point-by-point model (pattern 4 and pattern 5). In the former, the body section of the essay is divided according to two positions. Participant 1 explains:

Concerning the block pattern, if they have two reasons for, they list them first. Then they have to find the rebuttal. And in the next paragraph they deal with the other side. That means, all about the first side, then all about the second side. There is separation between the sides. This is called the block pattern.

In essence, paragraph division in this model signals division of views. Except for pattern 1, which is organized in the form of a discussion, the other patterns make a sharp separation between the views and detach the writer from the debate till the end of the paragraph or the essay. In the second model, the point-by-point one, paragraph division signals arguments' division. That is, the writers' arguments are developed one by one. While pattern 4 exemplifies an argumentative discussion, pattern 5 used by Participant 3 does not consider counter-arguments, yielding a through-argumentation essay (see Section 2.2.8.2). Although the participant seems to be aware of the importance of referring to the antagonist's views, he does not stipulate that the essay must make room for opposition. In his words:

If some ideas are against their stand, they have to mention them, why not. It's a kind of honesty. A writer must be honest. Honesty requires and implies that one to state what goes for and what goes against. In essays in which this element is missing, sure I have to signal this to inform the students that they have to insert certain ideas that are against. I accept the essay. I don't reject it as there are no opposing ideas, but I insist on including some opposing ideas because I think there is no perfect idea.

Q19: What sort of conclusions do you encourage students to write? (moves)

Table 45

Types of Conclusions

Subcategories
- Restatement of thesis
- Restatement of the strongest ideas
- Restatement of the strongest arguments
- Summary
- Advice or suggestion
- Suggesting further discussions
- Opinion(restatement) and other unlimited components

The interviewees' responses to question 19 give a plain idea about the way the concluding stage of an argumentative essay is structured according to the writing teachers' instructional convictions (Table 45). Principally, all of them agree that the fundamental constituent in the conclusion is the restatement of the writer's opinion. Participant 4 maintains that student writers should express their opinions at this stage, they should not be restrained by rigid moves in the rest of the paragraph; otherwise their creative potentials would be at risk. She clarifies:

I do not limit students to one conclusion type because we may limit their creativity. But I usually insist that the writer's opinion should be there.

The other optional moves may optionally include the following moves without favouring one to the others.

- Restatement of the strongest ideas,
- Restatement of the strongest arguments,
- Summary,
- Advice or suggestion,
- Suggesting further discussions,
- Other unlimited components.

Q20: What other features do you emphasize when you teach argumentative essays?

Table 46

Additional Focal Features in teaching Argumentative Essay Writing

Subcategories
- Outlining and organization
- Language of argumentation
- Discourse cohesion

In response to question 20, the writing teachers endorse three core teaching foci when teaching the English argumentative essay genre (Table 46). For participant 2, writing a rational argumentation is in the first place based on a good organizational plan. She maintains that accomplishing the goal of persuasion is largely dependent on the organization of arguments. Secondly, she underlines the use of the appropriate language of argumentation. Participant 1, on the other hand, adds the component of using explicit cohesive markers to signal the presentation of argumentation. She holds that these linguistic tools contribute significantly to the success of this form of communication.

6.1.5 Section Five

In this section, which comprises one question, an array of rhetorical patterns and communication styles appearing in the learners' argumentative essays is presented to the writing staff for explanation and evaluation. The responses to question 21 are displayed in Table 47.

Q21: How do you usually perceive and handle *discourse* (above the sentence) problems that occur in the following areas when you teach argumentative essays?

Table 47

Teachers' Perceptions and Attitudes Towards Recurrent Rhetorical Patterns and Communication Styles

Pattern / Style	Perception	Treatment
A Excessive coordination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Problem of sentence variety - Load of ideas - Over-teaching discourse markers - Lack of revision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Organization and editing - Checking sentence variety
Excessive subordination	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - L1 interference - Lack of vocabulary in English - Problems of Wordiness and exactness - Lack of concentration - Hurry - Not distinguishing speech from writing - Lack of editing - Interference - Hypercorrection - Influence of spoken style 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Just making the point - Attentiveness - Editing - Suggesting sentence divisions - Encouraging editing
B Absence of counter-arguments (one-sided argumentative essay)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Poor knowledge about the topic - Problem in the stage of outlining - Avoiding complexity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Using model essays - Attentiveness - Editing - Mastery of rules - acceptance - Reject the essay
Misplacement of Arguments and counter-arguments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Not considering outlining - Ignorance - Lack of knowledge - Weak command of rules 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Stressing outlines

Table 47

(Continued)

Pattern / Style	Perception	Treatment
B - Lack of refutation of counter-arguments	- Complexity of argumentation	- More emphasis on the point
	- Students consider it redundant	- Editing
	- Ignorance of the techniques of arguing	- Feedback
	- Lack of instruction	- Practice
	- Ignorance of the techniques of how to close an essay	- No treatment
Use of rhetorical questions as thesis statements	- Lack of practice	- Reformulation of thesis
	- Inattentiveness	- Editing
	- Ignorance	- No treatment
	- Instruction	
Indirectness of the introduction	- Lack of mastery of introduction writing strategies	- Adding focus
	- Attempt to attract readers	
	- Vagueness	
	- Uncertainty	
	- Overgeneralizing a strategy	
C Implicitness or absence of opinion	- Purposeful tendency to be vague	- Thesis revision
	- Objectivity	- Acceptance
	- Balance	- No treatment
	- Neutral	- Elimination
	- Laissez-faire	
	- Interference	
Misplacement of writer's opinion	- Random way of thinking and lack of planning and practice	- elimination
	- Subjectivity	
	- Ignorance	

(Continued)

Table 47*(Continued)*

Pattern / Style	Perception	Treatment
D Overuse of demonstratives	- Spoken language of teachers	- Emphasizing academic style
	- None	- Eliminating wordiness
Overuse of passive voice	- Problem of wordiness	- No treatment
	- Not noticed	- Eliminating informality
	- L1 effect	- Teacher or peer feedback
	- being short informed	- More practice
	- Ignorance	- No treatment

(Continued)**6.1.5.1 Category A**

In category A, the writing teachers expressed their potential explanations of three rhetorical patterns detected in the students' writing at the sentence construction plane, that is, excessive coordination, excessive subordination and sentence load.

(i) Excessive coordination

As for excessive coordination (see Section 5.1.1), the respondents attribute it to the students' weakness to vary sentences while expressing a load of ideas. Two important issues are raised by the participants. Participant 4 links this discourse phenomenon to the practice of revising one's first draft, whereas Participant 1 holds that it is the result of the teachers' overemphasis laid on using coordinators. To treat the learners' failure to observe the norms of balancing coordination and subordination, the writing teachers see that students ought to be given opportunities of organization and further editing.

(ii) Excessive Subordination

The second rhetorical tendency of excessive subordination is not reported in the literature on Arabic-speaking students' L2 writing. The participants regard this discourse phenomenon as the product of multiple factors. However, the participants mention other reasons which range between deficiency in vocabulary stock, wordiness, hasty, non-thoughtful writing and the influence of speech on writing. Following the instructors' routine treatment to this discourse tendency, a teacher can encourage attentiveness to stylistic aspects, suggest sentence revisions and devise editing exercises to eliminate such stringy sentences.

(iii) Sentence Load

As for, the observed tendency to compose simple sentences of a heavy load of phrasal components, the interviewees see that the students do not edit their texts, hypercorrect and are influenced by spoken style. Again, they mention interference as an explanatory factor and show a tendency towards editing as a remedy.

6.1.5.2 Category B

In category B, the rhetorical patterns which were presented to the writing teachers have to do with the use of through-argumentation or counter-argumentation. As noted in section 5.1.2, the student writers were found to use more frequently the first pattern, while they were also found to produce non-conventional forms of the second one. The teachers' perceptions and treatments of each rhetorical tendency are reported in this section.

(i) Lack of Use of Counter-arguments

Concerning the writing of a through-argumentative essay (one-sided argumentative essay), the teachers hold dissimilar views: Participant 2 and Participant 3 consider the omission of counter-arguments from the discussion a sign of poor knowledge about the topic. Participant 1 relates it to inadequate outlining, whereas Participant 4 explains that it

shows avoidance of complex forms of argumentation. As for treatment, Participant 4 states that she does not consider the essay faulty taking into account the students' proficiency level:

I usually encounter this and accept it. The fact that students can express an opinion and support it with arguments in a simple way is already an achievement. For me, if they can distinguish argumentation from other text types, they have reached an acceptable level. You should not forget that only a few of them are high achievers. We can in other more advanced levels attempt to introduce this more complex form of argumentation.

The other participants, however, diverge in their treatments. The latter range between using model essays, encouraging more attentiveness, providing editing exercises and more explicit teaching of rules of argumentative essay organisation.

(ii) Misplacement of Arguments

The first complication encountered by the student writers to construct counter-argumentative essays is that they misplace argument and counter-arguments. There is a consensus that students tend to misplace such core components of argumentation due to proficiency reasons. All teachers stress the planning stages of writing and suggest more practice on outlining as a treatment. Participant 1, for example, clarifies that this tendency is not unique to argumentative texts:

Really it's a problem not only in the argumentative essay but also in the other types. The students, most of them, not all of them, despite that they have a lecture of outlining, when they want to write, they do not use an outline, especially if it is a homework. The majority write without an outline. Why? I feel this happens because the outline is an obstacle. It limits their ideas or something like that. They see it a waste of time. So that's why they write as if it's free writing. So this is the problem of students.

(iii) Lack of Refutation of Counter-arguments

As to the tendency not to refute counter-arguments, one of the common rhetorical patterns reported in the students' texts, Participant 1 and participant 2 regard it as a

reaction to the inherent complexity of argumentation, the students' low aptitudes to handle it and their view that refutation is a superfluous constituent. The other participants acknowledge that this problem can be attributed to lack of exercise: if students do not practice this sufficiently, they undoubtedly cannot gain knowledge of the appropriate organization of an argumentative discussion. The treatment methods vary. Participant 4 does not treat the phenomenon. The rest of respondents lay emphasis on feedback, editing and practice. Participant 2 describes how she highlights the point to her students:

We've got that case. I draw their attention to this problem because if you believe or if you don't agree with someone, you should say something about his arguments. You should refute them because having your comments or outlooks is a result of refuting their outlooks.

(iv) Use of Rhetorical Questions as Thesis Statements

The writing teachers, with the exception of one participant, attribute the rhetorical tendency of writing a question thesis statement to learning factors such as inattentiveness, ignorance and lack of practice. Participant 4, however, asserts that she presents this technique among the various techniques of writing an introduction. As for treatment, only two teachers suggest editing and revision. The others allow the students to keep such a case.

(v) Indirectness of the Introduction

The students' texts contained introductions with very broad initial statements. It is only after a long unrelated discussion that the writer announces the specific topic of the essay. The teachers do not seem to have a definite feasible explanation. Several reasons have been identified. For two participants, the predicament is related to not possessing sufficient skill in introduction writing strategies or over-generalizing contextualization strategies. Participant 1 sees this as a way to attract readers, while Participant 3 considers it

a form of uncertainty and inclination to be vague. All participants encourage editing to eliminate the very broadly related sections of the introduction.

6.1.5.3 Category C

In this category, patterns related to the organization of texts along the deduction - induction axis are examined. That is, they are evaluated in terms of opinion placement and explicitness. The student writers demonstrated a tendency to predominantly write non-deductive essays (inductive and quasi-inductive), and even in their deductive essays, they used non-conventionalized patterns (see section 5.1.3). The teachers' perceptions and treatments of such discourse tendencies are reported in this subsection.

(i) Implicitness or Absence of Opinion (Quasi-inductive Essays)

Participant 4 links the pattern to the influence of L1. In her words:

I think when students leave the opinion unstated they are trying to activate logical thinking on the part of the writer. Sometimes students feel that it is a high style not to be explicit. Maybe this is related to the mother tongue interference.

Three among the writing teachers take this tendency as a purposeful tactic to add objectivity, balance, neutrality or vagueness to the discussion. As for their corrective attitudes, two participants accept the essay and give no importance to the point, while the others feedback takes the form of editing a thesis statement that encapsulates the writer's stance.

(ii) Problems in the Statement or Placement of Writer's Opinion

It is found in the students' data that they find it sometimes difficult to place and enunciate the opinion in the thesis stage of their argumentative essays. There is agreement among the writing teachers that such patterns are the product of random way of thinking and lack of planning and practice. All of the instructors encourage editing measures to reposition and reformulate the writer's opinion.

6.1.5.4 Category D

At last, the devices investigated in this category are indicators of indirectness, a communication style typical of Arab culture. Only two in the investigated array of devices were found to be used relatively in higher rates compared with native speaker usage: demonstrative pronouns and passive voice.

(i) Overuse of Demonstratives

In the category of lexical and referential markers, the demonstratives were found to be noticeably frequent in the students' texts. While two interviewees (3 and 4) find no clarification for their recurrence, Participant 2 links it to the influence of the oral style of instructors, especially at pre-university stages and Participant 1 regards the phenomenon as a case of wordiness. To treat this communication style, it is suggested by Participant 1 and Participant 4 that instruction should focus on elimination of such informal, non-academic tendencies. Participant 2 handles it as a problem of wordiness, while Participant 3 overlooks it.

(ii) Overuse of Passive voice

Passive syntactic structures, being chief markers of indirectness in communication, should be used in academic writing in appropriate proportions. The students' argumentative essays displayed unusually higher rates of such constructions. Two of the writing instructors simply did not consider the phenomenon inappropriate, and two of them attribute it to interference from the learners' mother tongue. As for treatment, Participant 1 suggests editing work in several forms: auto-correction, collective correction, group work or peer work. Participant 2 advocates extensive practice in writing, whereas two teachers leave the style unchanged.

6.1.6 Section Six

In this part of the interview, the interviewees suggest further insights on issues related to the writing teachers' views on potential factors that lead to the production of non-nativelike argumentative essay writing, the solutions they propose to amend the essay writing instruction and some complementary thoughts they deem relevant to the topic under discussion. The major themes emerging in the responses to questions 22, 23, 24 are displayed in Tables 48, 49 and 50 respectively.

Q22: According to you, what factors may lead EFL students to write non-nativelike argumentative essays?

Table 48

Factors Affecting Production of Non-Nativelike Argumentative Essays

Main categories	Subcategories
3. Learning factors	- Selection and revising - Outlining
4. Cross-linguistic factors	- Effect of L1
5. Teaching factors	- Lack of exercise - Interest in grades at the expense of pedagogy

According to the answers to question 22, the writing staff members attempt to generally explain why university learners generate argumentative essays not conforming to the discourse norms adhered to by native speakers of English in academic settings (Table 48). On the whole, although their visions collide, they identify three dimensions_ which go in the same lines with the ones found in the literature (see section 3.3.). In the first place, the students' writing is influenced by learning factors. Participant 2 explains that regardless of the native language of the writer, a learner who fails to carefully plan, sort ideas and revise his/ her essay is liable to generate a text full of discourse inconsistencies. She states:

Most of the time, the useful thing is showing the students the main outline that they should follow because for me they cannot have a coherent essay without writing a correct outline. This is number one. Also, being selective, revising one's drafts are necessary. (Participant 2)

Participant 4, stressing the planning stage, seems to hold the same conviction:

But here I just say that students often write without bothering themselves about plans. (Participant 4)

In the second place, interference factors are put on a par with learning factors. Two participants mention that the mother tongue does influence EFL writing. They call this “translation from the mother tongue” and explain that the learners compensate for their inadequate understanding of L2 discourse conventions using Arabic constructions. In this context, Participant 4 maintains:

I think sometimes students just transfer practices from the mother tongue about what they do not know sufficiently. (Participant 4)

To enhance students' acquaintance with academic English conventions and reduce the effect of Arabic, more exposure to L2 texts can be suggested. Finally, two participants affirm that instructional context leads to some deficiencies in written discourse. For Participant 3, teaching without giving students satisfactory time to practice is necessarily an important reason of producing defective writing. Time constraints and large classes are real hurdles to teach writing at university. According to him:

I think this is mostly related to lack of practice. Usually we have constraints of time and number of students that determine the amount of practice that we allow students to make. (Participant 3)

A second point associated with instruction is interest in grades at the expense of developing writing skills. It is clear at this plane that the mode of evaluation itself encourages the stagnation of the students' writing potentials. Hence, there is need to reconsider the evaluation modes and to provide teachers with research-based tools to

develop their assessment of students writing without denigrating administrative requirements.

Q23: What do you suggest as solutions to improve our teaching of the essay genre?

Table 49

Solutions to Improve the Teaching of the Essay Genre

Main categories	Subcategories
1. Teacher development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Teacher collaboration - Teacher training - Cooperation between teachers of various modules
2. Improvement of context	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Reducing class size - Appropriate syllabi - More sessions
3. Integrating other skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cultivating creative writing skills - Introducing a reading module
4. Teaching foci	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Focus on smaller units - Fostering writing process rather than product - Highlighting motivational factors - Focus on building linguistic competence at sentence level - Focus on outlining - Teaching study skills (autonomous leaning) - Using methods to activate thinking - Focus on communicating through writing - More practice - Stop theorizing - Introducing variety of materials (motivation)

In response to question 23, the writing staff suggests a host of workable resolutions, stemming principally from their teaching context as well as from their convictions of what makes up good writing instruction (Table 49). To begin with, three participants consider teacher development a focal dimension. An instructor ought to be provided with in-service training programmes that offer staff professional development opportunities. What is more, they suggest that writing teachers traverse the boundaries of individualized teaching and move to collaborative work within and across subjects. That is, more experienced instructors should aid less skilled colleagues by transmitting expertise to them, and teachers of relevant subjects, such as grammar, have to share insights to promote a more subject-integrated approach to teaching writing. Secondly, there is a consensus among the writing staff members that the context of teaching writing should be upgraded to handle the needs of students and teachers equally. To enhance this aspect, writing class size, time allowance to teach the subject and syllabus design all ought to be readjusted. Thirdly, two participants hold that the writing module cannot be detached from other backing skill-based subjects, especially reading comprehension and creative writing. Participant 1, for example, comments that reading provides more exposure to the target language:

Also concerning the problem of lack of vocabulary, students can't find words. They have them only in French or Arabic. That's why I suggest that students should read. There should be some module of reading. So I can say, that's my principle, reading is at the service of writing. I want to pass this message to add this module, the module of reading. So now what I always ask my students to do is to do extensive reading.

Participant 3, however, sees that within the subject of writing itself some more flexible approach should be pursued to enhance creative writing skills:

We as teachers, normally, we should encourage or incite our learners to... we ought to develop in our students a sort of spontaneity and creativity. I mean by this we have to stop giving only recommendations, instructions, and advice to learners. Why don't we involve them and encourage them to write spontaneously; this is the level I want to reach with my learners. I

want to attain this peak which is to come up with students who can express themselves spontaneously.

Thirdly, the writing instructors propose an array of suggestions which promote one key dimension: teaching foci. These are grouped into four major themes

- Developing writing in accordance with language hierarchical structure
- Adopting process oriented techniques
- Teaching writing , not about writing
- Activating learner motivation

Q 24: Is there anything else you would like to add before we end?

Table 50

Additional Information

Main categories	Subcategories
General beliefs about teaching writing	- Writing is learner centered - Writing is an art (encouraging creative writing)

To end with, as Table 50 shows, only participant 3 added further insights dealing with his general beliefs about teaching writing while reflecting the effect of his original specialty discipline. Most importantly, he shows much interest in adopting a learner-centred approach to teaching EFL writing. According to him, this skill should be freed from strict guidance and overemphasis on linguistic accuracy and rules. He states:

We have to stop intervening with their learning especially writing. We give them more chance to choose their own topics, to formulate their own personal theses and to organize and discuss them freely with the aim to reach the level of creativity. Briefly and concisely we teach, but when it comes to essay writing we have to let our learners enjoy and give them liberty to express themselves without dictating too many rules and norms.

Additionally, he seems to advocate what researchers call “focus on creative expression”. In this trend, it is believed that classroom goals target advancing students’ expressive potentials and yielding original and spontaneous writing. Hyland (2003) maintains,

“Writing is considered a creative act of self-discovery. This can help generate self-awareness of the writer’s social position and literate possibilities” (p. 8). Participant 3, having a literary penchant, articulates his outlook as follows:

This is what most of teachers of written expression ignore. They ignore that the skill of writing itself is an art. When we are convinced, when we really embrace this idea and we pass it to all learners, believe me they are going to make miracles when they get the persuasion that writing itself is an art. Art is something spontaneous. It’s like someone painting, singing or playing an instrument. This doesn’t mean that we let it open. No, we do provide them with some rules but we stop at certain limits and let them write. . . This may result in students of good skill at university. We get students with talent; even we get philosophers. Why limiting students to university?

Overall, such statements consolidate the themes that appeared in the previous sections of the interview.

6.2 Discussion and Interpretations

Guided by a central research question about the way the Algerian university teachers of EFL undertake the teaching of argumentative essay writing, the way they perceive the recurrent non-conventional rhetorical patterns and communication styles and the way they treat them, the interview instrument yielded a number of practical findings. It is assumed that such input, together with students’ texts input, could assist in suggesting a model to the teaching of written argumentation at university level based on a comprehensive investigation of genuine writing problems and the common teaching practices in this academic setting. To delve into attitudes, judgments and opinions and to probe into beliefs and circumstances which underlie teaching behaviour, the interview questions targeted four core issues: (1) the context of teaching writing, (2) the methodology of teaching essay writing, (3) the methodology of teaching argumentative essays and (4) the writing teachers’ perceptions and treatments of recurrent rhetorical

patterns and communication styles in the students' argumentative essays. Additional peripheral questions endorse the core sections.

6.2.1 Influence of Institutional Factors on Teaching Writing

It is believed that language instruction is a situated activity. The teaching context spans a range of variables important of which is the institutional setting itself, regardless of the general venue the learner is pursuing in an educational institution (Brown, 2001). The institutional factors are held to be a major determinant of classroom practice in teaching the writing skill. Essential in the institutional setting is the personnel component. According to the findings, the staff undertaking the teaching of writing are all qualified and have sufficient experience to perform this task despite having dissimilar orientations. Teaching the writing skill for them takes place in the absence of in-service training programmes which can assist them to further develop their professional skills in the field. The exploration of the institutional circumstances demonstrates that teaching specified genre, despite a relative profusion of departmental facilities, goes on in a context constrained by time, class form and syllabus limitations.

In assessing this situation, the writing teachers have shown how the circumstances surrounding the performance of their mission dictate some pedagogical choices. Scholarly research on the subject endorses the teachers' dissatisfaction. Focusing on the time factor, for instance, Raimes (1983) highlights its magnitude in developing writing potentials. She explains:

Time is a crucial element in the writing process and an element that distinguishes writing from speaking. . . . So when we plan our curriculum, it is important for us to include enough time for students to explore a topic thoroughly and to try again. Students need to be encouraged to write 'messy' notes, to scribble ideas, to tear up what they have written and to start again. Only in that way they will be able to make their writing more interesting, organised, and accurate. (pp. 21-22)

Torn between lecturing and setting exercise in one session, the interviewees compress the content and introduce it to large mixed-ability, often uninspired, classes according to theoretically obscure official syllabi. It appears as it were that the logistics of developing academic writing skills in this context meet practical difficulties. Such data indicate that writing instruction is not solely shaped by mere underlying beliefs about which procedure is workable and which is not. In fact, it is sculpted by bona fide contextual data within which teachers have to act.

6.2.2 Methodology of Teaching Essays

The examination of argumentative essay teaching practices cannot be detached from the wider framework of teaching essays. The interview findings demonstrate that essay writing is a phase that university students of EFL usually tackle in their second year of study, stretching over two semesters in accordance with curriculum requirements. In principle, at the departmental level the writing staff follows a syllabus. However, all participants assert that the basics of syllabus design as regards essay teaching are not in attendance. By definition, a syllabus is “a description of the contents of a course of instruction and the order in which they are to be taught” (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). Being a pedagogical guide, it echoes the underlying philosophy of teaching, it encapsulates the content to be learned in a domain of knowledge or behavior, and it organizes this content into a sequence of temporary objectives (Kroll, 2001; Robinson, 2009). The following are the contents of the official syllabus available to the teachers:

***Objective:** Developing (planning and organizing) an essay, writing techniques:*

- *How to write a paper*
- *Polishing up style*
- *Getting rid of redundancies and faux amis*
- *Abolishing wordiness*
- *Revision of perpetual weaknesses*
- *Stress the avoidance of slogans, clichés*

- *Emphasize personal thinking*

Term project: *Students will produce an essay on a topic that interests them personally.*

What the document presents is a set of vaguely stated writing skills. The attitudes towards broadness of syllabus guidance vary among the instructors. In strict pedagogical terms, one cannot exclude the practice of using syllabi in teaching essay writing. An unambiguous syllabus lies at the heart of any method as assumed in the theory of EFL teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

At the methodology layer, generally, the writing instructors seem to have mostly a process and / or product orientation in teaching essays. Nevertheless, some shortcomings are recorded. In the first place, the final stages of revising and editing in process approaches receive little emphasis. One potential explanatory factor is time and class size constraints. In the second place, the intermittent use of non-authentic model texts (those written by non-native speakers or specially designed by teachers for illustrative purposes) enhances discourse features alien to English academic writing. Finally, the exclusion of the communicative aspects of the analysed texts renders the model texts blocks of linguistic material whose functional role is unknown. This is most likely one of the reasons that make students write in the absence of motivation since communicative needs are not met. The findings consolidate the fact that what most of participants favour more frequently are the process and product techniques_ even in the ideal conditions_ with a general tendency towards variety, enhancing motivation and linguistic accuracy. A further important fact which can be gleaned from this analysis is that there is no systematic rationale behind selecting one methodological option or the other. There is no strict implementation of one single approach. What is more, the teaching context and teacher experience do contribute to procedure choice.

6.2.3 Argumentative Essay Teaching

Through interview responses, substantial data on the teachers' practices, judgements and opinions on the methodology of teaching argumentative essay writing are accumulated. When writing argumentative essays, learners in part use patterns and styles transmitted to them through tutoring. To begin with, in the absence of any curricular direction, what the teachers underline when presenting the target genre centre around the core elements of argument, namely, expression of point of view, arguments and persuasion. Further, essay layout and argumentative language receive extensive attention on their part. Thus, the instructors can be said to abide by the recommendations of standard textbooks on what constitutes an argumentative essay (see Section 3.4.3.3). At this point, it seems that the features underlined in essay writing instruction are so far in conformity with academic writing principles. From a course designers' perspective, the same content can be presented but in a less theoretical manner.

It appears, however, through the examination of the points of emphasis in teaching argumentative essay writing that some cardinal features of academic argumentative discourse are not attended to. The instructors disregard the sorts of evidence deemed adequate in academic writing, and most importantly they attach no importance to audiences' dissimilarities, allowing learners to take their own course to achieve persuasion. In addition, the potential flaws in using logical reasoning (logical fallacies) and the appropriate use of rhetorical appeals occupy little space in teaching the specified genre in spite of their magnitude in argumentation (Murray and Hedges, 2008; Nadell et al., 2009; Wyrick, 2011). Students do not receive guidance to develop logical, sound reasoning, which relies primarily on the proper manipulation of rhetorical appeals. They are not made aware that *logos* are favoured in rational argumentation. Further, there is a noticeable lacuna in training learners to juxtapose various types of evidence to back up their claims.

At the organizational level, the rhetorical patterns transmitted to the students through instruction are worth examining. As for the introductory part of the essay, the instructors do not limit its content to strict moves or steps. Essentially, as advised in English academic writing, most of them insist on expressing one's opinion in a thesis statement, usually a declarative sentence (Coffin et al., 2003). Exceptionally, one deviation from the English model is recorded: one of the participants permits a question-like thesis statement. At this point, one can associate some students' rhetorical tendencies to instructional factors. To organize the body section, it should be remembered that in standard textbooks no single archetype exists as regards the rhetorical organization of the argumentative essay middle part. Wyrick (op. cit.) holds that the structure of this section depends on a number of variables, including the data available to the writer, the writer's capability of constructing multipart evidence, the complexity of the subject itself and the assigned length of the essay. The points of emphasis are transparency, rationality and persuasiveness. What should not be disregarded, however, is the consideration of the opposing view and counter-arguments (see Section 3.4.3.3.3).

The data suggest that writing instructors propose a number of patterns, most of which are well-recognized in English academic writing. Among the suggested forms, however, some non-conventional prototypes do exist: (1) in most of the block type forms, a sharp separation is established between two opposing views, postponing writer's commitment to one side, and (2) in the point-by-point type, one of the instructors permits learners to list arguments backing their claims in the absence of counter-arguments. Again, such non-conventional organizations, which appear in the students' writings, are due to teaching emphases. To organize the concluding stage, there is consensus that a writer's opinion ought to be restated. Apart from that, there is no concurrence as to the steps of the essay conclusion. A relative flexibility is apparent in the writing teachers' responses.

According to these data, it is clear that the rhetorical organizations of an English argumentative essay which the writing teachers transmit to EFL learners are *largely* congruent with the formats recognized in the Anglo-American academic settings, at least theoretically, with some exceptions. The latter are a sufficient explanatory factor for the students' tendency to generate some alien discourse organizations.

6.2.4 Teachers' Perceptions and Attitudes towards Recurrent Rhetorical Patterns and Communication Styles

The fifth section of the research interview concerns the teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards recurrent rhetorical patterns and communication styles. The rationale behind this component of the interview is to explore the teachers' awareness of the effect of native culture on shaping students' writing preferences and to decide if the cultural factor is the sole determinant of written discourse tendencies. In addition, teachers' insights can be exploited in the process of designing an appropriate course. The interview responses demonstrate that the writing teachers' explanations and treatments of the students' common non-conventional rhetorical patterns and communication styles are significantly at variance.

6.2.4.1 Perceptions and Attitudes towards Recurrent Rhetorical Patterns

Firstly, as for sentence clausal construction, students' writings exhibit significant but not greater than native speakers' rates of excessive coordination. Referring to the findings of contrastive rhetoric research, there is ample evidence that excessive coordination is a feature of Arabic transferred to L2 writing (Holes, 2004; Mohamed and Omer, 1999; Ostler, 1987; Reid, 1992). On the other hand, the recorded frequency of excessive subordination instances and loaded sentences in the writings of students has not been linked to a clear factor in the existing literature. On this basis, to account for them in interference terms is not justifiable. Drawing on the teachers' explanations and methods of

treatment, one can set editing activities whose purpose is to eliminate the culturally transferred pattern of disproportionate coordination through extensive practice on sentence variety. Also, a teacher can promote consideration of stylistic aspects, can suggest sentence revisions and can devise editing exercises to eliminate excessive subordination and to enable student writers generate less condensed simple sentences.

Secondly, the insights assembled from the teachers' perceptions of the students' use of counter-argumentation or through-argumentation are informative. Consolidating the findings of earlier research (Abbadi, 2006; Kamel, 2000), the rhetorical organization mostly opted for by the students is through-argumentation (see Section 5.1.2), a feature transferred not from Arabic as a linguistic system but from an amalgam of socio-ideological factors underlying Arabic language use (Hatim, 1990). However, the instructors link this phenomenon only to learning factors, such as poor knowledge of the topic, lack of outlining or avoidance of complex forms of discourse. It is important to note that even teaching practices may have a hand in projecting through-argumentative rhetorical organization. One justification is that some of the writing teachers', according to the results in the previous section, transmit such an organization through instruction to the students. This is confirmed by the fact that some instructors show a positive attitude towards essays of this type.

On the other hand, despite the fact that counter-argumentation also appears in the students' corpus_ to a lesser degree, it involves several non-conventional discourse forms, such as misplacement of arguments, absence of refutation of counter-arguments, using rhetorical questions as thesis statements and writing circuitous introductions (see Section 3.4.3.3). By and large, the writing teachers tentatively attribute such tendencies to a multitude of potential reasons, important of which are the inherent complexities of argumentation, lack of exercise, inattentiveness, ignorance and over-generalization of

teaching instructions. To treat such discourse deficiencies, over-emphasis is laid on enhancing the preparatory stages of writing (especially outlining) as well as editing and revision, all of which are cardinal features of the process approach to writing.

Thirdly, at the induction/deduction rhetorical dimension, induction and quasi-induction are patterns that appear in most of the students' essays. In the former, the opinion is postponed till the end of the discussion, and in the latter there is no apparent projection of the writer's standpoint, leaving the responsibility to the reader to glimpse the underlying position (Hinds, 1990). The writing teachers' responses regarding the way they see quasi-inductive essays_ which are alien to the Western model_ demonstrate that such organization is a purposeful strategy employed by the student writers. Corrective attitudes show that the pattern is not dismissed from academic prose, and in some cases editing is undertaken to supply a thesis statement without considering the cultural source of the problem. On the other hand, when students write deductive essays, a typical pattern of English academic writing (Scollon and Scollon, 1995), they are found to encounter difficulties in placing and articulating their opinions. Instructors link it to planning essays and suggest editing feedback.

6.2.4.2 Perceptions and Attitudes towards Recurrent Communication Styles

It is claimed that Arab speakers tend to favour the communicative style of indirectness instead of clarity and frankness, features which scholars repetitively ascribe to the influence of native culture (Feghali, 1997; Zaharna, 1995). In the learners' corpus of argumentative essays, two devices of indirectness were found to be used remarkably in higher percentages compared with English native speakers' use both at the lexical/referential level and the syntactic level: demonstratives and passive voice constructions (see Section 5.2.2.2 and Section 5.2.3.1). Turning to the writing teachers' perceptions, the reasons they evoke to be potential sources of this communicative tendency include both

learning factors and cross-linguistic influences, but they do not incorporate the cultural component underlying native language use. Such communicative preferences are overlooked by most of the instructors. When treated, feedback takes the form of approximate, unfocused attempts at editing the whole text.

Conclusion

This section is concerned with the exploration of the circumstances underlying the performance of teaching argumentative essays to Algerian EFL learners as well as the pedagogical paths which the instructors who act as informants for the present work track to teach the specified academic genre to university students. The purpose is to accumulate supplementary data, which may account for the students' recurrent rhetorical patterns and communication styles in argumentative essay writing. It has been shown in Chapter Five that both L1 cultural effects and L2 proficiency effects have a hand in engendering non-conventional discourse tendencies in the students' writings. The findings yielded from the analysis of the teachers' interview demonstrate that the writing instructors, who are all qualified and experienced in the field of instruction, act under contextual constraints in terms of time allowance, class size and syllabus inadequacy, constituting day-to-day impediments to the teaching of the writing skill at large. Further, examining their methodological preferences in teaching essays, the teachers show a tendency towards using process and product pedagogy with noticeable defects. As for the specifics of argumentative essay teaching, the content presented to the students is more or less congruent with patterns advocated in Anglo-American contexts, with some observed lacunae. The latter constitute an additional factor leading to non-conventional discourse tendencies in the students' argumentative writings. What is more, the teaching methodology is found to be based on no clear theoretical rationale. Most importantly, it is possible to demonstrate through the results that while the writing teachers' acquaintance

with cultural influences on rhetorical aspects of argumentative writing is limited, they generally associate non-conventional discourse forms to proficiency and learning factors. On the other hand, instructors contribute partly to the projection of some of such forms through instruction itself or through positive feedback towards observed patterns. It is true that rhetorical patterns and communication styles appearing in the learners' argumentative essays are in part shaped by transferred culture-specific norms, but the effect of teaching context, instruction and feedback cannot be discarded in the context of this study. In theory, the writing teachers evoke three main sources of non-nativelike argumentative writing: learning (proficiency) factors, cross-linguistic (L1 impact) factors and teaching (contextual). Notwithstanding, in practice, such hypothetical conceptualizations are not implemented when it comes to responding to concrete learner writing. One potential reason of such disconnection is that the bond between teaching practice and theoretical research on issues of first and second language writing seems to be fractured. It is only through familiarity with advances in research and how its findings can be applied in the classroom that instructors can appropriately handle learners' written discourse problems and can make the right moves. On the whole, the facts accumulated from both the learning context and the teaching context call for a reexamination of the existent teaching materials and methodology.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Implications for the Teaching of Argumentative Essay Writing to Arabic-Speaking University Students of EFL

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Introduction

Empirical research implemented in real settings is believed to be a key component that informs the process of course design (Hyland, 2009). Among the many gains that this kind of research provides is helping to determine the genuine needs of learners, such as identifying the gaps existing between actual learner proficiency and target proficiency in specific settings or collecting information about particular problems learners are facing (Richards, 2001). The present study sets designing a course for the teaching of argumentative essay writing to Arabic-Speaking university Students of EFL in Algerian contexts as a third objective. Focus is laid on developing students' competence to produce argumentative texts which conform to academic English discourse conventions recognized by Anglo-American academic readerships. To accomplish this goal, reference is made to the nature of problems students encounter in writing the target genre, which the present researcher examined in Chapter Five, and to the actual practice of writing teachers in the same setting, which is described in Chapter Six. This chapter seeks to synthesize the findings obtained thus far and to exploit them in the process of designing the specified course.

7.1 Principles of Designing a Writing Course

To design a course for the teaching of writing, a set of principles have to be considered so that the ensuing syllabus would constitute a reliable map for both learners and teachers. Models of course design vary. Hyland (2003), drawing on the most prominent works known in the field, proposes a pattern which involves a practical step-by-step process of syllabus development. According to this model, a sequence of nine stages would generate the desired plan. These are listed in Table 51.

Table 51

The Course Design Process

Stages	Content
1.	Consideration of the students (Personal goals, proficiency levels, interests, etc.)
2.	Consideration of the learning context (Duration, resources, relationships to other courses)
3.	Consideration of the target context (Future roles of learners and the texts and tasks they need)
4.	Establishment of course goals and objectives (Projected outcomes of the course)
5.	Planning the syllabus (Personal beliefs about writing applied to data on learners and context)
6.	Devising units of work and lessons (Division of syllabus into manageable chunks of work)
7.	Creation or evaluation and selection of materials
8.	Teaching the course
9.	Evaluation of learners

Note. Adapted from *Second Language Writing* (p. 57), by K. Hyland, 2003, New York: Cambridge University Press.

In the present study, the researcher could gather significant data for the first two stages of the procedure through the test and interview research tools. To learn about the target context, the researcher exploits the analysis of the target genre that was developed in Chapter Three of the thesis. In the rest of this chapter, attempt is made to draw implications, specify methodology, set objectives, plan the syllabus and devise units.

7.2 Pedagogical Implications of Empirical Findings

The facts accumulated from analyzing both learners' textual data and teachers' instructional practices data are informative in many respects. The following sections elaborate on their implications.

7.2.1 Implications Drawn from the Analysis of Learners' Textual Data

In researching the writing skill, it is argued that textual data constitute a practical source that reveals the recurrent features characterizing texts or the problems that writers encounter in manipulating certain areas of discourse. Whether they are analyzed descriptively, analytically or critically, textual data represent a practical tool to fathoming linguistic properties of texts (Hyland, *op. cit.*). From a course designer's perspective, analysis of textual features can reflect the existing gap between English L1 writers' texts and that of specific groups of ESL or EFL learners of writing and can suggest points of emphasis in teaching content or even methodological choices (Hinkle, 2002). Taking the case of the Algerian EFL learners involved in this study, the analysis of the recurrent rhetorical patterns and communication styles in their argumentative essays has led the present researcher to extract some implications for teaching the specified academic writing genre to Arabic-speaking students.

As shown in Chapter Five, traces of cultural influences of Arabic language and Arab culture were found both at the rhetorical and the communicative levels respectively in the students' argumentative essays. Areas in which the students showed preferences of non-native-like patterns include the use of through-argumentation as a general organizational pattern, the use of non-deductive argument development and the use of rhetorical questions and conditionals as markers of indirectness in discourse. Research in contrastive rhetoric and intercultural communication in relation to ESL or EFL teaching recommends that to minimize the effects of L1 culture on non-native students' writings,

first students have to be sensitized to the existing cross-cultural differences in writing. This can help them in foreseeing the challenges they may have when composing in English. The findings of research on Arabic/English dissimilar argumentative discourse organizational patterns should be made available to EFL learners through research symposia and study days. On the other hand, when designing writing syllabi, the content should make room for students' extensive exposure to authentic texts written by native professionals to affect the schematic knowledge they have about this argumentative genre. For instance, students would grasp the advantage of including counter-arguments and refutation in essays to formulate rational and unbiased critical discussions. This would reduce the effects of the cultural environments in which they have been socialized and would make their attempt to convince a potential disagreeing reader in academic settings more successful. In sum, where students are found to opt for discourse properties pertaining to their native culture, instruction has to highlight L2 features through extensive exposure to new patterns to supplant existing ones. However, it should be emphasized here that this practice is not meant to eradicate the learners' cultural identities in composition. Rather, the students should be sensitized to the fact that such requirements are advocated in Western academic settings, where readerships have different orientations and expectations, and that such requirements constitute standards according to which their writing is assessed.

On the other hand, the analysis of textual data of the learners of EFL writing revealed that some of their non-conventional discourse features are not attributable to cultural factors. For example, what the writers find challenging is the manipulation of the exponents of coordination and subordination, yielding excessive subordination, distorted use and construction of coordinate clauses and highly loaded T-units, which affect the quality of their arguments. Further, when the learners use counter-argumentation to organize their essays or deduction to develop their arguments, two salient features of

English essays, they are found to produce defective texts from a Western angle. These discourse problems are in essence the result of lack of proficiency in English writing. Such empirical evidence calls for a pedagogy where students have ample chances of being explicitly led to manipulate the target areas of English argumentative essay writing, to practise, to draft and to revise their texts with the support of feedback on evolving writing skills. “Without feedback opportunities in a writing course, there is little reason for students to be there” (Kroll, 2001).

7.2.2 Implications Drawn from the Teachers’ Interview Analysis

The use of interviews in writing research permits researchers to have a profound look at opinions and attitudes about writing issues thanks to the qualitative nature of these instruments. Interviews are thought to be vigorous methods characterized by depth in the treatment of situational factors (Seidman, 2006). The findings of the interview used in the present work indicate globally that certain contextual constraints hamper the pedagogical choices of writing instructors. Also, although instruction itself endeavors to transmit rich teaching material on writing argumentative essays to EFL learners, certain methodological and content imperfections are recorded. Drawing on the interview results, to lay the breadlines of the course to be designed, measures related to institutional context, syllabus, approach to teaching writing and emphases in teaching argumentative essays have to be implemented.

7.2.2.1 Institutional Context

At the institutional level, the constraints placed on the teaching of the writing skill in terms of time allowance and class size have to be eliminated, and the teaching staff has to be sustained with in-service training programmes allowing the endorsement of professional skills. The pedagogical choices that writing teachers make should stem from theoretical research in the field, not from circumstances surrounding the performance of

their mission. Brown (2001) considers overcoming institutional limits a crucial move that precedes resourceful teaching. In his words, “Institutional constraints are sometimes the biggest hurdle you have to cross. Once you have found ways to compromise with the system and still feel professionally fulfilled, you can release more energy into creative teaching” (p. 124).

7.2.2.2 Syllabus

Limitations in syllabus guidance constitute a hurdle for the teaching of the specified genre. Teaching essay writing should not be considered a hit-or-miss activity but rather as a theoretically informed process. Even though multiple compensation strategies are used by the instructors to bridge the guidance gap, at a minimum, they should be provided with a philosophy of teaching, an array of beliefs about learning and most importantly a concrete sequence, which can be adapted to the learning situation. In short, the existing syllabus should be renovated in some way.

7.2.2.3 Approach to Teaching Writing

The writing instructors seem to have mostly a process and / or product orientation in teaching essays with some noticeable flaws. Nevertheless, an important fact which can be gleaned from the interview analysis is that there is no systematic rationale behind selecting one procedure or the other, and there is no stringent execution of one single methodology. Drawing on such findings, one can postulate that teaching essay writing has to be backed up with a plain methodology informed by a clear approach. In this vein, it is reported in the literature that both product and process approaches, which are favoured by the participants, exhibit drawbacks, although they offer learners opportunities to study textual products and develop writing skills respectively (Hyland, 2004; Tribble, 1996; Silva, 1990). More recent research in ESL writing encourages genre-oriented teaching, in which learners are explicitly familiarized with the structural and communicative properties

of different genres by conducting a kind of model text analysis, and finally they are assisted in producing their own texts in compliance with the conventional norms of a given socio-cultural setting (Dudley Evans, 1997). However, the genre approach itself is seen to deprive students of the possibility to expand their skills of drafting, revising and editing. A derivative of both process and genre paradigms is the process-genre approach. The latter is suggested in this study, for it incorporates insights from the existing perspectives as a way to bridge their breaches (Badger & White, 2000; Flowerdew, 1993). Also, it serves the learners' needs identified in Section 7.2.1.

7.2.2.4 Emphases in Teaching Argumentative Essays

When writing argumentative essays, learners are in part pursuing a path drawn by the teachers themselves and are using patterns and styles transmitted to them through instruction. The features underlined in argumentative essay writing instruction are largely in conformity with English academic writing principles, with the exception of certain points. These recorded exceptions are a sufficient explanatory factor for the students' tendency to generate some alien discourse organizations, together with the effect of native culture. At this point, one can partly associate some students' written discourse tendencies to instructional and learning factors. From a course designers' perspective, the features of academic argumentative essays that are not attended to in the actual practices ought to be incorporated. Practically speaking, the points of emphasis in argumentative essay teaching listed in Table 52 should be brought to the fore. It is important to note here that most of them are extracted from the synthesis of learners' and instructors' needs, while some are suggested by the teachers themselves:

Table 52***Points of Emphasis in Argumentative Essay Teaching***

Essay content	Essay organization	Skills	Reader considerations	Building Schematic knowledge
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Core elements of argumentation: difference of opinion, standpoints, arguments, counter-arguments and refutation ▪ Argumentative language ▪ Types of evidence ▪ Logical fallacies ▪ Rhetorical appeals 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Rhetorical organisation patterns ▪ Inductive Vs deductive argument development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Extensive practice on outlining argumentative essays ▪ Extensive practice on revising and editing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Types of audiences ▪ Academic argumentative style ▪ Differences between Arabic argumentation and English argumentation. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Extensive exposure to English academic argumentative texts

7.2.2.5 Motivation Considerations

The instructors' interview responses suggest that motivational concerns represent a vital component in the teaching of the writing skill (see Table 29, Table 38, Table 40 and Table 49). According to the teachers' views, lack of motivation to write can render the teaching materials ineffectual regardless of the procedure. Scholarly research on the connexions between writing and motivation endorses teachers' beliefs. Reviewing the some literature on the issue, Hidi and Boscolo (2006), for instance, argue that a number of theoretical constructs affect the quality of writing production. According to them, (1)

interest, (2) self-efficacy, (3) self-regulation, and (4) social and cultural nature of writing all have a bearing on motivational problems in academic writing. Elsewhere they present and compare a range of models, perspectives, and methods of research on motivation and writing, as a move towards a more methodical analysis of the problem (Hidi & Boscolo, 2007). On account of this, it is recommended in the present study that designing a course for the teaching of argumentative essay writing ought to find practical ways to incorporate the motivational dimension in the construction of teaching materials. Taking a social-constructivist view, motivation in writing can be raised by construing writing as an activity for the making of meaning (ibid).

7.3 Suggested Methodology

Drawing on the models developed in several studies (Badger & White, *op. cit.*; Flowerdew, *op. cit.*; Voon Foo, 2007; Muşlu, 2007; Yan, 2005; Jarunthawatchai, 2010) and as stated earlier, a methodology extracted from both the process and genre approaches to teaching writing dubbed the “process-genre” approach is recommended in the present course, underlining both the cognitive and social aspects of the skill. Badger and White (*op. cit.*) abridge the conceptualization of writing in this approach in the following diagram (Figure 15). In this hybrid approach, teachers, learners and texts interact to supply input for learning. The learner is actively engaged in processing structure of model texts, considering linguistic forms, reflection on situational factors, multi-stage composition of texts and evaluation of his/her own texts or those of peers, while the teacher’s role gradually changes from scaffolding to facilitating learning throughout the whole process. Texts constitute a core contributor to enhance learners’ knowledge. Overall, the process-genre methodology is deemed to meet the needs of EFL learners, whose writing is subject to multiple influences, including culture, proficiency and instruction variables.

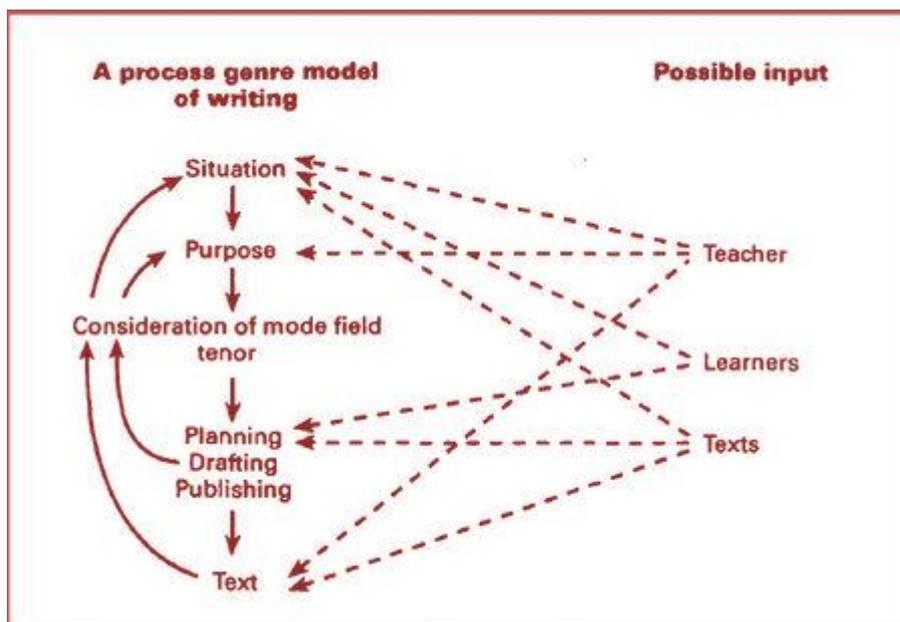


Figure 15. A genre process model of teaching writing. Adapted from “A Process Genre Approach to Teaching Writing,” by R. Badger, and G. White, 2000, *ELT Journal Volume*, 54(2), p. 159.

7.3.1 Phases

There are six instructional phases that teachers ought to pursue to enable learners to project a written text in conformity with both the communicative purpose for which it is intended and the conventional discourse organization patterns. To yield optimum results, time allocation should be sufficiently adjusted to the complexity of the content and the students’ proficiency level. The whole procedure will require multi-session lessons for each unit. Applying the procedure to the argumentative essay, several units will be devised with regard to the sophistication of both the essay genre and argumentative discourse.

7.3.1.1 Preparation

Preparation is centrally targeted at setting the contextual grounds for writing, a feature of genre pedagogy. Unless a writer is stimulated by communicative needs within a real situation, he/ she cannot perceive the goal of the whole activity. Genre has a social function, and learners have to grasp how the text’s fabric leads to the fulfillment of that

function. Important in this phase is the motivational component of the skill. Learners' motivation has been shown to be pivotal to productive writing. In this stage, the teacher involves the learners in the act of writing by raising awareness of a social situation requiring the projection of specific text type. Boosted by this overall communicative purpose, learners' thinking is activated and interest in writing is created. Taking the case of argumentative writing, students can be presented with authentic situations where people hold dissimilar, usually two opposing, views on the same issue and each party attempt to prove the acceptability of their stance. Situations may range between everyday social topics and even academic topics extracted from other subjects, such as literature, civilization, psychology and the like. In the latter case, learning to write argumentative essays is located within an academic context, in which ingenuity in critical thinking and development of argument are highly required by the academic community.

7.3.1.2 Modeling and Reinforcement

In modeling, focus is put on the study of archetype texts with the intention of discerning their linguistic and organizational properties and understanding how these are utilized to realize the general communicative goal. For non-native speakers of English, extensive exposure to model texts can familiarize students with peculiarities of English rhetoric and communication, a tool that can moderate the latent influence of native culture patterns. Additionally, learners' linguistic and discourse proficiency matters are addressed through the use of modeling. Teachers intervene excessively by guiding the learners' towards the discovery of genre features or even by giving explicit instruction. In this stage, additional exercises in which learners consider linguistic forms, grammar, vocabulary and discourse arrangement can be set to acquire genre knowledge. Basic to the whole process is that genre features are seen as exponents of social functions. In writing argumentative essays, a model essay is used. The purpose of persuasion should be emphasized. The

learners are led to determine the parts of an argument, the tools of effective argumentation, the layout of the text in terms of moves and essentially the linguistic exponents that make up the different moves. Because argumentative discourse involves a range of interacting aspects, teachers should be selective of the content supplied in this stage by setting points of emphasis for each lesson.

7.3.1.3 Planning

Planning, a purely process technique, aims at developing the sub-skills of writing, for it draws on the individual cognitive aptitudes of learners. At this stage, the teacher's role is reduced, while the learners are involved in preparing to write their own texts. The purpose and context of writing are put to the fore. Thus, writing becomes a situated activity. In collaboration with peers, students accumulate content for writing through thinking up ideas about the topic under discussion or reading related material. Subsequently, they arrange the data gathered in a conceivable outline. At this point, the discourse knowledge acquired from the previous stage can provide ready-made general frameworks for the organization of content. To write argumentative essays, students will first reiterate their stance regarding the controversial issue they have set at the beginning. They gather the relevant data to arrive at convincing the readers of the tenability their positions and organize them referring to the model they were exposed to before. At this stage, the construction of rational arguments is sought through a cautious creation of simple critical discussions. The teacher only guides the activities.

7.3.1.4 Joint Construction (Collaborative Writing)

Joint construction encompasses the act of drafting and revising the essay in teamwork. The prepared plan is expanded into a text in which students make use of the knowledge about the linguistic and organizational features they have acquired from the modeling stage. After receiving feedback from both peers and the teacher, they recursively

revise the projected texts to make sure that they accomplish their intended communicative purpose in a conventionally recognized form. When drafting and revising an argumentative essay, focus is laid on the selection and use of the language forms and the rhetorical organizations that fit the target audience and permit the writer to convince them without obscurity or misunderstanding. Teachers guide learners in establishing explicit criteria for the evaluation of argumentative essays in the light of the model texts they have been exposed to. In this way, they can develop awareness of non-conventional tendencies while generating their own texts. Accordingly, new schematic patterns are transferred to the students in a concrete, practicable mode. In this phase, teachers' feedback, in the case of non-native speakers of English, can highlight the features of academic style and register to assist students in producing texts that conform to the standards of English academic written communication.

7.3.1.5 Independent Construction

After the collaborative construction of the target genre, the learners are assigned a particularized writing task. Individually, they embark on replicating the stages of establishing purpose in relation to context, searching for pertinent ideas, outlining, and drafting while producing their own texts. In argumentative essay writing, the students will generate an essay on an unsettled issue in which they explicitly announce their position and support their stance with a pertinent discussion of the arguments they have in response to potential adversaries' views. Important in this stage is that students are stimulated to incorporate their knowledge of context, genre and process by pursuing the procedure they have learnt.

7.3.1.6 Revising

In the last phase of the teaching cycle, the new texts are subjected to evaluation following the criteria that learners have developed in teamwork. Comments from both the

peers and the teacher are supplied at this stage leading the learners to review their texts in the light of the others' feedback. Reflection on the others' writings will consolidate the bounds between context and language and locate the resulting texts within their broad genre category. Ultimately, the teacher can undertake further moves, such as publication, to enhance the learners' sense of confidence in their writing capacities.

7.3.2 Merits of the Suggested Methodology

In this study, significant data have been accumulated on the inconsistencies students produce when writing argumentative essays due to multiple reasons. Also, useful insights have been gleaned from teachers' account of the teaching of the specified genre. In the light of examining both the learning trouble spots and the teaching contexts, points of emphasis have been identified to serve as guidelines in course development. The process-genre approach suggested in the present work seems to dovetail with many of the emphasized issues.

In the first place, the process-genre approach offers tools to reduce the effect of learners' L1 cultural features on EFL writing. In this study, rhetorical and communicative impacts of native culture have been detected in the writings of the students in the form of discourse features alien to an English reader. Scholars with a product and genre orientation to writing suggest that cultural influences on EFL writing can be minimized by providing learners with sufficient input in terms of linguistic knowledge through explicit instruction (Angelova & Riazantseva, 1999; Kirkpatrick, 1997) or model texts (Johnson and Duver, 1996; Kaplan & Shaw, 1983), two features that the process-genre approach takes as indispensable to the development of the writing skill.

Further, the process-genre methodology, with its process orientation, offers learners ample scope for developing the linguistic skills of planning, drafting and revising their texts. Badger and White (2000) state that the process approach underlines the skills used in

writing and acknowledges that what learners bring to the writing classroom upgrades writing aptitudes. Shih (1986) clarifies that in this paradigm, “Students are given sufficient time to write and rewrite, to discover what they want to say, and to consider intervening feedback from instructor and peers as they attempt to bring expression closer and closer to intention in successive drafts” (p. 623). EFL writing problems do not occur solely due to cultural influences. It has been shown in this study, according to the interview data, that the instructional methods which do not offer students opportunities to practise writing satisfactorily lead to difficulties to assimilate the discourse conventions of the target language and inconsistencies at the textual level. In the context of this study, the writing instructors highlight the role of the preparatory stage of outlining. Also, they recommend the use of extensive editing and revision to treat most of the observed writing deficiencies, and they see them as high-yielding techniques in developing written discourse competence. The selected approach thus meets the instructors’ needs.

A further inducement to use the process-genre approach is the aspect of responding to motivation concerns through contextualization of writing. On the one hand, students who see the purpose of writing in context feel the need to communicate in writing and seek to learn about ways of fulfilling their goals. By addressing the social dimension of writing, the suggested methodology obviates the sterility of the product and process approaches and enables students to make meaning in real contexts. In the present study, it has been reported that creating motivation to write can determine the success or failure of writing instruction.

7.4 Argumentative Essay Writing Course

7.4.1 Goals

The course aims at developing graduate students' discourse competence of writing an academically acceptable essay in which they establish a position about a disputable issue and give reasons in support of it to convince a potential disagreeing reader of its acceptability.

7.4.2 Objectives

On completion of this course students will be able to:

- i. Express in essay form the core elements of argumentation.
- ii. Write argumentative essays in a conventionally-recognised pattern of organisation.
- iii. Manage the basics of sound reasoning in argumentative essay writing.
- iv. Manage the tools of effective academic argumentation in argumentative essay writing.

7.4.3 Course structure

The writing course comprises four units, each of which develops an aspect of writing an academic argumentative essay. The aspects developed in every section are points of emphasis to be positioned within the essays' general communicative and structural frameworks. Table 53 demonstrates the contents of each unit. The course presupposes that students manipulate the essentials of sentence and paragraph writing.

Table 53*Course Structure*

Unit	Aim	Learning outcomes
1. Core elements of argumentation	To introduce the core elements of argumentation in an argumentative essay	On completion of unit 1, students will be able to do the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Distinguish the communicative goal of persuasion from other purposes.▪ State and elaborate a point of view on a disputable issue to persuade an audience of its acceptability.▪ Advance arguments in support of the point of view.▪ Acknowledge and state opposition.▪ State counter-arguments.▪ Refute counter-arguments.▪ Manipulate the various types of evidence.
2. Patterns of organisation	To develop students' understanding and production of English argumentative essays of conventionally recognised patterns of organisation	On completion of unit 2, students will be able to do the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none">▪ Write an argumentative essay of a conventionally recognized pattern of organization.▪ Differentiate and develop deductive and inductive essays according to audience.

Table 53
(Continued)

Unit	Aim	Learning outcomes
3. Sound reasoning	To develop students' awareness and use of the basics of sound reasoning	On completion of unit 3, students will be able to do the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Construct logical arguments. ▪ Identify logical fallacies in argumentation and revise their essays to eliminate them.
4. Effective argumentation	To develop students' awareness and use of the tools of effective academic argumentation	On completion of unit 4, students will be able to do the following: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Use the various types of rhetorical appeals (ethos, pathos, logos) appropriately in writing an argumentative essay.

(Continued)

7.4.4 A Model Unit

Unit 1 “Core Elements of Argumentation” is selected as a sample for the designed course. This model unit assists in implementing the suggested pedagogical material. The proposed activities may be subject to further elaboration depending on students' level of proficiency. Further, teachers can choose other texts, which they consider more adequate exemplars of the target genre. Following the recommended instructional method, the detailed phases of unit 1 are displayed below.

Stage 1: Providing purpose and context for writing

(15 minutes)

Objective

To build contextual knowledge of the argumentative essay genre by stressing the purpose of persuasion in an academic context in order to make students involved in writing.

Task 1

Using any of the motivating tools such as picture, advertisement, video, etc, the teacher selects an area of discussion which may generate an issue over which students disagree.

For example:



Task 2

Through discussion, the teacher and students formulate the issue: (Should the Algerian government permit the exploitation of shale gas in Algeria?)

Task 3

The teacher explores the students' attitudes and stimulates the *need* for persuasion to settle the debate.

Task 4

The teacher links the purpose of persuasion to the text to be produced (an argumentative essay) and activates students' thinking about possible ways to achieve that purpose in their texts.

Stage 2: Modeling and Reinforcement

(45 minutes)

Objectives

To expose students to the cardinal components of an argumentative essay and to show their relation to the overall goal of persuasion.

To help students gain an understanding of the various linguistic exponents of the core elements of an argumentative text.

Task 1

Students read the text and discuss the subsequent questions.

The idea of helping someone less fortunate is not a novel idea in our society. However, when people think about helping someone by giving a part of their body away, they become uncomfortable. According to Donate Life America, a Web site that promotes donation, organ donation is “the process of giving an organ or a part of an organ for the purpose of transplantation into another person” (“Understanding Donation”). In addition to organs (like the heart, liver, and eye), tissue, blood, and corneas can be donated when a person dies. It is also possible to donate parts of organs or entire organs (like a kidney) while living. Organ, eye, and tissue donation can serve humanity in a number of ways.

Organ donation saves lives. I have volunteered for four years with Upstate New York Transplant Services, which works to promote organ donation awareness. I have become close to a woman who chose to work with UNYTS because of a personal experience. Her four-year-old daughter was diagnosed with a failing heart and needed a transplant as soon as possible. Every day, the girl's breathing became more labored. Finally, a heart was located. After she had the transplant, however, she began to lose blood and required a large amount of blood. Because of the generosity of a family and countless individual blood donors, this young girl now lives a healthy life.

The most compelling argument for organ donation comes from statistics. Over 100,000 people need organ transplants right now, and someone is added to the

waiting list every ten minutes (“Understanding Donation”). In 2009, a total of 7,048 patients died while waiting for an organ. This number is up from 2000, when it was only 5,000 (Delmonico). If more people were willing to donate their organs after death or even contribute while they were living, these numbers could decrease substantially.

Even if the person is not eligible to donate organs to someone else, he or she can donate them to research that may further medical knowledge. In 2007, researchers discovered a link between the Epstein-Barr virus and multiple sclerosis by examining the postmortem brain tissue of a donor who had MS (“Brain Tissue”). This advance in science occurred only because someone’s family members decided that they wanted to try to help others with MS, even though their own family member could no longer be helped.

Some people dislike the prospect of organ donation, either for themselves or for their loved ones. Usually, these people have misconceptions about it. The Mayo Clinic Web site addresses some of these mistaken ideas in “Organ Donation: Don’t Let These Myths Confuse You.”

Many people believe that if they are a registered organ donor, the hospital staff won’t work as hard to save their life. This is not true. The doctor who tries to help you is not the same doctor who would be concerned with the transplantation. Your doctor’s job is to save your life. In that moment, he cares about nothing else.

Others worry that they won’t actually be dead when the death certificate is signed. This is highly unlikely. According to the Mayo Clinic, “people who have agreed to organ donation are given more tests (at no charge to their families) to determine that they’re truly dead than are those who haven’t agreed to organ donation.” These tests would be reassuring to the family, as well.

Another major concern that comes up is disfiguration of the body. People believe that they won’t be able to have an open-casket funeral if they donate their organs. This is untrue. The body is clothed so that no signs of organ donation can be seen. For bone donation, a rod may be inserted in place of the bone. For skin donation, a small sample of skin can be taken from the back of the donor and placed where the donated skin was taken.

Finally, many people worry whether their religion accepts organ donation. Courtney S. Campbell addresses this issue in her article “Religion and the Body in Medical Research.” She recognizes two key characteristics of organ donation — “altruistic intent” and “therapeutic expectation” (281) — that explain why most religions accept it. Altruistic intent means that the donor is giving an important gift to the recipient without expecting anything in return. Therapeutic expectation means that this gift is expected to “offer a pronounced therapeutic prospect for the recipient” (281). Basically, these concepts simply mean that

because the donor is trying to help someone else save his or her life, donation is acceptable in almost any situation.

Most people decide not to donate their organs for reasons that are untrue. If everyone donated their organs when they died, we would make enormous advances in science as well as save countless lives. The best way to become an organ donor is to talk to your family. If they know what you want to happen when you pass away, they are much more likely to carry out your wishes. In most states, you can also sign the back of your driver's license to indicate that you would like to be an organ donor. Organ donor cards are available online, and many states have a donor registry that you can become a part of. Become an organ donor; save a life!

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(An edited essay adapted from: McWhorther, 2012, pp. 522-24)

Questions:

1. Do you think the writer and reader hold the same position regarding the issue of organ donation? Why?
2. What does the writer intend to convince the reader of? In which part of the text is this announced?
3. Identify in the text the reasons that the writer lists in order to convince the reader of the acceptability of his/her position?

4. What means does the writer use to give strength to these reasons?
5. Identify in the text any reasons advanced against the writer's position?
6. How does the writer treat these reasons?
7. How does the writer conclude the discussion?
8. To what extent does the writer succeed in persuading the readers of the acceptability of her opinion?

Task 2

The teacher provides the students with a copy of the text in which the cardinal components of argumentation are clearly highlighted then recapitulates the discussion focusing on the following points, while students consider the points in context:

- The act of writing argumentatively involves primarily the expression of a **standpoint** or an **opinion** on an issue that is unsettled. Basic to argumentation is the existence of a **difference of opinion** on this issue; otherwise there is no point in discussing one's claims. The writer of an argumentative text addresses an **audience** who are supposed to hold a dissimilar outlook.
- The purpose of argumentation is **to convince** (persuasion), that is, to affect the thoughts or even the actions of the potential reader and to make him/her accept the writer's position as regards the issue under discussion.
- In essence, mere expression of opinion does not make a text argumentative: a writer's claim has to be backed up with **arguments** and has to reach the effect of **persuasion**. Advancing arguments relies on principles of reasoning and rationality.
- Potential **oppositions** to a writer's claims should be anticipated. An expected argument against one's claims is called a **counter-argument**. In the course of presenting one's arguments, a writer should anticipate opposition and should strive to reply to a potential adversary's claims through **refutation** (or **rebuttal**).

- A sound argument involves advancing sufficient and adequate **evidence**.
- To support a writer's argument, a blend of evidence types can be used to make the argument sound. The choice of evidence type depends on the purpose and especially the audience. Evidence can take the following forms:
 - a. An authority, such as an expert in the field or research findings,
 - b. A testimony (personal observation or experience) of others whose views are relevant to the topic,
 - c. Up-to-date, pertinent, and exact statistics selected from trustworthy, first-hand sources which are reputable and authoritative,
 - d. Representative and familiar examples (specific cases related to the argument) from which a writer can arrive at a generalization,
 - e. Relevant anecdotes expressed with narrative expressiveness and authenticity.

Task 3

Students read the text and examine the forms of expressing opinions, arguments, counter-arguments and refutation in the text and fill in the table:

<i>Components</i>	<i>Expressions</i>
Opinion
Argument
Evidence
Counter-argument
refutation
Useful linking devices

Task 4

Students read text 2 and extract more forms.

Despite the possible benefits to society, nuclear energy should not be restored as a fuel source. Many scientists and researchers claim nuclear energy is desirable as an energy source because it creates enormous amounts of power from small resource. Although this may be true, there are other costs that outweigh the purely monetary. In 1986, in the Ukrainian town of Chernobyl, a nuclear reactor accident killed 31 Soviet citizens and caused 100,000 people to be evacuated. A radioactive cloud covered much of northern Europe and Great Britain. Military leaders in Washington, D.C. state that a nuclear energy industry will also ensure a continuous source of radioactive material necessary to maintain our nuclear weapons arsenal for the defense of the nation. However, every year there are reports of nuclear by-products missing from government inventories. Terrorist enemies of the United States could use this material to build nuclear weapons with which to threaten us. Also, the plans for building, running, and producing nuclear reactors for energy could be used to produce materials for making nuclear weapons and might be stolen and used by unfriendly nations. The potential for disaster far outweighs the potential benefits coming from a nuclear energy industry. Nuclear energy is not a safe or practical energy source.

(Adapted from: Feng-Checkett, G. & Checkett, L. (2010). *The write start: Sentences to paragraphs* (4th Ed.).

Task 5

Students use the information below to write short passages to practice the forms.

Issue	Should tests be abolished from higher education?
Opinion	Tests should not be abolished from higher education.
Argument	Tests are useful for teachers to assess students' improvement.
Evidence	Quotation: "Tests provide for some standardization by which we judge performance and progress, allowing us to compare students with each other and against performance criteria

	generated either within our own programme or externally”
	Douglass, D. (2010). <i>Understanding language testing</i>.
Counter-argument	Tests cause stress and anxiety to students
refutation	Those who get stressed are only a minority, and they feel so as they have not attended their classes regularly.
Evidence	A survey research conducted by X (year) shows that 75% of the respondents feel anxious during tests because they missed their lectures.

Task 6

Students read the paragraph written by a first-year student and try to improve it.

People should not be rich to be happy. There are many people who are not rich, but they are really happy because they believe that money does not buy everything in life. Rich people cannot buy happiness because being happy is to find the best way to enjoy every moment in your life with people who really love your personality, not your money, and being happy is to be in a good health, and to be comfortable with your family. Rich people cannot buy good behavior, and they cannot buy the feeling of happiness. To live happily is to believe that real richness is in the soul, not in the pocket.

Stage 3: Planning

(40 minutes)

Objective

To prepare for writing essays through accumulation and organization of ideas.

Task 1

- Students are reminded of the debatable issue under discussion: “Should the Algerian government permit the exploitation of shale gas in Algeria?” and are asked to establish their standpoints.
- Students work in groups and brainstorm in search of all relevant ideas to defend their views without considering matters of repetition or disorganization.

Task 2

- Students are asked to sort the ideas into pros and cons and to establish their relationships to achieve the purpose of persuasion. Focus is put on arguments, counter-arguments, refutation and evidence.
- Students consider matters of relevance, repetition and internal conceptual relationships and are assisted in developing a clear, detailed outline, which combines the accumulated material and guides the students in writing their essays.

Stage 4: Joint Construction

(40 minutes)

Objective

To draft and revise an argumentative essay jointly making use of the conceptual constructs and linguistic material acquired from the modeling stage.

Task 1

Students work jointly to develop their outlines into an argumentative essay.

Task 2

- Students read their peers’ texts and give both positive and negative feedback.
- The teacher directs the discussion and helps students to set parameters for evaluating the content and linguistic features of the first drafts. Stylistic and academic register concerns have to be highlighted by the teacher at this stage.

- Students revise their drafts and write a second version.
- The teacher selects one of the students' essays as a model, and students examine how the communicative purpose of persuasion is achieved by emphasizing the formal /functional links within the text.

Stage 5: Independent Construction

(15 minutes)

Objective

To write an argumentative essay independently using the knowledge students have acquired about context, genre and writing processes.

Task1 (home-take assignment)

The teacher sets an argumentative essay assignment in which students have to write individually following the stages they have practiced:

1. Consideration of purpose,
2. Consideration of audience,
3. Enunciation of standpoint,
4. Brainstorming to accumulate ideas,
5. Outlining,
6. Drafting,
7. Revising,

Stage 6: Revising

(30 minutes)

Objective

To provide students with opportunities to evaluate their written products.

Task 1

Both students and the teacher supply feedback on the produced argumentative essays regarding the realization of the core elements of argumentation in text.

Conclusion

The object of this chapter was to develop a learned methodology and empirically-informed materials for the teaching of argumentative essay writing to Arabic-speaking university students of EFL in Algerian contexts. The suggestions offered in this section are believed to alleviate the difficulties that the target learners encounter in the composition of the specified genre. This is indeed but a step towards enabling university students to manipulate the intricacies of argumentative writing in other more sophisticated academic genres, such as critiques and dissertations. Algerian learners of EFL have to perceive the inevitability of becoming skilled at developing academic argument to *rationally* convince international readers of their intellectual claims. It is commonplace that many proficient EFL writers fail in transmitting insightful messages or winning scholarly debates not due to deficiencies in their linguistic knowledge of English but due to the non-conformity existing between what they take as argumentation and what the adversaries expect it to be.

GENERAL CONCLUSION

In this thesis, the present researcher has attempted to explore the extent to which the rhetorical and communicative features of Algerian EFL learners' native culture affect their writing of English argumentative essays and has worked towards designing a university writing course for the teaching of the specified genre. As stated in the opening section of this work, this study is but a fulfilment of the need to bring research-based approaches to the day-to-day classroom practices of teaching writing in ESL and EFL contexts to convert these practices from impromptu activities into learned ones.

The choice of the argumentative essay writing genre has emerged from both theoretical and practical motives regarding the intricate features of argumentative discourse. Indeed, argumentation is by far a common but a highly complex type of communication, occurring pervasively in a wide range of contexts both in speech and in writing. People embark on argumentation to resolve differences of opinions, a core constituent of human intellectual existence. To delve into argumentative discourse, one gets involved in a multitude of inherent complicated facets of the act of arguing. Scholarly research shows that argumentative discourse exhibits additional complications when it is projected in academic writing due to the intrinsic minutiae of writing itself, and it gets even more sophisticated when the writer is a FL or a SL learner of a certain language. In view of this, the skill of arguing convincingly in a written essay is held to be a cardinal criterion in the assessment of EFL learners' academic success, for it reflects students' potentials of critical thinking, rational synthesis of evidence and construction of arguable claims. It is reported that the projection of written argument in English essays constitutes a challenge for many EFL international university students. Learners often fall in the maze of composing texts which, despite their linguistic correctness, sound alien with regard to discourse conventions recognized in Western settings, preventing learners from

participating with efficiency in intellectual debates due to the dissimilar sociolinguistic expectations of the target audiences. Putting the issue in Algerian university contexts, it appears that there is a need to fathom why Arabic-speaking students who major in English encounter similar difficulties and to take appropriate instructional measures to prepare students to succeed in projecting written argument abiding by the norms recognized by the academic discourse communities in potential international contexts.

Theoretical explanatory paradigms stress, in the first place, the impacts of cultural factors on rhetorical patterns and communication styles in EFL writing. It is believed that culture-specific discourse conventions lead to culture-specific writing problems and thus call for culture-specific course design. Further writing difficulties arise out of flawed instruction of argumentative writing and even from contextual constraints. It is hypothesized in this work that Algerian Arabic-speaking EFL learners produce alien written argumentative discourse from a Western angle on account of cultural rather than other factors. The present researcher has exploited the empirical findings of two main research areas, namely contrastive rhetoric and intercultural communication, on cross cultural differences in argumentation to make such assumptions. In addition, the researcher deemed it necessary to shed light also on the instructional context to gain further information prone to explicate learner difficulties in argumentative writing. On account of all these data, four research questions have been formulated to guide this study:

- (1) Do the argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features which can be attributed to the effect of transfer of Arabic rhetorical patterns?
- (2) Do the argumentative essays written by Algerian EFL learners demonstrate discourse features which can be attributed to the effect of transfer of Arab communication styles?
- (3) Does transfer of native rhetorical patterns and communication styles constitute the major factor leading to problems in argumentative essay writing?

(4) How do the Algerian university teachers accomplish the teaching of argumentative essay writing: how do they perceive the observed problems of students in writing this genre? And how do they proceed to solve them?

To locate this study in its theoretical context and to develop operational tools for the measurement of the phenomena under scrutiny, the relevant literature has been reviewed and critically synthesized. Firstly, the wide-ranging and multidisciplinary realm of argumentation studies has been surveyed for the purpose of providing the researcher with deep expertise and technical vision when discussing argumentative issues. Secondly, scholarly research in contrastive rhetoric and intercultural communication has also been consulted in order to assemble ample insights on cross-cultural differences in argumentation. Special emphasis has been put on the recorded differences between English argumentation as opposed to Arabic argumentation. Like all languages, both English and Arabic are closely tied to entire systems of cultural norms of their respective communities. Such norms affect thinking and communication, among other aspects, of both English speakers and Arabic speakers. Finally, the review of literature incorporated a section in which written argumentation is positioned within the context of teaching ESL or EFL writing. It is believed that projecting argument in such contexts is affected by the approach adopted in teaching writing, the inherent complexities of the writing skill itself for ESL or EFL learners as well as the salient features of the target argumentative genre that learners have to be acquainted with. Therefore, the last section of the review of literature has examined the spectrum of approaches in second language writing research, ESL/EFL problems in written discourse, and at last the characteristics of the English argumentative essay that non-native students have to learn.

To answer the above-stated research questions, two research instruments have been developed to gather both quantitative and qualitative data: writing test intended to obtain

argumentative essays from the EFL post-graduate student participants and a survey interview addressed to EFL university teachers of writing. In the treatment of the data elicited through the first research method, the present researcher employed a set of standardized quantification procedures for the analysis of the learners' textual corpus to arrive at an empirical account of the genuine rhetorical and communicative preferences of the student writers. On the other hand, a dissimilar approach characterized the processing of the teachers' interview responses. Being qualitative in nature, the data were subjected to multi-stage coding of content to sort it into manageable thematic categories. Profundity has been sought regarding the exploration of instructional practices and teachers' attitudes as regards the teaching of the argumentative essay genre. Ultimately, through the process of methodological triangulation, the present researcher was able to amass considerable information on the factors underlying the learners' discourse tendencies when writing the specified genre.

The findings of study are illuminating. The results obtained from the analysis of the learners' textual data demonstrate that signs of learners' native culture effects were located both at the rhetorical and the communicative levels, but cultural impacts were not the only explanatory factors of the learners' problems in argumentative essay writing. Some of their non-conventional rhetorical and communicative tendencies are essentially the outcome of the learners' level of proficiency in English writing. The results obtained from the analysis of the teachers' interview responses reveal that in accomplishing the teaching of argumentative essay writing, the writing instructors in the setting of this study were found to be affected by teaching context restraints. They generally opt for process and product techniques when dealing with essays. Their teaching of the specified genre demonstrates many strengths but with some deficiencies both at the content and the methodology levels. Their perception of the recurrent rhetorical patterns and communication styles in learners'

texts shows their focus on teaching written argument in the dearth of awareness of theoretical issues on potential cultural influences and lack of plain syllabus guidance. Taken together, the findings suggest that the discourse problems that the Algerian EFL learners who acted as informants for this study face in writing English argumentative essays stem from multiple sources. Cultural influences are not the determinants of writing difficulties.

Exploiting such findings, there was an attempt in this thesis to address the issue of designing an appropriate course for the teaching of the argumentative essay genre built on factual learning and teaching data. The present researcher developed a course for the teaching of argumentative essay writing to Arabic-speaking university students of EFL following the process-genre pedagogy due to the virtues of the approach and its correspondence to the pedagogical implications of the obtained results. Indeed, the ultimate goal was to reduce the remoteness between learners' actual discourse inconsistencies in writing argumentatively and the sociolinguistic expectations of Western readerships. Through this work, the author of the thesis attempted to fathom the causes which engender non-nativelike writing of argumentative essays, a genre that "lies at the heart of academic writing" and to bring some improvement to the teaching materials at the Department of English. At this point, we turn to our initial proposition that a successful performance of writing instruction requires attentiveness to the wide-ranging variables which affect classroom practice and a firm groundwork in theoretical issues of first and second language writing research.

Research is by no means absolute or faultless. Even though considerable efforts have been made to achieve a satisfactory level of objectivity in the course of reviewing the relevant literature, developing research instruments and analyzing research findings, a statement about the limitations of the present work has to be made. To start with, issues of

external validity of research conclusions are posed. This piece of research reported the findings of an in-depth study of a particular situation: it was conducted in a particular research setting, limiting the findings to the departmental level. The purpose was not to map the general field of investigation. Therefore, although the insights drawn seem to be of high importance to the case under examination, they may not be generalized to other contexts. Another issue is the inherent weaknesses of the research instruments. On the one hand, essay writing tests have been disapproved of for generating unreliable data. Added to that is their negligence of planned learning outcomes and their liability to be scored with bias and prejudice (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). On the other hand, the use of interviewing in research is known to have some caveats, especially those related to researchers' subjectivity in recording and interpreting of the data and their lack of training in interviewing skills (Mackey & Gass, 2005). A third limitation in this study concerns the analysis of the data. In principle, to increase reliability, researchers can make use of multiple raters to guarantee that anyone treating the data will get similar results each time. Then, they can make use of statistical tools to calculate inter-rater reliability. However, it was not practically possible to have a second or third party to undertake the task of reanalyzing the data. Furthermore, when the present researcher attempted to weigh students' written texts against those of native speakers, problems of comparability were posed due the fact that the results of previous research on English native speakers' writings were not obtained under the same conditions. A fourth limitation in the present work is related to the array of rhetorical patterns and the specific indirectness devices that the researcher has opted for to be measuring parameters for the study of cultural influences on EFL learners' argumentative essay writing. The study could have included further parameters identified in the literature on the cross cultural differences between English and Arabic argumentation. As explained earlier in the thesis, all these are potential areas in

which the learners' native culture is likely to influence argumentation in English. Finally, the thesis was concluded by suggesting procedural manual for teaching of argumentative essay writing to Arabic-speaking university students of EFL. The units in the proposed manual are not fully elaborated by reason of time and space restrictions.

Having accomplished the goals specified in the introduction of this work, new research perspectives come into view as a result of the findings and the limitations. Future studies can examine whether additional features of Arabic and Arab culture affect EFL learners' English argumentation. Such features include: discourse level repetition, types of evidence in argumentation, styles of persuasion, affectiveness and elaborateness. The investigation of these linguistic phenomena requires the development of meticulous measuring devices. Furthermore, multi-site studies could be undertaken to address the concerns of generalizing the research findings of the present work. That is to say, future research may duplicate the present investigation, including both the learning and the teaching facets at other departments. Such practice may generate a wider picture of the EFL writing learning/ teaching situations at the national level, which in turn may help in refining national EFL writing curricula in university contexts. At last, the effectiveness of the proposed teaching methodology and materials can be tested in an experimental study in which groups of learners receive treatment using the recommended course. It is only through application of courses in real classes that efficacy can accurately and practically be determined.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Students' Writing Test

Appendix II: Interview Guide

Appendix III: A Sample of the Segmentation Process

Appendix IV: Clausal Classification of T-units in the Corpus

Appendix V: Indirectness Devices in the Corpus

Appendix VI: Samples of Students' Essays

Appendix I: Students' Writing Test

Dear participant,

This test is part of a linguistic study conducted in connection with a doctoral research. Its objective is to investigate the writings of postgraduate students. You are kindly requested to respond to the following writing tasks.

I. The participant's profile

1. Name:
2. Age:
3. Gender:	M () F ()
4. Level of education	
5. Option	ESP () Lit ()
6. What is your first language?	-
- What languages other than your first language do you speak and use before learning English	-
- What languages have you learnt at school before English?	-
- At which level did you first start to learn English?	- Primary school () - Middle school () - High school () - University ()
2. Number of years studying English at university	-

II. Writing Tasks

Write *two* compositions about the issues below. Use the language forms and essay organisation that you think are the most appropriate to convey your message to the readers.

Issue 1:

Women have participated in elections as candidates and managed to take important ruling positions in society. Should women be encouraged to take such positions?

Issue 2:

The study of subjects like “literature”, “linguistics” and “civilisation” is useful to/ not needed by university students of English as a foreign language to help them learn this language better. State your position and defend it.

NB: The length of every composition should approximately be between 200 and 400 words.

Appendix II: Interview Guide

Purpose

This interview is part of a doctoral study which deals with problems associated with learning and teaching the argumentative essay genre at university level. It aims at collecting data on the university teaching context in order to supplement the data gathered from the learning context. Through this interview, we aim at probing into the teaching practices concerning argumentative essay writing in the Algerian university context for the purpose of enabling the present researcher to suggest innovative instructional ways to handle actual problems in this kind of writing. Ultimately, we aim at improving the present writing courses in some measure in view of an examination of real problems.

N.B. The interview will be recorded, and the recordings and findings will be used for research purposes. We assure the anonymity of the responses and the findings.

Section One: General information

1. Can you describe your general background as an EFL teacher at university?
2. Describe your experience in teaching EFL writing at university.

Section Two: The context of teaching writing

3. Can you describe the circumstances under which you perform the teaching of writing to LMD students? (Focus on 2nd year).
4. How do you assess the appropriateness of these conditions to the teaching of writing?

Section Three: Teaching essays

5. When do you usually deal with essay writing with your students? (1st year, 2nd year)
6. How much time do you usually allocate to teaching essay writing during the academic year (weeks)? Why this period?
7. Can you describe the guidance that is given to you as regards essay teaching in the official syllabus?
8. Do you find the presence/ absence of guidance positive or negative? Why?
9. What kind of resources do you rely on to assist your teaching of essay writing to university students?
10. How do you proceed when teaching essays in general (steps)?
11. What techniques among the following do you usually encourage when teaching students to write essays?
 - Students' analysis of model texts with focus on their real communicative function in a social context.
 - Teacher collaboration with students in writing an essay then independent writing by students.
 - Analysis of model texts and focus on their linguistic structure.

- Students write essays alone then the teacher collects them and makes corrections or indicates errors of vocabulary, grammar and mechanics to students to correct them.
- With the help of the teacher, students plan, draft, revise and edit their essays in several versions.
- Students write essays independently. After editing the essays in several versions using teacher feedback, the teacher makes the best essays available to the students to compare them with the weak essays. Ultimately, strong points and weak points are emphasized.

12. What other techniques, which I have not mentioned, do you use? Why?

13. According to you, what is the ideal procedure if the time and class size, etc are appropriate? Why?

14. What factors affect your choice of procedure?

Section Four: Teaching argumentative essays

15. What specifications are offered to you in the syllabus concerning argumentative essay writing?

16. When you teach argumentative essay writing, what features do you stress to make students distinguish them from other essay types?

17. What kind of introductions do you encourage your students to write to this kind of essay? (moves)

18. Can you describe the typical organizations that you encourage your students to use in the body of the essay? (moves)

19. What sort of conclusions do you encourage students to write? (moves)

20. What other features do you emphasize when you teach argumentative essays?

Section Five: The teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards recurrent rhetorical patterns and communication styles

21. How do you usually perceive and handle *discourse* problems that occur in the following areas when you teach argumentative essays?

Category A: Balancing coordination and subordination

- Excessive coordination
- Excessive subordination
- Sentence load

Category B: Through argumentation/ counter-argumentation

- Lack of use of counter-arguments (through-argumentative essay)
- Misplacement of arguments and counter-arguments
- Lack of refutation of counter-arguments
- Use of rhetorical questions as thesis statements
- Indirectness of the introduction (Very general statements before introducing the issue under discussion)

Category C: Deductive/ non-deductive text development

- Implicitness or absence of opinion
- Misplacement of writer's opinion

Category D: Indirectness

- Overuse of demonstratives
- Overuse of passive voice

Section Six: Final remarks

22. According to you, what factors may lead EFL students to write non-nativelike argumentative essays?

23. What do you suggest as solutions to improve our teaching of the essay genre?

24. Is there anything else you would like to add before we end?

Appendix III: A Sample of the Segmentation Process

Essay 31-1

Unlike the last few decades, women nowadays hold high and crucial position in society. That is, many women rule their communities and present them in different occasions. So, where is our society in this scale of « development » and its population think about this? ¶

Recently, in our society, many women participate in the election and wish to hold a crucial position. In fact, observing society's point of view, there are some people with giving women such position and there are other against such innovation. From my personal view, women should not be supported to work in such positions. Simply because there are hidden foreign goals behind encouraging women to demand such sensitive position. Surely, many women and will astonish from my view as a women. But it seem to me that I have build my understanding from a reasonable reasons. ¶

Concentrating a little bit in the matter, you can discover the trick. Firstly, it is widely agreed that women are sensitive and gentle creatures. That is, they are not used to enter such crash war where their feelings may be hearted. Also, if such sensitive creatures are responsible for making a decision, many people will exploit women's sensitivity to serve their goals. Further, our religion sets a high position for women and give them a honor task which is building new generation. Indeed, many people try to utilise this feature to make women believe that they are marginalised when they are not appointed to such kind of work. But the fact is that women are the maker of the futur and that from the sympathy at them such hard works are addressed to men. So, women should thank and praise Allah for this honor and pity with them. ¶

Finally, there are many respected positions that women can hold and serve their countries through them such as nurse, babysitter, teacher, doctor, etc. ¶

Essay 31-1 (Segmentation)	
DB	
DU	T-units
	Unlike the last few decades, women nowadays hold high and crucial position in society.
	That is, many women rule their communities and present them in different occasions.
	So, where is our society in this scale of « development »
	and what its population think about this ? ¶
	Recently, in our society, many women participate in the election and wish to hold a crucial position.
	In fact, observing society's point of view, there are some people with giving women such position
	and there are other against such innovation.
	From my personal view, women should not be supported to work in such positions. Simply because there are hidden foreign goals behind encouraging women to demand such sensitive position.
	Surely, many women and will astonish from my view as a women.
	But it seem to me that I have build my understanding from a reasonable reasons. ¶
	Concentrating a little bit in the matter, you can discover the trick.
	Firstly, it is widely agreed that women are sensitive and gentle creatures.
	That is, they are not used to enter such crash war where their feelings may be hearted.
	Also, if such sensitive creatures are responsible for making a decision, many people will exploit women's sensitivity to serve their goals.
	Further, our religion sets a high position for women and give them a honor task which is building new generation.
	Indeed, many people try to utilise this feature to make women believe that they are marginalised when they are not appointed to such kind of work.
	But the fact is that women are the maker of the futur and that from the sympathy at them such hard works are addressed to men.
	So, women should thank and praise Allah for this honor and pity with them. ¶
	Finally, there are many respected positions that women can hold and serve their countries through them such as nurse, babysitter, teacher, doctor, etc. ¶

Appendix IV: Clausal Classification of T-units in the Corpus

TEXT N°	N° of T-units	All clauses	Main clauses	Dep. Clauses	Coordinate clauses	Proportion of CTU /all T-units per essay
1_1	13	22	12	9	1	7.69
1_2	16	24	15	8	1	6.25
2_1	22	42	14	21	7	31.81
2_2	14	22	12	8	2	14.28
3_1	33	47	26	13	8	24.24
3_2	28	58	26	29	3	10.71
4_1	22	39	19	17	3	13.63
4_2	18	33	19	12	0	0
5_1	14	25	12	11	2	14.28
5_2	19	28	17	9	2	10.52
6_1	13	19	8	6	5	38.46
6_2	14	24	12	9	2	14.28
7_1	15	21	15	6	0	0
7_2	13	19	22	5	0	0
8_1	8	13	8	5	0	0
8_2	10	25	10	15	0	0
9_1	7	10	5	4	2	28.57
9_2	5	12	5	7	0	0
10_1	17	24	16	7	1	5.88
10_2	14	25	13	10	1	7.14
11_1	21	32	16	11	5	23.81
11_2	15	28	14	13	1	6.66
12_1	16	27	12	12	4	25
12_2	14	23	14	9	0	0
13_1	12	17	12	5	0	0
13_2	12	12	12	0	0	0
14_1	12	19	10	7	2	16.66
14_2	9	18	8	9	1	11.11
15_1	14	24	11	10	3	21.42
15_2	11	15	10	4	1	9.09
16_1	13	25	10	11	3	23.07
16_2	7	25	10	11	3	42.85
17_1	11	19	7	8	4	36.36
17_2	11	21	10	10	1	9.09
18_1	13	27	12	14	1	7.69
18_2	11	20	11	9	0	0
19_1	19	27	14	8	5	26.31
19_2	19	25	14	6	5	26.31

20_1	13	20	13	8	2	15.38
20_2	20	30	13	9	8	40
21_1	16	27	8	11	8	50
21_2	15	28	11	13	4	26.66
22_1	9	12	7	3	2	22.22
22_2	12	17	10	5	2	16.66
23_1	12	25	9	13	3	25
23_2	9	14	8	5	1	11.11
24_1	14	21	13	7	1	7.14
24_2	9	12	7	3	2	22.22
25_1	12	17	11	5	1	8.33
25_2	11	17	11	6	0	0
26_1	26	34	23	8	3	11.53
26_2	15	23	14	8	1	6.66
27_1	18	29	17	11	1	5.55
27_2	16	27	15	11	1	6.25
28_1	14	26	13	12	1	7.14
28_2	16	26	16	10	0	0
29_1	18	25	18	7	0	0
29_2	14	24	14	10	0	0
30_1	12	20	12	8	0	0
30_2	11	19	11	8	0	0
31_1	18	28	15	10	3	16.66
31_2	19	28	16	9	3	15.78
32_1	10	24	10	14	0	0
32_2	11	14	9	3	2	18.18
33_1	17	21	14	4	3	17.64
33_2	13	21	12	5	5	38.46
34_1	11	16	7	5	4	36.36
34_2	6	17	6	10	1	16.66
35_1	13	18	13	4	1	7.69
35_2	14	17	12	3	2	14.28
36_1	12	19	11	7	1	8.33
36_2	12	16	11	4	1	8.33
37_1	23	41	21	18	2	8.69
37_2	16	39	16	23	0	0
38_1	9	14	9	5	0	0
38_2	13	23	11	9	2	15.38
39_1	8	13	7	5	1	12.5
39_2	10	17	9	7	1	10
40_1	14	30	11	16	3	21.42
40_2	13	22	12	9	1	7.69
41_1	10	19	8	9	2	20
41_2	7	11	7	4	0	0

42_1	23	40	16	17	7	30.43
42_2	20	32	16	12	4	20
43_1	20	38	17	18	3	15
43_2	18	21	16	3	2	11.11
44_1	22	38	20	16	2	9.09
44_2	14	26	12	12	2	14.28
45_1	15	26	14	11	4	26.66
45_2	14	18	12	4	2	14.28
46_1	14	27	13	11	3	21.42
46_2	17	33	17	15	1	5.88
47_1	23	39	21	15	3	13.04
47_2	18	33	18	14	1	5.55
48_1	28	39	25	11	3	10.71
48_2	21	34	21	13	0	0
49_1	9	14	8	5	1	11.11
49_2	12	18	11	5	2	16.66
50_1	14	20	12	6	2	14.28
50_2	11	22	11	11	0	0
51_1	20	27	20	7	0	0
51_2	14	21	13	7	1	7.14
52_1	17	25	16	8	1	5.88
52_2	16	21	15	5	1	6.25
Mean	14.67	24.12	13.05	9.21	1.95	12.96

Appendix V: Indirectness Devices in the Corpus

TEXT	N° of Words	RQ	%	Dis/Den	%	Indef 1	%	Indef 2	%	Dem	%	PV	%	CN	%
1_1	210	1	0,48	3	1,43	2	0,95	1	0,48	5	2,38	6	2,86	0	0
1_2	275	0	0	0	0	1	0,36	0	0	8	2,91	4	1,45	0	0
2_1	384	1	0,26	1	0,26	2	0,52	1	0,26	8	2,08	3	0,78	1	0,26
2_2	187	0	0	2	1,07	1	0,53	0	0	3	1,6	2	1,07	1	0,53
3_1	505	1	0,2	4	0,79	2	0,4	3	0,59	0	0	21	4,16	1	0,2
3_2	580	1	0,17	7	1,21	2	0,34	3	0,52	9	1,55	4	0,69	1	0,17
4_1	322	1	0,31	5	1,55	3	0,93	1	0,31	3	0,93	6	1,86	2	0,62
4_2	402	0	0	2	0,5	4	1	0	0	8	1,99	6	1,49	0	0
5_1	289	0	0	3	1,04	1	0,35	2	0,69	5	1,73	5	1,73	1	0,35
5_2	335	0	0	3	0,9	1	0,3	1	0,3	6	1,79	5	1,49	0	0
6_1	233	0	0	3	1,29	0	0	1	0,43	2	0,86	2	0,86	0	0
6_2	224	1	0,45	2	0,89	0	0	0	0	4	1,79	0	0	0	0
7_1	207	1	0,48	4	1,93	1	0,48	0	0	1	0,48	3	1,45	2	0,97
7_2	266	0	0	1	0,38	1	0,38	1	0,38	10	3,76	5	1,88	0	0
8_1	144	0	0	1	0,69	1	0,69	1	0,69	1	0,69	1	0,69	1	0,69
8_2	232	0	0	0	0	2	0,86	3	1,29	3	1,29	4	1,72	1	0,43
9_1	122	0	0	0	0	1	0,82	1	0,82	1	0,82	0	0	0	0
9_2	102	0	0	1	0,98	0	0	0	0	2	1,96	1	0,98	0	0
10_1	326	0	0	4	1,23	4	1,23	2	0,61	5	1,53	2	0,61	0	0
10_2	306	0	0	0	0	4	1,31	5	1,63	3	0,98	2	0,65	0	0
11_1	289	0	0	4	1,38	1	0,35	1	0,35	4	1,38	8	2,77	0	0
11_2	269	0	0	8	2,97	5	1,86	1	0,37	5	1,86	1	0,37	1	0,37
12_1	297	0	0	6	2,02	1	0,34	2	0,67	1	0,34	1	0,34	0	0
12_2	226	0	0	7	3,1	0	0	1	0,44	9	3,98	0	0	0	0
13_1	171	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0,58	0	0	2	1,17	0	0
13_2	202	0	0	0	0	1	0,5	0	0	2	0,99	0	0	0	0
14_1	117	0	0	1	0,85	0	0	1	0,85	5	4,27	5	4,27	0	0
14_2	153	0	0	1	0,65	1	0,65	2	1,31	3	1,96	5	3,27	0	0
15_1	242	0	0	3	1,24	2	0,83	0	0	0	0	3	1,24	1	0,41
15_2	157	0	0	4	2,55	1	0,64	0	0	1	0,64	1	0,64	2	1,27
16_1	376	0	0	2	0,53	2	0,53	3	0,8	3	0,8	2	0,53	0	0
16_2	255	1	0,39	2	0,78	1	0,39	4	1,57	2	0,78	1	0,39	0	0
17_1	195	0	0	6	3,08	1	0,51	0	0	1	0,51	6	3,08	2	1,03
17_2	216	1	0,46	3	1,39	0	0	0	0	2	0,93	4	1,85	1	0,46
18_1	266	1	0,38	0	0	1	0,38	3	1,13	3	1,13	1	0,38	0	0
18_2	267	1	0,37	4	1,5	0	0	1	0,37	4	1,5	3	1,12	0	0
19_1	271	0	0	4	1,48	4	1,48	2	0,74	2	0,74	1	0,37	0	0
19_2	240	1	0,42	6	2,5	2	0,83	1	0,42	11	4,58	0	0	0	0
20_1	238	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0,84	2	0,84	1	0,42	2	0,84
20_2	343	0	0	0	0	6	1,75	1	0,29	3	0,87	1	0,29	0	0
21_1	280	1	0,36	4	1,43	3	1,07	2	0,71	5	1,79	2	0,71	1	0,36
21_2	301	0	0	0	0	1	0,33	3	1	5	1,66	0	0	1	0,33
22_1	151	1	0,66	0	0	1	0,66	0	0	3	1,99	0	0	0	0
22_2	200	0	0	0	0	1	0,5	1	0,5	4	2	3	1,5	0	0
23_1	195	1	0,51	0	0	0	0	2	1,03	2	1,03	1	0,51	1	0,51
23_2	148	1	0,68	3	2,03	0	0	0	0	2	1,35	0	0	1	0,68
24_1	194	1	0,52	1	0,52	0	0	0	0	4	2,06	5	2,58	1	0,52
24_2	157	1	0,64	2	1,27	1	0,64	0	0	1	0,64	0	0	0	0
25_1	150	1	0,67	2	1,33	1	0,67	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
25_2	238	1	0,42	1	0,42	1	0,42	1	0,42	0	0	3	1,26	0	0
26_1	400	0	0	2	0,5	0	0	1	0,25	4	1	2	0,5	0	0
26_2	310	0	0	1	0,32	1	0,32	0	0	3	0,97	4	1,29	1	0,32
27_1	281	0	0	1	0,36	3	1,07	1	0,36	4	1,42	3	1,07	0	0
27_2	289	0	0	1	0,35	0	0	0	0	1	0,35	6	2,08	0	0
28_1	236	0	0	7	2,97	0	0	0	0	5	2,12	3	1,27	1	0,42

28_2	290	0	0	0	0	1	0,34	2	0,69	4	1,38	5	1,72	0	0
29_1	236	0	0	2	0,85	1	0,42	4	1,69	2	0,85	0	0	0	0
29_2	241	0	0	4	1,66	0	0	2	0,83	7	2,9	2	0,83	0	0
30_1	177	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0,56	5	2,82	5	2,82	0	0
30_2	226	0	0	0	0	3	1,33	1	0,44	3	1,33	3	1,33	0	0
31_1	310	2	0,65	3	0,97	0	0	1	0,32	4	1,29	5	1,61	1	0,32
31_2	302	2	0,66	1	0,33	2	0,66	0	0	7	2,32	3	0,99	0	0
32_1	228	0	0	5	2,19	2	0,88	1	0,44	3	1,32	2	0,88	0	0
32_2	189	1	0,53	0	0	1	0,53	1	0,53	5	2,65	1	0,53	1	0,53
33_1	193	1	0,52	3	1,55	0	0	0	0	2	1,04	1	0,52	0	0
33_2	220	1	0,45	1	0,45	3	1,36	1	0,45	6	2,73	2	0,91	0	0
34_1	152	0	0	3	1,97	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
34_2	151	0	0	0	0	2	1,32	0	0	2	1,32	0	0	0	0
35_1	146	0	0	1	0,68	1	0,68	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1,37
35_2	164	0	0	2	1,22	0	0	1	0,61	8	4,88	0	0	0	0
36_1	179	0	0	4	2,23	1	0,56	0	0	4	2,23	0	0	1	0,56
36_2	214	0	0	4	1,87	0	0	0	0	4	1,87	1	0,47	0	0
37_1	402	0	0	2	0,5	0	0	1	0,25	2	0,5	7	1,74	0	0
37_2	412	0	0	5	1,21	0	0	1	0,24	4	0,97	13	3,16	0	0
38_1	137	1	0,73	0	0	2	1,46	2	1,46	1	0,73	1	0,73	0	0
38_2	224	0	0	1	0,45	1	0,45	3	1,34	13	5,8	1	0,45	0	0
39_1	174	1	0,57	1	0,57	5	2,87	0	0	0	0	1	0,57	0	0
39_2	228	0	0	0	0	4	1,75	1	0,44	3	1,32	2	0,88	0	0
40_1	216	0	0	5	2,31	0	0	1	0,46	2	0,93	0	0	0	0
40_2	273	0	0	0	0	2	0,73	0	0	8	2,93	0	0	0	0
41_1	207	0	0	1	0,48	2	0,97	1	0,48	0	0	3	1,45	0	0
41_2	186	0	0	1	0,54	1	0,54	0	0	1	0,54	0	0	1	0,54
42_1	423	0	0	7	1,65	2	0,47	1	0,24	4	0,95	5	1,18	1	0,24
42_2	393	0	0	0	0	3	0,76	1	0,25	5	1,27	2	0,51	0	0
43_1	346	0	0	6	1,73	1	0,29	2	0,58	3	0,87	6	1,73	1	0,29
43_2	219	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	1,83	1	0,46	0	0
44_1	314	0	0	5	1,59	0	0	3	0,96	1	0,32	1	0,32	1	0,32
44_2	257	0	0	2	0,78	0	0	0	0	4	1,56	0	0	0	0
45_1	258	0	0	3	1,16	0	0	3	1,16	4	1,55	1	0,39	0	0
45_2	225	0	0	2	0,89	2	0,89	3	1,33	3	1,33	5	2,22	0	0
46_1	281	0	0	6	2,14	0	0	0	0	3	1,07	5	1,78	0	0
46_2	300	0	0	5	1,67	1	0,33	2	0,67	9	3	2	0,67	1	0,33
47_1	479	2	0,42	0	0	0	0	2	0,42	4	0,84	4	0,84	2	0,42
47_2	412	1	0,24	2	0,49	2	0,49	1	0,24	2	0,49	4	0,97	0	0
48_1	391	3	0,77	5	1,28	2	0,51	3	0,77	1	0,26	9	2,3	0	0
48_2	468	1	0,21	2	0,43	1	0,21	6	1,28	3	0,64	7	1,5	0	0
49_1	168	0	0	2	1,19	3	1,79	3	1,79	1	0,6	3	1,79	0	0
49_2	220	0	0	1	0,45	1	0,45	1	0,45	5	2,27	0	0	0	0
50_1	216	0	0	4	1,85	0	0	5	2,31	2	0,93	3	1,39	0	0
50_2	253	0	0	0	0	2	0,79	1	0,4	4	1,58	0	0	0	0
51_1	210	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0,95	3	1,43
51_2	171	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	1,17	0	0	2	1,17
52_1	302	0	0	10	3,31	2	0,66	1	0,33	1	0,33	2	0,66	0	0
52_2	261	0	0	2	0,77	1	0,38	0	0	3	1,15	2	0,77	1	0,38
Median	237	0	0		0,78		0,42		0,39		1,22		0,77		0

Appendix VI: Samples of Students' Essays

Essay 1-1

Women are given a prominent position in the world. This importance towards this gender leads the majority of countries to encourage them to participate in elections in order to take leadership positions in society. However, I do not agree with those people who encourage women to this direction. ¶

I look that there are some barriers which face women in their leadership positions. Firstly, woman has particular duties towards her family, and how she will be able to balance between her family and work because each one needs both responsibility and seriousness. ¶

Secondly, there is another factor which discourages women to take important leadership positions, it is considered as a cultural barrier. Since taking such positions in society requires that women travel extensively and be absent from home, this will not be accepted from their societies, particularly the Arabic and the islamic ones. ¶

Thirdly, women have created by certain biological features which influence their dicisions such as fear. They may use feeling in their work. So, they have particular impact in the way of ruling directly or indirectly. ¶

As a conclusion, it can be said that women should not be encouraged to take important ruling positions in society because various barriers are at work in preventing them to participate in elections. ¶

Essay 1-2

University students of English as a foreign language often try to master this language and they look for the best ways in order to realise that. They study certain subjects which are considered as part from the whole program of studing, such as literature, linguistics and civilisation. Those help students to learn English better. ¶

Firstly, students should learn literature because it is so related to language. This subject provides them with important information about various types of writing which are rich with vocabulary and different expressions. Since those types of writing reflect the society and the way of thinking, they permit students to learn more about the acquired language. ¶

Secondly, linguistics is a fundamental subject to students of English at university. It shows them the main theories both of learning and language. That is to say, the students will benifit from those different and complementary theories of learning as well as from those of language which demonstrate how language will be acquired and learnt by students of English as foreign language according to different approaches. Of course, that help them a lot in better learning of English language. ¶

Thirdly, culture is another subject of study which is useful to university students of English. Since language is a medium by which people express their culture, it is needed. Through studing culture, the student will be able to understand English in a good manner. ¶

At the end, it can be concluded by saying that literature, linguistics and culture are very useful to university students of English as a foreign language in order to understand and learn this language better. So, those subjects are so needed in university. ¶

Essay 2-1

Women the half of society . If we did not say the society itself. Women have a great impact on the world from the beginning of humanity till now despite the fact of their religion. Nowadays no one can dare and say women has no role in the society or its role is around her children and home solely. We can clearly see that in the recent election sight that shows a big participation of the women side. However the question that keeps to be asked is whether women should be encouraged to take such positions in society. ¶

In the past the boundaries of society such as poverty, education being neglected as a member of a family. . . have kept the ambition of women in the silence. While nowadays women are trying to defend on her rights to be an effective member in the society there are a lot of voices that call for feminism and try to show that women just as men have convinced the world that they can hold the responsibility of such positions and there are many examples that can illustrate this view such as Cleopatra, queen Elizabeth and the military leader Fatma Nsumer and the list is long. ¶

While the other voices tries to keep the woman in its secondary role and denied her great impact on the world. To be honest, they are minority and this due to the society boundaries that still holding this pictures of taking care of her kids, husband and house. This voices are pushed by the force of misunderstanding of religion and sometimes holding the bad images that some women present. These voices are against the woman to be encouraged for those positions, because they think that woman follows her emotions and she cannot be patient as men and that she cannot be responsible of herself how comes other people. Others say that she cannot be well qualified in men fields and so on. ¶

Finally, Both views are to be considered. My personal point of view in this matter is that woman cannot hold this positions but I think our religion shows many examples of great woman who worked side by side with men and they were in the shadows and time and history really gave them their awards and humanity witnessed of their greatness. ¶

Essay 2-2

Nowadays learning English language is very important and present events and world development makes us believe in that learning language is not only about the grammar or vocabulary only in fact it exceeds that . It is about the language history, civilization, literature. ¶

The knowledge of such fields is important to learn a language . Taking a look on civilization is knowing how the language comes, its growth and how it becomes as it is now. Literature on the other hand is a glossary of the most figures and forms of language that English was effected with. And for sure not forgetting the language. Linguistics is the science that studies the language in general. This field is very important because the

findings can be applied on all languages. Knowing how languages were formulated is understanding the most important treasure that humans carry.¶

English is the language number one from its use, and knowing such information about its is taking in consideration the culture of its native speakers. This can affect our use of the english language and serves us in good way so, we can be good representers of ourselves.¶

Essay 3-1

From the very beginnings of life on earth, men and women lived together as the two building blocks on which human existence depended. Their relationship was bound on the superiority of men over women. And this was the fact until the rise of civilization and religion which gave women more respect and power. Women were protected by the law and were given the right to speak for themselves and fight against anything that belittles their position in society. Today, they have the right to attend courts, to witness verdicts, and to participate in elections. But however independent and responsible women are today, they are always seen from the same angle. The context of the Algerian society is a clear example of this situation. Women are called to participate in elections, to take important ruling positions in society but is it coming from fairness of men? The present paper discusses in brief why women should not be encouraged to take such positions in the Algerian society.¶

Algerian women worked together with men in the war against the French colonization. They took the burden of being both head of family and soldier to defend home. They were recruited just as men, planted bombs, and carried confidential papers to desired spots. They were tortured and humiliated to spare information on the secrets of the revolting squads. Their role was more important after the Algerian independence. Women were given the chance to work and take positions of responsibility. They worked side by side with men in fields which were men-restricted. Their efforts were appreciated during and after the French colonisation. But later they were treated differently.¶

The old vision with which women were seen hasn't changed in roots but changed in manner. Algerian women nowadays, are not called to participate in elections as part of their normal citizenship duties but instead they are called just as members raising the chances of one party to the expense of another. Their voices are just numbers to convince the public that one party has deserved fairly the political position and that the elections were free from any bias. Women are taken from the emotional side as the weak and fragile when it comes to decision. They are not treated as objective and rightful. They are taken to believe in words, and that is why they are called to assist speeches and conferences in which political issues like elections are raised. And even as candidates, women get to participate in elections just as a procedure by some parties to show that the elections ran without discrimination towards women.¶

For these reasons and others, I believe that women should not be encouraged to take such positions. If they accept to be taken as superficial, they confirm this view and their situation will stay as it is and worse. Women should gain back their position in society by integrating in all fields and getting their rights by intelligence and hard work.

They should hold on their ethics which have always been there to preserve their importance.¶

Essay 3-2

To learn English nowadays is like to get a driving license. It is the language globally used by means of technology and commerce. People in order to cope with the international change submit to learn English courses. They learn English for many reasons : for reasons of living in English speaking countries, for reasons of carrying their studies because some specialties are now taught just in English, for reasons of tourism, and sometimes just for the pleasure of being multi-lingual. Learners, when they submit to learn English courses, they do not expect to be taught things other than the grammar and pronunciation of the language , yet they find themselves involved with modules like ‘literature’ , ‘civilisation’ , ‘linguistics’. Most learners start asking questions like : ‘why am I supposed to learn these things ? I did not submit for this! The present brief essay sheds the light on two views about studying these subjects.¶

Studying literature, civilisation , and linguistics to some students is a waste of time and effort. They believe that learning the history and culture of the native speakers does not help them develop their language competence. Especially for students who are highly attached to muslim believes and who look at the culture of the English society as a wrongly driven approach to life that goes in the opposite way their religion always recommended. Students resist learning linguistics because they believe being acknowledged about such detailed facts does not lead to betterment of English learning, they believe instead that practice of dialogs, texts, and pronunciation helps them better overcome the difficulties of the language. Some of them consider linguistics as a world of philosophy that has nothing to do with reality, but the course designers who implimented these modules think differently.¶

They believe that the type of learners who come to literature, civilisation, and linguistics classe with these ideas do not understand the value of the subjects. Course designers have not implimented these subjects haphasardly. They understand that these subjects enhance the learning of the course, because they look at English from a holistic point of view which does not separate the language from its context. Language is related and affected by the context in which it is used. The different historical developments and even geographical changes have their own way in altering the qualities of language. Therefore studying without knowledge about literature, civilisation, and linguistics is like studying a number of words that make no sense put together.¶

As a postgraduate student of English, I believe that these subjects had a great deal with the betterment of my language development. To take linguistics as an example, it has provided me with insights on how my mind possesses linguistic items and helped me see how I can manage learning grammar rules. Learning grammar before I learned linguistics was a troublesome process, because my way depended on drilling single instances of sentence structures that if changed a bit in tests cause one to be very confused and unable

to find solutions to the problematic activities. For this I believe, linguistics is very essential in learning English.¶

All in all , I believe learners have all the right to ask questions about the nature of the modules they learn in a course they submit to, but it is the responsibility of the teachers and course designers to make the objectives of the subjects clear for the learners, since making objectives clear avoids misunderstandings. It helps the learners link the subjects and look at them as complementary.¶

Essay 4-1

Elections are one of the most important political events in our society. Both men and women are allowed to organise their compaignsas candidates. At the end, people are going to elect the one they see to be the most appropriate for satisfying their needs. It remains, however, one of the controversies concerning the role that can be played by women in such situations. In my opinion, it is better for women not to compete men in such matters.¶

As a Muslim, I believe in what our prophet (PBUH) said about communities ruled by women. According to our religion, they are cursed people those who elect a woman to be their leader. Sure there is wisdom behind this. It is because the woman is a weak creature, and thus she can be easily influenced by temptations. That is why, women are described as lacking mind and religion in Islam.¶

Moreover, it is an instinct in man that he does not like to be received orders from women. In fact, it is one of the natural rules in life that all people share. If we look around in any domain, we see that it is the woman who always needs the man. A simple example reflecting this is the family ; you always find that it is the father_the man_ who protects and looks after the family. So, if the woman cannot bear to protect her own small family, how can she succeed in looking after a whole society?¶

At last, I do not want, as a Muslim, to leave the impression that I am against the woman. On the contrary, it is Islam that gave us , we women, the most appropriate place that we deserve. Islam does not consider the woman as an inferior creature compared with man, but it does differentiate what is more adequate for each, and hence that it is not helpful for women to take part in elections.¶

Essay 4-2

In universities all over the world, the curriculum devised to students of English as a foreign language contains three basic modules ; they are : literature, linguistics and civilisation. Many students, including me in my three first years, wonder of the usefulness of such modules. Students see that the above mentioned modules are unhelpful and useless for them since their target is to be able to produce and process the English language. They, however, find themselves using a language which is strange to both native speakers and other learners of English. In fact, this happens because these learners do not appreciate the

background knowledge transmitted to them through those three modules about the way the English language is really used by its native speakers.¶

The fact that literature, linguistics and civilisation are useful modules emerges from linguistic studies devoted to the English language. Here we can see the invaluable information given by the module of linguistics concerning the English language. Linguistics has shown that learning English usage as an end in itself is not helpful for students who aim to communicate using the target language. Analysis of language instances used by native speakers in real life situations could show that communication needs more than knowing about the language system. To be good a good communicator, linguistics implies, involve students to learn the way language is manipulated according to different communicative settings. This implies the fact that it is through grasping the cultural and social issues of the target language that students can manage to become good communicators. These issues, no doubt, are to be addressed through literature and civilisation modules.¶

Analysis of linguistic instances and of all contextual components related to them, learning about the way people of the target language write and speak their language and knowing about these people's social behaviours and conventions are all to contribute to learners' communicative competence. In doing so, students will be able to produce and process language appropriately ; they will be able to evaluate their linguistic judgements about what is being produced or processed in terms of adequacy to a given setting.¶

As a conclusion, I would like to say that it is the task of teachers to show learners the extent to which the above mentioned modules are important. Before proceeding to teaching these modules, it is better for students to know about the relationship between these modules and learning to communicate using the English language.¶

Appendix VII : Interview Scripts

	P2	P1	P 3	P4
Section One: General information				
1. Tell me about your general background as a teacher at university	So I'm a university teacher I've been teaching for like 8 years at university I taught many courses including writing British literature stylistics and also oral,	6 years MA	Started in 1995 (part time). Stopped for one year. Then resumed . Started 2006 as full time teacher. PhD degree.	Assistant lecturer. I've been teaching at university for 10 years at a full time teacher. I taught for 3 years before as part-time teacher. Magister degree. I teach writing, linguistics and ESP
2. Teaching writing: Describe your experience in teaching writing at university level	and so for writing classes I taught first year and second year students Ok. I've been teaching writing for a period of 6 to 7 years. Training: Yea In 2010. I had training of world learning in teaching EFL and teaching language skills including writing. I got at that time an idea about different techniques that can use in my classroom to teach writing. (approach) We deal t with a number of activities to motivate our students to make them write essays or any kind of writing; They address the motivation aspect and how to meet your students' needs at the same time. The main thing that they have focused on is how to motivate your students, how to help them writing and how to urge them to write inside the classroom and outside. This instruction is both teacher-based and learner-based. (application) Yes I apply. The students' reaction: we often hear 'we've never heard about something like that' 'how can we deal with that, how can we correct each other'. (success) I think that the main thing is that they are your main interest. If they feel that they are your focus, they start writing because they feel that you care about them and you care about elaborating their writing skills at the same time.	Assistant lecturer 3 years 2 nd year No training	- started in 2006, didn't stop till now . - All levels, except 4 th year. I taught the second year only for one last year. - (training) when I was a teacher at secondary school. It was about teaching guided and free writing. We had to evaluate them. It lasted two days.	I've been teaching writing for 12 years at the department of English in ouargla university. - taught the first and he second year in the classical system and only the 1 st year in the LMD system. - I received no training on teaching writing in isolation, but I had a training with World Learning, whose purpose was to improve Algerian EFL teachers competence in course design. Writing was one of the subjects that we dealt with. We had discussions and observation sessions by American teachers in which a more functional approach to teaching writing was advocated. We were trained on how to focus on communicative needs rather than to use structural and linear methods that treat each writing component alone. We could develop syllabi in written expression following the principles of course design, starting from objectives and outcomes and moving to classroom practice that is planned in

				<p>advance.</p> <p>- I try to use what I have learnt in class but always I tend to be structural in perspective although I make efforts to focus on real life communication.</p>
Section Two: The context of teaching writing				
<p>3.Can you describe the circumstances under which you perform the teaching of writing to LMD students (focus on 2nd year)?</p>	<p>The main thing that I can see is that students should write coherent essays. Let's talk in terms of language. For students, it's not a matter of writing the whole essay. It's a matter of writing a correct sentence because the case is that you find that the essay is coherent, but when you see the structure, the framework or the sentences are not Ok. You may focus on coherence, but you should not ignore that side, which is the framework of the sentence because the sentence is the first unit that students should start with and should know how to write it. (Circumstances) recently we have large classes of 47 to 50 students. Most of the time if you've got a large class of 47 students and an hour and a half you will focus on some and ignore the rest because you don't know how. You ignore some others because of the great number of students. (facilities) I outside I am using a number of facilities. At university we don't have any tools. We have just a classroom, a number of chairs, desk, blackboard, handouts, ..If I try to use something different, I find myself facing a lot of troubles. So I just try to avoid using any kind of new or innovative materials just to avoid troubles right at the beginning. Outside, I'm using social networks like facebook, ... (Official syllabus) something good most of the time, unlike first year course syllabus, in the second year we have one main goal which is developing students' abilities on writing essays. (Specifications on the approach) we have got the traditional one, in which you give your students a model</p>	<p>So concerning writing as you know we have a tutorial. So we have to teach in groups. that's why we have some problems So most of the time the number differs from one group to another. 30- 40 students up to 50 students. Concerning ..I face many problems.. I have to lecture and to set activities. The other problem I face concerns sitting.; the way the students sit. I can't do some activities such as peer work and group work. also I face problem with students. The students don't know how to write. So that's why we always complain and ask the same question, 'why our students don't know how to write?' So what is our task? our task is to teach them how to write not what to write. That is why we have to motivate them. we have to provide them with the atmosphere to help them know why writing. The y are demotivated. (Facilities at the level of the department) Facilities at the level of the department. I don't think so. Even when you try to use the data show for instance, you have obstacles at the administration. It is not always possible to have it when you need it. But I am trying to do many things. From</p>	<p>For the LMD students, we don't really face serious problems in teaching written expression. Students are divided to groups and we teach them in small tutorials (TD sessions) and we have enough time to teach and to make them write. to give them the opportunity to express themselves, and we are a bit withdrawing ourselves from the process of 'teaching' this module. We give them time to express themselves and to write either sentences or paragraphs and even essays and we control guide them during these TD sessions. I feel very satisfied with the LMD system in this year and even in the previous years. There is something in addition which another advantage is, another favour added to what we enjoyed years ago. So the additional sessions which really gave us too much time to let learners learn by themselves because I believe that writing is a learner-based process. Actually we have all the facilities: actually we have all facilities. Everything now is at our disposal. We have electronic or technology the use of data show, slides we project some slide concerning particularly the use of punctuation and.... We can use miscellaneous devices and tools to teach the subject of writing. We have all</p>	<p>In the classical system we used to have a lecture and a tutorial every week. That was helpful in developing certain writing skills to some extent, but in the LMD system (I take the case of the first year) we have, except for this year, only one tutorial which lasts 90 minutes. It was practically impossible to cover all the points included in the syllabus with sufficient practice. - The number of students in each group ranges between 30 to 45 students. The classrooms do not allow motion in class (fixed tables and chairs. This hampers the application of some activities) and flexibility of students. - Actually there are few facilities to be used in class. Blackboard and chalk are the easiest to use. Printing is possible. This assists in providing students with clearly outlined lectures (or lecture points) and it allows us to use an unlimited number of home-take exercises. Some of them can be done in class. Recently there are additional tools that have become available</p>

	<p>they have to start with or you give them some ideas and you ask them to write an outline. They work on the outline to write their essays. In addition to that you've got an hour and a half that you should take into account that they should deliver a 'lecture' on the thing that you will teach at the same time. Sometimes I try to make a combination between the two: at the same time I'm teaching or lecturing on some new point and at the same time, it's a kind of activity for my students or a TD session to save time just in a way or another. We don't have much time really. Writing needs much time. That's human. Most of the time we talk about the mother tongue or the foreign language or the second language, we may say many things, we may hear many things outside but we can't write all of the time. I mean our students need much time inside the classroom. Of course in that case I make sure that they will continue outside the classroom. The time factor inappropriate. With the new curriculum I think they have a chance to have like more than three hours. This year still we are suffering, still we have an hour and a half. Just if we take into account the students' level, we've got a great number of good achievers. In that case, we've got mixed abilities inside the classroom. We've got only one student or two who can write in a 'good' way, but most of them really face a number of difficulties in writing just one sentence. To work on developing their abilities, we need much time to do that; the two are interrelated: the students' level and the amount of time to work on that.</p>	<p>time to time I bring additional materials such as my own laptop. Or I try to bring some pictures uh I try to bring my own materials. (Syllabus that you are following, the contents,) Concerning the contents, of course we have two semesters. In the first semester we deal with an overview of how to write a paragraph then we deal with the different parts of essays essay: the introduction, the body and the conclusion then outlining. (Is this division specified in the syllabus or is related to the way you see things?) This is in the syllabus. In the second semester it deals with types of essays, descriptive, expository, narrative, argumentative, etc. In the first semester we prepare them for the second semester in which they are going to write essays.</p>	<p>facilities. We have even now electronic books and electronic handouts, by university we have now sophisticated material like data shows, laptops, we have everything - (official syllabus) the official syllabus designed for written expression. I see it as is very satisfactory. what is good these years is that most syllabi are developed by teachers themselves. Most of programmes are developed by teachers themselves. It comes from within. It comes from teachers of written expression. Most of the programmes are developed by teachers themselves. That's why we've covered all the necessary or recommended points for written expression. The content and sequence are devised by teachers either in workshops or in coordination or collaboration with other teachers. But I see that it is very satisfactory for the three levels.</p>	<p>like the data show, but I personally avoid using it because practically this is time consuming and arduous for the teacher due to the technical problems and the administrative protocols associated with its use. The library is full with textbooks on writing for all levels, but students do not usually make use of them unless they are asked by the teacher. On the whole teaching this module puts many demands on the teacher to succeed in achieving his goals. - The official syllabus (2nd year) is similar to the classical one. It is divided into two sections the first focuses on developing stylistic competencies in writing at the level of the words and sentence, such as eliminating wordiness, exactness, sentence variety and original writing. The second part, which is about the essay, sets one outcome which is that students will write an essay on a subject that interests them. We teachers interpret that as writing essays of different purposes: descriptive, narrative, expository, argumentative. I just make sure that this is not explicitly stated. Nothing is mentioned about the specific objectives or the method or technique to be</p>
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				<p>followed. We are given freedom to follow any path in any form. There are no underlying beliefs that set the choices that ought to be made. Starting from this general syllabus, teachers are invited every year to review the contents and devise the right sequences to be followed according to their students' needs and their previous experience.</p>
4. How do you assess the appropriateness of these conditions to the teaching of writing?		<p>Concerning the conditions in general I am not happy. Why? Especially concerning timing. The time devoted to teach writing is not sufficient. One session a week is not sufficient. As teachers of writing, we have to reach writing by writing. If you want to learn writing so you have to write. They have to practice and one hour and a half is not sufficient.</p>	-	<p>The conditions of teaching writing on the whole should be improved. The first thing that hampers the process is the time allowance. One session a week is absolutely not sufficient. The traditional blackboard is extremely demotivating even for teachers. What I find missing also is the amendment of approaches to teach writing and reaching a consensus on using one single underlying method, of course that allows teachers to adapt it to the needs of students.</p>
Section Three: Teaching essays				
5. Why do you usually deal with essay writing with your students? in the (1 st year, 2 nd year)?	We deal with the essay in the second year usually as indicated in the official syllabus, in the second semester.	Second semester.	<p>Teaching essays (when) The essay, normally, since we think that the first year is just to set the foundation or platform for students. They come from secondary school. We try in the first year to build the platform. Just we focus on paragraph sentence, accuracy in writing etc. Then this usually comes at the beginning of the second year.</p> <p>The students show some preparedness or</p>	<p>Teaching essays is usually something that we have in the second year. Although students come from high school with some notion of essay writing, but I consider it deficient in many features of what an essay is. That is why students ought to be taught first the basics of the sentence and grammar in the first year. Also they have</p>

			<p>readiness to deal with essays. So I see that essays can be dealt with in the second year, or in the third semester. because we devote the first two semesters in the first year for building strong foundation for learners. This requires or necessitates to teach them basic elements like precision in writing, formality, academic style. All in all I see that teaching the essay should be dealt with in the second year.</p>	<p>to acquainted with paragraph writing. Having learnt this, they can easily be introduced to the English essay as it is presented in the English standard textbooks. There is an important division that is done in the second year: the content of the first semester is designed to cope with stylistic features of English writing as well as an introduction to essay writing. Here the order follows the stages of writing an essay. The second semester is devoted to the application of what students have learnt before in specific types of essays.</p>
<p>6. How much time do you usually allocate to teaching essay writing during the academic year (weeks)? Why this period?</p>	<p>14 weeks. One semester. The whole semester. That is stated in the official syllabus. I have got a syllabus that I have to follow. In addition to that we've got one thing that students should work on their writing skill. I've already said that we have one hour and a half in one week. We need much time in fact in teaching writing. Things are calculated in terms of the time that is given to us.</p>	<p>One semester to prepare for writing essays and one semester to write essays</p>	<p>- The whole academic year, except for the first few lectures. The rest is devoted to building gradually the competences of essay writing.</p>	<p>From 12 to 14 weeks, sometimes more than that depending on the students' level (90 minutes a week). We devote all this period because this stage in writing instruction is basic and it trains them on writing essays of various sorts to cope with their academic needs in the other modules and to prepare them for more advanced writing and examinations, in which the essay is paramount.</p>
<p>7. Can you describe the guidance that is given to you as regards essay teaching in the official syllabus?</p>	<p>(Explicitness of syllabus about teaching essays). There is nothing really. I am not blaming anyone because the official syllabus is given by the ministry of Higher Education most of the time; it looks for something related to the content of the course and one main objective. That's all. In that case, when you check the official document, you find something related to the content, not all the things, just the main headlines. Even in the new syllabus (LMD), the</p>	<p>You know at the beginning of the year, I have to deal with teacher's syllabus and learner's syllabus. I have to prepare this myself. I specify the timing for instance, the way that I have to deal with my lecture, both for the lecture and tutorials. Also I have to deal with the way of assessment. At the administrative level nothing is</p>	<p>guidance?) guidance my first advice or recommendation I always tell to my students. is that writing must be regarded as a means of communicating ideas. Writing for me is a space that university in which learners are expected to express themselves or transmitting their ideas respecting rules.</p>	<p>As I've mentioned before, the syllabus does not offer any clear sequence to be followed; it does not specify the approach or the procedure that can be used by teachers. The teacher is not guided in fact. What we read is the points that should be covered. Even the points are only very broadly stated. Even</p>

	<p>main objective is that students should be able to write essays on different subjects and something like that. In the LMD system the main objective is to focus on the students' writing skill. That's why you find the same syllabus of the first year with some minor changes; we've got the same thing in the second year, not that clear difference. Nearly they're the same. What is stated in the official syllabus is just in terms of assessment. We have 'by the end of the year, students should be able to write something. We've got one main objective when we talk about the official documents. Most of the time we find something like 'by the end of the semester, students should be able to do that' in the official documents.</p>	<p>obligatory. There are no specific points that ought to be applied because at the level of the department, they are interested just in marks. All what they stress is marks. No objectives are set. No approaches are advocated.</p>	<p>in the official syllabus, all what I know is that the curriculum insist on the aim, the final or major aim of the module: they insist on making learners able to express themselves correctly and accurately; This is what is given to us ; Only to insist on allowing learners to express themselves correctly. there is no clear approach, no clear pedagogy or classroom practices mentioned in the official program; all that depend on the teachers themselves.</p>	<p>in the adaptations that are made by the teachers, we often focus on language points to be achieved, but nothing is said about how we can teach that or at least the beliefs that guide our choice of activities. I personally, make changes to the content I use every year taking into account factors like previous experience and its drawbacks, level of students. There is one thing that I have become interested in: it is how to make learners express themselves with ease in different contexts. Indeed, I am trying to move from a structure -or language - based syllabus to a more communicative one, but still I find difficulties.</p>
<p>8.Do you find the presence/ absence of guidance positive or negative at this level? Explain please.</p>	<p>It's like an adventure. We've got two things. It's negative for new teachers because students will be negatively affected. Asking a new teacher to teach writing and this teacher is not guided, has not got many things In this case he may make a lot of mistakes. It's good for him as well because the teacher in this case will feel free to use whatever he wants. If he would like to use or have recourse to a number of innovative methods, he can do that without being... Most of the time at university we've got a kind of flexibility. We've got content and at the same time the teacher is flexible and can work on the content and what we need is that we reach the objective by the end of the year, writing an essay in our case. It will be negative I said for novice teachers. In this case they will face a number of difficulties. He needs to work hard in this case. And he needs a kind of</p>	<p>Of course it's negative. As we know that writing is a complex activity so here at least we have to work together. This will help the teacher to solve some problems that he faces with students such as L1 interference, lack of vocabulary, grammatical mistakes. That is why for example to solve the problem of grammar, a teacher of writing and a teacher of grammar must work together. Also concerning the problem of lack of vocabulary, students can't find words. They have them only in French or Arabic. That's why I suggest that students should read. There should be some module of reading. So I can say, that's my principle, reading is at the</p>	<p>(positive or negative?) It depends. at university level, I see that enslaving the teacher or providing teachers with guidance sometimes is useless. University teachers must enjoy certain freedom to teach the way they see the most appropriate to the situation, the way they see useful to the level of learners.</p>	<p>I think it is negative because of many reasons. I am not saying that the teacher should be provided by ready-made lessons to be presented to all types of learners in all situations. This is impossible, especially at university. At university we have a non-homogeneous population in terms of proficiency level, age, motivation, and even what we have in one academic year may not be the same in the following year. Sometimes even the timing of the session may affect the way things are done. I am an advocate of flexibility but not at the expense of the quality of our work.</p>

	<p>collaboration. He needs to collaborate with other colleagues. He can benefit from that. Each time we learn something, so if it is your first time to teach, you have to learn from others. At university teachers should be course designers. You've got the course syllabus but sometimes you've got different abilities, different students, different classes, so maybe this year you've got good achievers but next year you may not have the same thing. In this case, you find yourself, without being aware of that, you find yourself changing your way and following another way according to your students or the teaching situation as a whole. When we have a mixed-ability class, in this case you have to be careful because if you work with good students, you are ignoring a great number of other students who may really be good at writing if you just motivate them.</p>	<p>service of writing. I want to pass this message to add this module, the module of reading. So now what I always ask my students to do is to do extensive reading.</p>	<p>However, I insist that a teacher should be guided at least concerning the most appropriate and up-to-date approaches that have proved to be workable by researchers and practitioners. Sometimes teachers may fill the gaps of the absence of guidance by using the most accessible tools, like textbooks, but they do not recognize for instance that the procedure used in these textbooks is very outdated and does not conform with recent research on communicatively oriented syllabi for instance. Also, sometimes a teacher may want to give his or her students the maximum of information about the lesson, so he makes use of a variety of sources to cover everything about the points under discussion. Mistakenly, in that case a variety of exercises, which may be originally designed for different purposes and on the basis of dissimilar assumptions about teaching writing, the teacher will just present the learners with loaded content in the absence of a clear pedagogy. I sometimes fall into this trap because of lack of guidance. For these reasons, I believe that official syllabi and curricula ought to inform teachers at least at the theoretical level about general approaches and then it is up to the teacher to select the</p>
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				right activity or method of presentation that suits his learners needs and that does not go beyond the suggested approach.
9.What kind of resources do you rely on to assist your teaching of essay writing to university students? Why?	<p>Most of the times using social networks like Facebook. Contacting teachers from different universities most of the time , and my students as well because sometimes they may work on the outline outside . I mean the classroom, and I need to check online to see if everything is OK. In this time we're saving time outside the classroom. In addition to this, we are using like Google doc. and the tools of the web. In that case I ask my students to send their essays using Gmail, and I use Google. Doc to edit or write my comments. And then I share this with the students as if we are taking another class. That's one of the things that we may do. At the same time, students will find their drafts available online all the time and anywhere. That's something good for them. (textbooks?) I have recourse to a number of books on writing. Sometimes designed by some Algerian teachers. Sometimes they agree and sometimes they disagree. because they've got different outlooks really, and you've got one thing that you believe in, so I prefer something common, good, something not written by Algerians, but something written by native speakers. (Am/Brit) Both of them. I always work on something common. So I look for something common and then I bring it to my classroom. (Authentic materials?) Yes I may use that, but sometimes I have to remember that I ask my students to write. We have recourse to some authentic texts. The students should write about different issues related to their own interest, their own lives about the outside world of the student. Most of the time I find myself using like a creative writing class because students write about their interests, their</p>	<p>I work in collaboration with the other teachers. I have to ask them to exchange ideas. I ask students to read. Sometimes even I provide them with some handouts. (types of texts) Most of the time I have authentic texts. Sometimes texts by non-native speakers. (Using the net) I usually ask students to write essays and they are going to send them to me via email. We are in the era of technology. I do use standard textbooks. Concerning reading about the skill of writing, I read but not too much.</p>	<p>(resources?) We have first the internet. Most of the time we as teachers of written expression, surf the net to see models or patterns. There are plenty of essays uploaded that we, can get them easily and rapidly. We print them and give them to students. They help us to enrich or to enlarge our knowledge, and to see how particularly native speakers write and how they think. And it's a very accessible way to all learners. Then internet is the most used device, tool that helps us really to cope with writing. We have books also pdf. books Brit/ Am this is the problem. Teachers are still lost in whether to opt for Brit or Am English/ For me both are perfect. This depends on the curriculum itself, the recommendations of the ministry of higher education and even the ministry of education in Algeria. We have I have noticed that there is an inclination or tendency towards brit English. I have noticed that there is tendency towards British English. It's purer. And at least the English or British themselves are more conservative concerning language. They want to preserve their language and it's very beautiful. This is why I have the tendency to opt for brit English, rather than American English. But nowadays taking into consideration the market, jobs there is no hindrance, we have no phobia against</p>	<p>The resources that I often use are the textbooks which are designed for teaching purposes. Those which gradually present teaching points and illustrations then exercises about them. Most of the textbooks that I use are American, not because I favour them but because sometimes they are more available than British ones for me. Also, I use the net to consult sites that assist the teaching of this skill to get more explanations and illustrations about the points that I choose for my lessons. I am not a native speaker of English, that is why I do refer to standard textbooks to guide myself and my students to know what is acceptable and what is not acceptable in academic writing. I never use literary texts because I think sometimes they are misleading although they are authentic. Another very important source I use , which has proved according to my experience to be extremely beneficial, is students' texts. Students can work on these concrete pieces of language. This sort of resources can assist in motivating students to write. I have only recently been acquainted with research that</p>

	<p>lives, their likes and dislikes. (Literary texts?) When I use a literary text, I have to check first that it's not full of deviations. Any literary text is full of deviations, and my students think that it is good in this case while it's full of grammatical mistakes. (Your own texts) sometimes you feel that you have to do that. Students ask that you show them your writing.</p>		<p>American English. We have developed a certain utilitarian or pragmatic approach towards teaching and learning foreign languages. We know that most of our students look for jobs in some foreign companies. And then American English almost may be used. (other resources) books, printed hard copy. both the books about theory of learning to write and the practical books. Me I usually read about writing, before I teach any point, any element, I have to learn something about it. In order to write a paragraph, I have to read about a paragraph, or essays. As a teacher, this is not to bring my level at the level of the learners. We have to do something extra about what I'm teaching. I learn about, I read about the task of writing itself. I have no problem at all. I always read about not only in writing but even in the other modules I teach.</p>	<p>deals with theories of second and foreign language writing. I have discovered that this kind of knowledge is excluded when it comes to teach EFL writing for us.</p>
<p>10. How do you proceed when teaching essays in general: (steps)?</p>	<p>We have different techniques. Sometimes we've got the idea that we have at the beginning. We have just to bring some ideas; then I give my students a list of themes and they have to choose a subject to write on. Before asking them to write, just we work on the outline. If we have this framework, the introduction will be like that; the thesis statement will be like that. I mean we may choose the strategy of writing an introduction. The thesis statement as well. How to outline the body is the thesis statement to give your reader an idea about what's coming. The first unit of the body is about what, the second, the third and the conclusion itself. I'd like to say something that most of the time when we are working on the in the body. I take into consideration that</p>	<p>How to teach essays differs from one type to another. The first session must be a lecture. That is to say, I must give my students an idea about a given type of essay. Then, I ask them to write; so here first of all concerning the session I have to use ice-breaker. Here I help my students to remember words. I try to check if my students know these words or not. From time to time I have to choose games. Sometimes I have pictures, questions. Here I can give you an example on descriptive essays. For instance, for the</p>	<p>your own procedure of teaching essays) Most of the time, when I assign activities in writing essays, the steps I follow I usually start with involving first learners in reading. I ask them to read first, to read in order to do research. Reading in writing is not just to know. It's to do research or to spot some topics, some important topics that may be discussed or may be defended by learners. So without reading, how can they find topics or write? They read first. I provide them with topics or themes. I ask them to do some readings. They read about them and I ask them throughout</p>	<p>Teaching essays is a very complex process for me, and it takes much time, several weeks. I usually prefer to prepare students for writing essays by giving them theoretical guidance. I first try to establish in their minds that this genre is different from the paragraph in terms of content, format and structure. The first thing I attempt to present is the general layout of an essay, stressing the divisions that should be made to signal thought divisions. The next step is to train</p>

	<p>students are working for the exam, and an exam lasts an hour and a half. So if I give my students the chance to write</p> <p>More than this, they may waste their time. So it's better to write something like this in terms of time. This is a kind of preparing students for real life tasks. The students in this case will feel involved and they feel the situation. One way to save time in the exam is to work on the minimum structure in which you can find just two units in the body, so in that case students will save their time. In addition to the different techniques, we can ask some students to work on the introduction, some others to work on the first unit, and some others on the second. Then we exchange and we share that. And sometimes I may ask my students to write outside the classroom. At the beginning of the class, I ask them to correct each other's drafts (peer correction). I find a kind of resistance because students keep saying we are the same. Then they get shocked when they get the result because they can learn from each other; they can meet each other most of the time. They can meet the teacher only in one session but they can meet their colleagues almost all the time. Students should take that into account. Really they benefit from each other more than from the teacher. The teacher will meet them just once a week, but they can meet each other all the time; they can talk to each other about different things. I do not mean I am looking for something correct. The idea is that I am looking for something that is coherent taking into account the different categories or the rubrics given by the teacher concerning mechanics, usage and grammar and other categories. To deal with all of these categories is a matter of time. After correcting each other, we check their work. Students give their feedback, we discuss. This is really</p>	<p>descriptive essay, at the beginning, I tell them about the descriptive essay, what about this type. I introduce the type, and after that I give them a topic and ask them to describe a person, a place, etc, so it depends. Even, from one group to another, I try to change the activity. They are not the same. It means here I have to check the level of my students. I want to know _ I try to motivate them. Motivation and level of proficiency determine the way you teach. (model essays?). I use them sometimes in order to motivate them. It is not used always. When I see that students can't start writing because when they start writing, I have to motivate them. Sometimes I ask them to write an outline. I give them time to write their own outline. After that, we share the outlines together. So I write the outline on the board. Then I ask them from this outline to write the essay. Sometimes I divide the class into groups to save time. I ask the first group to write the introduction, another to write the body and the third to write the conclusion. I collect the parts and build the whole essay. Sometimes the next lecture I give them a topic as homework. Here I choose one and I type it and I make copies. I ask the students to read and correct the mistakes. The essay is anonymous. They try to correct it, the whole class. They discuss and correct, and I participate in the</p>	<p>reading then I assign some activities to insist through reading on finding some topics to be elaborated or discussed by learners. So that the topic discussed in an essay for me must come from within, intrinsic, the learner must be interested in that topic. That's why I ask them first to read rather than to impose on him some ready-made topic. Then after reading, I ask them to brainstorm to search for what is needed to be discussed, what is needed to be elaborated or developed, what is important, what is necessary. They have to brainstorm then to select topics and themes from their reading. Then when they brainstorm or they spot put their theme in a specific topic that deserves to be elaborated or developed, they move to another step which is to formulate very specific thesis or thesis statement. Reading must result in coming up with a problematic or thesis statement. They have to formulate a thesis statement and they have to work to bring solutions, suggestions to what has been raised in the thesis statement. When they formulate a thesis statement or research question, I ask them usually to develop a plan. Never write spontaneously, never improvise. Never write without a plan. Usually this plan takes the form of outline. They have to outline or to organize their ideas that they are going to discuss and usually I insist on 3 elements in the outline. I ask them to know what you are going to do. This is usually the instruction then</p>	<p>students on narrowing general subjects into specific topics. Most learners have this problem even after receiving long instruction on essay writing. I really struggle to implant this in the students' minds. The next stage is to train students on outlining with its various stages, starting from real examples and moving to their own outlines. But here I just say that students often write without bothering themselves about plans. After that, I give my students an idea about the various techniques of writing introductions and conclusions that are advocated in English writing without favouring one to the others. My aim is to give them a broad view of all the possibilities. After making sure that the essay text type is clearly differentiated from other types, I move on to the next stage, which is concerned with producing texts of various sorts. We do have these aims in mind I we do try to transmit this theoretical information to students but the results are not always as we want them to be. Once I start teaching essay types I follow a clear procedure. Step one is to stress the purpose of writing, for example narration, classification or whatever. Then I focus on the</p>
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	<p>beneficial for students because each one of them will take into account that he shouldn't use something like that in his writing. He should avoid something like that in his writing, and I tell them that this is correct but you should avoid it maybe because it is wordy or it needs the exact word or maybe this kind of word shouldn't be used here, but sometimes we may start with a text, for example living in a large family, an argumentative text, and below that text, I have a number of questions. Then they have to work on answering that number of questions, on the structure, the content of the essay and all about writing a good essay. Then the last question will be writing something else and then you will have, in this case the students have to say something, has to have his own say, on his outlook, saying something about if he is against or for living in a large family for instance. so we can start from the text and in this case the student will have something concrete really to start with.</p>	<p>discussion.</p>	<p>providing details. In essay writing, they are supposed to write coherent paragraphs and each paragraph normally revolves around a specific point, and the sum of paragraphs may come up with a final conclusion. They must result in a conclusion. By passing through these paragraphs they result in a conclusion. So the outline must arrange or organize the writer's ideas in three stations: the introduction, the body and the conclusion. Then when they finish and since the essay is based on defending one's ideas or defending one's stand, they have to read and they have to support their convictions by consolidating or supporting by using some quotes from by quoting outstanding books striking ideas they come across in their reading. When they read they must highlight all the striking and outstanding evidence, any idea that may support their stand must be taken and inserted in their essay. This is why I ask them when they finish their essays they have to show credit to insert references. I teach them even before asking them to write the essay, I teach them the techniques of essay writing summarizing, paraphrasing and quoting because I target this point. When they write, they have to refer each time to their readings, their documents they have read in order to defend their stands or their opinions. This is why I have to teach them how to use references, how to document. (Do you collaborate with them</p>	<p>language that can serve this purpose. Here I provide students with illustration about vocabulary, grammatical structures, transitional devices that can be encountered in every type. I also let them know about paragraph divisions and how they relate to thought divisions in each type. The next step is to give the students a model text that I choose carefully. I ask them to read it. I ask them some general questions about structure and parts. I give them some time to think about purpose, especially language and how the writer structures the essay. Then we discuss and I invite students to ask any question about how the essay is written. Here I have noticed that students learn a lot from real texts; at least these texts encourage them to express themselves without any complex and to imitate the writers' linguistic choices. They are even encouraged to compete with these writers by writing very original texts. Next I set a homework in which students will write essays in groups of four or five students. The students will write the essay for the next session. the peers will help the other weak students to write better. They find a way to explain things that I sometimes fail to explain. In the next session, the students</p>
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			<p>when they write essays?) My conviction is that I believe that writing essays is learner-based, so I help my students by providing them with some recommendations or instructions but when it comes to production, I withdraw myself. I let him do his job. When he finishes I have only to read and to correct if possible some mistakes or errors that maybe and in some cases I even ask them to choose topics freely. So that I don't intervene in the topic itself. They are the authority. They write. My job is to guide them with some instructions and recommendations. When they finish, I read with the intention to correct and to evaluate their work. And usually I don't reproach learners. I don't provide them with any guidance so that to encourage them, to incite them, to motivate them. I never be disappointed. I always them encourage them to write more and more</p>	<p>read the essays for the whole class. This is to show that there is some achievement. Then the groups exchange the essays and start the evaluation with the help of the teacher, which covers both points of strength and points of weakness in every essay using an evaluation sheet. I believe this way students can emphasize what is good and be aware of what is not acceptable. In the same session the students will read their remarks and return the corrected version to the original group, who will write a second version. The teacher receives the new version and makes further corrections and returns the work to the student if time allows. Usually the revision and correction process cannot satisfy every student and all the time due to time constraints and the number of students. This method proved to help students and especially to increase motivation by developing competition and critical, positive thinking aspects.</p>
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11. What techniques among the following do you usually encourage when teaching students to write essays?

<p>- Students' analysis of model texts with focus on their real communicative function in a social context. (genre) - Teacher collaboration with students in</p>	<p>In fact I'm using a variety of techniques, so here I'm using mostly all of them. Talking about something I found myself using more frequently than the others. It's teacher collaboration with students and the other one is (Students write essays alone then the teacher collects them and makes corrections or indicates errors of vocabulary, grammar and mechanics to students to correct them.).</p>	<p>I use technique (1) it's beneficial. I use technique (2). I use technique (3). I use technique (4) and you mean that the teacher is going to correct. Concerning this point I ask the students in both the first semester and he second semester to have a portfolio. That is to say, I have the whole [all] essays that they</p>	<p>(techniques) - Model texts: I give them essays and assign some documents not necessarily in the form of essays but about the theme they write about. Also, I give them some essays as models - Collaboration: I help them when necessary, when I'm asked. When someone asks me about a given point, I help but I never interfere or</p>	<p>- I use model texts but with focus on the linguistic features of the text, not the communicative or contextual factors. We study together the vocabulary, tenses, useful expressions, transitional devices and how these can help the writer</p>
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<p>writing an essay then independent writing by students.(genre)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Analysis of model texts and focus on their linguistic structure.(product) - Students write essays alone then the teacher collects them and makes corrections or indicates errors of vocabulary, grammar and mechanics to students to correct them.(product) - With the help of the teacher, students plan, draft, revise and edit their essays in several versions. (process) - Students write essays independently. After editing the essays in several versions using teacher feedback, the teacher makes the best essays available to the students to compare them with the weak essays. Ultimately, strong points and weak points 	<p>The students have to correct these by themselves and the last one as well. (Do the students write a second draft?) Yes most of the time. In this one we need much time because we have two drafts. We need much time really. That's why we compensate by using the net.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - (to what extent do you use model texts) I use this sometimes because the main objective is to work on the students' writing skills. You have to urge them to start because if we've got much time, we can have the tools but we've not got much time. You have to see your students' level in writing. This is number one. So they have to start. I mean if you cannot assess your students and you don't see their writings. For that reason I found myself really avoiding using some techniques. In this case I'm just trying to say sorry and I have to think about giving my students the chance to write. This is the main reason behind that. <p>- I do not compare students' drafts due to time limits</p>	<p>write. In order to help them to write, I always focus on the problem of L1 interference, so I have to give them much homework. They write essays. Here I try to choose, I can say, topics that interest them to motivate them. I do not use technique (5) rarely. Of course I ask them to plan, draft and revise but to edit in several versions it's rare.</p> <p>(Any other techniques) Of course we focus on planning drafting and revising. I give you some activities. Sometimes, for instance I have 4 groups, I ask student 1 to write a sentence, and then another student will write the next sentence. Then they have to pass it to the next. Then at the end gets his paper again. I tell them try to read your essay. That is to say, they write in collaboration. It's a kind of group writing. For instance they have to guess in order to continue. I always try to vary to motivate them because what I discovered is that our students are lazy. If you don't push them to write, they are not going to write. Sometimes when they go on holiday, if they have...</p> <p>- 6 : this is not easy to apply especially writing several versions. but we may take good essays as models to be imitated and increase motivation</p>	<p>impose my own ideas or myself on them. I let them express themselves and I just wait for any students to ask me to help them. The student is not left alone. Sometimes I provide them with instructions, guidance and sometimes explanations of key terms or concepts, maybe outlining, how to do this and that, what you have to write at the level of the introduction, indentation. All these are provided by me. I give them help and guidance. Then the moment when they are busy writing, I usually withdraw myself to give them more chance to be themselves.</p> <p>As for the other points - the use of models and focus on linguistic structure- yea, I opt for that, particularly transition between ideas the strategies used by writers to move from one idea to another. Maybe also coherence and logical order of ideas, how people think. We plainly we look at this writer how he expresses his ideas. I ask them even to make use of specific expressions and collocations and I ask them to avoid colloquialisms in essays insisting on the bad image on the writer when he overuses these colloquialisms informal structures. I ask them to avoid writing as when you speak. I see all these are relevant and related to linguistic structure. This helps them to write in not perfect but at least very acceptable way through showing them some carefully selected essays and carefully selected linguistic structures with the aim</p>	<p>achieve his / her purpose.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I do not collaborate with students when they write essays. They have to write by themselves after receiving sufficient explanations about form and language and even the layout of the essay. Students write independently. We collaborate in the correction. - I always give students a text to analyse. My focus is the linguistic side. I want my students to write a similar text. - <p>When I see that something is not felt by students to be erroneous, that is it is beyond their competence, I have to interfere to supply the right form.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - I use the technique of individual writing by students when students ask me to do that. After a long period of writing in groups, they reach a stage in which they feel capable of writing alone. So I just ask them to write individually then I pick up one essay or two essays to be discussed and evaluated by the whole class. The rest is corrected by the teacher alone because time is not usually sufficient and the number is large. - planning, drafting, revising is beneficial but not applicable. It is impossible to
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<p>are emphasize d.(process)</p>			<p>of helping them when they are involved in the process of writing. I never pass them essays written by me. I just show them some attempts I myself made particularly in paraphrasing or how to borrow ideas from an essay or from an article. I provide them with my own work. I never use my own essay as a model or pattern. When I teach them the techniques of paraphrasing I show them my own words, how to paraphrase.</p> <p>- students are independent from the teacher: this is my philosophy. I don't believe in that absolute freedom. I must give a minimum to my students. I show them the way and I let them work. I never work on their behalf. So I don't let them without any help and I don't do their job. I am in between. I help them, I teach them, but when I start writing I give them not freedom but the opportunity to express themselves freely, not the absolute freedom. (Error correction by teacher or learners?) Here it depends sometimes I gather mistakes from my students from their essays, some awkward forms, errors and bad structures. I ask them to write them on the board and we work together on them in order to correct them without mentioning the name of the performer or the person who made those mistakes? We work together. We aim that all learners will benefit from this correction. This is usually what I do and I read the essay, and most of the time, correction takes the form of remarks. I correct some mistakes and I signal honestly the</p>	<p>follow these steps strictly. For teachers, this is very demanding in terms of time and effort.</p> <p>- I use a modified version of this. If students work in groups we can follow their multiple drafts on the same issue. I usually pick up the best essay in each group and ask the writers to type it. I give copies of it to the whole class. the strong points and weak points are dealt with in all the essays. This increases motivation as I said before.</p>
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			<p>errors, I highlight them but not necessarily saying to the students that you are weak or bad. The aim is to ;; I give too much importance to remarks to guide usually you have to do this and that, problem in the formulation of the thesis statement, ambiguity and things like that but I never interfere. I don't nag.</p> <p>- last technique: yea I help them. when I said that I do that this depends on the situation</p> <p>I do not use this technique due to time constraints</p>	
12. What other techniques, which I have not mentioned, do you use? Why?		<p>Sometimes, for instance I have 4 groups, I ask student 1 to write a sentence, and then another student will write the next sentence. Then they have to pass it to the next. Then at the end gets his paper again. I tell them try to read your essay. That is to say, they write in collaboration. It's a kind of group writing. For instance they have to guess in order to continue. I always try to vary to motivate them because what I discovered is that our students are lazy. If you don't push them to write, they are not going to write. Sometimes when they go on holiday.</p>	(any other techniques that I have not mentioned)	None
13. According to you, what is the best procedure if the time and class size, etc are appropriate?	<p>- It's making a kind of collaboration. I believe in two things. The first thing the teacher can use is starting from model texts with questions, asking students to write and then working on the first draft by and then having the final draft. And the second thing is using different materials. I mean using materials like software, web sites for students really, to work on their writing skills. In teaching narratives, for instance I can use online story builds: students can</p>	<p>(If conditions are appropriate, what procedure do you think is the best) If we have time, a few students, I think we are going to succeed. I don't think so. Always we have to struggle; we have to fight, especially with the number of students. There is no best procedure. But on the whole writing in many drafts is very helpful.</p>	<p>- doing extensive reading about the area to be discussed, then brainstorming, planning with the help of the teacher. Writing first drafts. This is to be followed by teacher feedback in the form of 'common mistakes listed for students to consider. collaboration in finding the correct forms. finally students write another draft alone on the basis of feedback.</p>	<p>If time a class size is appropriate we can guide the writing of every individual student. I will continue to use model texts. I see it also important to focus on structure and language because students need to learn about this aspect. I usually list short illustrations of the points I want my</p>

	<p>exchange and share stories with animations, with colors. This will motivate them. We follow the stages of writing like: brainstorming, outlining, writing, editing. All these things really. I think in the case when I have all the things in that healthy atmosphere we are looking for, we may have choice. We may start with a text. Students will have first get an idea about the structure. They will have something concrete in front of them. And then they will answer that number of questions on the structure and content of this essay. They will start writing their essay with feedback given the by the teacher and feedback given by their fellows. They can work on their first drafts, and they can write the second draft outside the classroom. They can bring other drafts inside the classroom making sure at least they have a few number of mistakes. We cannot avoid mistakes, but let's talk of the number of mistakes made by students. At least, I mean in the realistic context, if I'm thinking about the classroom I have in reality, things will be different, different contexts, different students, different teachers, different methods.</p>			<p>students to learn. If time is sufficient here, I see that students should be given reading material with guided questions and activities about all aspects of the essays rather than providing them with decontextualised lists of linguistic items. Here I feel that we can build their communicative competence in writing. The students can then safely move to plan, draft their essays individually. The versions are to be corrected by the peers first for motivational purposes, then by the teacher. I always encourage students not to focus on learning to write a certain text type alone, but I try to develop in them some study skills, such as using a dictionary, using edition checklists, and self correction to make them independent learners not bound to teachers' instructions or feedback.</p>
<p>14. What factors affect your choice of procedure?</p>	<p>At least, I mean in the realistic context, if I'm thinking about the classroom I have in reality, things will be different, different contexts, different students, different teachers, different methods.</p>	<p>- Motivation of students affects my choice of procedure, also the students' level. If the level is not high, I find myself obliged to look for a more appropriate tool. Finally, the number of students sometimes leads me to select certain exercises that give chance to the maximum number like group work. Most of the time the time factor does not</p>	<p>(factors affecting your choice) Me as a teacher of written expression, I believe in combination, in eclecticism. I am a fan of eclecticism. I have adopted an eclectic approach particularly in writing. I teach. I move from approach to approach, from method to method and from technique to technique depending on the situation and the requirements. I see that a technique is needed or required, I have to use it. I don't believe in that</p>	<p>I always learn from my class new things. I draw on my past experience to improve my pedagogy. I keep what proves to be helpful for students and I eliminate what fails in the classroom. Sometimes my choice is directly linked to time constraints and class size. We just discard some pedagogical practices simply</p>

		help us to do what we want.	rigid or fixed way of teaching. I always prepare myself to use all techniques and all the methods depending on the situation. I am very eclectic.	because it is practically impossible to use them.
Section Four: Teaching argumentative essays				
15. What specific options are offered to you in the syllabus concerning argumentative essay writing?	No. We don't have anything. We have something like essay generals, e.g. writing a classificatory essay, comparison/ contrast... We don't have anything specific about the argumentative essay. s	Nothing special	Argumentative essays (at the level of the syllabus) No I didn't see any traces, any recommendation about argumentation or an argumentative essay. All these kinds are given equal importance. All of them are mentioned without any details. They are given in the form of rubrics or headings. No special description is given to argumentative writing or any other type. They have similar importance.	Nothing is stated about this kind of essay in particular or even about the other types. It is up to the teacher to make research and set objectives and content.
16. When you teach argumentative essay writing, what features do you stress to make students distinguish them from other essay types?	The first thing is the outline and how many choices students have in writing the argumentative essay. The second point is the language in itself, the use of transition words, transitions of concession, contrast, and things like that. (Purpose?) Most of the time when writing an argumentative essay, the most important thing that we need is stating your view in the introduction because most of the time when we write any essay we shouldn't say something about our outlooks and visions in the introduction but in the conclusion. Something new in the argumentative essay is giving your outlook in the introduction because this is your central idea, this is your thesis statement, and this is what I focus on most of the time. (Other components?) Language and the outline because the two are interrelated. (To what extent do you teach argumentative language?) I may give just illustrations, such as some sentences to make things clear to my students, and sometimes I give them orally honestly. When they start writing, they should take them into account. I told you last time	In the first place I try to give them an idea: what is an argumentative essay, what forms an argumentative essay. Also, I try to gather some ideas which are argumentative. Also, I ask them or sometimes I try to give them topics such as working women, late homework, giving a cell phone to your kid as a gift. After that I divide the class into two groups: People who are for and people who are against. After that I try to explain from this what an argumentative essay is. I start with an outline, then the introduction, thesis statement. After that what are the main points that you have to tackle	(features you stress) The basic thing for me is to convince or to persuade them that argumentative writing is singled out, is distinguished and is very specific because in argumentative writing, one is supposed not to inform or provide information. In all the other forms, you are free to give, to explain, and to tell to narrate. But for this kind, which I insist on, I tell my students you have to defend, to make a stand or a position. You argue means you opt for an opinion and you have to do your utmost to convert the audience or the reader to your opinion. In the other types of writing, you tell them to agree but here I insist on that point. It's to defeat the reader. Defeating here is when he surrenders, when you gain your reader and put him on your path, on your way, or converting him in your stand. This is argumentation. This kind of writing requires a special focus. It is the	Usually I begin by introducing the purpose of argumentative essays, that is, to convince somebody of your point of view by giving evidence. I tell my students briefly about kinds of evidence that can be included in an argumentative essay. I show them a variety of forms of expressing one's opinion explicitly and also the forms of introducing arguments using a list of simple illustrations. Here I insist on achieving coherence using the right transitions, moving from one argument to another. I do not give students activities to practice these linguistic forms, I just list them. I usually tell students that the audience normally does not accept your opinion, but I do not tell them that

	<p>because of time. Because we do not have enough time. As a teacher, is not allowed to use many illustrations because we've got one session or two sessions: maybe one week 1 and week 2 for writing argumentative essays. In this case, I need the whole semester to teach the argumentative essay. So most of the time, I give some illustrations before they write because they should take that into account when they start writing; (audience?) Yes exactly because in writing an argumentative essay any student should take this into account because I have already said something about stating their vision in the introduction. At the same time, I always say to my students try to be objective. Try to think about the others' vision, the others' outlook because you are writing an argumentative essay. You are trying to convince someone and you have to be objective most of the time.</p>		<p>most required and needed skill at university to serve learners in their dissertations because most of them are supposed to do research and to write dissertations by the end of their studies. So this kind of writing will directly or indirectly help them to do the job when they write dissertations. (Argumentative language) My way of teaching has no limits. I make use of all the techniques. this is my philosophy. In argumentative writing, I involve my students in the process of writing. I try to convince them that when they argue, they take the position of defending their stands. To defend they make use of all the available materials or evidence to convince the reader. So this kind of writing receives special attention on my side. I always incite my students to give it special attention. It's very specific. (audiences) I mention sometimes I usually mention that to the students</p>	<p>there are types of audiences. One important thing I usually say to students is that they have to be objective and to bear in mind that what they write is not always read by a person belonging to the same community. Thus they have to take into account people who do not share the same assumptions with the writer.</p>
<p>17. What kind of introductions do you encourage your students to write to this kind of essay? (moves)</p>	<p>We've got a number of strategies for writing an introduction like giving background information, starting the introduction quote and then giving your comment on that quote, giving some illustrations briefly, telling an anecdote or story, we've got an endless list of strategies (thesis statement) Most of the time I focus on one thing in writing any thesis statement. It is that a thesis must be a declarative sentence. This is number one. It is not a question. It is not anything. It states the main idea and outlines the body of the whole essay. I should find like the big headlines of the body in the thesis statement. (opinion where?) In the</p>	<p>(thesis statement). This depends on the topic. I elicit from them the thesis statement. Most of the time in this type of essay they should express opinions.</p>	<p>(Thesis statement) Well for me I ask them to make some readings. I ask them to read to make sure they have gathered some ideas which they see are strong or useful. When they gather they move to upholding ideas. Upholding means when they believe that something is true. I don't favour thesis statements in the form of questions. It's a sentence or a statement. I always ask them to write a statement rather than to write a question to declare something rather than to ask a question. I ask them to read to develop beliefs.</p>	<p>The introduction should present the context of the topic and should show that there is a debate on an issue. I usually ask students to choose between writing an essay about their own position. In that case the thesis statement should be an expression of the writer's opinion. The other option I give is that they ask a question if there are two opposing views. I always tell students not to 'turn around the bush'.</p>

	introduction because they should.. I said that the central idea of the argumentative essay is the student's own vision. This is his own idea, so he should mention that because this is the main or the central idea of the essay.		A belief is a point formulated in a statement in which you declare your conviction or your point of view. I am in favour of positioning the opinion in the introduction.	
18. Can you describe the typical organizations that you encourage your students to use in the body of the essay? (moves) - One-sided arguments, - Presentation of two separate sides of arguments, - Mixture of opposing views in one discussion.	(kinds of organizations) In fact I give them a variety of choices. They've got outline 1, outline 2, and outline 3, then I give my own view. I think this is the best way. The students have the choice. In outline 1 involves giving the others' vision, and then you comment on them and then the last unit will be about yours. I mean the student's outlook. We've got another one I mean outlook 1, outlook 2 and then your comment on the two. You may choose. You may say I agree with the first in.. and I agree with the second in ... This goes with your own outlook if you are against or with or in between or neither. We've got another one which includes giving the first view, giving the second one again and giving you comment and your own view at the same time in the next unit. You make that bridge between the comment you make on the first outlook and the second one and as a result of this, you get the outlook, as if you are trying to be more objective in this case.	Then I move to the body. I have to inform them that there are two types of organization in this type of essay: the block pattern and the point-by-point pattern. Then they have to give arguments and counter-arguments. Opinions can appear either at the beginning or at the end. Both forms are accepted. Concerning the block pattern, if they have two reasons, they list them first and second paragraphs. Then they have to find the rebuttal and in the next paragraphs they deal with the other side. That means, all about the first side, then all about the second side. There is separation between the sides. This is called the block pattern. The point-by-point patterns in one paragraph we have a discussion of both parts within the same paragraph. I oblige students in both types to refer to the other side in order to have a kind of discussion	16. (body) They should divide the body into paragraphs, coherent paragraphs. This normally comes from the thesis statement. They ought to go smoothly in order to argue, to defend, to convince point by point till you reach the aim of convincing the reader. Sometimes I ask them to opt for importance order, from the most important point, and they go slowly and slightly to the least important point so that you convince your reader. smoothly you move from the most important point to the least, and each paragraph must contain a detail and in sum, these details will back up the thesis statement. (counter-arguments) The argument is argument. They have to argue, but they are asked sometimes to support their argument by borrowing, by referring to other ideas to support their stands their positions. If some ideas are against their stand, they have to mention them, why not. It's a kind of honesty. A writer must be honest. Honesty requires and implies that one to state what goes for and what goes against. In essays in which this element is missing, sure I have to signal this to inform the students they have to insert certain ideas that are against. I accept the essay; I don't reject it as there are no opposing ideas, but I insist on including some opposing ideas because I think there is no	When writing the body of the essay I give students the choice between three alternatives: - In the first organization, the students advance one argument per paragraph with its evidence after stating the opinion at the beginning. - The second organization is that students write about the first position in one paragraph citing all their arguments. Then in the second paragraph of the body, they discuss the second position. Finally in the introduction they state their opinion. - The last type I usually tell students about is the discussion essay, in which every paragraph develops one argument, which is accompanied by a counter argument. Then the refutation of the counter-argument in the same paragraph. But I must say that students report that this type is difficult and they often avoid it.

			perfect idea. So...	
19. What sort of conclusions do you encourage students to write? (moves)	(types of conclusions?) restating the main idea of the whole essay, restating the strongest ideas, restating the strongest arguments already stated in the body, summarizing sometimes, giving advice, giving a suggestion. These are the main strategies we follow in writing a conclusion of an argumentative essay.	Concerning the conclusion, in an argumentative essay, of course they have to restate what they have said in the body. Then they have to focus on their stand.	17. (conclusion) I favour the conclusion which brings and ends up with a clear position and paves the way to extra or further research or further investigation on the topic discussed. This is the conclusion which I like which actually bring solutions or to come up with solutions or suggestions at least to get compromise or consensus and at the same time opens or gives more opportunity for further investigation to bring more convincing	I do not limit students to one conclusion type because we may limit their creativity. But I usually insist that the writer's opinion should be there. The other elements are relatively flexible: they can give solution; they can take a middle position or do many things.
20. What other features do you emphasize when you deal with argumentative essays?	Most of the time, the useful thing is showing the students the main outline that they should follow because for me they cannot have a coherent essay without writing a correct outline. This is N° 1. They cannot convince their readers without having a good outline. This is N°2. And they cannot do that without using a good language to argue.	When writing an argumentative essay I focus on the discourse markers. I focus also on the organization, whether it is a block or point-by-point. Concerning the discourse markers, I deal with them in general and also the ones that are usually used in argumentation. Since I advocate the learner-centered method, I take the students' essays and ask the peers to read them then we discuss their uses. But whether or not they appear in the students' essays I always focus on them. I explicitly teach ways of expressing opinions and ways of advancing arguments.	You have really covered the points related to writing an argumentative essays.	There are no other features I stress.
21. How do you usually perceive and handle <i>discourse</i> (above the sentence) problems that occur in the following areas when you teach argumentative essays?				
Category A: Balancing coordination and subordination - Excessive coordination	- Most of the time when I have excessive coordination, I tell my students we've got sentence variety. We will not make long sentences all the time because that's boring. We should make that clear for them. And they should know that. This is one of the things that I say. You can make two sentences out of one sentence in the case of coordination. Sometimes I say having long sentences all the time, that makes your style wordy, and being wordy means making	- (excessive coordination)/ here when I insist on the use of those discourse markers, so I notice that students focus on them, even too much. For instance, in the same paragraph use all of the markers of addition 'in addition', 'moreover', 'then'.	Explanation: Excess of ideas Flow of ideas Lack of concentration Treatment: Organization editing	- I usually notice this in students' writings. The cause of this problem is not clear to me. maybe it is related to lack of revision of the first draft. I usually deal with this topic in a separate lesson entitled 'sentence variety'. I usually try to suggest revision of sentences using

	<p>mistakes. I mean if you are trying to make your sentence shorter, in this case you are reducing the number of mistakes because more words means more mistakes. It's all about clarity. (why?) when they want to give something and they want to say something else they remember it, so don't find any solution, so they use a coordinating conjunction. They overuse and because that's human really</p>			<p>simple sentences or complex ones.</p>
<p>- excessive subordination</p>	<p>- Of course we deal with it. Students for example overuse 'which', they forget about the verb and the rest of the sentence in the main clause. They remember just the rest of the relative clause and they use 'which' or 'that'. Sometimes I think it's because of L1 interference. They like to use more words in English and what they know in English 'which', 'that', the common words they know without limits. I think both interference and the English language itself cause these problems. We have language interference and sometimes they don't have many words; their vocab is limited . They remember 'which' and forget about the other words. For our students, the diction is most of the time limited. In this case they want to use more words. In this case, the words they have are like subordinators or coordinating conjunctions or ...but not many common words in English.</p>	<p>(excessive subordination) concerning this phenomenon, at the beginning of the year, when we start the first semester, students have handouts on the discourse markers, on punctuation and capitalization. Also, we have a lecture about wordiness and a lecture about exactness. This is in the first semester. In the second semester, in teaching essays, we have rubrics about the way of correcting essays, even for exams, homework, etc. So for instance, format, planning, organization, grammar, spelling, discourse markers. So now wordiness and exactness. Here I have to tell the students, this is a problem that I really face, the students know that something is faulty; they know that it is a mistake, but unfortunately they commit this mistake.</p>	<p>Explanation Interference Lack of concentration hurry Treatment: Attentiveness editing</p>	<p>Excessive subordination is caused by the desire to say everything at once, which can be done freely in speech. So this highly complex sentence is just the product of not considering the differences between speech and writing. I usually indicate to the student that his/her sentence is long and suggest that they should 'stop and then start' to avoid ambiguity.</p>
<p>- sentence load</p>	<p>- Students do that for me because they want to say many things in one sentence instead they say Ok I don't have ... Why not this one and this and this and ahhh. This is really a psychological reason. I want to get rid of all the things that I have in mind, so I say all the things in one sentence, so I get rid of all that in one minute. If we talk</p>	<p>- Sometimes when the teacher gives feedback to students, the next session, the students, I don't know, try to apply things. I don't know they are proud of themselves to satisfy he teacher.</p>	<p>Explanation interference Treatment: none</p>	<p>Loaded simple sentences are the result of spoken style also. I usually draw the students' attention to the confusion that we see in this type of sentences. It is a matter of revision no more.</p>

	<p>about all the mistakes that you have said something about, it's all about reviewing and revision. The editing stage is not there always. Sometimes students say we don't have time, and I always say 'at home, you don't have time to do that. Maybe the moment when they finish writing the essay they feel they have done a great task, and they don't like really to revise or to review what they've written. Now it's OK I'm done and I cannot do that, so sometimes we say that to review you can get rid of a lot of mistakes and you can reduce them really and then you can get a higher grade but the case is always that.</p>			
<p>Category B:</p> <p>- Misplacement of arguments</p>	<p>- I've said something about outlining. I ask them to review again their outline. Your plan makes your writing journey safe because if you write a good outline, that means writing a good essay. You are saving time, saving your energy; In this case, you are sure of your ideas that you are going to follow. But if you are writing something at random, be careful. You've got an outline to follow. In this case, they should make that link between the outline they have written at the beginning and the essay they are writing.</p>	<p>- (misplacement of arguments) Really it's a problem not only in the argumentative essay but also in the other types. The students, most of them, not all of them, despite that they have a lecture of outlining, when they want to write, they do not use an outline, especially if it is a homework. The majority write without an outline. Why? I feel this happens because the outline is an obstacle. It limits their ideas or something like that. They see it a waste of time. So that's why they write as if it's free writing. So this is the problem of students. So that's why here especially in the argumentative essay, whatever.. I noticed that students prefer the argumentative essay to the other types mainly because of the topics. I always try to set things in order concerning this point but ...!!</p>	<p>Explanation Ignorance Lack of knowledge Weak command of rules Treatment: Reinforcement feedback</p>	<p>- When students misplace arguments, this means that they write without outlining. Otherwise, how can we justify this illogical writing? Our problem is that theoretically students are aware of the steps that lead them to write a well-organized essay. But the problem is that they just skip those theoretical steps and insist on writing freely in any form. The same thing happens to them in examinations. I think what we have to work on is to motivate students to accept what we 'preach'. Then we have to succeed in finding ways to change ways of thinking.</p> <p>I suggest that we should stop theorizing and focus on practical methods</p>
<p>- Use of counter-arguments (one-sided argumentative essay)</p>	<p>- This is the case most of the time. You know why? Because sometimes students are sure of themselves. They say we cannot talk about the others. We do not have their arguments. I can talk about</p>	<p>This is a problem in the outlining stage. I oblige students in both types to refer to the other side in order to have a kind of discussion. An</p>	<p>Explanation Superficial knowledge Ignorance Short-informed Treatment: Attentiveness Editing</p>	<p>The cause is that students avoid complex forms of argumentation. I usually encounter this and accept it. The fact that</p>

	<p>my arguments but I cannot talk about the others though the main objective of writing an argumentative essay is convincing someone and when you are convincing someone you have to look at the other side. The fact that we have in our case is that students sometimes focus on their outlooks and their arguments forgetting about the other side, why? because they say we know about ourselves but we don't know about the others. So I don't think I will say something correct, so instead of making or including something irrelevant, it's better not to mention something like that. (attitude) I get crazy most of the time. The case is that always you have to be objective, it's very easy. I mean you know about your arguments. OK so you are against whom. You are against someone, so why are you against him. Because he or she has arguments. When trying to do something like that we may facilitate things for students. We may say this is correct; you can have just to add this or that and then get some conclusions. This takes time again. We've got a large number of students, a large class and at the same time we have got many essays to correct; Also in writing an argumentative essay, what I do most of the time is to give students an essay before, so they see something concrete in front of them they can follow. This is the best thing that I can have in my class.</p>	<p>argumentative essay should refer to the other side. otherwise an important element will be missing. I insist that outlines should use one of the patterns . I reject the essay without other side. It is not argumentation then.</p>	<p>Mastery of rules</p>	<p>students can express an opinion and support it with arguments in a simple way is already an achievement. For me, if they can distinguish argumentation from other text types, they have reached an acceptable level. You should not forget that only a few of them are high achievers. We can in other more advanced levels attempt to introduce this more complex form of argumentation.</p>
<p>- Lack of refutation of counter-arguments</p>	<p>- Students find this complex. We've got that case. I draw their attention to this problem because if you believe or if you don't agree with someone, you should say something about his arguments. You should refute them because having your comments or outlooks is a result of refuting their outlooks. That's why they dislike writing argumentative essays. They are afraid of that. They choose anything but an argumentative essay.</p>	<p>- Lack of refutation :They find it not necessary. I always try to inform them in order to add refutation</p>	<p>Explanation Ignorance of the techniques of arguing Ignorance of the techniques of how to close an essay Treatment: Feedback practice</p>	<p>This can be due to lack of instruction to link refutation to the right counter-argument. I do not usually treat that honestly. I do not emphasize this point.</p>

<p>- Use of rhetorical questions as thesis statements</p>	<p>- lack of practice of ways of writing introductions I ask them to reformulate their thesis statement</p>	<p>-Students are inattentive. They are unacceptable as thesis statements. I ask them to edit their introductions</p>	<p>Explanation Ignorance Treatment none</p>	<p>- This is also due to the application of the techniques of writing an introduction. Questions, rhetorical questions are one type. I let them if they are striking</p>
<p>- Length of the introduction</p>	<p>- I said students often stop when they finish the first draft. They resist revision. we should find ways to make them accept the revision stage. I try to find ways to motivate them to edit.</p>	<p>- (Long introduction) Really I do not know. There may be many reasons. Sometimes the students do not write at all. Even when I ask them to do homework, even they write, but I notice that the one who writes copies from other students especially from the best ones. Sometimes they just do not know the strategies of writing an introduction. The teacher should refer to the origin of the text if the text is homework.</p>	<p>Explanation Turning around Writing as talking Short of information (slender) Ignorance of methodology of writing Treatment: Focus Brainstorming Planning Selecting/ organising</p>	<p>This is a tendency that is very frequent. I really do not find an explanation to it. I myself find myself writing lengthy introductions. I believe that revision of the first drafts can reduce this.</p>
<p>- Directness of the introduction (Very general statement before introducing the issue under discussion)</p>	<p>- I think it is a matter of knowing the strategies that students should follow in writing an introduction and which kinds of facts they should include in the introduction. Sometimes I see that they go far. I say can you imagine going very far and coming in one minute. They say 'yes'. So this is what you are doing. Always I focus on the strategy they have to follow in their introduction. This is number 1, and they should be selective really in listing some facts in the introduction. They cannot mention everything.</p>	<p>. An introduction with a general statement is the result of trying to attract readers to the topic. I tell students to go to the point and avoid irrelevant material.</p>	<p>Explanation Vagueness Uncertainty overgeneralisation Treatment: Narrowing the scope elimination</p>	<p>- This is part of contextualizing the issue under discussion. Students often give the introduction a very broad scope without knowing that the English writers favour direct introductions. I usually just urge students to eliminate very broad statements.</p>
<p>Category C: - Placement of writer's opinion</p>	<p>It is wrong to put opinions in positions other than the introduction. Maybe students do not pay attention to the requirements of English academic writing and write the way they think. Students must edit in this case.</p>	<p>- (Opinion in the middle) It's lack of proficiency and of course it is related to the stage of planning Students are required to put the opinion in the right place</p>	<p>Explanation Subjectivity Ignorance No plan Treatment: elimination</p>	<p>- this is due to lack of teaching emphasis, lack of practice, even lack of planning. I draw their attention to the right position directly</p>

<p>- Implicitness, explicitness or absence of opinion</p>	<p>- Students are indirect because they're afraid of saying something and finding something else and making a contradiction. Some students say that to me. 'I don't know' 'I'm afraid I'll make a contradiction and then you will say 'no'' So I should make things not clear till the end. It's a matter of being lost at the beginning or being not sure of the thing that the student is writing but at the same time trying to cheat the teacher, saying that I know more, you have to wait. That's why I always focus on one thing: your thesis statement should state the main idea. I should see it; I should know it. If don't know it, I'll be lost, and I don't believe you because you are trying to cheat me. The main ideas should be clearly stated in the introduction.</p>	<p>- I accept this kind of essay.</p>	<p>Explanation Objectivity Balance</p> <p>Neutral Unconceived Laissez-faire Treatment: Elimination</p>	<p>- I think when students leave the opinion unstated they are trying to activate logical thinking on the part of the writer. Sometimes students feel that it is a high style not be explicit. Maybe this is related to the mother tongue interference.</p> <p>I do not give it too much importance as long as the arguments are strong</p>
<p>Category D: - Overuse of demonstratives</p>	<p>- I see that students are affected by the language they got in high school because in middle school or high school you find the teacher overusing such words. They are influenced by the spoken English of their teachers. My attitude is to emphasize academic style whenever I see this phenomenon.</p>	<p>- (Overuse of demonstrative pronouns) Here I treat this. I try to link it to wordiness. We have at the beginning a lecture about wordiness, so each time I try to remind students of it. I relate it to wordiness.</p>	<p>none</p>	<p>- This may happen. I have no explanation of this phenomenon. Usually I indicate that the use of a demonstrative pronoun is regarded as informal in certain cases. I usually do not treat it unless it is highly frequent.</p>
<p>- Overuse of passive voice</p>	<p>- I have not noticed cases like that honestly.</p>	<p>- (Overuse of passive voice) Lack of ideas , students sometimes try just to translate and sometimes when they translate they do not change the structure. Of course each time I try to give them feedback. Sometimes I choose a sample essay and we try to correct it together, but sometimes I give them their essay to correct it (self correction) and sometimes it's peer correction.</p>	<p>Explanation Short informed Focus on actions and results rather than doers ignorance Treatment: More training Practice makes perfect</p>	<p>- I honestly didn't notice that, even if I find this in students' writing I usually leave it unchanged.</p>
<p>Section Seven: Final remarks</p>				
<p>22. According to you, what factors may lead</p>	<p>Being selective, writing a good outline Most of the time, the useful thing is showing the students</p>	<p>- Translation from mother tongue students sometimes do not have sufficient ideas so that the</p>		<p>- I think this is mostly related to lack of practice. Usually we have constraints of time</p>

<p>EFL students to write non-nativelike argumentative essays?</p>	<p>the main outline that they should follow because for me they cannot have a coherent essay without writing a correct outline. This is N° 1. They cannot convince their readers without having a good outline. This is N°2. And they cannot do that without using a good language to argue.</p>	<p>teacher tries to help them, for example, they try ask questions, I try sometimes to find methods to help them to think. Sometimes I use games. Sometimes I stress the importance of outlining (analogy building a house). I use puzzles to make them think and find ideas. I insist also that students should have a module of reading. Without it, it would be difficult that students discuss various issues. Students see writing as something difficult. I insist on them that they ought to write to get ready for future situations especially the exam, they can even write reports, application letters. I try always to focus on the idea that writing has a purpose of sending a message. You are a sender and you have a receiver and you have to send a message to the receiver.</p>		<p>and number of students that determine the amount of practice that we allow students to make. I think sometimes students just transfer practices from the mother tongue about what they do not know sufficiently.</p>
<p>23.What solutions do you suggest improve our teaching of the essay genre?</p>	<p>- having more sessions, - focus on the writing skill: sentence structure. Before teaching them how to write an essay, we should teach them how to write an essay. We should start with smaller units and move on to the larger units. I am sure of that - And the second thing is using different materials. I mean using materials like software, web sites for students really, to work on their writing skills. In teaching narratives, for instance I can use online story builds: students can exchange and share stories with animations, with colors. This will motivate them.</p>	<p>- I want to say that our students want something but they don't know how to get this thing. Maybe they want to write, but they don't know how to write. That's why our main objective is to show them how to write, not what to write. That's why we have to help them, to support them and encourage them to practice, practice. We should motivate them. so that the teacher tries to help them, for example, they try ask questions, I try sometimes to find methods to help them to think. Sometimes I use games. Sometimes I stress the importance of outlining (analogy building a house). I use puzzles to make them think and find</p>	<p>-</p>	<p>I suggest the following solutions: 1. Adding further sessions to the module 2. reducing the number of students in class 3. Designing appropriate syllabi that can inform teachers and guide them. Here I suggest seminars whose aims is curriculum design. 4. teacher training. I always encourage students not to focus on learning to write a certain text type alone, but I try to develop in them some study skills, such as using a dictionary, using edition checklists, and self correction to make them independent</p>

		<p>ideas. I insist also that students should have a module of reading. Without it, it would be difficult that students discuss various issues. Students see writing as something difficult. I insist on them that they ought to write to get ready for future situations especially the exam, they can even write reports, application letters. I try always to focus on the idea that writing has a purpose of sending a message. You are a sender and you have a receiver and you have to send a message to the receiver.</p>		<p>learners not bound to teachers' instructions or feedback.</p>
<p>24.Thank you for all that valuable information . Is there anything else you would like to add before we end?</p>	<p>Thank you</p>		<p>But there is something here we as teachers normally we should encourage incite our learners to we ought to develop in our students a sort of spontaneity and creativity. I mean by this we have to stop giving only recommendations, instructions, and advice to learners. Why don't we involve them and encourage them to write spontaneously; this is the level I want to reach with my learners. I want to attain this peak which is to come up with students who can express themselves spontaneously not... We insist on recommendations, instructions accuracy and we never take into consideration this type of writing which is creative writing. We have to stop intervening with their learning especially writing. We give them more chance to choose their own topics, to formulate their own personal theses and to organize and discuss them freely with the aim to reach the level of this level of creativity taking into consideration accuracy</p>	

			<p>and language because and language because it ... In creative writing, we should seek beyond ... because this sometimes enslaves or blocks creativity or the flow of the ideas. When we interfere impose and dictate rules, we said that this not here..... this may destroy this ability or potential of the learner. Briefly and concisely we teach , but when it comes to essay writing we have to let our learners enjoy and give them liberty to express themselves without dictating too many rules and norms. And we'll see if of value and so believe me this is I hope that one day, students produce something; something that meets their communicative needs and esthetic needs. E n has something to do with writing as an art. This is what teachers, I don't mean all teachers, but this is what most of teachers of written expression ignore. They ignore that the skill of writing itself is an art. When we are convinced when we really embrace this idea and we pass it to all learners, believe me they are going to make miracles. When they get the persuasion that writing itself is an art. Art is something spontaneous. It's like someone painting, singing or playing an instrument. This doesn't mean that we let it open. No we do provide them with some rules but we stop at certain limits and let them write let them produce if you want to argue. This will maybe result in students of good skill at university we get students with talent even we get philosophers. Why we limit students to university.</p>	
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Résumé

L'écrit argumentatif, qui représente une partie fondamentale des écrits universitaires, constitue un véritable problème pour les apprenants de l'Anglais comme langue étrangère. La présente étude examine les facteurs à l'origine de ces difficultés dans la rédaction des essais argumentatifs par un groupe d'étudiants algériens de Master en Anglais dont la langue parlée est l'Arabe. Cette étude de cas a pour objectifs ce qui suit : exploration des modèles rhétoriques ainsi que des styles de communication des apprenants natifs d'autres langues et cultures dans leurs écrits argumentatifs, exploration des pratiques d'enseignement de rédaction de l'essai argumentatif dans le contexte des universités Algériennes et développement de méthodes d'instruction innovatrices basées sur la compréhension de la nature des problèmes des apprenants. Pour la réalisation des dits objectifs, un mélange de méthodes qualitatives/quantitatives a été utilisé. Un test d'écrit a été conçu pour recevoir 104 rédactions de 52 étudiants en Master sur un total de 199 étudiants inscrits durant l'année universitaire 2012-2013 au département d'Anglais à l'Université Kasdi Merbah Ouargla Algérie. Les apprenants ont été choisis sur la base d'un échantillonnage accidentel. Un entretien a été aussi mené avec 04 enseignants de l'écrit sur un total de 10 enseignants de ce module dans le même département. Les enseignants ont été choisis sur la base d'un échantillonnage par choix raisonné. Le but de cet entretien est d'explorer la méthode utilisée dans l'enseignement du genre en question. L'analyse des données du test implique un traitement quantitatif des textes des apprenants. Le but de cette analyse est de détecter les impacts des modèles rhétoriques et les styles de communication de la culture maternelle des apprenants sur leurs essais argumentatifs en anglais. Les modèles rhétoriques couverts sont la coordination excessive, par-argumentation et le développement de texte non-déductif, et le style de communication visé est le style indirect. En outre, les techniques qualitatives, fondées sur la procédure de codage, ont été utilisées dans l'analyse des réponses aux entretiens des enseignants. Les résultats démontrent que les textes argumentatifs des apprenants ont des caractéristiques rhétoriques et de communication qui peuvent être attribués à l'effet de leur culture d'origine, mais celui-ci ne représente pas le seul facteur menant les rédacteurs étudiants à déroger aux normes discursives qui régissent la construction du genre en question. En fait, la faible compétence linguistique des apprenants et l'instruction reçue contribuent également au problème. Sur la base des conclusions, un cours pour l'enseignement de l'écriture de l'essai argumentatif aux étudiants universitaires de l'anglais comme langue étrangère a été conçu sur la base de l'approche genre-processus. Par la présente étude, le chercheur a tenté d'aider les apprenants d'anglais à écrire des textes argumentatifs qui répondent aux normes de l'écriture académique et de contribuer au développement de la recherche actuelle dans le domaine.

Mots clés : essai argumentatif, la langue Arabe, la culture Arabe, les styles de communication, les modèles rhétoriques, l'écrit en Anglais.

ملخص

تعد الكتابة الحجاجية قسما مهما من الكتابة الأكاديمية إلا ان الأبحاث تبين صعوبة هذا النوع من الكتابة بالنسبة لمتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية. تعنى هذه الدراسة بتبيين العوامل المؤدية إلى مواجهة صعوبات لدى كتابة مقالات حجاجية من طرف عينة من طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية الجزائريين بقسم الماجستير. وتهدف دراسة الحالة هذه إلى تحقيق الأهداف التالية: تقصي أثر الأنماط البلاغية و الأساليب التواصلية للغة المتعلمين الأم وثقافتهم على كتابتهم لمقالات حجاجية، تقصي الممارسات التعليمية المنتهجة لتدريس المقالة الحجاجية في السياق الجامعي الجزائري، وكذا محاولة تطوير أساليب تدريسية مستحدثة لكتابة المقال الحجاجي بناء على فهم طبيعة الصعوبات التي يتلقاها المتعلمون. ومن أجل الوصول لهذه الأهداف تم استعمال وسائل بحث كمية و نوعية ، تتمثل الوسيلة الأولى في اختبار كتابي يتضمن تحرير 104 مقالات حجاجية موجه إلى عينة متاحة مكونة من 52 طالب بقسم الماجستير من مجموع 199 طالب مسجل للسنة الجامعية 2012-2013 بقسم اللغة الإنجليزية بجامعة قاصدي مرياح ، ورقلة ، الجزائر. و أما الوسيلة الثانية فهي إجراء مقابلات تهدف إلى استكشاف الطرق التي ينتهجها أفراد عينة عمدية مكونة من 4 أساتذة بنفس القسم من مجموع 10 عند تدريسهم هذا النوع من النصوص. و لقد انتهجنا منهجا كميًا في التعامل مع معطيات المدونة النصية للطلاب. و الهدف من هذا هو كشف أثر الأنماط البلاغية والأساليب التواصلية للثقافة الأم للمتعلمين على مقالاتهم الحجاجية. وتشمل الأنماط البلاغية قيد الدراسة كلا من العطف المفرط، الاسلوب الجدلي الأحادي الجانب، و البنية النصية غير الإستنباطية. أما الأساليب التواصلية فتشمل الأسلوب غير المباشر. ثم تبيننا فيما بعد المنهج النوعي في تحليلنا لإجابات الأساتذة المحصل عليها من خلال المقابلات معتمدين في ذلك على تقنية الترميز. وتظهر النتائج أن العامل الثقافي ليس هو العامل الوحيد الذي يؤدي بالطلاب إلى الحياد عن معايير الخطاب التي تتحكم في بناء النوع النصي موضوع الاختبار. وفي حقيقة الأمر فإن المحدودية اللغوية وكذا الأساليب التعليمية المتبعة كلاهما يساهمان في خلق هذا المشكل. و بناء على النتائج المتحصل عليها فقد طورنا مقرا لتعليم كتابة المقال الحجاجي باللغة الإنجليزية للطلاب الذين كانت لغتهم الأم هي العربية، مقرا تم بناؤه على أساس منهج تعليمي انتقائي. ومن خلال هذه الدراسة حاولنا مد يد العون للمتعلم من أجل كتابة نص حجاجي يستجيب للمعايير الدولية للكتابة الأكاديمية و المساهمة في تطوير الأبحاث المنجزة في المجال.

الكلمات المفتاحية: المقال الحجاجي، اللغة العربية، الثقافة العربية، الأساليب التواصلية، الأنماط البلاغية، الكتابة باللغة الإنجليزية.