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**A CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC OF STUDENTS' ARABIC
AND ENGLISH COMPOSITIONS: AWARENESS-RAISING
FOR MORE EFFECTIVE WRITING**
**THE CASE OF SECOND-YEAR ENGLISH MAJORS – UNIVERSITY OF
CONSTANTINE I**

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in Candidacy for the Degree of LMD Doctorate in
Teaching English as a Foreign Language**

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DEDICATION

*To my father “Larbi” who, without knowing, engraved in my mind that there is
no more honorable life than a life spent in seeking knowledge,*

To my mother “Rabiah”, source of my happiness and success in life,

*To my little sisters: “Assala”, “Ibtihel”, “Amina”
and “Ayat-Errahmane”,*

To my brothers: “Oussama” and “Khaled”,

To my extended family, friends and colleagues

I dedicate this work.

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ABSTRACT

Students' first language has always a role to play in second language acquisition. In writing, the first language influence is manifested at different levels beginning with vocabulary, grammar and mechanics and ending up with discourse organization and rhetorical devices. The present research work aims to investigate the issue of rhetorical transfer as reflected in the writing of second-year students at the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1. It carries out a contrastive rhetoric analysis of students' Arabic and English expository compositions for the sake of identifying their stylistic deviations and enhancing their academic writing in the target language. Therefore, it is hypothesized that differences between Arabic and English have a negative impact on students' rhetorical writing in English and that awareness-raising about discourse differences will enhance students' writing quality. Three main research tools have been used to test out the hypotheses: a students' questionnaire, a comparative analysis of Arabic and English compositions, and a quasi-experimental research design. The results corroborate the research hypotheses in a sense that rhetorical differences between the first language and the target language lead to difficulties and that students' lack of awareness about these differences results in first language negative transfer and target language rhetorical deviation at the levels of connectivity, repetition, collectiveness and transculturality. As long as the experimental group participants recorded a significant statistical progress as measured through the *student t-test*, it could be concluded that Arabic exerts an apparent negative influence on shaping students' thoughts and that awareness-raising about contrastive rhetoric represents an effective means to boost up their writing performance. Eventually, since this conundrum usually yields some communication breakdowns, teachers should introduce their students to different aspects of rhetoric in order to improve their general intercultural communicative competence.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CA:	Contrastive Analysis
CARS:	Create a Research Space
CR:	Contrastive Rhetoric
EA:	Error Analysis
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
L1:	First Language
L2:	Second Language
LOTE:	Language Other Than English
N:	Number of Students
NAS:	Native Arabic Speaker
NES:	Native English Speaker
Q:	Question
RA:	Research Article
TEFL:	Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TL:	Target Language

Transliteration of the Arabic Writing System

Letter	Transliteration	Examples	Transcription	Meaning
ء	'	سماء/samaA'	/samā'/	sky
آ	Ā	آمن/Āmana	/'āmana/	he believed
أ	Ā	سأل/saĀala	/sa'ala/	he asked
ؤ	w̄	مؤتمر/muwtamar	/mu'tamar/	conference
إ	Ā	إنترنت/Āintarnit	/'intarnit/	internet
ئ	ŷ	سائل/saAŷil	/sā'il/	liquid
ا	A	كان/kaAna	/kāna/	he was
ب	b	بريد/bariyd	/barīd/	mail
ة	h̄	مكتبة/maktabah maktabahū	/maktaba/ /maktabatun/	a library
ت	t	تنافس/tanaAfus	/tanāfus/	competition
ث	Θ	ثلاثة/ΘalaAΘah	/ΘalāΘa/	three
ج	j	جميل/jamiyl	/jamīl/	beautiful
ح	H	حاد/HaAd~	/Hādd/	sharp
خ	x	خوذة/xuwḏah	/xuwḏa/	helmet
د	d	دليل/daliyl	/dalīl/	guide
ذ	ḏ	ذهب/ḏahab	/ḏahab/	gold
ر	r	رفيع/rafiyç	/rafiç/	thin
ز	z	زينة/ziynah	/zīna/	decoration
س	s	سماء/samaA'	/samā'/	sky
ش	š	شريف/šariyf	/'šarīf/	honest
ص	S	صوت/Sawt	/Sawt/	sound
ض	D	ضربير/Dariyr	/Darīr/	blind
ط	T	طويل/Tawiyl	/'Tawīl/	tall
ظ	Ḍ	ظلم/Ḍulm	/Ḍulm/	injustice
ع	ç	عمل/çamal	/çamal/	work
غ	γ	غريب/γariyb	/'γarīb/	strange
ف	f	فيلم/fiylm	/'fīlm/	movie
ق	q	قادر/qaAdir	/'qādir/	capable

ك	k	كريم/kariym	/karīm/	<i>generous</i>
ل	l	لذيذ/laḏiyḏ	/laḏīḏ/	<i>delicious</i>
م	m	مدير/mudiyir	/mudīr/	<i>manager</i>
ن	n	nuwr	/nūr/	<i>light</i>
ه	h	هول/hawl	/hawl/	<i>devastation</i>
و	w	وصل/waSl	/waSl/	<i>receipt</i>
ى	y	على/çalaý	/çala/	<i>on</i>
ي	y	تين/tiyn	/tīn/	<i>figs</i>
َ	a	دَهَنَ/dahana	/dahana/	<i>he painted</i>
ُ	u	دُهِنَ/duhina	/duhina/	<i>it was painted</i>
ِ	i	دُهِنَ/duhina	/duhina/	<i>it was painted</i>
ًا	ā	كِتَابًا/kitaAbAā	/kitāban/	<i>a book</i>
ُ	ū	كِتَابٌ/kitaAbū	/kitābun/	<i>a book</i>
ِ	ī	كِتَابٍ/kitaAbī	/kitābin/	<i>a book</i>
َ	~	كَسَّرَ/kas~ara	/kassara/	<i>he smashed</i>
َ	.	مسجد/mas.jid or masjid	/masjid/	<i>mosque</i>

Adapted from Habash, Soudi & Buckwalter (2007)

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GENERAL INTRODUCTION

1. Statement of the Problem

Writing seems to be the most demanding and difficult skill to develop in comparison with the other language skills. This difficulty stems from the many aspects involved in the activity of writing, namely vocabulary, grammar, mechanics such as spelling and punctuation as well as content and organization. What makes it more difficult for learners of English as a foreign language is the fact that the English text features of organization and stylistic patterns are different from those of other languages. So, foreign language writers struggle not only with the target language criteria of use but also with the influence of the first language which gets in the way of effective communication and affects negatively the assessment of written productions.

Algerian university students majoring in English at the University of Constantine 1 experience great difficulties in achieving effective writing in the target language measured up against the English stylistic criteria regardless of their grammatical and lexical proficiency. The negative influence of the first language is assumed to be a part of their failure taking into account that writing in English and Arabic differs not only in morphological and syntactic aspects but also in discourse structures and rhetorical features.

Although each language has its own idiosyncratic rhetorical conventions, students, in general, write in the target language in the same way they do in the first language. This eventually leads to contradicting the conventions of written English. Students might, for instance, produce pieces of writing with correct

grammatical structures as well as appropriate vocabulary items and content; nevertheless, many sentences and paragraphs make more sense in their first language than their foreign language. The problem of rhetorical writing emanates from the lack of awareness about rhetorical differences between Arabic and English. Students are likely to rely on their knowledge in their first language to write in the target language, and this results in the production of rhetorical deviations from the standard norm.

In aiding students to overcome their difficulties in writing and to produce acceptable compositions, many teachers focus on certain elements of language such as grammar, lexis and mechanics, but they neglect the problem of negative transfer from the first language. Even for those who try to take transfer in consideration, they focus on grammar and vocabulary and neglect other levels such as writing conventions and rhetorical styles despite the essential role they play in determining the quality of writing.

Like the majority of contrastive rhetoric studies, this research project is mainly motivated by Kaplan's (1966) contrastive rhetoric hypothesis that non-native students transfer rhetorical patterns from their first language to their target language writing. Even for those who have mastered to a certain extent the syntactic patterns of the target language, their compositions will always exhibit a kind of awkwardness and strangeness (Davies, 2004; Bennui, 2008). The contrastive rhetoric hypothesis is largely adopted by teachers and researchers of English as a second/foreign language and is regarded as the first serious attempt to explain second/foreign language writing (Connor, 1996). Contrastive rhetoric is also believed to have laudable effects on the target language composition and to

bring innovative views to the study of writing across languages and cultures (Swales, 1990; Leki, 1991; Matsuda, 1997; Connor, 1996, 2002, 2004, 2008). Furthermore, the present study is pedagogically motivated by aiding students to achieve more acceptable compositions. Rhetorical awareness is alleged to be the most effective way to help non-native learners overcome the first language influence and enhance the target language writing quality (cf. Mok, 1993; Smith, 2005; Stapa & Irtaimeh, 2012).

2. Aims of the Study

There is a consensus among Algerian teachers of English about the influence of Arabic on learning English in general and on writing in particular. Accordingly, the present research aims, first, to provide a theoretical and an empirical account of the existing differences between Arabic and English at three levels: conventional, stylistic and cultural. Second, it tries to examine the first language impact on students' target language writing as a key factor in their rhetorical and conventional achievement, especially when the two languages are genetically quite different.

Third, it tries to gauge students' awareness of rhetorical differences and uncover their strategies in constructing texts in the target language. Finally, this research aims at diminishing students' problems and facilitating their academic writing in the target language. It ultimately seeks to determine the possible procedures that will increase students' awareness about cross-culture rhetorical differences in order to help them develop not only correctness but also efficiency and authenticity in writing.

3. Research Questions, Assumptions and Hypotheses

To investigate the cross-culture rhetorical differences, students' awareness of them, the influence of the first language on target language writing and the effectiveness of awareness-raising, we set out to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the rhetorical differences between writing in English and writing in Arabic?
2. Are students aware of discourse differences between Arabic and English?
3. To what extent does the difference between the two languages result in students' poor achievement in the target language?
4. Do English majors at the University of Constantine 1 attain a rhetorical style closer to that of the target language at this level? Or does their English writing remain indistinguishable from writing in Arabic?
5. Does awareness-raising about contrastive rhetoric promote students' rhetorical writing?

On the basis of these questions, the following assumptions and hypotheses are put forward:

Assumptions

1. Since students do not receive any instruction on contrastive rhetoric and regarding the fact that no reference is made to discourse differences either in university curricula or in grammar and writing textbooks, we assume that they do

not possess the necessary awareness of rhetorical differences between Arabic and English.

2. The first language and culture are the source from which students base their knowledge in the foreign language, especially when they encounter difficulties. Consequently, it is assumed that students will make recourse to their Arabic stylistic properties to write in English either consciously or unconsciously.

These two assumptions represent the basic foundations of contrastive rhetoric since Kaplan's (1966) seminal article. This is not to claim, however, that all erroneous rhetorical constructions are interlingual in nature, still some others may be rendered to intralingual and developmental origins in the process of acquiring a second or a foreign language.

Hypotheses

1. If students write with no consideration of discourse differences between Arabic and English, they will fall into rhetorical deviation at conventional, stylistic and cultural levels.
2. If students' awareness about Arabic-English rhetorical differences is raised, their written composition will be enhanced in terms of rhetorical devices and conventional norms.

4. Tools of Research

Data collection is done through (1) a students' questionnaire, (2) an analysis of 180 compositions written by sixty (N=60) second-year students from the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1, and (3) a quasi-

experimental research design. The students' questionnaire provides a view of their writing habits in relation to the stylistic choices they make, their strategies in writing, and most importantly, their level of awareness of the Arabic-English rhetorical differences in addition to their reaction towards unfamiliarity and difficulty in the target language writing. The reason behind relying on the questionnaire as a data collection tool is that it is a suitable means of gathering data about students' writing practices and an effective method to deal with a large sample of respondents.

As a second tool of research, a pre-test/post-test quasi-experimental design is then opted for. The pre-test serves two main aims: first, to set data at the starting point of the experiment which is going to be compared later on to the post-test to see whether there will be an improvement or not. Second, it allows for rhetorical comparison between Arabic and English as reflected in students' writing in both languages. After administering the pre-test and the questionnaire, and after the period of a semester of formal instruction with the aim of clarifying the conventional, stylistic and cultural norms of the English writing system focusing on the areas of difference with Arabic, students take the post-test to see how awareness-raising works out for them.

All together, the research tools and steps are placed in order to achieve the aims of this research work: 1) verifying the existing differences between Arabic and English and examining the extent to which the first language typical features are evident in students' target language writing through the pre-test analysis where each student is supposed to write two texts: one in Arabic, the other in English; 2) gauging students' awareness of differences and the way they approach

this difference through the questionnaire; and 3) measuring the effectiveness of awareness-raising in enhancing students' writing quality through the analysis of their post-test results after a period of one-semester formal instruction.

5. Structure of the Thesis

The present thesis consists of seven chapters: three theoretical, three practical and one chapter for pedagogical implications for language teaching. The first chapter surveys and discusses the theme of contrastive rhetoric according to different theoretical standpoints. It sheds some light on its origins, development, aim, field of study, significance in the area of foreign language writing as well as the different related theories and disciplines.

Chapter two highlights the issue of rhetorics and writing. It attempts to inspect a number of the typical rhetorical features of Arabic and compare them to those of English trying to identify the potential areas where negative transfer could take place. It also provides an account of some recent studies in the field of Arabic-English contrastive rhetoric studies focusing on their research methods and insightful penetrations.

The third chapter is devoted to foreign language writing and awareness. It includes the description of writing, the criteria that make a good paragraph/essay and the reasons for teaching the writing skill. It also examines the connection between writing and other language skills including speaking and reading. In addition, this chapter tries to explore the relationship between awareness and foreign language writing and the theoretical implications of awareness-raising for contrastive rhetoric research.

Chapter four comprises the analysis of the students' questionnaire. It endeavours to gauge students' level of awareness about cross-culture rhetorical differences between Arabic and English. It seeks as well to unveil students' strategies while writing in the target language so as to find out the sources of their rhetorical tendencies.

Chapter five involves the description of the quasi-experimental research design, its implementation and the different procedures to test out the research hypotheses. It introduces and analyzes the research situation, population, data collection process, instruction, target of investigation as well as the different steps of the present inquiry.

Chapter six provides an evaluation of the pre-test and post-test achievements. It starts by discussing students' rhetorical transfer and ends up by evaluating the effectiveness of awareness-raising in helping students to overcome the first language influence.

Finally, chapter seven attempts to present some pedagogical implications and recommendations on the role of contrastive rhetoric and its contribution to developing students' writing. It purports to provide effective measures to help students achieve correctness, effectiveness and authenticity in writing, and suggests some topics for further research actions and projects.

6. Limitation of the Study

Despite its historical existence within the linguistic background of Algerians in general and educated individuals in particular, the French language is not targeted in this study. First of all, time constraint does not allow for going through all those sets of students' writing (Arabic, English and French compositions with a pre-test and a post-test including many aspects to be investigated one at a time). Second, contrastive rhetoric studies on French are relatively few compared to English and Arabic which allow neither for the literature review nor for the experimental work. Nevertheless, this does not underestimate the value of the present study for two reasons. First, the fact that Arabic is the most influential language for the population under examination. Participants are among the generations where the educational system has been fully Arabised and French is only considered as a first foreign language. Second, French has its greatest influence on the spoken language of Algerians, not on the written one, except for those who pursue it as a field of study at university which is not the case of the population under examination in this research work.

7. Significance of the Study

Most of the previous contrastive rhetoric studies on Arabic and English whether those carried out by American linguists (cf. Koch, 1983; Smith, 2005) or by Arab linguists (cf. Al-Qahtani, 2006; Ismail, 2010; Abu Radwan, 2012) are descriptive in orientation. Their fundamental aim is to make an account of the existing differences between the two languages at the discourse level and to investigate how the first language (Arabic) affects the students' target language (English). Besides, previous inquiries explored only one feature at a time, like

repetition of ideas by Koch (1983) and punctuation by Awad (2012). This study treats more than one rhetorical aspect including conventional, stylistic and cultural elements and seeks more than the account of difference and interference. It attempts to provide some empirical solutions to diminish the influence of the first language and to help foreign language writers overcome cultural barriers and achieve effective communication. Furthermore, the present study follows a descriptive contrastive rhetoric approach that entails the investigation of difference and rhetorical deviation. It also analyzes a familiar genre for both contrastive rhetoric and teaching English as a foreign language, namely expository writing. However, it targets a very different population compared to other Arab-speaking nations: Algerian students with their unique linguistic background where this area is still not well-explored.

CHAPTER ONE

CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC

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CHAPTER ONE

CONTRASTIVE RHETORIC

Introduction

Writing is a central element in the language teaching/learning setting. It is very significant in students' academic courses as it is needed for taking notes, writing essays, answering written questions, writing experimental reports, etc. Despite its importance in the teaching/learning process, writing was not given due attention as an area of study for decades because of the dominance of the *Audiolingual Method*¹ where emphasis was put on teaching the spoken language. With the emergence of contrastive rhetoric in the mid 1960s, the writing skill and the role of transfer started to gain some interest in the realm of applied linguistics. The present chapter surveys and discusses contrastive rhetoric as a field of study. It tries to shed some light on its nature, orientation, aim, origins and history. It also attempts to trace its contemporary developments, influential disciplines as well as significance in foreign language composition research.

1.1. Contrastive Rhetoric

Contrastive rhetoric is an area of research that studies discourse differences between different languages and cultures as reflected in the writing of second/foreign language students (Xing, Wang & Spencer, 2008). Contrastive rhetoric entails the study of how the acquisition of another language is influenced

¹ The Audiolingual Method is “a method of foreign or second language teaching which emphasizes the teaching of speaking and listening before reading and writing” (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 39).

by a person's first language in terms of rhetorical structures and conventional norms. The focus of contrastive rhetoric is, therefore, on the study of contrast between languages with the aim of explaining problems and difficulties that second/foreign language writers come across in their writing experiences. Connor (1996) defines contrastive rhetoric as "an area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers and, by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them" (p. 5).

In defining contrastive rhetoric, Kaplan (1966) holds that the latter is a notion: people living in different cultural surroundings view reality and organize their discourse according to their cultures and life styles. As a result, people will not only develop their spoken communication in a unique-culture-specific way but also write according to some culturally-embedded norms. On the basis of this notion, Kaplan comes to the conclusion that all languages contain a certain number of typical organizational modes and rhetorical styles. For him, native speakers recognize which modes to use and the consequences of their choices. Non-native speakers, on the other hand, do not possess "as complete an inventory of possible alternatives" and do not recognize "the sociolinguistic constraints on those alternatives" (Kaplan, 1987: 11).

With the shift of applied linguistics' attention towards writing and the role of transfer after the long established emphasis on oral language skills, contrastive rhetoric was considered as the first serious attempt to explain second/foreign language writing (Connor, 1996). Examining the impact of contrastive rhetoric

and its role in understanding the writing of ESL/EFL learners, Atkinson (2000; in Connor, Nagelhout & Rozycki, 2008) illustrates:

The contrastive rhetoric hypothesis has held perhaps its greatest allure for those in nonnative-English-speaking contexts abroad, forced as they are to look EFL writing in the eye to try to understand why it at least sometimes looks “different” – often subtly out of sync with what one might expect from a “native” perspective.

(Atkinson, 2000; in Connor *et al.* 2008: 1)

Research on contrastive rhetoric seeks out answers for two central questions:

- 1) Are there any significant differences between texts written by speakers of different languages and members of different cultures?
- 2) Would those differences, if any, result in students’ poor writing achievement in the target language?

These questions are represented by Kaplan (1966) as the contrastive rhetoric hypotheses:

- a) Each language and culture have unique rhetorical conventions;
- b) When ESL/EFL students write in the target language, some of their L1 rhetorical conventions will appear in their ESL/EFL writing. Subsequently, students will deviate from the English language conventions of use.

In an attempt to answer the previously mentioned questions in an overall way, asserts Connor (1996) supporting Kaplan's views: "...contrastive rhetoric maintains that language and writing are cultural phenomena. As a direct consequence, each language has rhetorical conventions unique to it...the linguistic and rhetorical conventions of the first language interfere with writing in the second language" (p. 5). In the same direction goes Bennui (2008) pointing that when ESL/EFL students write in the target language, their writing exhibits foreign-sounding structures that belong the L1. Even if they employ to a certain extent accurate grammar and appropriate vocabulary, stresses Bennui (2008), their writing would still make no sense in the target language: "ESL/EFL students may produce pieces of writing containing correct grammar structures as well as appropriate vocabulary items and content. Nevertheless, many sentences make more sense in the students' native language than in English..." (p. 73).

In this respect, languages do not only express the way people communicate, they also speak for the way they think and behave. For Qaddumi (1995), "[l]anguage is the vessel through which culture expresses itself" (p. 118). Therefore, differences in the use of rhetorical patterns are not always purely linguistic in nature, still some others may be rendered to culture and shaped by speakers' backgrounds and their perceptions of the world. Concerning the writing-culture relationship, Xing *et al.* (2008) highlight that foreign language composition "is not an isolated classroom activity, but a social and cultural experience" (p. 73). In such a setting, writing exceeds the linguistic and conventional input to learning the logic and culture of the target society. Consequently, a foreign student who has mastered to some extent the syntax of

English may still produce a bad paragraph or a bad paper unless he/she also masters the logic/culture of English (Kaplan, 1966).

All in all, it is inevitable that non-native students transfer their L1 linguistic and cultural patterns to their L2 writing not only at the word and sentence levels but also at the level of discourse. Since each language has its unique conventional norms, this transfer would result in awkwardness and rhetorical deviation in the target language writing and here comes the role of contrastive rhetoric. Unlike other contrastive studies, contrastive rhetoric examines the writing system as a whole including the different elements of language, organizational patterns and contents without denying writers' personalities and their cultural experiences.

[T]he linguistic patterns and rhetorical conventions of the L1 often transfer to writing in ESL and thus cause interference. It is important to distinguish this concern from potential interference at the level of syntax and phonology. In contrastive rhetoric, the interference manifests itself in the writer's choice of rhetorical strategies and content.

(Connor, 2002: 494)

1.2. Aim of Contrastive Rhetoric

Though contrastive rhetoric was developed more than four decades ago, it has always been through a constant development and expansion of scope. As a result, it has maintained its popularity and significance in foreign language composition research, and it is still attracting adequate attention. Connor (2002) gives contrastive rhetoric all the credit in helping non-native-English-speakers to understand how foreign language composition functions and in guiding them to recognize and work through differences in the activity of writing.

The notion of contrastive rhetoric was initially suggested in terms of pedagogy to solve students' problems in second/foreign language writing through the explanation of the target language organizational patterns relying on linguistic, cultural and educational foundations (Matsuda, 1997). Since Kaplan's (1966) pioneering work, the aim of contrastive rhetoric has developed to deal with more issues related to foreign language composition. Kaplan (1966) studied the organization of paragraph in ESL/EFL students' essays and identified five types of paragraph development reflecting different rhetorical patterns of different languages. After Kaplan's first study, a good deal of research works have compared writing patterns and styles in many languages and cultures.

According to Wang (2006), when reviewing his original study, Kaplan found that contrastive rhetoric can offer more than the analysis of rhetorical differences between languages. It can provide cultural understandings as well as the right mechanisms that help students to overcome their difficulties and produce effective L2 texts. Moreover, Kaplan came to acknowledge that contrastive rhetoric's aim goes beyond pedagogy "to describe ways in which written texts operate in larger cultural contexts" (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996: 179).

1.3. Field and Orientation

As a result of the growing number of international students enrolling in American universities, American writing teachers and researchers have become interested in the distinct rhetorical styles exhibited in the writing of non-native students, and this endeavour led to the emergence of contrastive rhetoric. Therefore, in orientation, contrastive rhetoric is fundamentally pedagogical and has "a significant impact on the teaching of writing in both ESL and English as a

Foreign Language (EFL) classes” (Connor *et al.* 2008: 1). Swales (1990) points out that contrastive rhetoric is “an investigative area that is directly relevant to a pedagogically-oriented study of academic English” (pp. 64-5). It attempts to provide teachers and students with knowledge of the language-culture relationship and how written products by language learners reflect their discourse textual features and patterns of organization. This knowledge can be employed in the process of teaching second/foreign language writing by educating learners and raising their awareness about the rhetorical conventions of both their native and target languages. According to Grabe and Kaplan (1996), there are seven types of knowledge on which contrastive rhetoric focuses attention in the teaching of writing:

1. Knowledge of rhetorical patterns of arrangement and the relative frequency of various patterns (e.g. exposition/argument: classification, definition, etc.);
2. Knowledge of composing conventions and strategies needed to generate text (e.g. pre-writing, data-collection, revision, etc.);
3. Knowledge of the morphosyntax of the target language, particularly as it applies to the intersentential level;
4. Knowledge of the coherence-creating mechanisms of the target language;
5. Knowledge of the writing conventions of the target language in the sense of both frequency and distribution of types and text appearance (e.g. letter, essay, report);

6. Knowledge of the audience characteristics and expectations in the target culture; and
7. Knowledge of the subject to be discussed, including both “what everyone knows” in the target culture and specialist knowledge (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996: 200).

Regarding the field of study, contrastive rhetoric has developed from the rather simple analysis of paragraph organization by non-native students in its early beginnings (Kaplan, 1966) to become an interdisciplinary area in the realm of applied linguistics entailing a sophisticated analysis of texts written for a variety of purposes (Connor, 2004). Contrastive rhetoric, at present, inspects rhetorical deviations in the writing of second/foreign language learners across languages and cultures as well as across different contexts such as education and commerce.

After being limited in its early years of development to the study of students’ essays, today -after the increase in the types of written texts and writing contexts within second/foreign language education around the world- contrastive rhetoric’s field of study has expanded to include writing in many EAP/ESP situations. It continues to contribute to our understanding of cultural differences in general as well as in the teaching of ESL/EFL writing. Other important genres relevant to contrastive rhetoric studies include academic research articles, research reports and writing for professional purposes, such as business, for example.

In relation to contrastive rhetoric's field of study, the different contexts and writing genres investigated by this discipline, Connor holds:

Although largely restricted throughout much of its first 30 years to a fairly rigid form, student essay writing, the field today contributes to knowledge about preferred patterns of writing in many English for specific purposes situations. Undeniably, it has had an appreciable impact on the understanding of cultural differences in writing, and it has had, and will continue to have, an effect on the teaching of ESL and EFL writing.

(Connor, 2002: 493)

She adds:

EAP classes teach other types of writing besides the student essay required in college classes. Other important genres are the academic research article, research report, and grant proposal. Writing for professional purposes, such as business, is also now considered a legitimate type of second language writing and worthy of research and teaching.

(Connor, 2004: 293)

1.4. History and Development

Contrastive rhetoric has been through many stages of development as a field of study concerned with second/foreign language writing research. Contrastive rhetoric's initial quest was to provide teachers and students with knowledge of the language-culture relationship through the study of paragraph organization. After numerous empirical investigations conducted in the field, it has become an interdisciplinary area of research in applied linguistics obtaining knowledge and insights from many related disciplines. Consequently, contrastive rhetoric shifted

its attention from the pure contrast and possible stereotyping towards the examination of communication in action where it is necessary to study written texts and also to understand how these texts are both created and consumed.

1.4.1. Background and Origins

Research on contrastive rhetoric began more than forty years ago with Robert Kaplan's seminal article on writing by learners of English as a second language. Kaplan's (1966) article "*Cultural Thought Patterns in Intercultural Education*" was the first in an ESL/EFL setting devoted to the study of rhetorics in writing; thus, extending the analysis beyond the sentence level. Kaplan based his work on the assumption that logic and rhetoric are both interdependent and culture specific. Accordingly, different cultures impose different perspectives of the world, and different languages have different rhetorical patterns. In relation to this, Kaplan (1966) illustrates:

Logic (in the popular, rather than the logician's sense of the word), which is the basis of rhetoric, is evolved out of a culture; it is not universal. Rhetoric, then, is not universal either, but varies from culture to culture and even from time to time within a given culture. It is affected by canons of taste within a given culture a given time.

(Kaplan, 1966: 2)

When writing in English, a typical ESL/EFL learner who has not yet developed some familiarity with the target language conventions of use, its logic, and the rhetorical tendencies of its speakers would make recourse to his/her first language traits which results in negative interference. Contrastive rhetoric,

therefore, was founded on the principle that difference equals difficulty and error which is not different from the principle of contrastive analysis. Yet, the innovation brought by contrastive rhetoric is that students' written products are to be analyzed as a whole, beyond the sentence level taking into consideration the writing genre and context, and without denying the writers' cultural backgrounds and rhetorical tendencies.

1.4.1.1. Kaplan's Model

Kaplan's (1966) pioneering study analyzed paragraph organization in non-native English students' writing and indicated that their L1 rhetorical structures were evident in their TL writing. In his famous article, Kaplan (1966) investigated and described the several patterns of writing found in international students' academic essays. His objective was to circumvent the impediments in teaching students how to control English writing for use in universities in the United States where the majority of them, even with the ability to largely control the English sentence, did not always achieve acceptable extended texts.

Starting from a holistic analysis of over 600 international students' English essays and on the basis of Aristotelian rhetoric and logic, Kaplan (1966) identified five types of paragraph development, each reflecting different rhetorical tendencies, and came to the conclusion that: "each language and each culture has a paragraph order unique to itself, and that part of the learning of the particular language is the mastering of its logical system" (p. 14). The results of Kaplan's (1966) study could be summed up in the following figure:

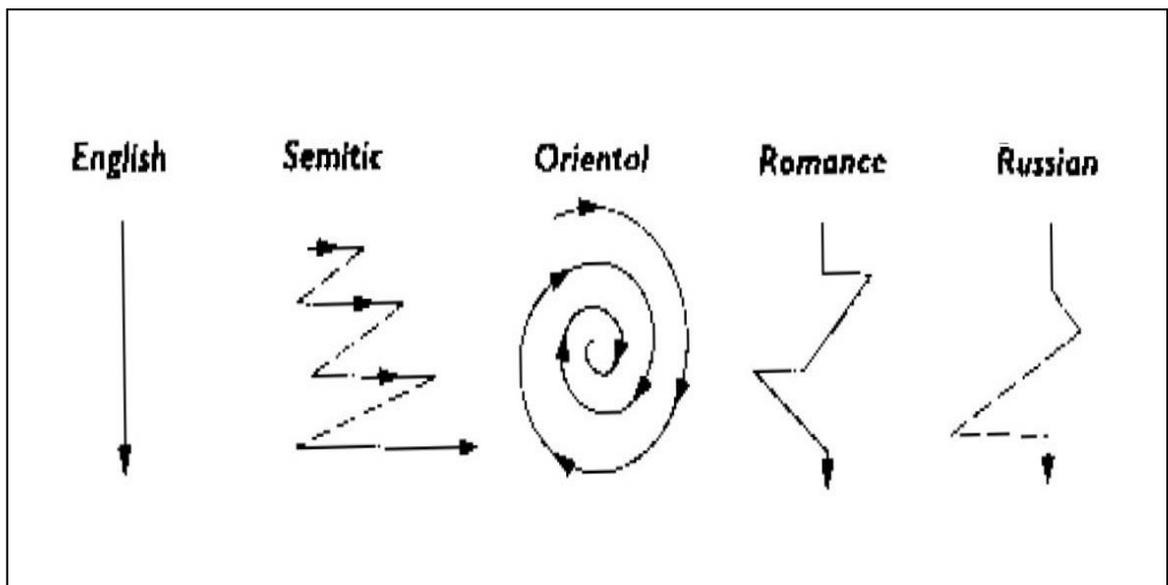


Figure 1.1. Rhetorical Patterns of Different Languages (Kaplan, 1966)

The five drawings stand for the five different rhetorics reflected in Kaplan's (1966) study. As shown in Figure (1.1), English rhetoric is represented in a straight line, Oriental in a spiral, Arabic in a series of zigzags, Romance and Russian as lines heading downward but veering off at different angles along the way.

According to Kaplan (1966), in English compositions, the ideas are conveyed in a straight line from the beginning to the end. In compositions written in other languages, the flow of ideas happens in various modes. In Semitic languages and because of the frequent use of parallelism, ideas occur in a zigzag line. In the Oriental pattern, the ideas are represented circularly -reflecting an indirect approach- in order to get to the main point. In the Romance and Russian patterns, there is a freedom to deviate and introduce extra materials. In describing Kaplan's model, Connor (2002) holds that:

Anglo-European expository essays are developed linearly whereas essays in Semitic languages use parallel coordinate clauses; those in Oriental languages prefer an indirect approach, coming to the point in the end; and those in Romance languages and in Russian include material that, from a linear point of view, is irrelevant.

(Connor, 2002: 494)

In sum, Kaplan's idea was innovative at that time and taken up by many teachers and researchers. According to Connor (2008), when Kaplan accomplished his first work on contrastive rhetoric, it was novel for three major reasons:

- 1- Few EFL/ESL instructors thought about writing since the predominant methodology (Audiolingual Method) focused on the oral skill.
- 2- The focus of linguists and language teachers was on the "clausal" level rather than the "discourse" level.
- 3- People did not believe that writing could be taught; it was considered as a gift (*ibid.*).

Kaplan's early work was influenced by many theories relevant to language learning, the role of transfer and intercultural studies, but mostly by the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. The latter is "basic to contrastive rhetoric" and "regaining acceptability in linguistics and psychology" (Connor, 1996: 10).

1.4.1.2. The Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis

Kaplan (1966) original work is closely associated with the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis which implicates a relation among language, thought and culture. In discussing the origins of contrastive rhetoric, Connor (1996) claims that “the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of linguistic relativity is basic to contrastive rhetoric because it suggests that different languages affect perception and thought in different ways” (p.10). Matsuda (2001), on her part, links the emergence of contrastive rhetoric to Kaplan’s effort to synthesize at least three different intellectual traditions: contrastive analysis, composition and rhetoric and the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis.

The Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, also known as “the linguistic relativity hypothesis” and “the negative transfer hypothesis” respectively yields two versions: “a stronger version” and “a weaker version.” The strong version holds that language does not only shape the way people think but also completely determines their thought patterns (language controls thought and perception) (Connor, 2002). The weak version suggests that people’s thought is influenced by everyday language (language influences thought) (*ibid.*). This weak version of the hypothesis seems to be Kaplan’s inspiration which is regaining respectability in linguistics and psychology, resulting in renewed interest in the study of cultural differences and the role of transfer (Connor, 1996; Gumperz & Levinson, 1996; Hunt & Agnoli, 1991).

In his famous article, Kaplan (1966) cited Sapir and Whorf but with a very brief explanation of their hypothesis. However, later on, Kaplan acknowledged that the notion of contrastive rhetoric is closely connected to the Sapir-Whorf

hypothesis. Sapir and Whorf (in Connor, 2008) assume that language determines one's view of the world and that the structure of language is shaped by how speakers perceive the world. In other words, each cultural group has its own unique view of the world which is based partly on the connection to the physical environment, but mostly on the connection of group members to each other (*ibid.*).

1.4.1.3. Issues in Traditional Contrastive Rhetoric

Kaplan's (1966) early work on contrastive rhetoric has caused controversy in the area of ESL/EFL writing research and practice. On the one hand, Kaplan's suggestion that non-native students' problems in EAP writing can be solved when related to their native language was accepted by many ESL/EFL educators. On the other hand, the validity of contrastive rhetoric has been seriously doubted by others and the subject of intense criticism. Liebman (1992) points out that Kaplan's approach reduced the five elements of the traditional Aristotelian rhetoric (invention, memory, arrangement, style and delivery) into one: arrangement or organization. The same argument is made by Connor (1996) maintaining that Kaplan's interpretation of Aristotelian rhetoric was narrow in the sense that he only discussed writing in Aristotle's term "arrangement" and ignored the two other components: "persuasive language" and "rhetorical appeal."

Furthermore, Kaplan's early work on contrastive rhetoric has been criticized for using students' L2 texts for examining their L1 rhetoric. This necessarily leads to overgeneralization and bias, where L1 authentic texts seem to be a better data source for analysis (Connor, 1997; in Cahyono, 2001). Another criticism to Kaplan's traditional contrastive rhetoric was overemphasizing cognitive factors

“at the expense of sociocultural factors (e.g., schooling) to explain preferences in rhetorical conventions” (*ibid.* 43). Kaplan was also faulted for considering transfer from L1 generally a negative influence on L2 writing.

Contrastive rhetoric was accused of being too egocentric, privileging the writing of English speakers and for being insensitive to cultural differences. Kubota (2001) criticized contrastive rhetoric for the alleged promotion of the superiority of Western writing over Eastern. Contrastive rhetoric was also discredited for assuming that rhetorical variation is the only cause of difficulty in second/foreign language writing.

Critics of contrastive rhetoric provided their empirical evidence that in addition to L1 rhetorical transfer, L2 developmental issues and L1 writing ability play an important role in L2 composition. According to Godó (2009), “ESL writers produce lower quality writing because of language barriers as well as not having received writing instruction in their mother tongue at all” (p. 120). The same argument is made by Friedlander (1990) who maintains that L1 writing ability is a significant variable that influences L2 writing where students will

transfer writing abilities and strategies, whether good or deficient, from their first language to their second language ...[but] students who have not developed good strategies for writing in their first language will not have appropriate strategies to transfer to their second language.

(Friedlander, 1990: 109)

Such considerations made contrastive rhetoric a subject of criticism and a suspicious field of study which imposed an evolution and a change in the directions of research. These new directions involve renewed views of culture, literacy and pedagogy and have a noticeable impact on the field's research agenda, investigation methods and theories.

1.4.2. Development of Contrastive Rhetoric

At the time when all contrastive studies were preoccupied with the structural analysis of language at the sentence level, research on contrastive rhetoric came to suggest that L2 learners' composition is influenced by linguistic and cultural factors beyond the sentence level (Davies 2004). Early work on contrastive rhetoric was based on the assumption that language learners will transfer the rhetorical features of their native language to the mother tongue causing interference (Connor, 2002). It was believed that differences in logic, which is culture specific, result in the development of different rhetorics, and that the difference in rhetorical organization causes difficulties for L2 learners (Kaplan, 1966). Besides, non-native learners were considered disadvantaged not only because of their linguistic shortcomings but also because of their L1-based rhetorical conventions. For this reason, research in the field focused on differences between L1 and L2 aiming to inculcate L2-based rhetorical forms and eliminate L1 schemata (Godó, 2009).

Contrastive rhetoric, therefore, was innovative at that time and changed the directions of contrastive studies. Nevertheless, it was not frozen in time. With the maturity of many related disciplines, contrastive rhetoric gained a lot theoretically and methodologically. Furthermore, with the increase of intercultural

communication, the genres studied within ESL/EFL contexts besides students' essays (for instance, academic research articles, research reports and writing for business) and the variety in the social situations of writing; contrastive rhetoric has witnessed major developments and incorporated many new trends in research and methods (genre analysis, corpus linguistics quantitative analysis, etc.).

1.4.3. From Contrastive Rhetoric to Intercultural Rhetoric

Contemporary contrastive rhetoric research shifts the attention from the study of writing as a skill to the study of writing as a culturally-determined and a cognitive activity. Connor (1996) observes that after more than four decades of research and debate, the major concern of contrastive rhetoric is now moving from purely structural description to an interest in "cognitive and sociocultural variables of writing in addition to the linguistic variables" (p. 18).

Recent research has expanded the concept of contrastive rhetoric and taken it beyond the sole aim of looking at the effects of L1 on L2. Currently, contrastive rhetoric is considered as an interdisciplinary area of cross-language/cross-culture study that uses the theories and methods of such related disciplines as applied linguistics, composition and rhetoric studies, anthropology, translation studies and discourse analysis (Connor, 1996, 2002).

In an attempt to summarize the major findings in the past forty years, Connor (2002) acknowledges that contrastive rhetoric has drawn insights from four domains namely text linguistics, contrastive genre-specific studies, classroom-based studies of writing and the analysis of writing as a cultural and educational activity. A great amount of research within contrastive rhetoric has

been directed to explore the conventional features of different languages involving diverse writing genres such as: “journal articles, business reports, letters of application, grant proposals, and editorials” (*ibid.* 497). Connor (2002) presents the four domains of investigation and the main studies within contrastive rhetoric in the following table:

Domain	Purpose	Examples
Contrastive text linguistic studies	Examine, compare, and contrast how texts are formed and interpreted in different languages and cultures using methods of written discourse analysis	Clyne (1987); Connor & Kaplan (1987); Eggington (1987); Hinds (1983, 1987, 1990)
Studies of writing as cultural and educational activity	Investigate literacy development on L1 language and culture and examine effects on the development of L2 literacy	Carson (1992); Purves (1988)
Classroom-based contrastive studies	Examine cross-cultural patterns in process writing, collaborative revisions, and student-teacher conferences	Allaei & Connor (1990); Goldstein & Conrad (1990); Hull, Rose, Fraser, & Castellano (1991); Nelson & Murphy (1992)
Genre-specific investigations	Are applied to academic and professional writing	Bhatia (1993); Connor, Davis, & De Rycker (1995); Jenkins & Hinds (1987); Mauranen (1993); Swales (1990); Tirkkonen-Condit (1996); Ventola & Mauranen (1991)

Table 1.1. Sample Contrastive Studies in Four Domains of Investigation (Connor, 2002: 498)

As a result of the increasing number of empirical studies in the field, Ulla Connor -as the major banner bearer of contrastive rhetoric after Robert Kaplan- called for a reexamination of research methods and focus, and offered an agenda of expansion in her article “*Intercultural Rhetoric Research: Beyond Texts*” published in 2004 in the *Journal of English for Academic Writing*. She suggested some directions for future research in the field that “will be faithful to the rigorous empirical principles of the area of study but still consistent with postmodern views of culture and discourse” (Connor, 2004: 292).

Furthermore, Connor (2004) suggested a new umbrella term to stand for the contemporary scope of cultural influences in second/foreign language writing. The term “*intercultural rhetoric*” was proposed by Connor after she came to realize the dynamic nature of writing and culture, and how writing in a given culture is closely attached to the intellectual history and the social structures of that specific culture. Connor (2004) points out:

Changing definitions of written discourse analysis—from text-based to context sensitive—and of culture—from static to dynamic—contribute to the changing focus of intercultural rhetoric research, a new term that better reflects the dynamic nature of the area of study.

(Connor, 2004: 302)

The concept “*intercultural rhetoric*” was introduced to include cross-cultural studies as well as the interactive situations in which writers with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds negotiate L2 writing for different purposes (Connor, 2008). It was hoped that its use would avoid any suggestion that one language is inferior to another (U. Connor, personal communication, May, 2005). The word

intercultural emphasizes that international communication (speaking or writing) requires both parties to be involved, where the accommodation to each other's styles is necessary and goes both ways (*ibid.*). Intercultural rhetoric is a better term because it shifts attention from pure contrast and possible stereotyping and encourages the examination of communication in action by studying how texts are both created and consumed. It focuses on "processes, contexts, and particular situations" of writing (Connor, 2004: 293).

All in all, contrastive rhetoric studies were a natural development in L2 writing research. From its early beginning with Kaplan's work on paragraph organization until it has become the multidisciplinary research area of today, contrastive rhetoric has witnessed many changes and developments along the way. It is said that contrastive rhetoric went through three stages: the stage of the composing process, the stage of social construction and the stage of writing as a cultural/social process. To summarize the journey of contrastive rhetoric in few words, we will quote Connor (2002):

Following the lead of L1 writing research and pedagogy, in which the 1970s were said to be the decade of the composing process and the 1980s the decade of social construction, empirical research on L2 writing in the 1990s became increasingly concerned with social and cultural processes in cross-cultural undergraduate writing groups and classes.

(Connor, 2002: 497)

1.5. Influential Disciplines

Throughout the years, contrastive rhetoric has grown as a field of study drawing theories and methodologies from many closely related disciplines that have two things in common: facilitating and improving the language learning activity and helping non-native learners overcome cultural barriers. Enkvist (1997) summarizes the disciplines providing relevant materials for contrastive rhetoric in the following figure:

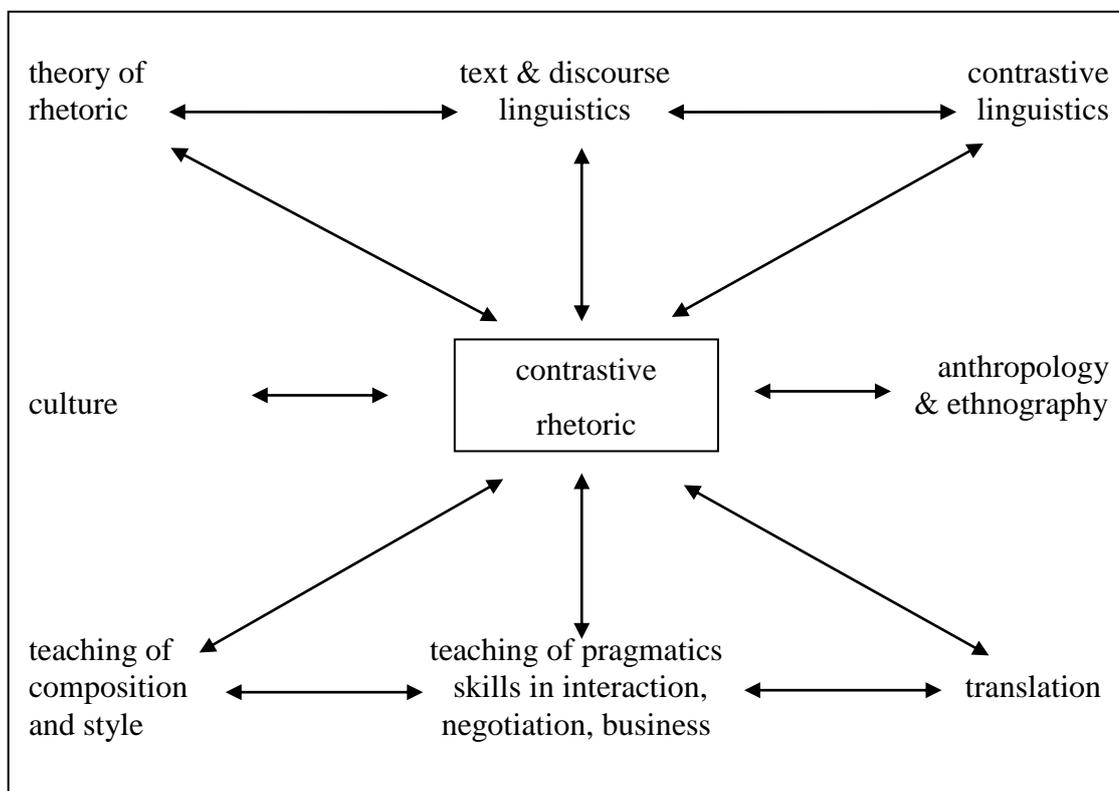


Figure 1.2. Contrastive Rhetoric in Relation to its Neighboring Disciplines

(Enkvist, 1997: 194)

Not far from Enkvist's (1997) classification, Connor (1996) approaches the theories that influenced contrastive rhetoric into seven elements to be illustrated in the next few pages: applied linguistics, linguistic relativity, rhetoric, text linguistics, discourse types and genres, literacy and translation.

1.5.1. Theory of Applied Linguistics

The theory of applied linguistics influences research on contrastive rhetoric by maintaining its orientation towards applied problems of learners in foreign language classes. A great amount of research within contrastive rhetoric was carried out by relying heavily on "applied linguistic and linguistic text analysis" (Connor, 2002: 496). Typically, such studies were directed to explore features pertinent to coherence, cohesion, and discourse superstructure. The theory of applied linguistics also provides contrastive rhetoric with definitions of several language concepts such as the relationship between different skills of language and their measurements, language proficiency and other variables related to the process of acquiring/learning a language (Connor, 1996). Finally and most importantly, applied linguistics contributes to contrastive rhetoric with a theory of language transfer from L1 to L2 through the three dominant disciplines studying transfer: contrastive analysis, error analysis and interlanguage analysis.

1.5.1.1. Contrastive Analysis

Originally developed by Charles C. Fries in 1945 and expanded by Robert Lado in 1957, contrastive analysis holds that mistakes made by L2 learners are caused by their native language. Contrastive analysis entails the examination of similarities and differences between languages seeking to provide material for

applied disciplines (such as translation) as well as predicting possible areas of difficulty and error for second/foreign language learners. The analysis and comparison of languages entailed by contrastive analysis takes place at different levels (phonology, morphology, syntax, lexis, etc.) focusing on areas of difference -which equals difficulty- to provide solutions for second/foreign language instruction (Johansson, 2000). According to Fries (1945), the most efficient materials for teaching are based on a systematic analysis of the target language features and comparing them to those of the first language. The three main assumptions underlying contrastive analysis could be summed up as follows:

- a) The main difficulties in learning a new language are caused by interference from the first language,
- b) These difficulties can be predicted by contrastive analysis,
- c) Teaching materials can make use of contrastive analysis to reduce the effects of interference (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 119).

The premise of contrastive analysis is simple: through the process of learning an additional language, learners will unavoidably make recourse to their first language. If the two languages are similar, learning becomes easier or what is known as ‘positive transfer’ takes place; if they are different, transfer will occur negatively. Furthermore, it is believed that “the greater the difference between them, the more difficult they would be to acquire, whereas the more similar, the easier they would be to learn” (Lightbound, 2005: 66). In line with this, Robert Lado illustrates:

...in the comparison between native and foreign languages lies the key to ease or difficulty in foreign language learning....We assume that the student who comes in contact with a foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult. Those elements that are similar to his native language will be easy for him and those elements that are different will be difficult.

(Lado, 1957; in McAllister, 2000: 50)

CA studies, therefore, are founded on the principle “difference equals difficulty.” In other words, whenever one finds a difference in the structure of language, one could expect a learning problem. This principle is by no means different from Kaplan’s who established his work on contrastive rhetoric assuming that if the English rhetorical styles differ from those of the learner’s first language, then there would be a potential learning problem and rhetorical deviation.

1.5.1.2. Error Analysis

Error analysis was developed in the 1960s to provide an alternative to CA in transfer research as the latter started to decline. Unlike CA which tries to predict learners’ difficulty in learning an additional language based on how it is different from the first language, EA investigates their errors after being committed and considers them not only as an important, but also as a necessary part of language learning. According to Khansir (2012), EA emerged “to reveal that learner errors were not only because of the learner’s native language but also they reflected some universal strategies” (p. 1027).

Contrastive analysis considers first language interference as the major cause of errors. Error analysis, on the other hand, identifies other complex factors affecting the learning process and leading to some kind of errors which are not due to negative transfer such as the target language itself, the communicative strategies used as well as the type and quality of instruction. Richards and Schmidt (2002) classify the errors encountered by second language learners into seven categories as follows:

1. *Overgeneralizations*: errors caused by extension of target language rules to inappropriate contexts.
2. *Simplifications*: errors resulting from learners producing simpler linguistic rules than those found in the target language.
3. *Developmental errors*: those reflecting natural stages of development.
4. *Communication-based errors*: errors resulting from strategies of communication.
5. *Induced errors*: those resulting from transfer of training.
6. *Errors of avoidance*: resulting from failure to use certain target language structures because they are thought to be too difficult.
7. *Errors of overproduction*: structures being used too frequently (Richards and Schmidt, 2002: 185).

1.5.1.3. Interlanguage Analysis

The term interlanguage was originally proposed by Selinker (1972), who defines it as “a separate linguistic system based on the observable output which results from a learner’s attempted production of a TL norm” (p. 214). Interlanguage analysis is based on the principle that during the process of learning a second or a foreign language, learners might develop a system for themselves which is to some extent different from their first and target languages but based on them at the same time.

In a related matter, Hakuta and Cancino (1977) maintain that “an interlanguage incorporates characteristics of both the native and the target language of the learner” (p. 297). This interlanguage, even if it takes place before the learner attains a good proficiency level in the target language, consists of a set of systematic rules that can be understood and described. Therefore, Interlanguage analysis implies a continuum analysis of language learners’ linguistic development with reference to L1 and L2 linguistic systems and the transitional competence of second language learners (Connor, 1996).

When examining the previous trends used in investigating the first language impact on learning another (CA, EA, interlanguage analysis), it seems that contrastive rhetoric comes at the end of the chain as represented in the following figure:

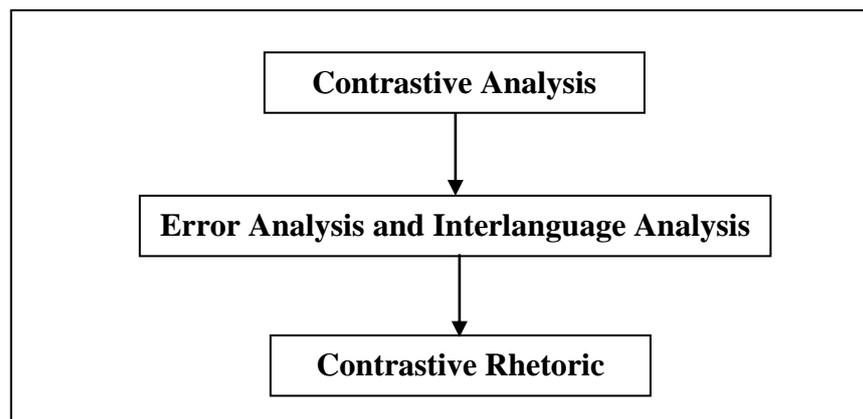


Figure 1.3. The Relationship among L1 Interference Studies (Bennui, 2008: 75)

Contrastive analysis, error analysis and interlanguage analysis rely in their inquiry on the structural approach of linguistic study. They operate through classifying utterances at their different linguistic levels regarding phonology, syntax, morphology and semantics to illustrate the negative influence and the errors caused by L1 during the process of learning an L2 (Bennui, 2008). Contrastive rhetoric, however, was not developed to examine constituent parts of the language separately; it rather “compare[s] discourse structures across cultures and genres” (*ibid.* 76) to improve research in second/foreign language writing and to promote students’ consciousness of the native culture/language and their effects on the target language composition.

1.5.2. Theory of Linguistic Relativity

Another theory that has a major influence on contrastive rhetoric is the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis. In discussing early contrastive rhetoric, Connor (1996) asserts that “the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of linguistic relativity is basic to

contrastive rhetoric because it suggests that different languages affect perception and thought in different ways” (p. 10).

Such a hypothesis puts forward that language is not only a means through which people communicate. Further than communication, every language provides its speakers with a unique vision of the world and a different way of analyzing experiences (Shaheen, 1991). Therefore, each cultural group has a distinct perception of the world, and each culture is unique in itself. The weak version of the hypothesis (i.e., thought and perception are influenced by language), versus the strong version (i.e., thought and perception are controlled by language), is obviously the inspiration of Kaplan’s original idea.

1.5.3. Theory of Rhetoric

The third theory influencing contrastive rhetoric which was Kaplan’s specialty as a doctoral student is rhetoric. Aristotle defines rhetoric as the ability to see what is possibly persuasive in every given case (Rapp, 2010). Other modern rhetoricians define it in an expanded manner. Kennedy (1998) and Sullivan and Porter (1997) for instance, approach rhetoric beyond its classical definition of style, argument and persuasion; they see it as an act of communication through utterances made for a purpose. Rhetoric is basically interested in evaluating the direct or indirect effects of communication on hearers or readers (Connor, 1966). Kaplan’s original model was based on Aristotelian rhetoric and logic. Aristotle’s rhetoric entails five elements: invention, memory, arrangement, style, and delivery; however, Kaplan focused only on the element of arrangement or organization (Connor, 2008).

1.5.4. Theory of Text Linguistics

With the foundation of text linguistics as a contemporary approach for analyzing written discourse in the 1970s, texts started to be considered as the appropriate unit for examination rather than the study of constituent elements of language separately. According to Shaheen (1991), “the preoccupation with morphemes, words, or isolated sentences as units for studying language has been abandoned and claims for an alternative above-the-sentence unit, ‘text’, as the proper unit of examination have been upheld” (p. 41). This new trend in linguistics regards the text as the convenient unit for analysis, studies the meaning in relation to the context and considers the reader as a producer rather than a consumer (*ibid.*)

The theory of text linguistics is fundamental to contrastive rhetoric as it offers a description for “textual cohesion, structures of texts, theme dynamics, and metatextual features” (Connor, 1996: 11). Text linguistics is used in this context to refer to all of text analysis, discourse analysis, and discourse linguistics of texts since they all entail an analysis of written passages beyond the sentence level where the communicative constraints of the context are taken into consideration (Van Dijk, 1985; in Connor, 1996).

1.5.5. Theory of Discourse Types and Genres

The theory and research methods of contrastive rhetoric can be applicable for different types of texts whether professional or academic. According to Connor (1996), texts are distinguished according to three definitions:

1. *Discourse type* i.e., the aim of the discourse (e.g. argumentative prose);

2. *Text type* i.e., the mode of discourse (e.g. narrative passage in an argumentative text); and
3. *Genre*, which refers to the cultural and traditional expectations involved in forming texts for specific purposes and tasks (e.g. research report in biology) (Connor, 1996: 11).

According to Swales (1990):

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

(Swales, 1990: 58)

With the expansion of EAP from the study of essay writing to include other genres in academic and professional contexts, genre analysis has reinforced with its methods the discourse analysis methods used in contrastive rhetoric research. In line with this, Connor (2004) sees that the development of genre analysis is valuable for contrastive rhetoric research as it forces “researchers to compare apples with apples. In addition, genre analysts’ focus on generic superstructures and rhetorical functional analysis of specific genres has advanced intercultural rhetoric to other academic and professional genres” (p. 297).

1.5.6. Theory of Literacy

Although literacy has always been associated for many people with two words, reading and writing, it deals with more complicated issues related to these two language skills like reader-writer relationship, the influence of cultural backgrounds on people's written products and the contribution of literacies to language learning. For Kern (2000), literacy "conveys a broader scope than the terms 'reading' and 'writing' and thus permits a more unified discussion of relationships between readers, writers, texts, culture, and language learning" (p. 2).

The study of culture influence in writing is particularly interesting within the heading of literacy studies. Interest in culture -both the reader's and the writer's- has expanded from the focus on the literacy work itself to a broader view that considers written works as privileged texts (Schwartz, 1989). A theory of literacy is relevant to contrastive rhetoric since the latter deals with the development of literacies including written products. It provides contrastive rhetoric with the understanding why certain writing styles are valued more than others in certain cultures and gives information about teaching/learning literacy cross cultures (Connor, 1996).

1.5.7. Theory of Translation

In most cases, translation is defined as "the process whereby a message expressed in a specific source language is linguistically transformed in order to be understood by readers of the target language" (Houbert, 1998, para. 1). According

to Shaheen (1991), the word ‘translation’ can refer to any of the following headings:

- 1- The process of decoding the source language text and encoding the target language text.
- 2- The end-product resulting from this process.
- 3- A useful technique of teaching a foreign language as referred to by ‘the Grammar Translation Approach’.
- 4- An academic field; an interdisciplinary area of study comes across many disciplines such as linguistics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, logic, etc. (Shaheen, 1991: 14).

Translation has a lot to offer contrastive rhetoric as the two fields have much in common. Translation studies and contrastive rhetoric have expanded their scopes in the past few years to include more subjects of discussion further than structural analysis and literal translation (Connor, 1996). The shared thing between the two approaches is the leverage of culture. Contrastive rhetoric deals with language and writing as cultural phenomena, and translators seek to translate cultures rather than languages since “the attitudes and values, the experience and tradition of people inevitably become involved in the freight of meaning carried by a language” (Casagrande, 1954; in Shaheen, 1991: 37). Accordingly, translation and foreign language writing are intercultural activities which create many problems for the writer/translator due to cultural differences between the speech communities of the two languages involved.

Eventually, there are many theories which have exerted a great influence on the emergence of the new contrastive rhetoric such as applied linguistics, linguistic relativity, rhetoric, text linguistics, discourse analysis, literacy and translation. Connor (1966) sums up the influence of these theories in the following table which has been later on adapted and explained by Eggington (2004):

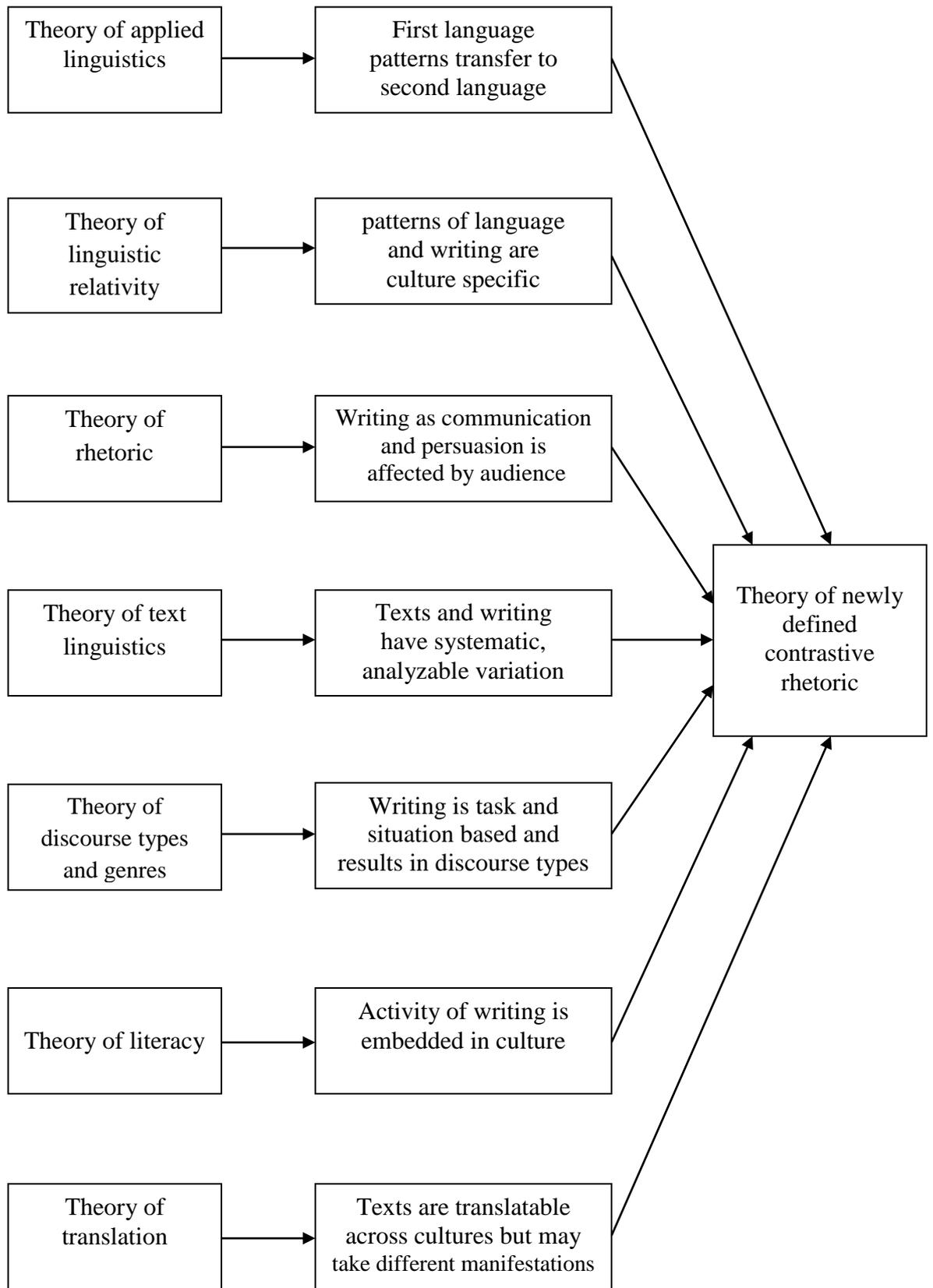


Figure 1.4. Influences on Newly Defined Contrastive Rhetoric (Connor, 1966: 9)

Theoretical foundation	L1 to L2 realization	English to LOTE realization	Implications for contrastive rhetoric studies
Theory of applied linguistics	First languages patterns transfer to second language	In certain genres, second language patterns (English) can transfer to first language	The rhetorical patterns of some languages in some genres are "drifting" toward English based on preferences. Researchers cannot simply assume that the LOTE texts they are studying have not already been influenced by English
Theory of linguistic relativity	Patterns of language and writing are culture specific	An invasive culture (Western/American) can alter patterns of language and writing	"Westernization, Englishization" is resulting in moving rhetorical preferences in many LOTE genres towards English preferences
Theory of rhetoric	Writing as communication and persuasion is affected by audience	With certain genres, the audience predominantly functions in international English	The pervasiveness of international genres is increasing, thus decreasing L1 genre domains
Theory of text linguistics	Texts and writing have systematic, analyzable variation	Variation can be explained by surface level modeling (frequent exposure to patterns results in adoption of those patterns)	More exposure to English-based rhetorical patterns will alter rhetorical preferences in many LOTES
Theory of discourse types and genres	Writing is task and situation based and results in discourse types	The strength of international discourse communities (Western/English based) influences discourse types in some LOTE genres	Conscious and subconscious pressures on many LOTE genres to move toward English based patterns
Theory of literacy	Activity of writing is embedded in culture	In many contexts, the only overt teaching of writing is modeled on Western/English pedagogies and patterns	English-based rhetorical patterns may be codified in many LOTES
Theory of translation	Texts are translatable across cultures but may take different manifestations	If sufficient texts from language A are translated in and read in language B, language A linguistic patterns will influence B patterns.	LOTE rhetorical patterns in genres experiencing a high frequency of English translated texts may drift toward English rhetorical preferences.

Table 1.2. An Adaptation of Connor's Influences on Contrastive Rhetoric Model (Eggington, 2004: 263)

Conclusion

Contrastive rhetoric was proposed in the first place in terms of pedagogy to solve second/foreign language learners' problems in writing. The principle of contrastive rhetoric is simple: language and writing are cultural phenomena; therefore, each language has its unique rhetorical conventions. As a consequence, when using the first language/culture writing knowledge to write in the target language, EFL students will come to deviate from the English patterns of organization and stylistic conventions.

Contrastive rhetoric, as the first serious attempt to explain second/foreign language writing, has witnessed many developments in terms of aim, field of study and research methods to become the intercultural discipline of today. At present, contrastive rhetoric's investigations analyze a variety of writing types and situations, and consider cultures and texts as dynamic entities. Research in the area continues to target mainly students' compositions in addition to other genres in EAP, ESP and EOP. The focus of contrastive rhetoric is always placed on the organizational norms and rhetorical patterns of texts without denying writers' personalities, experiences and cultural backgrounds. The next chapter discusses the most common conventional, stylistic, rhetorical and cultural differences between writing in Arabic and English and makes an account of a number of the most recent Arabic-English contrastive rhetoric studies.

CHAPTER TWO**CROSS-CULTURE RHETORICAL SURVEYS**

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CHAPTER TWO

CROSS-CULTURE RHETORICAL SURVEYS

Introduction

Research within foreign language writing has explicitly revealed that when writing in the target language, foreign language learners tend to rely on their L1 rhetorical features to make up for their linguistic and sociolinguistic handicap. Arabic-speaking students as ESL or EFL learners make no exception. Their writing often demonstrates odd organizational patterns and writing styles compared to those used by native-English speakers (cf. Kaplan, 1966; Koch, 1983; Smith, 2005; Al-Qahtani, 2006; Stapa & Irtaimah, 2012). The source of this oddness is not TL related deficiency, but rather L1 interference. This chapter highlights the issue of rhetorics and writing. It provides an account of a number of previous contrastive rhetoric studies carried out on Arabic and English since its emergence as a field of study with a special focus on the most recent ones. It also attempts to inspect some typical rhetorical features of Arabic and compare them to those of English trying to identify the potential areas where negative transfer could take place.

2.1. Arabic-English Contrastive Rhetoric Studies

Arabic-English contrastive studies could be traced to the late 1950s with the evolution of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis¹. At that time, the fundamental

¹ The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis is based on the assumption that second/foreign language learners will tend to transfer formal features of their L1 to their target language utterances (Yang, 1992). In its strong version, emphasizes Wardhaugh (1970; in Yang, 1992),

aim was to anticipate learning difficulties through contrasting languages at different levels: phonetic, phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical through the decontextualized study of linguistic data (phones, words, sentences) (Mukattash, 2001). In other words, the language teaching/learning problems then were approached scientifically relying on structural linguistics which only could “...characterize the syntactic structure of sentences in terms of their grammatical categories and surface arrangements” (Hakuta & Cancino, 1977: 295) with little or no reference at all to discourse beyond the sentence level. With the shift of contrastive studies from linguistic competence to communicative competence, and from the study of sentences to the study of discourse by the end of the 1980s, disciplines such as contrastive discourse analysis and pragmatics have emerged. The emergence of such disciplines was very beneficial to contrastive rhetoric and reinforced its theories and research methods.

Since the foundation of contrastive rhetoric, and even few years before, many studies were carried out contrasting Arabic and English for different purposes, examining several rhetorical features and involving a variety of writing genres. Kaplan’s (1966) original work on contrastive rhetoric in which he dealt with the paragraph organization of five languages, including Arabic, was followed by many studies in the same direction having one thing in common: the analysis of bigger units than the sentence, mainly, the paragraph and the essay. More recently, with the growth of the field and the development of its research methods, Arabic-English contrastive rhetoric studies, whether those by American linguists or Arab linguists, started to examine other types of texts rather than students’

it offers the “ability to predict difficulty” (p. 136) through the four procedures of operation: description, selection, contrast and prediction.

essays like newspapers articles, research articles, literary texts, letters, political speeches, etc. (cf. Koch, 1983; Mohamed & Omer, 2000; Smith, 2005, Al-Qahtani, 2006).

In a recent study, Ismail (2010) made a review of a number of the previous English-Arabic contrastive rhetoric studies with a special focus on those investigating argumentative writing. The aim of his research was to inspect how Arab writers build argumentation as compared to native speakers of English. Ismail cited twelve (12) studies that could be summed up as follows:

Study	Type of Writing	Major Findings
Shouby (1951)	Classical Arabic prose	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Arabic writers pay great attention to the grammatical and idiomatic aspects of writing on the cost of meaning. - Arabs use numerous grammatical, stylistic and rhetorical devices to achieve overassertion and exaggeration in addition to their repetitive overattention to minute details.
Koch (1981)	Argumentative political speech/ Literary writing	- Repetition, paraphrasing, parallelism, and lack of logical proof are the main characteristics of Arabic argumentation.
Doushaq (1986)	Expository writing: Arabic L1 students essays compared to their English L2 essays	- Weakness in foreign language writing is due to some extent to the weakness in the mastery of Arabic writing skills.
Ouaouicha (1986)	Argumentative writing of Moroccan and American students	- Ouaouicha rejected Kaplan's model at least as regards to argumentative writing concluding that there is no significant difference in the structure of argument between English argumentative texts written by American and Moroccan students raised in their respective

		countries.
Ostler (1987a)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Arab Students' Expository Writing - Excerpts from published books by Anglo-American professional authors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Arabic texts overuse coordination and subdivision and focus on the language of the text rather than its propositional content.
Ostler (1987b)	Expository writing of English, Spanish, Arab and Japanese freshman students	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Each group of students used unique stylistic and rhetorical patterns. - Arabs used more parallel structures and relative clauses than NESs. - While NESs wrote "highly-developed" summarizing conclusions, Arab wrote less consistent ones and featured proverbial sayings.
Reid (1988, 1992)	Expository essays of Arabic, Chinese, Spanish, and English native speakers	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Arab writers used more personal pronouns, coordinate conjunctions, but less subordinate conjunction opener and prepositions than NESs.
Kamel (1989)	Arab Students' Argumentative essays	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sophisticated Arab writers do not seem to transfer their sophistication to their English writing.
Sa'adeddin (1989)	Translation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Arabs prefer the aural mode of text development to the visual one.
Liebman (1992)	Japanese and Arab students' Questionnaires	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Both groups reported heavy emphasis on grammar. - Both groups claimed that prewriting activities were rarely a part of the writing class. - Teachers' help was limited during the writing process. - The writing tasks that Arabs had to fulfill emphasized writing for transactional purposes

		and they weren't required to write much on persuasive topics.
Williams (1994)	Translation/ Expository	- Cohesive features in written Arabic are similar to those features common in oral culture.
Mohamed and Omer (1999)	Narrative/ Expository/ Professional Translation	- Arabic narrative writing contained more coordination while the English translation contained more subordination.

Table 2.1. Contrastive Studies on Arabic (*adapted from Ismail, 2010: 80-127*)

As shown in Table (2.1), most of the previous Arabic-English contrastive rhetoric studies conducted between 1951 and 1999 focused on students' essays with different types of development (expository, narrative, argumentative, etc.). To a lesser extent, come students' translations followed by few studies on literary and professional writing. What comes next is an examination of some of the most recent Arabic-English contrastive rhetoric studies.

2.1.1. Smith (2005)

Smith (2005) compared the L1 and L2 writing of four non-native English speakers "in order to explore the effects of language medium and audience awareness on student writing" and to determine whether their L1 influences their English writing in terms of "organizational patterns and lexical choices, as well as levels of directness and politeness" (p. 79). Smith's (2005) study entailed the analysis of letters written by two Chinese speakers and two Arabic speakers where each student wrote three letters: two for a home country professor (one in English, the other in students' L1) and the third for an American professor written in

English. The rationale behind this was to examine the rhetorical variation in students' writing with reference to the social, cultural and political elements involved in the context of writing and to answer the following question: "to what level are students influenced by audience (and the cultural expectations of that audience), and to what level does the language in which they are writing influence their choices?" (*ibid.* 83).

Although her sample was limited² and therefore cannot be generalized, Smith's (2005) findings provided empirical evidence on the uniqueness of some rhetorical features to the Arabic language and emphasized the role awareness plays in L2 composition. The first unique feature is that Arab students' writing demonstrates 'solidarity' using expressions such "we" and "their" to show their group orientation and unity with their classmates. Second, there was evidence of religious influence in terms of constant reference to God. In fact, one of the study participants commented: "[i]n Arabic, you can relate everything back to God—In English you shouldn't do that, but in Arabic, you can do anything" (*ibid.* 90). Furthermore, the study revealed that students' awareness of rhetorical differences as well as context and audience's expectations helps them to achieve effective communication by adjusting their rhetorical strategies according to these variables (*ibid.*).

² As acknowledged by Smith (2005), her investigation "is proposed as a **pilot study** to explore issues in students' perspectives on writing to different audiences in different languages" (p. 84; our emphasis).

2.1.2. Al-Qahtani (2006)

Al-Qahtani's (2006) study targeted a specific writing genre which is research article (RA) introductions. The aim behind this study was to inspect the rhetorical structures specific to RA introductions written in Arabic and to explore whether different educational backgrounds affect the way scholars write their introductions. Moreover, Al-Qahtani (2006) proposed an inquiry of similarities and differences between RA introductions written in English by American NESs and those written in Arabic by NASs.

To examine the identified issues, a total of fifteen (15) RA introductions divided into three groups on the bases of language and educational background were opted for. The first group consisted of RA introductions written by Arab authors who had earned their graduate degrees in the Arab world (Arab-world-educated Arabs), the second group included RA introductions written by Arab authors who had earned their graduate degrees in the USA (US-educated Arabs), and the third group comprised RA introductions written by American authors as native-English speakers (US-NESs). The study entailed a three-way comparison:

1. The first comparison was made between the two Arab groups; i.e., Arab-world-educated Arabs and US-educated Arabs.
2. The second comparison was made between the US-NESs group and the US-educated Arabs group.
3. The third comparison was made between the US-NESs group and the Arab-world-educated Arabs group.

The three RA introductions groups were analyzed through the CARS model (Create A Research Space) first established by John M. Swales in 1981. The CARS model consists of three main sections or moves that start with

establishing a territory within the target field of research. This territory is essential in order for the researcher to attract the targeted research community....Move 2, establishing a niche, provides the reason(s)/rationale for the study. Typically, at least in the US, this move is realized by indicating a gap...or showing some needs that were not addressed....Move 3, occupying the niche, presents the reader with the study that would fit in the empty space identified in Move-2.

(Al-Qahtani, 2006: 71-2)

Al-Qahtani (2006) reported that there were a number of problematic sentences that could not be attributed to any of the CARS model moves mainly in the introductions of Arab-world-educated Arabs. These sentences were of a specific-cultural-religious nature bound with Arabs' background and totally irrelevant from a Western point of view to be classified into three categories:

- I. The first is the Islamic opening statements that are required in many contexts particularly formal speeches, letters, acknowledgements, etc.
- II. The second is the use of the Holy Qur'an and the prophet (peace be upon him) sayings within the text.
- III. The third is the inclusion of acknowledgements and prayers for the helpers at the end of the introduction (Al-Qahtani, 2006: 78-9).

Furthermore, it was found that both Arab groups were relatively not committed to the CARS model moves as they totally skipped some moves and focused most of their sentences to others. Yet, the introductions written by US-educated Arabs were less different than those written by Arab-world-educated Arabs in comparison to the US-NESs introductions. This performance of Arab scholars educated in the US taking an intermediate position between that of those educated in the Arab world and native-English speakers is the result of their Arabic backgrounds and their education in an English-speaking country.

To sum up, comparisons revealed that there were some differences between Arab scholars as regards the CARS model moves with the difference of their educational backgrounds. Moreover, both Arab groups were different from the US group; however, “the A-Ed-A group exhibited more differences than the US-Ed-A group when compared to the US-N group” (Al-Qahtani, 2006: 181). This implies that the rhetorical style of Arabs educated in the US is going through a transitional stage towards the English language rhetorical style because they are living in a native social context as opposed to Arabs leaving in an Arabic-speaking country where English is only learned as a second or foreign language.

2.1.3. Ismail (2010)

Based on the assumed lack of valid, reliable quantitative studies contrasting persuasive writing in English and Arabic, and to shed some light on the previous research design flaws, Ismail (2010) treated “Arabic and English persuasive writing of Arabs from a contrastive rhetoric perspective.” Ismail’s (2010) aim was to examine the validity the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis and to measure to what extent Kaplan’s (1966) assumptions are relevant to the persuasive writing of Arab

advanced ESL learners. In other words, Ismail (2010) compared the rhetorical strategies used by Arab learners to those used by native-English speakers and investigated the impact of differences between them on Arab learners' target language writing. To do so, he analyzed three sets of persuasive texts by sixty (60) doctoral students enrolled in an English studies program: thirty (30) Arab native speakers of Arabic³ and thirty (30) US native speakers of English. Participants' performance was compared analytically at four levels: "argument superstructure, informal reasoning, persuasive appeals, and persuasive adaptiveness" as well as holistically where "participants' essays were...rated as a gauge of overall writing performance..." (Ismail, 2010: 149-150).

Results of the study revealed a serious skepticism concerning the validity of the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis and suggested that there are other individual, contextual, and/or situational variables which play a more significant role in non-native writers' rhetorical performance than the native language background does. Furthermore, Ismail (2010) concludes that:

(a) some rhetorical dimensions of persuasive writing are problematic for Arab advanced ESL writers, and (b) these problematic areas of persuasive writing are not unique to Arab advanced ESL students. Rather, (c) the same rhetorical dimensions of persuasive writing were equally challenging for advanced NESs.

(Ismail, 2010: 240)

³ Arab students took two written assignments; one in Arabic, the other in English resulting in ninety (90) compositions for comparison. Thirty (30) of them were written in Arabic by Arab learners, thirty (30) in English by the same learners and another thirty (30) in English by native-English speakers.

As opposed to the general trend of the majority of Arabic-English contrastive rhetoric studies, Ismail's finding revealed that the persuasive writing of Arab ESL students was not of significantly less quality than that of NESs when judged by standard English rhetoric criteria. Therefore, Ismail (2010) rejected "the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis that Arab advanced ESL students' rhetorical problems with persuasive writing are due to first language transfer" (p. 241).

2.1.4. Stapa and Irtaimah (2012)

Stapa and Irtaimah (2012) investigated Jordanian secondary school students' transfer of Arabic rhetorical features into English. Their study entailed the examination of rhetorical transfer and its relation to gender as well as the effectiveness of awareness-raising in enhancing students' writing performance. Stapa and Irtaimah's (2012) research analyzed compositions written in Arabic and English by twenty-five (25) female and twenty-five (25) male students enrolling in two different schools separately; one for girls, the other for boys. The features under investigation in the study comprised two forms of repetition: pattern repetition and root repetition which "are not exclusive to Arabic....but they are favored in Arabic and characterize the rhetoric of Arabic" (*ibid.* 266).

Their findings confirmed that the examined aspects were transferred from Arabic to English. Furthermore, the results showed a significant difference in the use of rhetorical features in relation to gender. Finally, it was also demonstrated that students' flaws in writing "can be reduced or eradicated as a result of increasing the EFL students' awareness of the importance of rhetoric in writing in FL and of the cultural, rhetorical, and linguistic differences between L1 and FL" (*ibid.* 271).

2.1.5. Abu Radwan (2012)

In his recent study, Abu Radwan (2012) explored not only the role of L1 transfer in L2 writing but also the relationship between L2 proficiency and the frequency of transfer in learners' L2 compositions. Abu Radwan (2012) investigated rhetorical transfer in the English writing of Arabic-speaking learners and tried to find out whether the rate of occurrence of L1 rhetorical patterns in L2 writing decreases when the target language proficiency develops.

Participants of the study included sixteen (16) graduate students enrolled in three universities in the Washington DC metropolitan area divided into three groups: six (6) native-English speakers, five (5) native-Arabic speakers advanced ESL learners and another five (5) native-Arabic speakers intermediate ESL learners. The investigation of this study focused on four main rhetorical features which are believed to be typical characteristics of the Arabic writing system:

- 1) Loose packaging of information reflected in the frequent use of coordination and lack of subordination;
- 2) Overuse of the definite article "the";
- 3) Circularity of organization reflected in repetition of the same ideas and frequency of paraphrasing;
- 4) High frequency of personal-involvement pronouns and statements (Abu Radwan, 2012: 374).

Analysis of students' writing showed that native-Arabic speakers with intermediate English proficiency switched more often to their L1 rhetorical patterns than those with advanced English proficiency. The latter, on the other hand,

showed similar frequencies of almost all features as compared to native-English speakers. These results suggest that “transfer from the native language into the target language during the writing process decreases as the writers’ L2 proficiency develops” (Abu Radwan, 2012: 390).

2.2. Rhetorical Differences

A good deal of contrastive rhetoric studies on Arabic and English disclosed that despite Arab ESL/EFL learners’ ability to achieve a good mastery level of English grammatical forms and vocabulary usages, their writing frequently demonstrates evidence of unfamiliar rhetorical patterns. Many researchers argue that this oddness in students’ target language writing is due to the first language influence as the two languages (Arabic and English) writing systems differ conventionally, stylistically and culturally (Koch, 1983; Shaheen, 1991; Ghazala, 2004; Abu Rass, 2011; Abu Radwan, 2012; Awad, 2012). The next pages comprise an explanation of the most theoretically and empirically discussed differences between the two languages at different levels.

2.2.1. Connectivity

One area of difference between Arabic and English that results in many discrepancies in Arab students’ written English is connectivity. Despite the significant role they play in writing, connectors are not sufficiently covered in the teaching of foreign language composition, and no reference is made to the conventional differences of use between languages. According to Shaheen (1991), connectors are crucial in combining semantic units and sentences as they “externalise basic logical relations: cause, result, and time, thus taking on a

variety of functions such as tracing the development of an argument, relating a sequence of events, marking an opposition, and signalling a conclusion” (pp. 86-7).

Connectivity in Arabic is remarkably characterized with the frequent use of ‘*wa*’ i.e., ‘*and*’ at the expense of other joining patterns (Kaplan, 1966). English, on the other hand, relies on a variety of markers to link the different parts of speech and to make the transition between ideas. Qaddumi (1995) maintains that “the *wa* is the most common particle used to join words, phrases, sentences and even paragraphs without altering the meaning or the beauty of the Arabic text” (p. 186). ‘*Wa*’ has the key role of joining sentences of equal weight and function and, in most contexts, it is well-matched with the English connector ‘*and*’. It is also used to mark the beginning of almost every Arabic sentence or paragraph. Yet, when rendering the initial ‘*wa*’ literally into ‘*and*’ -something constantly done by Arab students in their English writing-, it results in an awkward piece of writing that lacks cohesion and coherence (Shaheen, 1991). To illustrate more this issue, Abu Radwan (2012) presents a literal translation of an excerpt from a political article in *Asharq-Al-Awsat* newspaper number issued on November 25th, 1994 as follows:

And the Yemeni minister confirmed that the government will not run any hotels or industrial institutions, and the economy will follow open market strategies. And he confirmed that the government declared yesterday the formation of two committees, and they will carry out the transformation.

(Abu Radwan, 2012: 374; original emphasis)

Fareh (1998) tried to indicate the functions of *'and'* and *'wa'* in English and Arabic discourse. He concluded that *'wa'* could be replaced by more than one English connector and that it must be ignored sometimes while translating from Arabic to English; otherwise, the English translation would sound awkward. Furthermore, Fareh (1998) found out that the frequent use of *'wa'* is a stylistic feature of Arabic and that it carries more functions than *'and'* in English as it is demonstrated in the following table:

Function	AND	WA
1. Consequence	+	-
2. Sequence	+	+
3. Contrast	+	+
4. Simultaneity	+	+
5. Concession	+	+
6. Condition	+	+
7. Addition	+	+
8. Explanation	+	-
9. Comment	+	+
10. Resumption	+	+
11. Manner	-	+
12. Oath	-	+
13. Adverbial (by, along)	-	+
14. Option	-	+
15. Redundance	-	+
16. Praise/admiration	-	+
17. Threat/underestimation	-	+

Table 2.2. Functions of *'and'* and *'wa'* (Fareh, 1998: 311)

As shown in Table (2.2), *'wa'* can express manner, oath, praise/admiration, threat/underestimation, option, redundance and can be adverbial, while *'and'* cannot. Among these functions, redundance, as referred to by Fareh (1998), is the most common use of *'wa'* in Arabic texts. Fareh (1998) holds, supporting Shaheen's (1991) and Abu Radwan's (2012) assertion, that *'wa'* is often unnecessarily placed at the beginning of paragraphs or sentences without adding

anything to the meaning. Furthermore, it is also frequently used to precede other Arabic connectors without changing their function. His kind of usage, however, doesn't affect the meaning or the beauty of Arabic texts; it is rather a typical rhetorical characteristic of the Arabic language.

Another difference between Arabic and English in terms of connectivity is that the former relies heavily on explicit connectors while the latter favours implicit logical relations. Sometimes no connector is required in English writing; nevertheless, sentences or paragraphs may well be linked if the conjunction is assumed. This is not always the case for Arabic writing. Williams (1989) argues that "Arabic uses more multifunctional connectors than English" (p. ii). Shaheen (1991) on his part sees that coherence in English is "maintained by means of the logical relations which bind sentences [together]" (p. 88) whereas in Arabic, each sentence has to be linked to the following and the preceding one by means of explicit markers.

Tendencies in the use of implicit and explicit connections may lead to the assumption that English writing focuses on ideas or content while Arabic writing stresses the language of the text. Sa'adeddin (1987; in Shaheen, 1991) relates this phenomenon to the linguistic personality of the Arab community claiming that "the Arabic linkage system symbolizes junction by means of lexical items which explicitly transmit the coherence of the text to native Arabic speakers, who perceive the import of the items so intuitively that they seldom think of them" (p. 89). On the other hand, the preference of implicit connections does not implicate by no means that English writing makes no use of explicit discourse markers; on the contrary, "English essays use [them] to signal relations between sentences and

parts of texts” (Xing *et al.* 2008: 73). However, when the connection is lucid between parts of discourse, advanced writers of English prefer the zero connector and hence conciseness.

In addition the use of ‘*and*’ and the overall use of connectors, Arabic and English also differ in the use of coordination and subordination. Arabic writers have a preference for coordination over subordination which is quite the opposite for native-English writers. In his original work on contrastive rhetoric, Kaplan (1966) notes that almost all ideas in Arab students’ essays were coordinately linked and that there was very little subordination. Abu Radwan (2012) stresses that “while Arabic is predominantly additive, English is basically a subordinative language” (p. 374). Consequently, the English style is judged to be mature by the degree of subordination rather than coordination. In line with this, Koch (1987) holds that “Arabic authors use a great deal of coordination, and very little of the subordination which is so highly valued in English...writing” (p. 85).

In conclusion, connectivity in Arabic and English differs at three levels: the use of ‘*and*’, the overall use of connectors as well as the preference between coordination and subordination. Students’ unawareness of these differences is one of the deficiencies that obstruct them from achieving effective writing. For that reason, Shaheen (1991) urges teachers to draw students’ attention to those differences and how connectors function in both languages so they can overcome the first language interference and make the transition to the target language conventions of use.

2.2.2. Punctuation

Punctuation is another area of difference between Arabic and English. As the former does not give much attention to punctuation, the latter adopts a strict punctuation system. Alqinai (2008) sees that although the two languages have many punctuation marks in common like the period and the comma, the rules governing punctuation in Arabic are not as strict as those of English. The same argument is made by Koch (1983) reporting that Arab writers tend “to use punctuation according to very flexible rules....” (p. 52). Ghazala (2004) notices that punctuation in English is systematic and utilized to accomplish certain stylistic, semantic and grammatical functions. In Arabic, on the other hand, punctuation marks are disregarded, misused and sometimes used simply as decoration to the text.

Obeidat (1998), on his part, holds that Arabic texts rely heavily on coordination and describes its punctuation as a ‘non-functional system’. In line with Obeidat’s (1998) point of view, El-Farahaty (2008) argues that Arabic uses only some punctuation marks mainly the comma and the period to indicate the end of a very long sentence and that “Arab text makers generally do not follow a well-defined system that employs punctuation marks with the same efficacy and precision as in English” (p. 21). Hatim (1997) notes that the function of punctuation marks is achieved through verbalization in Arabic saying that:

[Punctuation] devices, though outside the language system proper in most other languages, help a great deal in shifting the burden of marking the various 'tones' (e.g. detachment v. involvement) away from the 'textural' to the 'visual' level in texts. In Arabic, such marking continues to be primarily a

matter of wording or texture manipulation. For example, the meanings normally relayed by quotation marks, say, in English have to be made more explicit through verbalization in the Arabic text.

(Hatim, 1997: 125)

One reason that the Arabic language does not rely much on punctuation is its dependence on lexical connections. Arab writers can make very long sentences with few punctuation marks. Conversely, English prefers simple, relatively short and well-punctuated sentences. When Arab students' flexibility in the use of punctuation marks is transferred to their English writing where those marks are indispensable and used for very good reasons, both the structure and the meaning of their writing would be affected.

In an empirical attempt to inspect the most common punctuation mistakes made by Arab students in their English writing, Awad (2012) carried a descriptive study "using a comprehension passage without punctuation marks and asking the students to insert the correct punctuation marks [as a] tool used to collect the necessary data" (p. 222). The comprehension passage adapted by the researcher required participants to use almost all punctuation marks and was administered to a hundred (100) students majoring in English and TEFL at An-Najah National University. After calculating the frequency and percentages of punctuation errors, Awad (2012) summed up his findings in the following table:

Punctuation Mark	Frequencies	Percentage %
Comma	232	45%
Semicolon	25	4.8%
Period	83	16.26%
Quotation	65	12.64%
Capital Letters	109	21.20%
Total	514	100%

Table 2.3. Results of Awad's Study (Awad, 2012: 224)

Table (2.2) shows the most common punctuation mistakes made by the test's participants. The comma comes first with 45%, followed by the capital letters (21.20%), the period (16.26%), the quotation marks (12.64%) and the semicolon (4.8%) respectively.

Awad's (2012) study was purely an investigation of the most common punctuation errors made by Arab students in their English writing without any reference to the influence of Arabic and without positioning his research endeavours under the auspices of contrastive rhetoric. However, the findings forced him to attribute students' mistakes to the differences between Arabic and English in the use of punctuation marks especially the comma and the capital letter. Awad (2012) describes his findings saying: "[t]he researcher believes that the Arab learners of English over differentiate the use of the comma due to the vast differences between the two language systems –Arabic and English– regarding the use of the comma" (p. 224). He adds:

Regarding the capital letter which comes second in the findings of the present study is in harmony with Sofer and Raimes (2002)⁴ who stated that the lack of capitalization in the Arabic alphabet could be the basic reason behind the Arab learners' misuse of the English capital letter. In this respect, the Arab learners of English under differentiate the use of the English capital letters.

(Awad, 2012: 224)

Moreover, Awad's (2012) findings also support Alqinai's (2008) point of view that a number of punctuation marks are rarely used in Arabic that is why they are absent in learners' English writing. Awad (2012) maintains that "markers such as question mark, exclamation, ellipses, dash, parenthesis, and brackets, apostrophe, possessives and hyphen are not used in the passage too often, but they are of great importance and they are worth studying" (p. 225).

2.2.3. Repetition

Unlike English which is characterized by an economy of expression; Arabic is "characterized by repetition on all levels" (Koch, 1983: 52), mainly, on the levels of words and ideas. While repetition can be used to emphasize meaning in English, it is a part of the Arabic language structure and a stylistic feature that echoes the eloquence of the writer. Repetition can be defined as "multiple instances of an idea or word, and the greater the number of repetition the more we notice it" (Reynolds 1995; in Lahlali, 2012: 1). Therefore, Arabic-English

⁴ Sofer & Raimes (2002; in Awad, 2012) argue that Arab learners' misuse the English capital letter mainly because it does not exist in the Arabic alphabet.

differences concerning repetition are going to be treated in terms of two levels: words level and ideas level.

In relation to word repetition, lexical repetition or reiteration as referred to by Halliday and Hassan (1976), it is considered as one of two major ways to achieve lexical cohesion, the other one is collocation. Reiteration entails four types: *repetition*, *synonym* or *near synonym*, *superordinate* and *general word*. In describing reiteration and its types, Halliday and Hassan (1976) hold that:

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item, at one end of the scale; the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale; and a number of things in between – the use of a synonym, near-synonym, or superordinate.

(Halliday & Hassan, 1976: 278)

The following are examples of each type provided by Nunan (1993)⁵:

- **Repetition (same-word-repetition)**

What we lack in a newspaper is what we should get. In a word, a 'popular' newspaper may be the winning ticket.

- **Synonym**

You could try reversing the car up the slope. The incline isn't all that steep.

⁵ In all examples, the second underlined word or phrase refers to the previously mentioned entity.

- **Superordinate**

Pneumonia has arrived with the cold and wet conditions. The illness is striking everyone from infants to the elderly.

- **General Word**

A: Did you try the steamed buns?

B: Yes, I didn't like the things much (Nunan, 1993: 29; original emphasis and italics).

Even though it is considered as a cohesive device in both languages, repetition is more frequently used in Arabic than English. El-Farahaty (2008) observes that “English for instance reduces the amount of repetitious words, as long as the meaning can be retrieved and there will be no ambiguity” (p. 19). Moreover, there are some other kinds of repetition that do exist in Arabic but not in English, namely *root repetition*, *lexical-pattern repetition*, *suffix repetition* and *phrase repetition*.

- ❖ **Root Repetition**

- Using words of the same form-family: “[it] involves repetition of the same morphological root in close proximity within a text...” (Dickins, Hervey & Higgins, 2002: 103).

- كتب كتابا -

- kataba kitaAbā

- He wrote a book

- يختلف اختلافا كبيرا -
- yaxtalifu Ax.tilafaAã kabiyaAã
- It differs a big difference
- درسنا هذا الدرس -
- daras.naA haðaA Aldar.s.
- We studied this lesson

Even though English has similar forms of root repetition (for example, *he drank a drink*), they are not often used. English generally avoids this kind of repetition as there are usually more common alternatives (*he had a drink*) (*ibid.* 103).

❖ Lexical-Pattern Repetition

- Repetition of the same pattern:

- كان يحسُّ من أمه رَحمة ورأفة -
- kaAna yuHis~u min. Âum~ihi raH.mahã wa raÂ.fahã
- He experienced much tenderness and consideration from his mother
- الظواهر و الحوادث -
- AlDawaAhir. wa AlHawaAdiØ.
- Phenomena and events

➤ Combination of synonyms and antonyms:

- البضائع المستوردة أو المصدرة أو المرسلة
- AlbaDaAÿiç, Almustaw.radah aw. AlmuSad~arah aw. Almur.salah
- Goods being imported and exported or in transit
- جنت للتكلم و التحدث معكم
- jiÿ.tu liltakal~umi wa AltaHad~uØi maçakum.
- I came to speak and converse with you

❖ Suffix Repetition

➤ Repetition of the plural suffix:

- الموجبات و المعاملات الجمركية
- AlmuwjabaAt. wa AlmuçaAmaAlat. Aljum.rukiy~aħ.
- Customs regulations and formalities
- التطورات و التقلبات
- AltaTaw~uraAt. wa Altaqal~ubaAt.
- Developments and changes

➤ Pronominalization:

- المدرسة و موظفيها و ممتلكاتها و موجوداتها و أموالها
- Almad.rasaħu wa muwaĎ~afiyhaA wa mum.talakaAtihaA wa maw.juwdaAtihaA wa Âam.waAlihaA
- The school, its staff, funds, properties, and assets

❖ **Phrase Repetition**

- It is like the one-word repetition; however, it includes the repetition of a phrase or even a clause:

في مالطا قتل فتحي الشفاقي قائد ثاني أكبر حركة أصولية، فلسطينية، معارضة، بعد "حماس" برصاص الموساد... و بعد أيام قتل إسحق رابين رئيس وزراء إسرائيل بثلاث رصاصات أطلقها متطرف يهودي... و بعد أيام انفجرت شحنة ناسفة لا تقل عن 100 كيلوجرام في مقر الحرس السعودي... و بعد أيام اغتيل في جنيف الملحق التجاري المصري في سويسرا... و بعد أيام فجرت منظمة الجهاد مبنى السفارة المصرية في إسلام آباد عاصمة باكستان في عملية انتحارية.

Roz Al-Youcef magazine (no. 3521, 4 December 1995)

fiy maAlTa qutila fatHiy AlšaqAqiy qaAÿid. ŒaAniy Âak.bar. Harakah ÂuSuwliy~ah, filas.Tiyniy~ah, muçaAriDah, baçda "HamaAs." biraSaASi AlmuwsaAd. ...wa baç.da Âay~aAm. qutila Äis.Haq. raAbiyn. raÿiys. wuzaraA'. Äis.raAÿiyI. biŒalaAŒ. raSaASaAt. ÂaTlaqahaA mutaTar~if. yahuwdiy...wa baç.da Âay~aAm. Ain.fajarat. šuHnaħ naAsifah laA taqil~u çan. 100 kiyluwj.raAm. fi maqar~i AlHarasi Alsuçuwdiy... wa baç.da Âay~aAm. Auÿ.tiyla fi jiniyf. AlmulHaq. AltijaAri AlmaS.riy fi swiys.raA... wa baç.da Âay~aAm. faj~arat. munaD~amaħu AljihaAd. mab.naÿ AlsafaArah AlmaS.riy~ah fiy Äis.laAm. ÂabaAd. çasSimah baAkis.taAn. fiy çamaliy~ah Äin.tiHaAriy~ah.

Fathi al-Shaqqi, the leader of the second largest Palestinian fundamentalist organization after Hamas, was killed in Malta by Mossad bullets. A couple of days later, the Israeli Prime Minister Yitzhak Rabin was killed by three bullets fired by a Jewish extremist.... More days after this, a charge of dynamite of at least 100 kilograms exploded in the Saudi National Guard barracks in Riyadh....Days later, the Egyptian trade attaché to

Switzerland was assassinated in Geneva, and this was followed by a suicide bomb planted by the Jihad organization in the Egyptian embassy building in the Pakistani capital, Islamabad.

Translated by Hetherington (1996; in Dickins *et al.* 2002:

111-12)

Concerning the repetition of ideas, Lahlali (2012) sees that it is an ideological tool to reinforce one's thoughts and a strategy that can have a persuasive and emotional impact on the audience. Furthermore, according to Hatim (1997), Arabic writers are "confused, coming to the same point two or three times from different angles" (p. 161). Koch (1983) maintains that argumentation in Arabic for instance is made mainly by repeating ideas and paraphrasing them or what she calls *presentation*⁶. Describing this phenomenon which is evident in Arabs' writing and speaking, Koch (1983) says:

I recently received a call from someone who had heard about my work on Arabic persuasive language and wanted to know more about it. My caller introduced himself with an Arab name, and although his English was fluent I could detect a slight Arabic accent. He began the conversation by mentioning who had referred him to me and describing his research in an area related to mine. Anticipating that he would want offprints and references but being unprepared for the call, I began slowly to phrase my response: his work sounded interesting, I was glad he had called, and I would be glad to But before I was able to continue, my caller began again. Once again he told me who had given him my name, and once again he told me how similar his work was to mine. Before the conversation ended with my giving him the references and agreeing to send him the things

⁶ Koch (1983): "the strategy of persuading by repeating, rephrasing...I will call this rhetorical strategy presentation" (p. 48; original emphasis).

he wanted, he had rephrased his story several more times, and I was only with difficulty keeping myself from laughing — laughing not at him, but because of the wonderfully ironic nature of the whole interaction. His request for information about how Arabs convince people was a perfect example of how Arabs convince people: namely, by repeating. Metalinguistic remarks like “listen, you’re doing it yourself” have a way of bringing conversations to an abrupt end in embarrassed self-consciousness, so I said nothing about my observations. But if I had thought of it at the time, I would have liked to remind my caller of an Arabic proverb one of my informants told me. The proverb goes *Kithratu al-takrar bi-ta?lim al-himar*, and what it means is *Enough repetition will convince even a donkey*.

(Koch, 1983: 47-8; italics in the original)

2.2.4. Linearity vs. Circularity

Arabic writers generally tend to write indirectly and repeatedly to catch the readers’ attention and let them understand the main point at the end. English writers, by contrast, tend to make their readers understand the key point immediately in the first paragraph or the first sentences. While the deductive pattern is more common in English, Arabic prefers the inductive style where background material is presented first to lead the reader gradually to the main point.

Kaplan (1966) stresses that Arabic texts are circular (non-linear) and based on “a complex series of parallel construction” (p. 6). On the other hand, English rhetoric highlights Abu Radwan (2012), “is linear and deductive, starting with a topic sentence which is followed by details supporting it in a deductive manner” (p. 369). In relation to this, Ismail (2010) says: “while Anglo-American writers

[develop] most of their ideas in the introductory section of their essays, the Arab students [delay] the main bulk of their idea development until after they [write] an elaborate introduction” (p. 85).

2.2.5. Collectiveness vs. Individualism

Another aspect of difference between English-speaking nations and Arabic-speaking nations which is culture-related is the way individuals see and refer to themselves within their social surrounding. On the one hand, native-English speakers are characterized by a high level of individualism; on the other hand, native-Arabic speakers are distinguished by their high level of collectiveness. According to Mohamed and Omer (2000), this difference between the two cultural groups is obvious in all aspects of life: nuclear family vs. extended family, individual ownership vs. group ownership, loose social ties vs. close social ties, etc.

Similarly, Feghali (1997) argues that “social life in the Arab region is characterized by ‘situation-centeredness’, in which loyalty to one’s extended family and larger ‘in-group’ takes precedence” as opposed to “U.S. Americans’ self-reliant and ‘individual-centered’ approach to life” (p. 352). This sort of collectiveness -which Smith (2005) refers to as ‘solidarity’- is demonstrated in learners’ writings in the use of pronouns such as “*we*” and “*us*” to show their group orientation and unity with their classmates in particular and members of society in general.

2.2.6. Use of Religious and Culture-specific Expressions

Almost nobody of linguists and anthropologists deny the language-culture relationship. However, when it comes to Arabs, it is the language-culture-religion relationship. Both *Islam* and ancient Arabic culture have their obvious mark on the Arabic language in terms of linguistic conventions as well as language use and interaction.

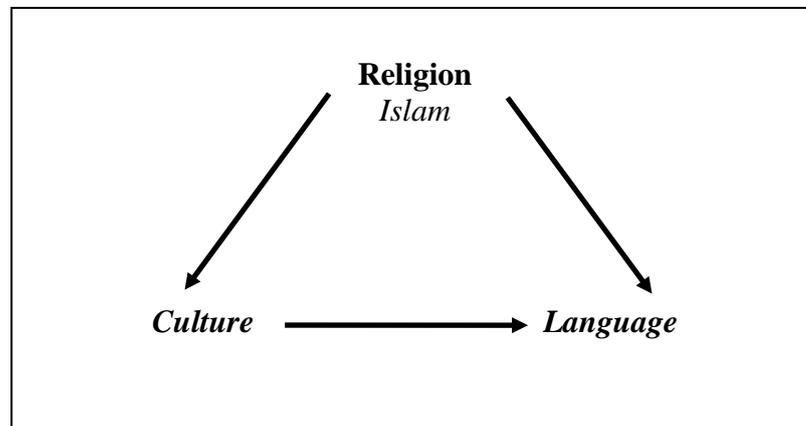


Figure 2.1. Influences on the Arabic Language

Figure (2.1) represents the influences of religion and culture on language and that of religion on culture. *Islam* has an influence on both culture and language and it is not influenced as it is for Muslims the absolute truth and the guide for a better life and afterlife, especially when it comes to *Qur'anic* teachings and principles. According to Abu Rass (2011), “Moslems usually accept principles covered in the Qura'n as Divine truth and reject others that differ from the Qura'nic principles and teachings, which embrace all aspects of life” (p. 207).

An example of *Islam's* influence on culture is Arabs' answer for the formulaic question “how are you?” with the religious expression “praise to God.” For a native-English speaker, the obvious answer would be “I'm fine, thank you”

or “Great! How are you doing?”, etc. Similar to “praise to God,” there are many other religious expressions used by the majority of Arab-Muslims as a part of their daily life such as: “in the name of God, the beneficent, and the merciful” which appears mainly on the top of letters and the opening of each action in order to receive blessing from God; “God willing,” to express the desire for something good to happen in the future, etc. So, it is a part of Arab’s culture not to say *I’m fine* or *I’m good*, but to thank God for everything; besides, Muslims do not say *I will do* or *I will go somewhere* without saying “God willing” as a part of their belief of *destiny*, and examples of the influence of *Islam* on the Arabic culture are plenty.

Furthermore, *Islam* influences Arabic and conforms to the linguistic rules of the language. An example of this influence is exhibited in the concept of monotheism expressed in the word *Allah* which means *the only one God*. Where “almost any common noun in Arabic can be inflected in the plural, dual and feminine or masculine” (Qaddumi, 1995: 120), the word *Allah* cannot be in any of these forms as it is dictated by the *belief*.

Finally, people’s behaviors and cultural backgrounds are expressed through language. In addition, culture has an impact in what people would say or write in different situations. Therefore, language is also shaped by culture. For instance, an Arab responding to a host’s drink offer would say “thank you” which is a polite way of accepting the offer. On the other hand, a native English speaker would either say “yes, thank you” or “no, thank you.” In the Arabs’ culture, guests are not asked whether or not they would like a drink, they are directly presented with a drink, typically coffee or tea.

The cultural and religious dimensions manifest themselves in Arab-Muslim students' writing through the use of culture-specific expressions (idioms, proverbs, sayings, quotations, etc.). These expressions might be vague when translated into English, especially when read by a non-native-Arabic speaker. Furthermore, Arab students' writing demonstrates a constant reference to God and a frequent use of verses from *Qur'an* and *Prophet* (peace be upon him) sayings (cf. Smith, 2005; Ismail, 2010).

Conclusion

Arabic-English contrastive rhetoric studies have been attracting an increased attention lately providing very useful insights to the teaching of ESL/EFL in the Arab world. Arabic, as one of the most compared languages to English, took part in Kaplan's seminal work on contrastive rhetoric along with four other languages. His conclusion that the Arabic paragraph differs in development from the English paragraph has been supported by many other Arab and Western (especially American) Linguists and writing researchers.

In addition to the features originally examined by Kaplan, namely repetition, parallelism and coordination, research in the area has revealed a number of other rhetorical differences between Arabic and English. It has been demonstrated through empirical evidence that the two languages differ not only at conventional, stylistic and grammatical levels but also at the levels of discourse organization and cultural or pragmatic dimensions of writing. Subsequently, it is totally rational that when Arabic rhetorical tendencies are transferred to English, students' writing quality would be negatively affected. The following chapter

explores the issue of awareness and target language composition through introducing the skill of writing in general and discussing the relevance of awareness-raising to the teaching of foreign language writing.

CHAPTER THREE**DEVELOPING RHETORICAL AWARENESS****FOR EFL WRITING**

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CHAPTER THREE

DEVELOPING RHETORICAL AWARENESS

FOR EFL WRITING

Introduction

Learning a foreign language requires learning the four skills of that language beginning with listening, speaking, reading and then writing. Writing is usually left at the end because it is viewed as the most difficult compared to the other language skills. As writing presents a fairly challenging task for native speakers, it seems to be more demanding for foreign language learners who have to write in an unfamiliar rhetorical style, especially when they are not aware of the target language discourse conventions and audience's expectations. This chapter is devoted to foreign language writing and awareness. It provides a description of the writing skill in general, including the different definitions, the criteria that make for producing an effective piece of text and the reasons for writing to be taught. It also examines the relationship between writing and the other skills and explores the different writing approaches. Finally, it discusses the matter of awareness and its relevance to foreign language writing as well as the theoretical implications of awareness-raising for contrastive rhetoric research.

3.1. Nature of Writing

Writing, in general, is the act of putting graphic symbols together. These symbols are “written or marked on a surface as a means of communicating ideas by making each symbol stand for an idea, concept, or thing” (writing, n.d.). This

definition suggests that writing is the activity of producing a piece of written language which is designed to be read and therefore communicate. Nevertheless, writing is more than being a matter of transcribing language into symbols just as speech is more than producing sounds. It is necessary that the graphic symbols be arranged in certain ways to form words which are also organized according to some conventions to make sentences. A sequence of sentences put together in a particular order makes an adequate means of communication. Coordinating all these aspects is a demanding task that is definitely more than the simple activity of putting symbols together. Regarding the different structural levels involved in writing and the overall complexity of the activity, Collins and Gentner (1980) notice that:

Much of the difficulty of writing stems from the large number of constraints that must be satisfied at the same time. In expressing an idea the writer must consider at least four structural levels: overall text structure, paragraph structure, sentence structure (syntax), and word structure....Clearly the attempt to coordinate all these requirements is a staggering job.

(Collins & Gentner, 1980: 67)

Obviously, its significance is not limited by the boundaries of visual marks, and writing is much more than the structural transformation of ideas into graphic symbols. It is the ability to transfer messages and express thoughts and ideas through language (with a set of signs or symbols) using correct structures and appropriate vocabulary items in order to achieve effective communication and convey information concisely, clearly and understandably. However, this communication ability is not easily achieved. Writing is neither simple nor

natural; it necessitates some conscious mental effort and the ability to overcome the psychological, linguistic and cognitive problems involved in the activity. The main psychological problem in writing is the lack of interaction and feedback between the writer and the reader. The linguistic problem is demonstrated in the absence of compensatory strategies (such as the paralinguistic features used in speaking). Finally, the cognitive problem is that writing is not naturally acquired like speech, it is formally learned through formal instruction where consciousness, effort and time are required (Ouskourt, 2008). In relation to this, White and Arndt (1991; in Ouskourt, 2008) see that:

Writing is far from being a simple matter of transcribing language into written symbols: it is a thinking process in its own right. It demands conscious intellectual effort which usually has to be sustained over a considerable effort of time.

(White & Arndt, 1991; in Ouskourt, 2008: 14)

In this respect, writing is also considered as a powerful thinking tool. According to Daisey (2009), “writing affords students an opportunity to clarify their thinking” (p. 157). Krest and Carle (1999) highlight the close relation between writing and critical thinking and notice that they are developed together. Emig (1977), on her part, maintains that high cognitive functions (such as analysis and synthesis) develop most fully only with writing. Further than that, writing is sometimes thought to be the most reflective and careful kind of thinking. During the writing process, writers try to gather interesting ideas, organize them and, most importantly, while expressing them, they think how their readers are going to understand them. As it is seen by Booth, Colomb, and Williams (2008),

“thinking for others is more careful, more sustained, more insightful—in short, more thoughtful—than just about any other kind of thinking” (p. 14).

Writing is even more valuable when looked at as a sophisticated communication tool which is directly linked to people’s roles in society. Where the ability to communicate through speaking is a naturally acquired gift for almost everybody (except for people suffering from speech defects), writing needs to be formally learned. Accordingly, writing, as one of the basic literacy skills along with reading, is not given for everyone, and this offers the people who control with more alternatives to communicate within the society. According to Tribble (1996), to be deprived of the opportunity to learn how to write is “to be excluded from a wide range of social roles, including those which the majority of people in industrialized societies associate with power and prestige” (p. 12). Therefore, learning to write is not just a matter of developing a set of mechanical ‘orthographic’ skills but also developing a new set of cognitive and social relations.

In terms of pedagogy, a great deal of the work carried out in the academic world is done through the medium of writing. Students need to write down notes, do written works and reports, and take written exams in almost all their modules. Besides, university instructors publish books and articles, correspond with colleagues via e-mail, submit applications for conferences and seminars, and most importantly, interact with students mainly by writing (Faghieh, 2009). In spite of its importance in academia, no one would possibly fail to notice the difficulty of academic writing particularly for second and foreign language learners. This complexity comes from the fact that target language writing involves more than

grammar and vocabulary to include certain organizational, conventional and situational norms that are likely to be very different from those of the learner's first language. A typical second/foreign language learner who has not yet developed an adequate understanding of the target language conventions and the cultural context in which he/she takes part would rely on his/her knowledge and skills from the first language to write in the target one. Doing so would certainly result in a poor quality writing if the learner's first and target languages are rhetorically different. Bennui (2008) argues that learners may produce texts with accurate grammar and appropriate vocabulary; nonetheless, their writing would still make no sense in the target language. The problem then for non-native language learners is not merely language-related errors and difficulty, but also having to write in an unfamiliar rhetorical style.

All in all, writing is the ability to communicate with language through graphic representation of ideas, necessitating an appropriate arrangement of different structures in order to convey the message in a successful and a comprehensible manner. It is also a sophisticated language skill, a difficult ability to acquire, a thinking tool that requires much time and conscious mental effort, and a prestigious social activity of communication.

3.2. Effective Writing

Writing in English within an academic context requires some criteria of acceptability relative to different aspects of writing. For students in the writing class, generally speaking, organization, clarity, coherence, accurate grammar and appropriate vocabulary as well as effective employment of mechanics such as spelling and punctuation are the essentials of effective writing. This list is not

necessarily exhaustive; it could rather be slightly modified depending on the context of writing itself and the audience for whom one is writing.

As far as organization is concerned, a piece of text should be presented to readers in a well-structured format where “[e]ven short pieces of writing have regular, predictable patterns of organization” (Swales & Feak, 2004: 12). The utility of organization in writing is that it helps the reader to follow the writer’s lead and process information in a systematic manner. The organization of a piece of writing does not take place during the actual act of writing, it is usually decided upon in the prewriting stage.

Furthermore, writing does not only convey information through graphic representation of ideas, it also gives clues about one’s control of this skill and how well he/she can write. For that, there is no better way to speak for one’s information and writing ability than a clear piece of writing. Thus, clarity is an important element in any kind of writing. It is particularly crucial in academic writing where success or failure may depend upon how clearly the learner has managed to communicate his/her ideas and points of argument to the reader. In order to achieve clarity in writing, learners should:

- *Eliminate ambiguity*; by staying away from words or phrases that would possibly have more than one interpretation. Learners should focus on what they mean and avoid any language structure that could mislead the reader.
- *Use Modifiers*; the right modifiers (adjectives and adverbs) add precision to writing, allow writers to express their ideas exactly the way they think of them and readers to “hear the ‘voice’ and impressions of

the writer...” (Starkey, 2004: 13). Furthermore, the precise use of modifiers helps out learners to convey their message across in fewer and more accurate words.

- *Be concise*; i.e., getting straightforward the point without unnecessary “beating around the bush,” worthless repetition and wordiness. If a learner wants to achieve a concise piece of writing, he/she should eliminate needless words and phrases, use active voice whenever possible and avoid the repetition of ideas.
- *Use pronouns carefully*; pronouns (I, we, them, her, etc.) replace of nouns; therefore, they should appear only when the noun to which they refer is obvious and meaningful. Pronouns should not appear when they are not clear, too far from the antecedent or useless (Starkey, 2004: 12-20).

It doesn't matter how insightful or original one's ideas are if not presented in a logical way. Consequently, coherence, which has to do with arranging and linking ideas in the most understandable and logical way, has a huge role in making an effective piece of writing. Murray and Hughes (2008) notice that a good writer is the one “who sticks his ideas together as links in a chain, each link connecting the one before it with the one after. If any links are missing, the connections become unclear and the argument structure breaks down” (p. 45).

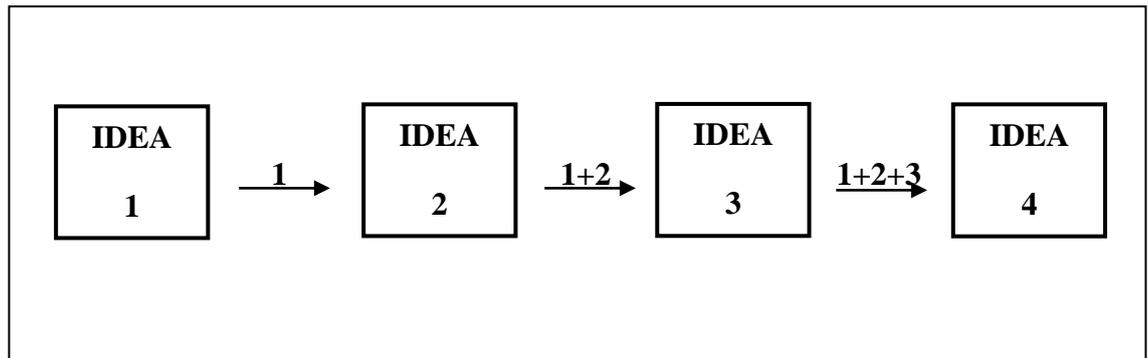


Figure 3.1. A Sequence of Ideas (Murray & Hughes, 2008: 46)

A piece of academic writing, as shown in Figure (3.1), has a history with the succession of ideas. The reader is able to make sense of what he/she is reading at any particular point only if it connects clearly with what has been said before. This grants more significance for a piece of writing and gives the impression that the text hangs together and that it is not merely a random gathering of ideas.

The best way for learners to accurately convey their ideas and make readers understand what they are exactly saying is to choose the right words. When choosing words, there are two aspects that need to be taken into consideration: *denotation and connotation*. *Denotation* is the basic, literal meaning of a word or its 'dictionary definition'. Learners should make sure of the correctness of their words, because sometimes some confusion may stem from:

1. Words that sound or look similar but have very different meaning, for

instance: - *to/two/too* - *there/their/they're* - *right/write/Wright/rite*

- *bark* (the sound of a dog) and *bark* (the skin of a tree) / *rose* (flower) and *rose* (past tense of *rise*).

2. Words and usages that sound correct but in fact are not considered Standard English (*what's up / to keep the fingers crossed / as far as I'm concerned / It was, like, five bucks, so I was like "okay,"* etc.).
3. Words that are misused so often that their usage is thought to be correct such as the word *rise* in the following example:

- *The government is going to **rise** taxes.*

Rise means “to go up” or “to increase” by itself, with only a subject; there is no object. Raise, on the other hand, means “to move something to a higher position” or “to increase something,” so there are two entities, the subject (which performs the action) and the object (the thing that is moved or increased)¹.

Connotation, as the other face of the coin, “is a word’s implied meaning which involves emotions, cultural assumptions, and suggestions” (Starkey, 2004: 21). Therefore, learners should make sure that each word they use denotes exactly what they intend to it; they should also think beyond the dictionary to what might be implied or inferred by their writing. In addition, they should as well consider that the used words might confuse or possibly offend their audience; i.e., avoiding informal language, clichés and slang words.

In writing, mechanics refer to the way words, sentences and paragraphs are arranged on paper. For instance, indenting the first word of a paragraph, beginning a sentence with a capital letter and ending it with a period are matters of mechanics. These types of conventions are very significant in putting together a good quality piece of writing because they aid the reader to easily get the point.

¹ Example taken from : www.espressoenglish.net

Besides, they are part of the language usage and misusing them would affect the value of writing and its authenticity.

Despite the fact that many language learners might underestimate their role or even consider them as only a decoration of text; punctuation marks are very significant in writing. They are used by writers to help readers interpret the structure of their sentences where every mark is used for at least one very good reason. Punctuation marks are very essential in English writing because

Among other things, they indicate pauses and sentence boundaries and also help to eliminate ambiguity. A well-punctuated [piece of writing] should make your work easier to read and understand and will therefore help it make a more favourable impression on your readers.

(Murray & Hughes, 2008: 185)

Similarly, spelling is another important aspect which needs to be taken into account by students when producing a piece of writing. Correct spelling gives one's work credibility. Not only will the reader know that one is educated, but also that he is careful about his work. Furthermore, it is a factor that many teachers in an EFL context focus on when evaluating students' productions.

On the whole, organization, clarity, coherence, word choice and mechanics are the most influential aspects for the student-writer to achieve success in an academic writing situation besides, of course, grammatical correctness. Grammar has not been discussed above because it is the backbone of the language and misusing it would make all the other aspects worthless. Finally, different writing

genres and situations may require some additional criteria, and different audiences have different rhetorical expectations.

3.3. Reasons for Teaching Writing

All human beings are born with ability to acquire their first language and sometimes second, simply through exposure. This is true for speaking but not for writing; “spoken language, for a child, is acquired naturally as a result of being exposed to it, whereas the ability to write has to be consciously learned” (Harmer, 2004: 3). Obviously, this is the main reason for teaching writing; though, Harmer (1998) provides more reasons and summarizes the necessity for teaching writing to native speakers as well as foreign language learners in four aims: reinforcement, language development, learning style and most importantly writing as a skill.

- **Reinforcement:** for some learners, language is acquired in a purely oral/aural way, except that the majority of us benefit to a great extent from seeing the language written down. Moreover, learners often find it helpful to use new items of language in their writing right after they have learned them in order to be memorized. Therefore, the importance of writing lies in understanding how language works out and facilitating the process of acquiring new vocabulary.
- **Language Development:** the act of writing is considered as a medium for thought which suggests a number of importance uses: to solve problems, to identify issues, to construct questions, etc. Furthermore, the mental activity writers go through in order to construct a piece of

text is a part of the ongoing learning process. Consequently, the need for writing goes beyond communication to include thinking and language development. Tahaineh (2010), for instance, highlights the importance of writing as a tool for language development, for critical thinking and for learning in all disciplines. Similarly, Moore (1994; in Daisey, 2009) holds that “[w]riting's greatest gift is the ability to help us learn” (p. 157).

- **Learning Style:** writing offers ease and time for learners during the reception and production of language. Seeing the language written down is something very important and permanent for learners as opposed to the temporality of spoken discourse. Besides, writing offers them the necessary time to produce language effectively and to reflect on their productions.
- **Writing as a Skill:** clearly, the fundamental reason for teaching writing is that it is one of the basic language skills in addition to speaking, listening and reading. Language learners need to be able to accomplish some tasks done only through writing such as reports and research papers. They also need to learn some of the writing conventions and mechanics (punctuation, paragraph organization, etc.) just as they need to learn how to pronounce the language in the approved manner (Harmer, 1998: 79-80).

Supporting Harmer's (1998) views, Leki (2003) acknowledges the importance of writing whether in L1 or L2 in students' personal, academic and, later on, professional life. She also urges teachers to make their students aware of the significance of writing in all areas right from the beginning:

...our students need to be convinced of the importance of writing by reading in their writing text book or hearing in the first day of the writing class a litany of claims about how important writing already is to them in their daily lives (to write grocery lists, notes to friends and family, letters of complaint to landlords, e-mail messages) and how important writing will certainly be eventually to do such things as take an exam in a management course, write a biology lab report, work as an engineer, and participate in democracy by writing letters to the editor or to elected representatives.

(Leki, 2003: 318)

Leki (2003), on her part, provides a broader classification of reasons for teaching writing than Harmer's (1998). Harmer (1998) dealt with writing in an academic context and how it could help students acquire the language better and easier, develop their language and thinking abilities, and learn other disciplines. Leki (2003), on the other hand, approaches writing and the necessity for teaching it into personal, academic, professional and intellectual motives summarized as follows:

1. Writing is personally fulfilling.
2. Writing helps students to learn disciplinary content.
3. Students will have to do a great deal of writing in other courses at university.

4. In the work world, employers demand good writing skills.
5. In a democracy, writing is a powerful tool for justice (Leki, 2003: 318-26).

3.4. Approaches to Teaching Writing

Since the beginning of the activity of teaching second/foreign languages in its institutionalized form of today until the early 1960s, writing has been a neglected skill in the area. The prevailing belief then implicated that language is most important in its spoken form and less important or secondary in the written one. Throughout the modest initial attempts to include writing within the teaching curricula, it was merely viewed as a simple reinforcement of students' spoken language as well as a support system for learning grammar and vocabulary.

During the late 1960s and early 1970s, thanks to the many works published in the field (mainly textbooks and teacher education material), writing started to gain interest in the language teaching/learning context as an independent skill, and its fundamental role in learning other disciplines started to be recognized. As a result, a great number of approaches and methods for teaching writing have emerged. Despite the fact that they were proved to be successful in one period or another, none of them can be considered as ideal.

Originally, those approaches were founded for teaching L1 writing where learners are supposed to have the basic control of language. In second and foreign language instruction, on the other hand, students' control of the language in terms grammatical, stylistic and conventional usages is a very important variable. Yet, many approaches to teaching L1 writing are similar to the ones used in second and foreign language writing instruction with more focus on language development,

form and content (Scott, 1996). What comes next is an account of the main three approaches to teaching writing in an academic context whether for L1, ESL or EFL learners, namely the product, the process and the genre approaches where the consensus today is an integration of the three.

3.4.1. The Product Approach

The product approach, as the name indicates, focuses on what a final piece of writing looks like. In a product orientation, students analyze a model text from all features: structures of grammar, content, sentences, organization, and rhetorical patterns; then, they are given a new topic to replicate those features in their own writing. For White (1988), the product approach maintained its popularity for a long time because the conventions and patterns of organization of EAP are very tight. Therefore, learners must deal thoroughly and amply with model texts to be acquainted with those conventions and how to operate within them.

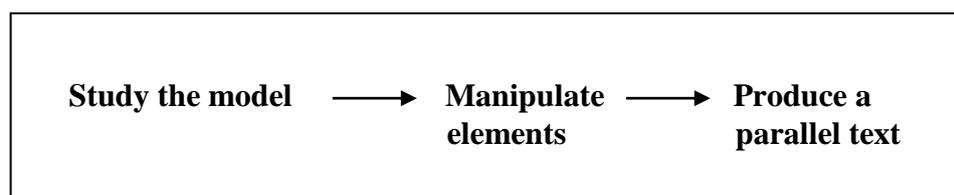


Figure 3.2. Parallel Writing Model (White, 1988: 5)

According to White (1988), in a product-oriented approach, the writing activity always starts with a model text. This model text is examined regarding all aspects. After that, students are supposed to manipulate and reproduce the given text's features into a parallel writing task:

...the model text is taken as the starting point; the text is analyzed and studied for features of form, content and organization; linguistic items and rhetorical patterns are manipulated; then new input is provided as a basis for a parallel writing task. Ultimately, students may be required to produce a parallel text using their own information.

(White, 1988: 5)

Badger and White (2000) summarize the stages of the product approach into four: *familiarization*, *controlled writing*, *guided writing*, and *free writing*.

Hyland (2003) illustrates those stages as follows:

1. **Familiarization:** learners are taught certain grammar and vocabulary, usually through a text.
2. **Controlled writing:** learners manipulate fixed patterns, often from substitution tables.
3. **Guided writing:** learners imitate model texts.
4. **Free writing:** learners use the patterns they have developed to write a paragraph, an essay, a letter, and so forth (Hyland, 2003: 3-4).

To summarize, in a product approach, writing is most concerned with the structure of language and is developed through the imitation of input from texts provided by teachers (Badger & White, 2000). Similarly, Hyland (2003) emphasizes that in this approach, “writing is seen as a product constructed from the writer’s command of grammatical and lexical knowledge, and writing development is considered to be the result of imitating and manipulating models

provided by the teacher” (p. 3). In the same direction goes Brown (2001) stressing the role “model” texts play and explaining that what mostly matters in a product orientation is “[the] student’s final product measured up against a list of criteria that included content, organization, vocabulary use, grammatical use, and mechanical considerations such as spelling and punctuation” (p. 335).

3.4.2. The Process Approach

After the deficiencies that have been noted on the product approach as it is very hard for students -or anyone else- to create a perfect piece of writing on the first draft, and the fact that the constant error correction would affect students’ motivation and self-esteem; the process approach was proposed as an alternative in the mid 1970s (Yan, 2005). The process approach came to consider writing as a recursive rather than a linear activity where the different process stages namely prewriting, drafting, revising and editing interact with each other. In relation to this, Hedge (2005) holds that:

...the process of composition is not a linear one, moving from planning to composing to revising and editing. It would be more accurate to characterize writing as recursive activity in which the writer moves backwards and forwards between drafting and revising, with stages of replanning in between.

(Hedge, 2005: 52)

Harmer (2004), on his part, emphasizes the recursive nature of writing providing two figures of what writing is and what writing is not:

Planning → *Drafting* → *Editing* → *Final Draft*

Figure 3.3. Process of Writing (Harmer, 2004: 5)

According to Harmer (2004), this diagram is not representative taking into consideration that “the process of writing is not linear, as indicated above, but rather **recursive**. This means that writers plan, draft and edit but then often **re-plan**, **re-draft** and **re-edit**” (pp. 5-6; original emphasis). Therefore, he proposes a more satisfactory process of writing in what he calls the ‘process wheel’.

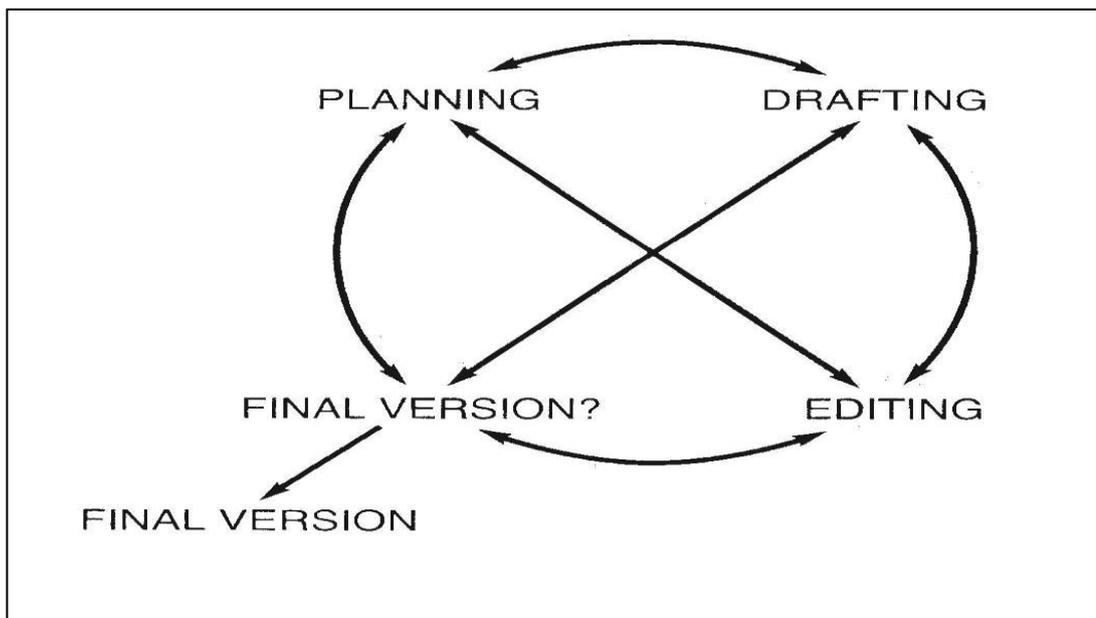


Figure 3.4. Process Wheel (Harmer, 2004: 6)

In a process-oriented approach, focus is placed on the stages a writer goes through during text creation rather than the final product itself. It is acknowledged within the process orientation that “most people progress through a number of untidy drafts before reaching a final version” (Ur, 1996: 168). Moreover, it is recommended that teachers “accept messy drafts as a positive, even essential, stage in writing,” and to “treat early drafts as transition stages” (*ibid.* 169).

One other major characteristic of the process approach is that it views writing as an act of discovery and creation of meaning. Students often find out what they want to say concerning a given topic as they think and write about it. According to White (1988), “it is only by engaging in the process of writing itself that writers ultimately discover what it is that they want to say” (p. 4). The stages of the writing process, highlights Kim (2006), allow writers to “develop more effective ways of conveying meaning and to better comprehend the content that they want to express” (p. 35). Furthermore, content and organization are regarded more important than spelling and punctuation in the process approach. Therefore, the correction of spelling and punctuation at the early stages is not of big importance but rather something to be avoided (Tessema, 2005). To illustrate more the principles of the process approach, we will cite those provided by one of the passionate proponents of this type of teaching, Hairston (1982), as follows:

- It focuses on the writing process; instructors intervene in students' writing during the process.
- It teaches strategies for invention and discovery; instructors help students to generate content and discover purpose.

- It is rhetorically based; audience, purpose, and occasion figure prominently in the assignment of writing tasks.
- Instructors evaluate the written product by how well it fulfills the writer's intention and meets the audience's needs.
- It views writing as a recursive rather than a linear process; pre-writing, writing, and revision are activities that overlap and intertwine.
- It is holistic, viewing writing as an activity that involves the intuitive and non-rational as well as the rational faculties.
- It emphasizes that writing is a way of learning and developing as well as a communication skill.
- It includes a variety of writing modes, expressive as well as expository.
- It is informed by other disciplines, especially cognitive psychology and linguistics.
- It views writing as a disciplined creative activity that can be analyzed and described; its practitioners believe that writing can be taught.
- It is based on linguistic research and research into the composing process.
- It stresses the principle that writing teachers should be people who write (Hairston, 1982: 86).

3.4.3. The Genre Approach

Despite the fact that the genre approach has emerged long years after the product approach, there are strong similarities between the two. Badger and White (2000) consider the genre approach as an extension to the product approach in that

they both regard writing as predominately linguistic in addition to their reliance on model texts for students to imitate. However, unlike the product approach, the genre approach emphasizes “that writing varies with the social context in which it is produced” (*ibid.* 155).

The proponents of the genre approach hold that it allows the student-writer to write in different situations for various purposes and audiences. This could be achieved through studying models of different genres and coming to specify the textual features and organization patterns of each genre. For a genre-oriented approach, maintains Badger and White (2000), the writing situation is of central importance starting with purpose, subject matter and the relationship between the writer and the reader. The advantage of teaching writing through the genre approach is showing to students how different discourses require different structures and enhancing their involvement through authentic texts (Yan, 2005).

In a nutshell, a genre-oriented approach sees that writers should be mainly concerned with the knowledge of language and that writing cannot be dissociated from its social purpose. Furthermore, writing is developed through the analysis and imitation of texts provided by the teacher focusing on the linguistic elements of the text as well as the rhetorical features bound up with different writing genres.

3.4.4. The Process Genre Approach

Badger and White (2000), among many others (cf. Yan, 2005; Kim, 2006), see that an effective methodology to teaching writing requires incorporating insights of product, process and genre approaches. In recent years, began a common tendency among writing teachers to adopt an approach that entails a synthesis of the three approaches which, later on, became known as the ‘process genre approach’.

The process genre approach has emerged as a result to the weaknesses identified in the three major approaches to teaching writing, namely the product, process and genre approaches. For instance, the product approach gives a small role to process stages, such as planning a text, and undervalues the skills that learners bring to the class. The process approach regards all writing as the result of the same processes, gives inadequate importance to kinds of texts and their purposes, and offers learners with insufficient input. The genre approach sees learners as largely passive and undervalues the needed skills to produce a text (Badger & White, 2000).

On the other hand, the process genre approach incorporates more positive aspects of the three. First, it recognizes the importance of linguistic knowledge and imitation for learning as two typical characteristics of the product approach. Second, it focuses on the skills involved in writing and learners’ own contribution to the writing class brought by the process approach. Finally, it acknowledges that writing takes a place in a social situation and that it is closely tied to a particular purpose as established by the genre approach (Badger & White, 2000). In describing the process genre approach, Yan (2005) holds that:

This approach allows students to study the relationship between purpose and form for a particular genre as they use the recursive processes of prewriting, drafting, revision, and editing. Using these steps develops students' awareness of different text types and of the composing process.

(Yan, 2005: 20)

3.5. Writing and Other Language Skills

Research and practice of language teaching has identified four major language skills of “paramount importance,” namely listening, speaking, reading and writing (Brown, 2001: 232). Listening and reading are the receptive skills (taking in information); speaking and writing are the productive skills (giving out information). Excluding other forms of communication such as nonverbal communication (gestures, facial expressions, etc.) and graphics (drawings, paintings, etc.), “[t]he human race has fashioned two forms of productive performance, oral and written, and two forms of receptive performance, aural (or auditory) and reading” (*ibid.* 232).

The study of writing in relation to the other language skills is very important and provides useful insights for developing the writing skill. In fact, current trends in foreign language teaching call for an integration of the four skills and an adoption of a whole language curriculum mainly because despite the apparent differences, language skills are interrelated and enhance each other. In other words, the development of a single language skill contributes to the development of others. For instance, listening to people talking improves one's ability to speak, reading makes better writers and writing helps in developing phonic knowledge and enhances reading fluency.

3.5.1. Writing and Speaking

Both writing and speaking are clearly productive activities in that they create language outcomes just as listening and reading are both passive activities for information intake. In communication, speaking and writing are complementary and “the person who commands both the forms of writing and of speech is therefore constructed in a fundamentally different way from the person who commands the form of speech alone” (Kress, 1989; in Tribble, 1996: 12). On the other hand, the physical acts of speaking and writing are very different. In fact, for Crystal (1995), the difference between writing and speaking is merely physical as “[s]peech uses the transmitting medium of ‘phonic substance’, typically air-pressure movements produced by the vocal organs, whereas writing uses the transmitting medium of ‘graphic substance’, typically marks on a surface made by a hand using an implement” (p. 5). Furthermore, speaking and writing take place in distinct communicative situations and have different language structures. Yet, beyond this physical difference, maintains Crystal (1995), lies more similarity and interrelationship.

In spite of the fact that the two mediums function as independent ways for achieving communicative intentions, in some occasions, the two language forms become very similar; and in others, they can be used interchangeably or what is called a “mixed medium” (*ibid.*). Concerning interaction, for instance, speech is normally interactive and writing is not. Yet, when talking to a telephone answering machine, it is a monologue that shares a lot of writing features such as permanence, absence of face-to-face interaction, distance and processing time.

Conversely, emails and fax machines allow questions and answers to fly in the world in a similar way that two participants are talking to each other.

Harmer (2004) makes the difference between writing and speaking in terms of time and space of communication, participants, process, organization, language, signs, symbols and product. However, similar to Crystal (1995), Harmer (2004) stresses that in some contexts, these differences between writing and speaking fade away. For example, the use of written language in text messaging and internet chatting seems to be more like speech than written discourse where speakers seem to be speaking while using written words. As another example is the degree to which a formal speech follows the rules of writing in terms of structure, organization, and language use. Such types of speech seem to be more writing than speaking. What comes next is a summary of some differences between the two productive skills as seen by Brown (2001):

- **Permanence:** spoken language is fleeting, once a sentence is uttered, it vanishes. The hearer is, therefore, required to make immediate perceptions and storage. Written language is permanent; the reader has the opportunity to return again and again, if necessary, to any length piece of written language.
- **Processing/Production time:** related to permanence is the time that readers gain in processing a piece of writing. Most reading contexts allow people to read at their own rate as they are not forced into following the rate of delivery as in spoken language. Furthermore, writers have more time to plan, review and edit their writing; whereas

speakers must plan, formulate and deliver their utterances within few moments.

- **Distance:** in face-to-face conversations, both the speaker and the listener share the same physical and temporal context which makes it easy to understand what *now* and *that* stand for in an expression like: “Now, what exactly did you mean by that?” Writing, on the other hand, requires the reader to interpret language that was written in some other place at some other time with only the written words themselves as contextual clues.
- **Orthography:** for spoken language, there are many verbal and nonverbal cues to enhance the message such as stress, rhythm, juncture, intonation, pauses and volume. For writing, the best available thing is punctuation and in some contexts pictures or charts. This fact requires readers to do their best to infer, interpret and read between the lines so they can uncover the ambiguity that is present in a good deal of writing.
- **Complexity:** written language relies on relatively long clauses connected by subordination². Spoken language is characterized by shorter clauses, more coordination and more redundancy (repetition, for instance).
- **Vocabulary:** written language uses a wider variety of lexical items than spoken language where the vocabulary is limited. This is mainly

² Not all languages tend to favour subordination in writing as English does. Arabic, for example, relies more on coordination rather than subordination.

because writing allows more production time, necessitates stricter conventions as well as writers' desire to be precise.

- **Formality:** Writing tends to be more formal than speech. For instance, in essay writing, writers must conform to some conventions like: paragraph topics, logical order, way of developing ideas, and a preference for non-redundancy and subordination of clauses, etc. Furthermore, some writings (sacred writing, historical documents, first editions, etc.) are given a kind of respect which is rarely accorded to speech (Brown, 2001: 303-06).

Another comprehensible classification of differences between writing and speaking is the one provided by Emig (1977) into eleven points:

1. Writing is learned behavior; talking is natural, even irrepressible, behavior.
2. Writing then is an artificial process; talking is not.
3. Writing is a technological device – not the wheel, but early enough to qualify a primary technology; talking is organic, natural, earlier.
4. Most writing is slower than most talking.
5. Writing is stark, barren, even naked as a medium; talking is rich, luxuriant, inherently redundant.
6. Talk leans on the environment; writing must provide its own context.
7. With writing, the audience is usually absent; with talking, the listener is usually present.

8. Writing usually results in a visible graphic product; talking usually does not.
9. Perhaps because there is a product involved, writing tends to be more responsible and committed act than talking.
10. It can even be said that throughout history, an aura, an ambience, a mystique has usually encircled the written word; the spoken word has for most proved ephemeral and treated mundanely.
11. Because writing is often our representation of the world made visible, embodying both process and product, writing is more readily a form and source of learning than talking (Emig, 1977: 123-24).

3.5.2. Writing and Reading

When looking at their nature, writing and reading seem to be separate skills in that reading is a passive activity and writing is a productive one. Yet, these two language skills are complementary and can be closely developed. The apparent relationship between them is that reading helps students become better writers. Through reading, students come into contact with the rules of grammar, so they would develop a sense for the language structure and grammar and increase their vocabulary (Johnson, 2008). According to Eisterhold (1990):

Reading in the writing classroom is understood as the appropriate input for acquisition of writing skills because it is generally assumed that reading passages will somehow function as primary models from which writing skills can be learned, or at least inferred.

(Eisterhold, 1990: 88)

Greenberg and Rath (1985) see that the assumptions leading to a separation of reading and writing are mistaken maintaining that they are “interactive and fundamentally complementary communication skills...” (p. 11). Greenberg and Rath (1985) base their argument on the fact that the writing process makes writers realize how their products affect others. In the course of selecting, rejecting, arranging and rearranging ideas, writers do their best to communicate their message in the most understandable way. While doing this, they must consider how readers are going to understand their output and what reaction it would produce. Readers, on the other hand, play a key role in the communication process by interpreting another person’s message in terms of their own attitudes, experiences and perceptions. Therefore, “[w]riting and reading are interrelated and inseparable communication skills. Through them, students attempt to organize and communicate their perceptions of the world in a way that is both personally meaningful and understandable to others” (*ibid.* 13). Graham and Hebert (2010) for their part emphasize that writing and reading are complementary and to be developed hand in hand in three ways:

1. Reading and writing are both functional activities that can be combined to accomplish specific goals, such as learning new ideas presented in a text.
2. Reading and writing are connected, as they draw upon common knowledge and cognitive processes.
3. Reading and writing are both communication activities. Writers should gain insight about reading by creating their own texts in order to gain better comprehension of texts produced by others (Graham & Hebert, 2010: 4).

3.6. Awareness

The notions of *language awareness* and *culture awareness* are central for contrastive rhetoric. Language awareness offers second/foreign language learners with knowledge of the structural and stylistic features of that language including grammar, syntax, rhetoric and conventions of use. Culture awareness, on its part, enhances their understanding of the target community rhetorical tendencies, cultural backgrounds and expectations, as well as the language-culture relationship.

3.6.1. Language Awareness

The term '*language awareness*' was first proposed by Eric Hawkins in 1984 "who felt that the traditional teaching about language in Britain was incoherent, that there was a lack of co-operation between teachers of English and other language teachers, as well as excessive eurocentricism in traditional approaches to foreign languages" (Hélot, 2008: 372). Accordingly, language awareness was put forward "as a new 'bridging' element in the UK school curriculum" (Hawkins, 1999: 124) to solve a number of problems in UK schools mainly the failure in learning foreign languages.

The Association for Language Awareness (ALA) defines language awareness as the "explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" (ALA homepage). Masny (1997) sees language awareness "as an interface mechanism [that] promotes heightened awareness of language forms between the first language (L1) and the target language (TL) and thereby assists language learning"

(p. 105). For Moumene (2013), language awareness is an approach “in language pedagogy for arousing learners’ curiosity about the inherent functioning of language” (p. 364) which is “frequently used as a synonym to form-focused instruction; that is, drawing learners’ attention to vocabulary, grammar, rhetoric, culture and all aspects of language functioning” (*ibid.* 368). According to Garvie (1990; in Kovacevic, 2008) language awareness consists of several types as follows:

- *Linguistic awareness*, knowledge of the basic components of language, such as phonemes, morphemes, and lexical units;
- *Psycholinguistic awareness*, meaning that the competent language user knows not only the components of the language, but the rules for assembling them;
- *Discourse awareness*, points to the necessity of being aware about the rules of assembling language components at the sentence level as well as at the discourse level;
- *Communicative awareness*, enables the language user to be aware of how words, strings of words, and entire discourses can change according to topic, purpose, situation, and audience;
- *Sociolinguistic awareness*, helps the language user to identify the influence of social context on language use; and finally,
- *Strategic awareness*, helps the language user to be aware of a set of strategies that can be applied when problems are encountered in the communication process (Garvie, 1990; in Kovacevic, 2008: 106).

3.6.2. Culture Awareness

In a foreign language learning context, it is necessary for both learners and teachers to gain some understanding of cultural differences between their native and target cultures. In other words, they need to know that what is appropriate and makes sense in one culture might be rude and meaningless in another in terms of values, behaviors and even in the language use whether spoken or written. According to Cakir (2006), ‘*culture awareness*’ helps non-native language learners to

use words and expressions more skillfully and authentically; to understand levels of language and situationally appropriate; to act naturally with persons of the other culture, while recognizing and accepting their different reactions, and to help speakers of other tongues feel at home in the students’ own culture.

(Cakir, 2006: 157)

According to Liu (2005), culture awareness is “the term used to describe sensitivity to the impact of culturally induced behavior on language use and communication” (p. 70). Tomlinson (2001; in Saniei, 2012) defines culture awareness as the “gradually developing inner sense of the equality of cultures, an increased understanding of your own and other people’s cultures, and a positive interest in how cultures both connect and differ” (p. 12). For Bernaus *et al.* (2007), culture involves three layers that learners must be aware of, multicultural, pluricultural and intercultural:

- *Multicultural awareness*: involves the awareness of diversity in society and how social groups -including nations- create, use and manage cultures, which are intermingled in a complex matrix of social contact;
- *Pluricultural awareness*: includes being aware of how identity is the by-product of experiences in different cultures and that it is a complex, flexible, dynamic composite which, in any situation, can adopt an apparently definite layout for a certain purpose with a particular interlocutor;
- *Intercultural awareness*: language learners must be aware of the cultural conventions of the language(s) they use since language is a culture-bound phenomenon and there are conventions ruling any communicative act, either written or spoken (Bernaus *et al.* 2007: 14).

Eventually, since every language is used within a particular cultural surrounding, and learning a language involves more than the learning of grammar, phonology and lexis to include some features of culture; the concepts of language awareness and culture awareness are interrelated and go hand in hand in ameliorating the language learning activity. In fact, Brown (2007) goes very far explaining the language-culture relationship to suggest that language is the most visible and available expression of culture. Therefore, it is fair to say that language and culture cannot be separated and “awareness of language cannot be dissociated from the awareness of culture, which is intimately related to it...” (Bernaus *et al.* 2007: 14).

3.7. Awareness-raising and Contrastive Rhetoric

Students' failure in the appropriate use of target language writing is attributed to their unawareness of the rhetorical styles and conventional modes of that language. As opposed to native speakers who recognize which mode to use for each communicative situation and the impact of their choices, non-native writers do not have this ability (Kaplan, 1966). Awareness-raising is, therefore, a basic concept to the pedagogical applications of contrastive rhetoric and its most essential tool for helping non-native students to overcome their difficulties in target language composition.

Kubota and Lehner (2004) argue that contrastive rhetoric has "laudable pedagogical intentions to raise teachers' and students' cultural and rhetorical awareness in second language writing..." (p. 7). According to Davies (2004), raising students' awareness is considered as one of the most important goals of L2 composition instruction where it is believed that "by enhancing students' conscious awareness of the rhetorical traditions of both their native language and the target language, they will be able to identify cross-cultural differences, thereby making an easier transition to the rhetorical patterns of the target language" (p. 83). Mok (1993), on her part, emphasizes the importance of the awareness of differences

because it makes students realize that to become part of the target language discourse community, they need to develop new attitudes, to meet certain criteria of the target language's traditions, and, in some cases, to put aside their native language habits.

(Mok, 1993: 157)

In order to achieve academic success in the target language, Kaplan (1966) among others (cf. Mok, 1993; Kubota & Lehner, 2004; Davies, 2004) urge ESL/EFL teachers to draw their students' attention to the distinctive rhetorical patterns of the English language and how unacceptable it is to use their first language patterns when they are different. This can be achieved through, first, identifying the rhetorical features unique to the first language/culture; then, comparing them to those of the target language/culture: "... ESL teachers need first to appreciate the differences in rhetoric in different cultures and then learn to teach these distinctions, as an aid to improving both the reading and writing skills of their students" (Ostler, 1987; in Ismail, 2010: 14).

It is, therefore, indispensable first for second and foreign language instructors, especially those involved in the teaching of writing, to develop some familiarity with the cross-culture variation in the use of textual features and organizational patterns. Then, it is their duty to transmit this knowledge to students through classroom implementation.

3.8. Developing Awareness

Contrastive rhetoric research has identified two main ways for achieving rhetorical awareness, explicit classroom instruction and reading. Regarding explicit instruction, Smith (2005) in her empirical study at the University of Arizona found that students can develop some awareness of rhetorical differences between their first and target languages and that they can switch in their use depending on audience and context of writing. According to Smith (2005), her students could achieve awareness through explicit teaching which included student-led discussions contrasting "different stylistic conventions" (p. 98) across

their first and target languages. Through the analysis of L1 and L2 writing of four non-native English students (Chinese and Arabic speakers), Smith (2005) found that they can be made aware of cross-culture rhetorical differences and that this awareness facilitates their L2 composition.

In the same direction goes Mok (1993) arguing that classroom instruction can be particularly useful in raising students' awareness of rhetorical differences, writing contexts as well as audience cultural knowledge, experiences and expectations. Mok (1993) maintains with reference to the Japanese context:

[T]here is a need for the teacher to teach [the Japanese] audience analysis skills and the expectations of the English reader in the pre-writing stage. In an academic context, it is especially important for the teacher to explain explicitly to the students the widely accepted criteria used by academic audiences to evaluate their work. Such essential ingredients of good English expository writing as clarity, significance, support, unity, and conciseness are not necessarily taken for granted by Japanese learners.

(Mok, 1993: 158)

As far as reading is concerned, Leki (1991) suggests that L1 and L2 reading should be done simultaneously so it can offer a model for analysis and comparison. In doing so, students will have the opportunity to discover the rhetorical tendencies of people from different cultural backgrounds in addition to differences in languages' logic and norms of use. Pulverness (2003) suggests literary texts for enhancing both cultural awareness and language awareness. For Saniei (2012), literary texts are effective in developing students' awareness

because they directly represent experiences of cultural engagement and for what they contain of connotation, idioms, style and tone, rhetorical structures, etc.

Conclusion

Writing is a sophisticated activity of communication and a very hard skill to be developed efficiently for both native and non-native speakers. Writing in the foreign language is even harder for the learners whose their first language is rhetorically different compared to the target language because they would not only struggle with the target language criteria of acceptability, but also with the first language negative influence.

Building some awareness of rhetorical differences between students' first and target languages seems to be the best measure for helping them to abandon the first language rhetoric and make the transition to that of the target language. According to Abu Radwan (2012), "awareness of rhetorical patterns...might have some pedagogical value as it might translate into ability to use this knowledge in actual writing situations" (p. 391). Accordingly, the next chapters attempt to put this issue into practice and measure the extent to which awareness-raising would enhance students' written productions.

CHAPTER FOUR**STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE****Students' Awareness about Cross-culture Rhetorical Differences**

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CHAPTER FOUR

STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction

When writing in English, the ESL/EFL students who have not yet developed an efficient understanding of the target language discourse conventions are likely to make recourse to their first language rhetorical traits whether the two languages are similar or different. This tendency might not necessarily lead to problems in achieving correctness as regards grammar and vocabulary. Though, a good deal of students' writing would sound awkward and incoherent from a native perspective, and would contain foreign-sounding structures because "some characteristics of English writing, especially certain rhetorical conventions, may be so different from [the students'] native language..." (Brown, 2001: 303). The present chapter attempts to gauge students' awareness of cross-culture rhetorical differences between their first language (Arabic) and their foreign language (English). It also tries to explore their perceptions about writing and to unveil their strategies when constructing texts in the target language.

4.1. The Pilot Questionnaire

Two months before the main questionnaire was administered to the sample of this study, a pilot questionnaire was answered by forty (40) students chosen randomly from the target population (second-year students from the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1) excluding the study participants. The pilot questionnaire entailed initially forty (40) questions reduced

later on to twenty-nine (29). The analysis of the pilot questionnaire led to the elimination of eleven (11) questions because, regarding the way students answered them, they were considered irrelevant to the aim of the questionnaire. Many other questions were paraphrased and simplified as they were ambiguous for students who misunderstood or confused them. Finally, it has been concluded that the teacher should be present while administering the main questionnaire to explain some of the technical terms related to rhetorics in writing.

4.2. Description of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire involves twenty nine (29) close-ended, open-ended and multiple-choice¹ questions both direct and indirect divided into four sections: general information, the writing skill, rhetorical awareness and further suggestions (see Appendix 1).

Section One: General Information (Q1 to Q3)

The objective of this section is to collect background information about the study participants and make sure that the chosen sample is representative in that it possesses the same characteristics of the population on the one hand. On the other hand, it helps in setting some profile for second-year students at the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1 in terms of gender, years spent in studying English and secondary education background.

¹ For the “*you can tick more than one box*” questions, the total of answers goes beyond 100% (more than 60 students or any other number in case the question narrows down the respondents) because students can choose more than one option.

Section Two: The Writing Skill (Q4 to Q11)

This section aims to explore students' opinions about the sufficiency of the time devoted to the writing course and the adequacy of its content in developing their writing skills. Furthermore, it seeks to know how students perceive effective writing and to put a finger on their common areas of difficulty in the target language writing. Finally, it gives them the chance to be critical about their teachers' practices in the classroom in terms of the frequency of assigning topics, guidance and feedback.

Section Three: Rhetorical Awareness (Q12 to Q28)

This section includes some direct and indirect questions about students' awareness of Arabic-English rhetorical differences. It also entails other questions aiming to uncover students' writing strategies in the two languages and to find out whether or not those strategies are the reason that lead to negative transfer. Besides, it endeavours to get an idea about students' reactions towards difference and difficulty as well as their perceptions about the effects of discourse differences on their target language writing. Furthermore, it attempts to evaluate, through students' answers, the position of rhetoric in the writing course. Finally, it comprises questions about students' awareness of some specific rhetorical elements which are believed to make the most-common areas of difference between Arabic and English and which represent the target of empirical investigation of this research.

Section Four: Further Suggestions (Q29)

This section containing one question is a space for students to give additional comments and/or suggestions related to what has been discussed in the previous sections. It gives them the opportunity to freely discuss any aspect within the framework of the questionnaire in relation to their writing habits, rhetorical strategies and perceptions about writing in general, and Arabic-English discourse differences in particular.

4.3. Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire has been administered to sixty (60) second-year students from the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1 during the academic year 2012/2013. The students who answered the questionnaire are the same students who have been part of the experimental work to be explained in the next chapters. The questionnaire has been administered one day after collecting the pre-test data in order to gauge students' level of awareness at the starting point of the experiment. Students have answered the questionnaire in a classroom with the presence of the researcher who has provided explanations whenever necessary.

4.4. Analysis of the Results

Section One: General Information

Question One:

Please specify your gender

a) Male

b) Female

Options	N	%
a	10	16.67
b	50	83.33
Total	60	100

Table 4.1. Participants' Gender

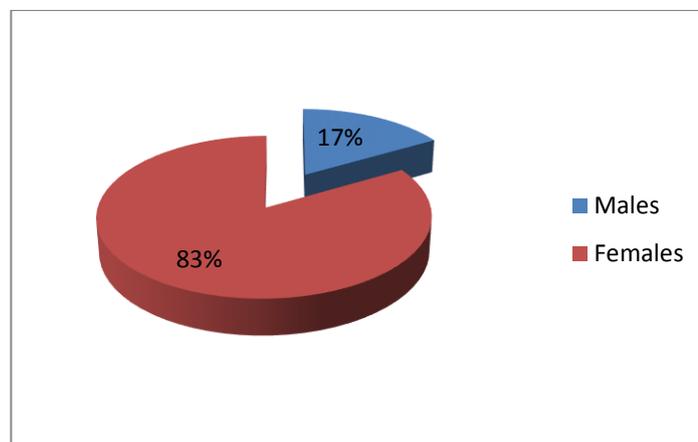


Figure 4.1. Participants' Gender

As represented in Table (4.1), 83.33% of the study participants are females and only 16.67 % are males. This does not implicate by no means that the chosen sample is not representative in that it contains widely more females than males. On the contrary, it is quite representative as it reflects the overwhelming and

increasing number of girls over boys in Algerian universities these last years. In the academic year 2012/2013, among the 818 students enrolled in second-year at the English Department, University of Constantine 1 (target population of this study), 630 are females (77.02%) and 188 (22.98%) are males. For the overall number of students (first, second and third year in addition to first and second year Masters' students), the same Department recorded a total of 3828 enrolled student, 2930 (76.55%) of them are females and 898 (23.45%) are males².

Question Two:

What type of Baccalaureate do you hold?

- a) Languages
- b) Sciences
- c) Letters
- d) Other, please, specify.....

Options	N	%
a	34	56.67
b	14	23.33
c	12	20
Total	60	100

Table 4.2. Type of Baccalaureate Held by the Students

² Official records provided by the person in charge of the Student Affairs Department.

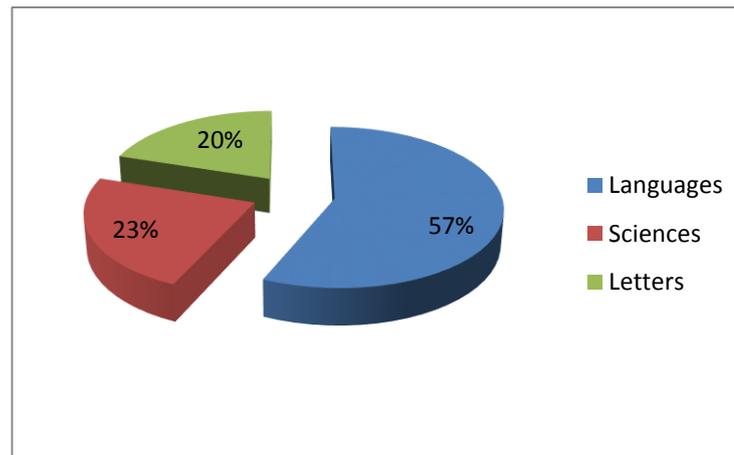


Figure 4.2. Type of Baccalaureate Held by the Students

As regards Baccalaureate streams, the study participants come from three main ones: Languages, Letters and Sciences. More than half of the students come from Languages class (56.67%), followed by Sciences (23.33%) and Letters (20%) classes respectively. This reflects a variety in the sample under investigation on the basis of participants' secondary school background.

It also makes a good sample for rhetorical analysis. 76.67% of the participants come from Languages and Letters classes with a more extensive English course than other streams. The left 23.33% of participants coming from Sciences stream are no less competent because they have also had enough English to choose to major in it at university. Furthermore, classroom observations show that some Science students are equally or even more involved in the English course compared to some Letters or Languages students.

Question Three:

How long have you been studying English? (including primary, secondary and higher education)

Options	N	%
8 years	08	13.33
9 years	43	71.67
10 years	09	15
Total	60	100

Table 4.3. Years of Studying English

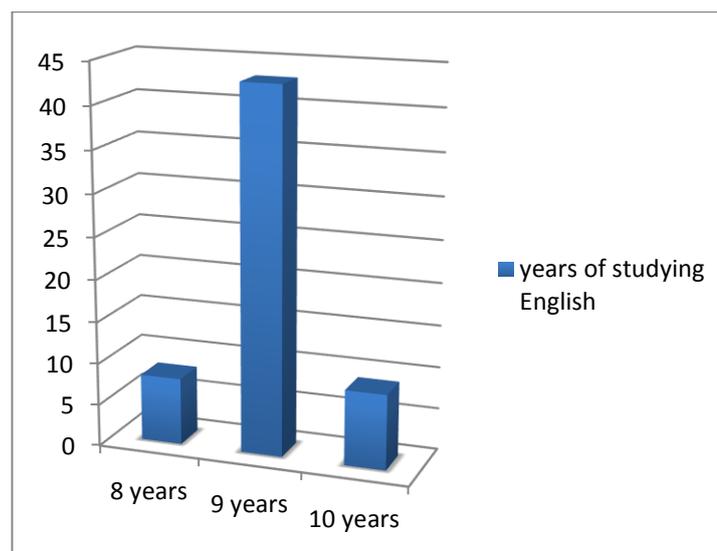


Figure 4.3. Years of Studying English

Students taking part in this research work have been studying English for a period that ranges from eight (8) to ten (10) years. The majority of them (71.67%) have been studying English for nine (9) years, 15% for ten (10) years and 13.33% for eight (8) years. This quite long period in which students have been in contact with the English language in addition to the amount of texts they have been

exposed to, especially in their secondary school coursebooks, allow them to develop some understanding of the English writing system and to answer questions related to their rhetorical choices and writing habits.

Section Two: The Writing Skill

Question Four:

Do you think that three hours a week are enough for improving your writing?

a) Yes

b) No

Options	N	%
a	22	36.67
b	38	63.33
Total	60	100

Table 4.4. Students' Opinions about the Time Allotted for "Written Expression"

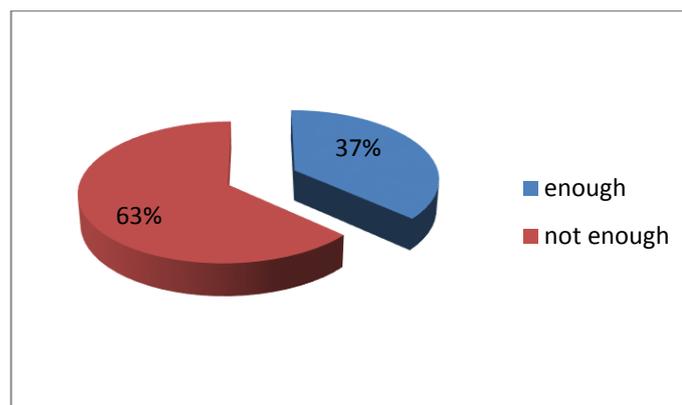


Figure 4.4. Students' Opinions about the Time Allotted for "Written Expression"

Table (4.4) represents students' views about the adequacy of three hours per week devoted to writing (two sessions, an hour and a half for each) in developing their writing. 36.67% of the respondents see that it is enough, while 63.33% claim the opposite.

Question Five:

If "No", please, explain

The explanations of the 38 students who reported that the time devoted to the writing course is not enough for developing their writing are summed up in the following points:

- Writing is an important and a difficult skill to be developed efficiently; therefore, we should have enough practice.
- We have an overloaded syllabus which contains too many theoretical and practical aspects to be covered in one year.
- Some writing techniques and strategies require a lot of time to be explained by the teacher on the cost of others and students' practice as well.
- Besides paragraph/essay writing, it is necessary to perform other writing and reading activities which is not the case because of time boundaries.
- In the process of text production, we need enough time to write at ease and carefully reflect on our writing.
- We want more group-work writing activities which require more time than individual writing activities.

- In the writing class, some reading should take place, and this necessitates more time.

Question Six:

Do you think that the “Written Expression” programme you are studying is enough to improve your level in writing?

- a) Yes
- b) No

Options	N	%
a	25	41.67
b	35	58.33
Total	60	100

Table 4.5. Students' Opinions about the “Written Expression” Programme

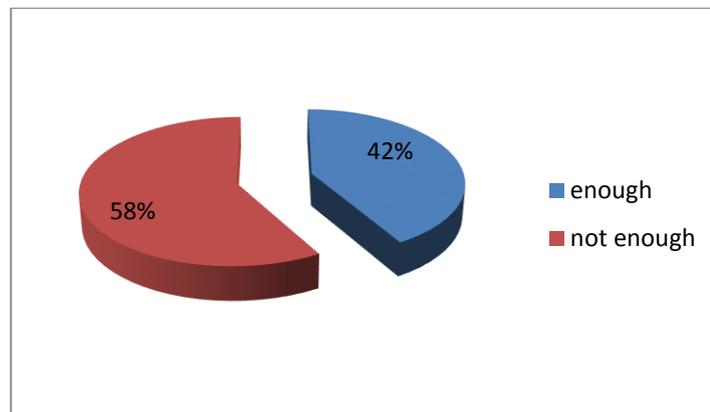


Figure 4.5. Students' Opinions about the “Written Expression” Programme

More than half of the students (58.33%) are not satisfied with the “Written Expression” programme they are studying and this is reason enough for it to be reviewed in terms of contents and teaching approaches as well.

Question Seven:

If “No,” is it because (you can tick more than one box)

- a) It contains many theoretical aspects without enough practice opportunities
- b) It contains too much literature to be dealt with in one year
- c) It involves no sufficient writing strategies
- d) It involves no writing rules
- e) Other, please, specify.....

Options	N	%
a	26	74.28
b	07	20
c	13	37.14
d	04	11.42
e	02	5.71

Table 4.6. Reasons for Students' Dissatisfaction about the “Written Expression”

Programme

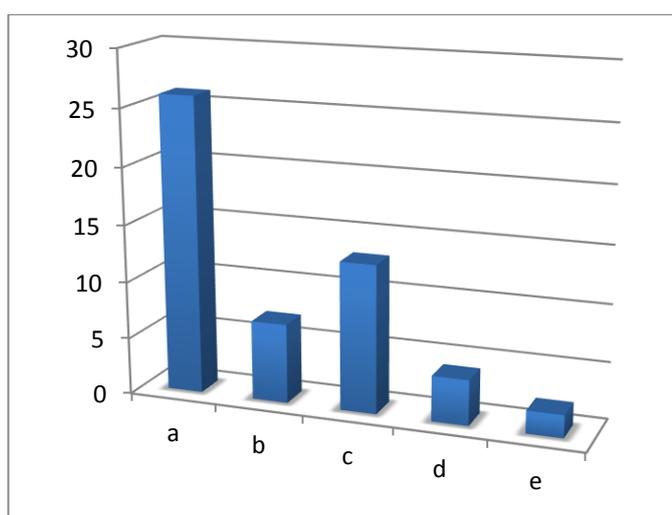


Figure 4.6. Reasons for Students' Dissatisfaction about the “Written Expression”

Programme

The 35 students who notice that the writing syllabus they are studying is not enough to improve their level provide the following reasons for their dissatisfaction. 74.28% report that it contains many theoretical aspects without enough practice opportunities, 37.14% see that it involves no sufficient writing strategies, 20% claim that it contains too much literature to be dealt with in one year, 11.42% maintain that it involves no writing rules and 5.71% provide other reasons as follows:

- We are not given enough methods and techniques to evaluate our writing.
- The problem does not come from the writing syllabus itself; the real deficiency comes for other modules as they do not offer enough writing opportunities to practice adequately what we learn in writing.

Question Eight:

According to you, good writing is (please number the options from 1 to 5)

- a) Accurate grammar
- b) Precise vocabulary
- c) Good ideas
- d) Efficient style and organization
- e) Proper use of writing mechanics

Options	Rank 1		Rank 2		Rank 3		Rank 4		Rank 5	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Grammar	4	6.67	19	31.67	21	35	8	13.33	8	13.33
Vocabulary	9	15	17	28.33	16	26.66	7	11.66	11	18.33
Ideas	31	51.67	7	11.67	8	13.33	11	18.33	3	5
Style and Organization	6	10	11	18.33	7	11.67	16	26.67	20	33.33
Mechanics	10	16.67	6	10	8	13.33	18	30	18	30

Table 4.7. Students' Classification of Writing Elements by Importance

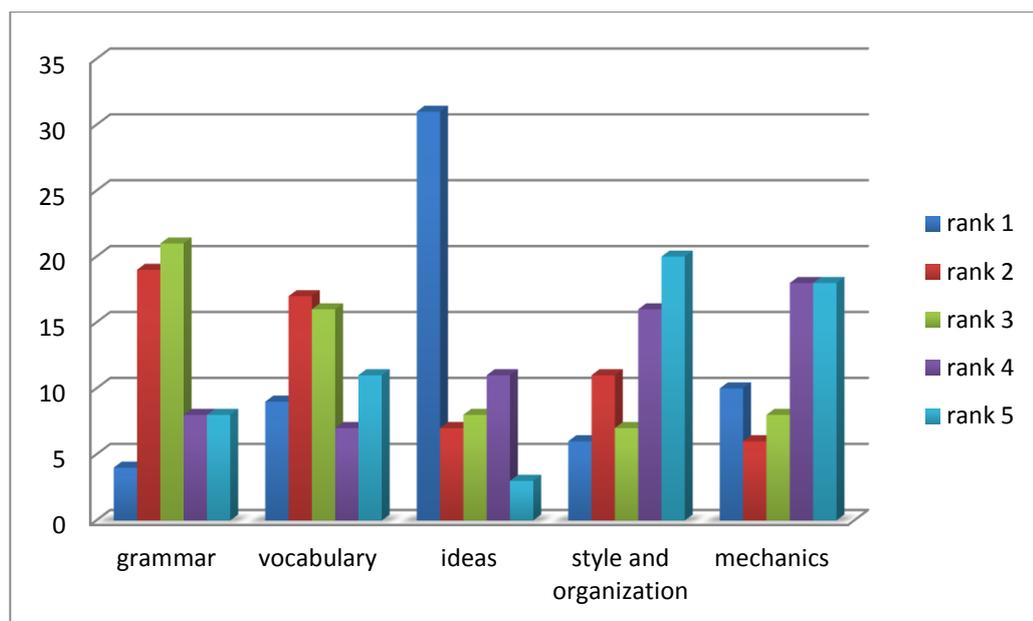


Figure 4.7. Students' Classification of Writing Elements by Importance

Table (4.7) shows that, in rank 1, ideas come first as the most important aspect for students (51.67%), followed by mechanics (16.67%), vocabulary (15%), style and organization (10%) and grammar (6.67%) respectively. In rank 5, on the other hand, style and organization category is considered as the least

important by 33.33% of the students, then mechanics (30%), vocabulary (18.33%), grammar (13.33%) and ideas (5%) respectively.

In order to make a precise and a clearer overall classification of options, the sums of ranks are calculated where “the option with the least sum of the ranks is the most important and so forth” (Clark 1977: 152).

Options	N
Grammar	177
Vocabulary	174
Ideas	128
Style and organization	213
Mechanics	208

Table 4.8. Sum of the Ranks

The sum of ranks displayed in Table (4.8) gives a functional classification of writing aspects by order of importance. For students, the selection of ideas is the most important feature in writing followed by vocabulary, grammar, mechanics and style and organization respectively. Students classify vocabulary and grammar first, after ideas, mainly because they are the most focused on superficial elements of writing by teachers. On the other hand, it is not promising at all that style and organization of ideas are ranked last. It is true that the majority of students see good ideas as the most important aspect in writing; nonetheless, if ideas are not organized in a coherent way and represented in an effective style, they will lose their value and become ambiguous.

On the whole, students' answers to this question demonstrate that they are not aware of the significance of style and organization in achieving effective writing and concentrate most of their efforts on grammar, vocabulary and mechanics. What students are missing here is that even if they employ to a certain extent accurate grammar and appropriate vocabulary, without effective style and organization, they would achieve a poor writing quality and their written outcomes would make no sense for readers.

Question Nine:

How often does your teacher give you writing tasks to do in classroom?

- a) Often
- b) Sometimes
- c) Never

Options	N	%
a	32	53.33
b	27	45
c	01	1.67
Total	60	100

Table 4.9. Frequency of Assignments Given in the Classroom

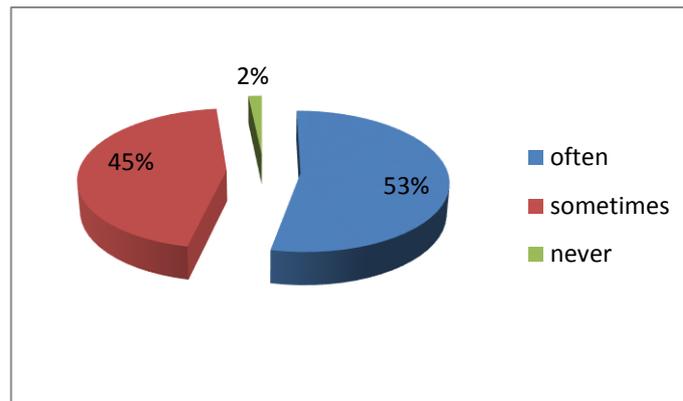


Figure 4.8. Frequency of Assignments Given in the Classroom

As indicated above, 53.33% of the students hold that their teachers often give them writing assignments to do in the classroom, 45% of them claim that they sometimes do and only 1.67% allege that they never do. The remarkable thing about students' answers to this question is that even those who are taught by the same teacher have provided different answers. This means that the sufficiency of writing tasks is relative and differs according to a number of variables such as students' motivation, writing abilities and willingness to write.

Question Ten:

Does he/she help you when you write in classroom?

a) Yes

b) No

Options	N	%
a	52	86.67
b	08	13.33
Total	60	100

Table 4.10. Teachers' Help in the Classroom

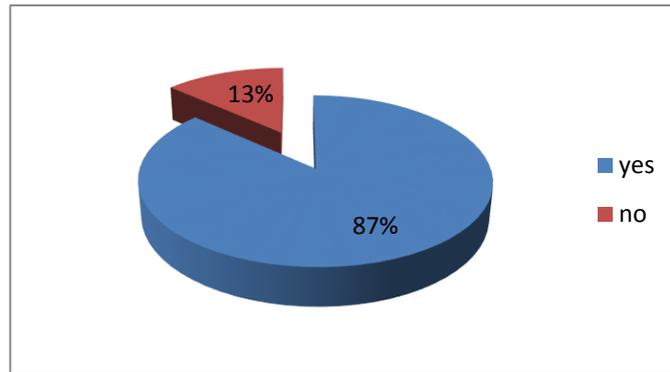


Figure 4.9. Teachers' Help in the Classroom

As demonstrated in Table (4.10), 83.67% of the students confirm that their teachers help them during classroom writing activities. It is in fact something appreciated and indispensable in the process of teaching writing especially for second or foreign language classes. Teachers' assistance and feedback are much needed because they allow students to recognize their mistakes, reflect on their writing and enhance their outcomes.

Question Eleven:

If "Yes", does he/she help you edit/correct (you can tick more than one box)

- a) Grammar
- b) Vocabulary
- c) Content/ideas
- d) Style and organization
- e) Mechanics and conventions of writing
- f) Other, please, specify.....

Options	N	%
a	30	57.69
b	36	69.23
c	19	36.53
d	23	44.23
e	28	53.48

Table 4.11. Aspects of Teachers' Help in the Classroom

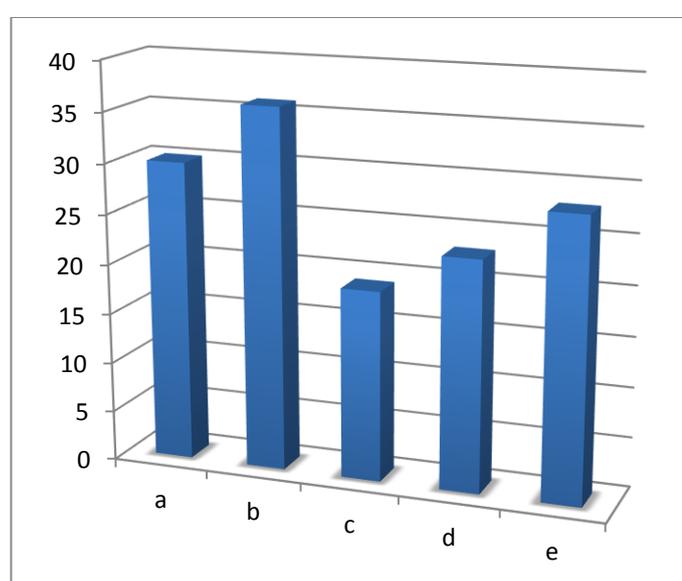


Figure 4.10. Aspects of Teachers' Help in the Classroom

Table (4.11) shows that the majority of writing teachers help their students with all the features related to writing with an advantage in favour of vocabulary (69.23%) and grammar (57.69%). Once again, teachers' help during classroom writing assignments is essential; nevertheless, it is noticed that grammar and vocabulary get the main part of teachers' attention. This tendency is likely to make students believe that writing is primarily grammar and vocabulary and that the other aspects are of less importance.

Question Twelve:

Which aspect constitutes the most crucial problem for you in writing? (you can tick more than one box)

- a) Grammar
- b) Vocabulary
- c) Content/ideas
- d) Style and organization
- e) Mechanics and conventions of writing
- f) Other, please, specify.....

Options	N	%
a	29	48.33
b	41	68.33
c	18	30
d	11	18.33
e	14	23.33

Table 4.12. Students' Classification of Writing Aspects by Difficulty

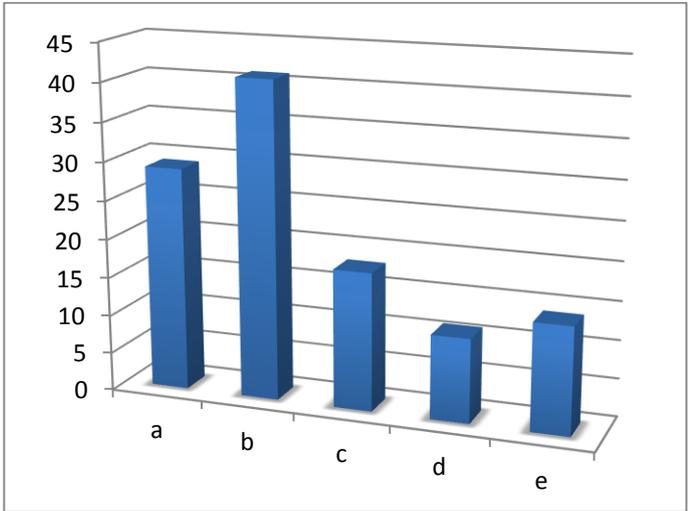


Figure 4.11. Students' Classification of Writing Aspects by Difficulty

Students classify the aspects of writing from the most to the least difficult as follows:

1. Vocabulary (68.33%)
2. Grammar (48.33%)
3. Content/ideas (30%)
4. Mechanics and conventions of writing (23.33%)
5. Style and organization (18.33%)

Students regard vocabulary and grammar as their biggest problem in writing. This is to some extent true taking into account their shortage of vocabulary and how hard they sometimes struggle to find the right words that connote and denote exactly what they intend to them. In addition, there are many grammatical rules they have to learn and practice in order to produce language accurately. Yet, it is irrational to consider style and conventions of writing as easier aspects not playing a key role in writing. The truth is practically the opposite. Developing and efficient target language style and mastering the writing system's conventions are more difficult than learning grammar and vocabulary and require more time and practice.

Students' belief that rhetorical styles and writing conventions are quite simple is due to their relative negligence by writing teachers and teachers of other courses. As more focus is always placed on grammar, vocabulary and mechanics, students are likely to take the matter of style and discourse organization for granted and without adequate instruction, they will not find any other alternative but relying on their first language styles and conventions to write in the target language.

Section Three: Rhetorical Awareness

Question Thirteen:

When you write in English, do you

- a) Find ideas in Arabic and write them in English
- b) Think in English and write in English
- c) Form sentences/expressions in Arabic and translate them into English

Options	N	%
a	37	61.67
b	16	26.67
c	7	11.66
Total	60	100

Table 4.13. Students' Strategies when Writing in English

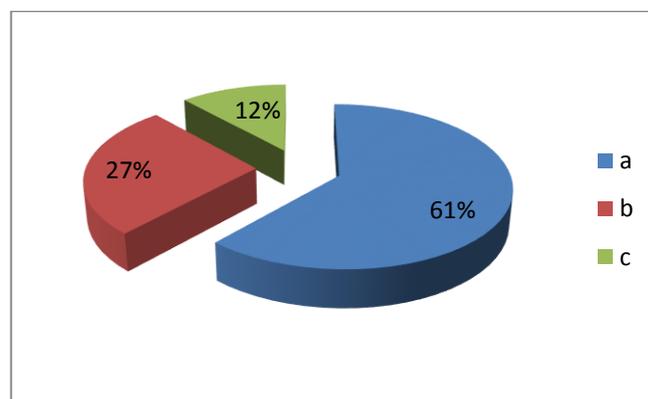


Figure 4.12. Students' Strategies when Writing in English

Table (4.13) gives an idea about students' habits when writing in the target language. The greater number of students (73.33%) sustain that they either think in Arabic and write in English (61.67%) or form expressions in Arabic and then translate them into English (11.66%).

Even for the students who claim that they think in English and write in English (26.67%), it is easier said than done according to the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of linguistic relativity which is basic to the foundation of contrastive rhetoric. The strong version of the hypothesis holds that language controls thought and the weak one holds that language influences thought. Reflecting the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis on the study participants unveils that their thinking patterns and perceptions of the world are mostly shaped or controlled by Arabic. Students' use of English is limited inside the classroom and almost inexistent outside, whereas Arabic is used all the time even in the English classroom. Subsequently, when students transform their ideas the way they think of them into English, the impact of Arabic is going to be evident because it has become a part of their way of thinking.

Question Fourteen:

Do you believe that Arabic writing has the same organizational patterns and conventional norms as English?

- a) Yes
- b) No

Options	N	%
a	05	8.33
b	55	91.67
Total	60	100

Table 4.14. Students' Awareness of the Arabic-English Rhetorical Differences

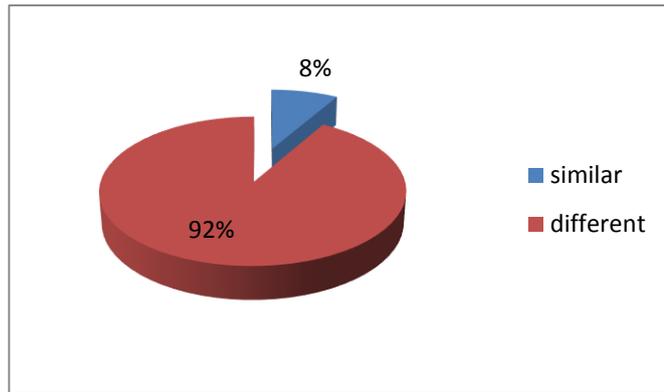


Figure 4.13. Students' Awareness of the Arabic-English Rhetorical Differences

Students' answers to this question come surprisingly promising. 91.67% of the respondents allege to be aware that Arabic and English do not have the same conventional norms and organizational patterns. However, analysing students' responses to the next questions proves that this awareness is not sufficient and, generally speaking, misdirected.

Question Fifteen:

If "No", they differ mainly in: (you can tick more than one box)

- a) Vocabulary
- b) Mechanics of writing
- c) Sentence structure
- d) Discourse structure
- e) Style and organization modes
- f) Other, please, specify.....

Options	N	%
a	21	38.18
b	38	69.09
c	41	74.55
d	21	38.18
e	36	65.45

Table 4.15. Aspects of Difference between Arabic and English

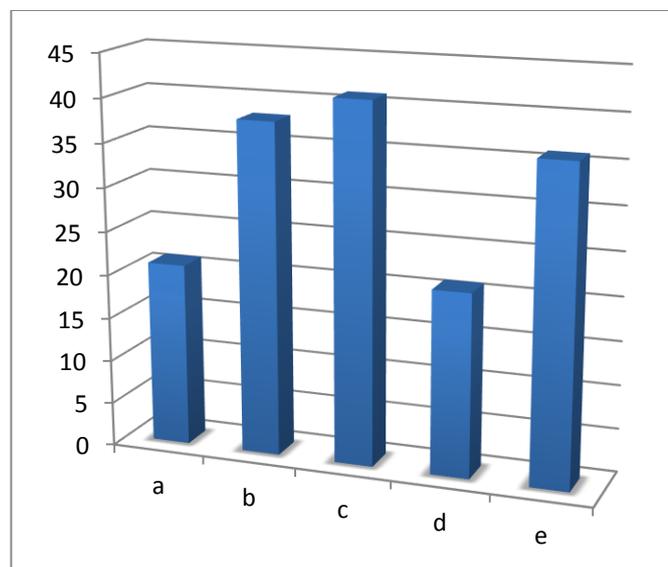


Figure 4.14. Aspects of Difference between Arabic and English

The 55 students who assert that Arabic and English do not have the same rhetorical patterns indicate the aspects of difference in the following order:

1. Sentence structure (74.55%)
2. Mechanics of writing (69.09%)
3. Style and organization modes (65.45%)
4. Vocabulary (38.18%)
5. Discourse structure (38.18%)

For students, Arabic and English differ mainly in terms of sentence structure and mechanics, followed by style and organization modes in the third place. The two languages, on other hand, slightly differ in terms of vocabulary and discourse structure.

Students sort vocabulary and discourse structures last because they are not aware of the many aspects enclosed with them and which are totally different across Arabic and English. Vocabulary, for instance, exceeds words to embody fixed expressions like idioms and proverbs. Discourse structure, on its part, goes beyond text layout to include organization and succession of ideas, order of sentences and paragraphs, strategies of persuasion, coherence creating mechanisms, etc. Students' belief that some rhetorical features are not very different across the two languages permits them to rely on their first language while writing in the target language.

Question Sixteen:

If you have answered “No” to question (14), do you think that this difference would have a negative influence on your English writing?

- a) A lot
- b) A little
- c) Not at all

Options	N	%
a	01	1.81
b	37	67.28
c	17	30.91
Total	55	100

Table 4.16. Students' Beliefs about the Influence of Rhetorical Differences on Target Language Writing

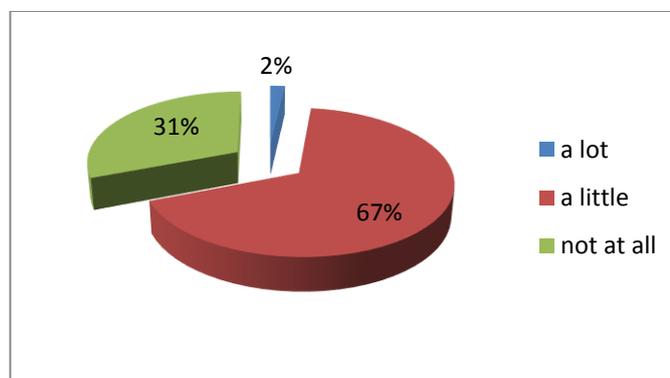


Figure 4.15. Students' Beliefs about the Influence of Rhetorical Differences on Target Language Writing

Out of the 55 students who answered this question (those who said they believe that Arabic and English do not have the same writing conventions in Q14), only one student (1.81%) notices that this difference would have a remarkable negative influence on his/her English writing. 67.28% of the respondents see that the difference would only have a minor influence, whereas 30.91% observe that it would have no influence at all. These results suggest that the study participants are not well-aware of the impact of the first language on learning an additional language in general and on writing in particular. In fact, relying on the first language rhetorical strategies is likely to result in awkward

texts lacking coherence and cohesion and making absolutely no sense from a native perspective regardless to grammatical and lexical accuracy.

Question Seventeen:

Do you consider the Arabic-English differences when you write in English?

- a) Always
- b) Sometimes
- c) Never

Options	N	%
a	12	20
b	38	63.33
c	10	16.67
Total	60	100

Table 4.17. Students' Consideration of Differences when Writing in the Target Language

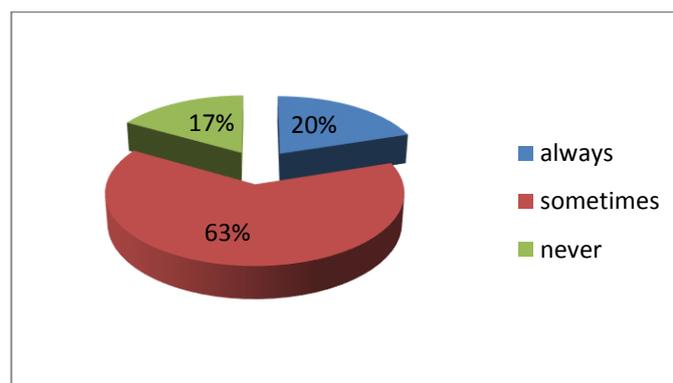


Figure 4.16. Students' Consideration of Differences when Writing in the Target Language

Students' responses to this question support what has been deduced from the previous one (Q16) in that they underestimate the role of Arabic-English discourse differences in their target language writing. Only 20% of the students maintain that they always consider Arabic-English differences when writing in English, 63.33% affirm that they sometimes do and 16.67% state that they never do.

Question Eighteen:

Does your teacher focus on discourse differences between languages during the Written Expression course?

- a) Always
- b) Sometimes
- c) Never

Options	N	%
a	10	16.67
b	21	35
c	29	48.33
Total	60	100

Table 4.18. Teachers' Focus on Discourse Differences during the Writing Course

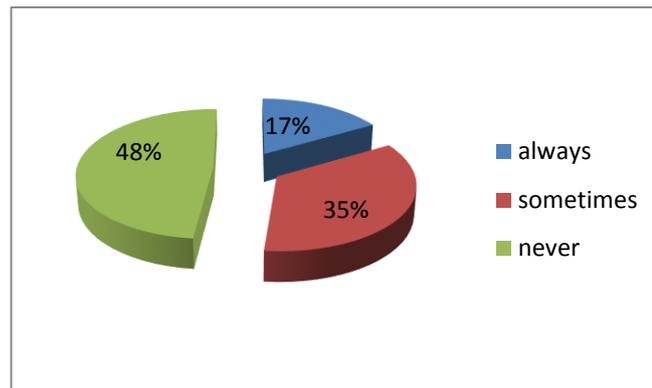


Figure 4.17. Teachers' Focus on Discourse Differences during the Writing Course

After the analysis of this question, it has become clear why students do not give much attention to rhetorics in writing. Students tend to neglect cross-culture rhetorical variations simply because their teachers, in general, do not effectively tackle this conundrum during the writing course.

Question Nineteen:

Outside university, do you have any opportunities to write for native speakers of English?

- a) Yes
- b) No

Options	N	%
a	16	26.67
b	44	73.33
Total	60	100

Table 4.19. Students' Writing Opportunities outside University

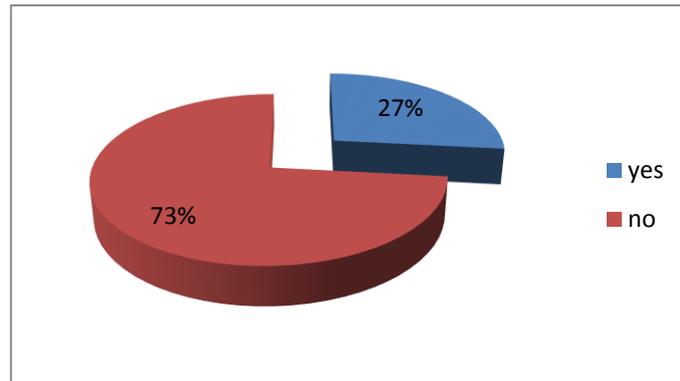


Figure 4.18. Students' Writing Opportunities outside University

One reason that students cannot develop an efficient target language style is their lack of written interaction with native speakers. Interaction helps students to develop some audience awareness and gain an understanding of the target speech community expectations as well as its rhetorical tendencies in different writing situations. The majority of respondents (73.33%) hold that the only kind of academic writing they do is at university which is directed to their teachers, most of the time, for evaluation.

Question Twenty:

If "Yes", do you write for them in the same way you write for an Algerian teacher/classmate?

- a) Yes
- b) No

Options	N	%
a	11	68.75
b	05	31.25
Total	16	100

Table 4.20. Students' Habits when Writing for a Native English Speaker

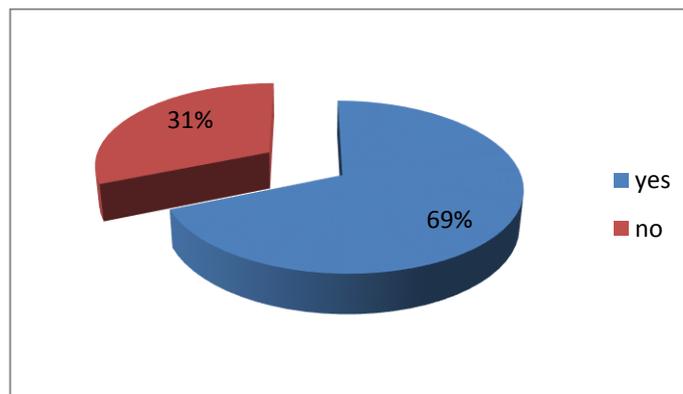


Figure 4.19. Students' Habits when Writing for a Native English Speaker

Out of the sixteen (16) students who maintain that they have opportunities to write for native speakers of English outside university, eleven (68.75%) say that they write for them in the same way they do for Algerian teachers/classmates. This tendency is likely to yield some communication breakdowns. It is a commonly known truth that every language has its own idiosyncratic rhetorical conventions. Consequently, when students write in the target language using their first language traits, they will fall into rhetorical deviations and produce awkward texts.

Question Twenty-one:

If you don't write to native English speakers in the same way you do to Algerian teachers/classmates, please explain how

The five students who claim that they do not write for native speakers in the same way they do for Algerian teachers/classmates hold that they very often use an informal language close to what is known as "*Netspeak*." This kind of language use is even worse than not having the opportunity to communicate with native speakers at all. *Netspeak* is very different from academic writing in almost everything where users in internet communication (chat rooms, social networking, online games, etc.) rely on abbreviations, shortened words, acronyms, and emoticons with no consideration of grammar and other components of academic writing.

Question Twenty-two:

Does connectivity operate in the same way in English and Arabic?

- a) A lot
- b) A little
- c) Not at all

Options	N	%
a	10	16.67
b	40	66.66
c	10	16.67
Total	60	100

Table 4.21. Students' Perceptions about Connectivity across Arabic and English

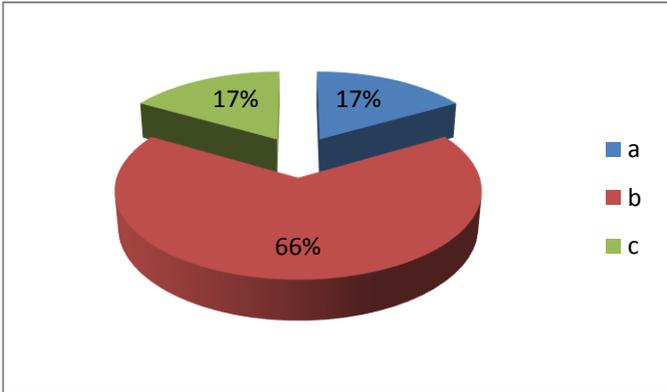


Figure 4.20. Students' Perceptions about Connectivity across Arabic and English

66.66% of the students see that Arabic and English differ slightly in terms of connectivity, 16.67% see that they do not differ at all, whereas 16.67% see they differ a lot. Students' belief that connectivity does not differ a lot across Arabic and English is presumably the main reason that leads them to use it in similar patterns in the two languages. Arabic is characterized by a frequent use of “and”, it relies heavily on explicit connections and favours coordination. When students use these features similarly in their English writing, they will end up with incoherent texts because English uses a variety of connectors, prefers implicit connections and favours subordination.

Question Twenty-three:

Name three of the connectors you use most in English and three in Arabic

English: 1.....2.....3.....

Arabic: 1.....2.....3.....

English			Arabic		
Connector	N	%	Connector	N	%
And	43	71.67	الواو "و" (wa)	51	85
But	32	53.33	لكن (lakin.)	29	48.33
Because	25	41.67	لأن (lĀan~a)	13	21.67
Also	19	31.67	أيضاً (ĀaydAā)	11	18.33
However	11	18.33	مع ذلك (maça đalika)	07	11.67
So	08	13.33	أو (Āaw)	06	10
Other (18)	42		Other (23)	63	

Table 4.22. Most Used Connectors by Students in Arabic and English

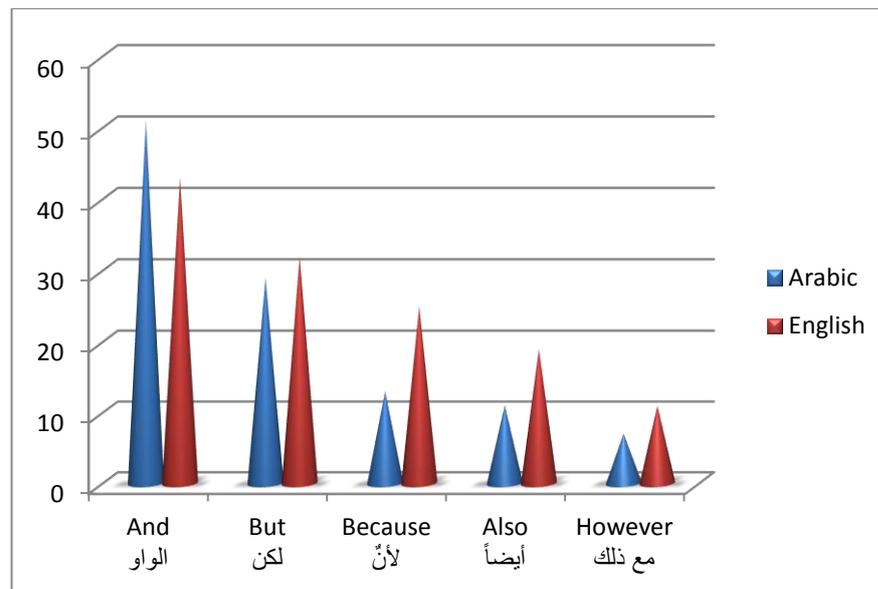


Figure 4.21. Most Used Connectors by Students in Arabic and English

Table (4.22) makes an account of the most used connectors by students in Arabic and English. There are three conclusions to draw from the Table and Figure above:

1. “*And*” is the most used connector by students in Arabic (85%) and English (71.67%).
2. Students’ answers suggest a similarity in terms of their use of connectors in the sense that they assert to use respectively the same connectors in the two languages with close percentages (and= 71.67% "و" = 85%; but= 53.33% لكن = 48.33%; because= 41.67% لأن = 21.67%; also= 31.67% أيضاً = 18.33; however= 18.33% مع ذلك = 11.67%).
3. The two connectors on top of students’ list in Arabic and English are coordinating conjunctions (and, و / but, لكن) which implies that they use more coordination than subordination in their writing.

These results suggest -even before coming to analyze students’ written productions- that their Arabic writing backgrounds influence their English language writing. For instance, the frequent use of ‘*wa*’ i.e., ‘*and*’ at the expense of other joining patterns -as a typical Arabic feature- is expected to exist not only in Arabic writing but also in English. Furthermore, it is also expected that students use more coordination than subordination which is perfectly natural in Arabic but not in English.

Question Twenty-four:

Do you think that the use of punctuation marks is similar in Arabic and English?

- a) Yes
- b) No

Options	N	%
a	32	53.33
b	28	46.67
Total	60	100

Table 4.23. Students' Perceptions about Punctuation across Arabic and English

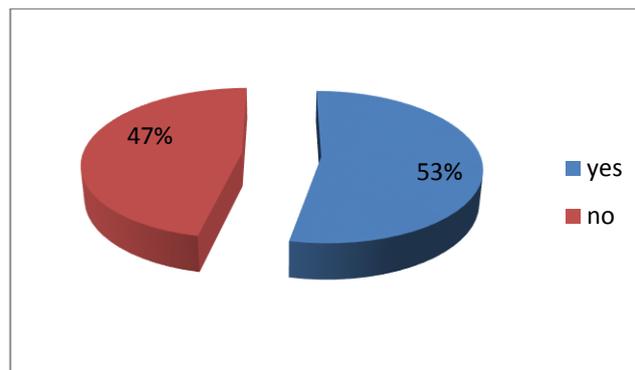


Figure 4.22. Students' Perceptions about Punctuation across Arabic and English

More than half of the students (53.33%) think that Arabic and English punctuation systems work out similarly. Students' belief that punctuation operates in the same way in English and Arabic is entirely mistaken. Punctuation marks in English are governed by strict rules and utilized to achieve certain stylistic, semantic and grammatical functions. In Arabic, on the other hand, they are employed to very flexible rules, disregarded, misused and sometimes used simply as decoration to the text.

Question Twenty-five:

Are there any punctuation marks you never use or rarely use in your English writing?

- a) Yes
- b) No

Options	N	%
a	52	86.67
b	08	13.33
Total	60	100

Table 4.24. Students' Use of Punctuation Marks

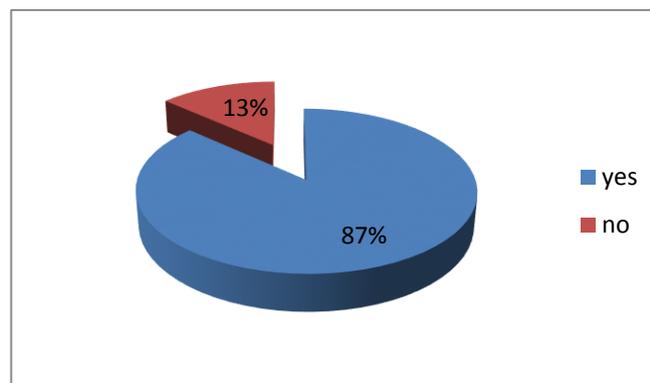


Figure 4.23. Students' Use of Punctuation Marks

Table (4.24) shows that there are certain punctuation marks never used or rarely used by 86.67% of the participants in their English writing. On the one hand, students underestimate the role of punctuation marks and sometimes do not receive sufficient instruction on how to use them adequately. On the other hand, as found by many researchers (cf. Alqinai, 2008; El-Farahaty, 2008; Awad, 2012), there is a number of punctuation marks rarely used in Arabic (which relies

basically on the comma and the period) that is why they are absent in students' English writing.

Question Twenty-six:

If "Yes", please mark them in the list below (you can tick more than one box)

- a) Question mark ?
- b) Exclamation mark !
- c) Ellipses ...
- d) Dash —
- e) Parenthesis ()
- f) Brackets []
- g) Apostrophe '
- h) Hyphen –
- i) Semicolon ;
- j) Other, please, specify.....

Options	N	%
a	02	3.84
b	07	13.46
c	13	25
d	28	53.84
e	05	9.61
f	34	65.38
g	11	21.15
h	23	44.23
i	27	51.92

Table 4.25. Punctuation Marks Never or Rarely Used by Students in English

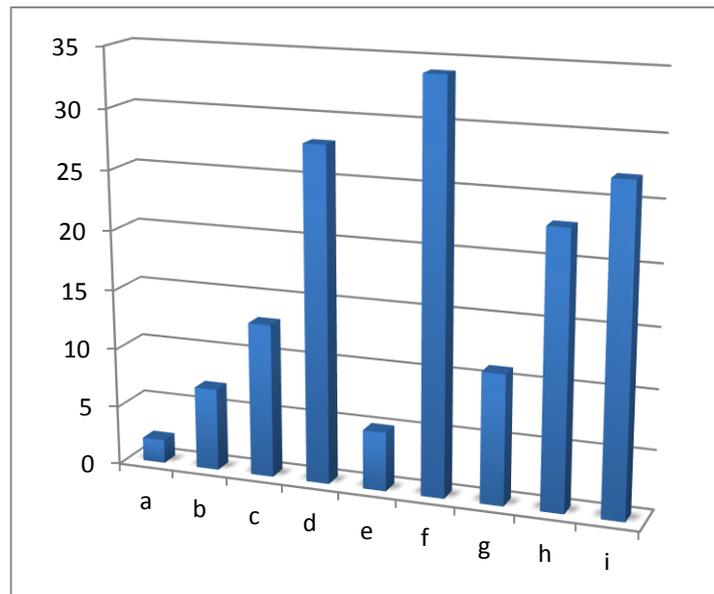


Figure 4.24. Punctuation Marks Never or Rarely Used by Students in English

The brackets is the least used punctuation mark by 65.38% of the students in their English writing followed by the dash (53.84%), the semicolon (51.92%), the hyphen (44.23%), the ellipses (25%), the apostrophe (21.15%), the exclamation mark (13.46%), the parenthesis (9.61%) and the question mark (3.84%) respectively. This negligence of punctuation marks prevails despite their importance in giving meaning to the written words, their role in understanding what one is writing and the fact that some of the marks are integral parts of speech (exclamation mark in expressing interjection, for instance).

Question Twenty-seven:

When writing paragraphs in English, do you

- a) Go straightforward to the point
- b) Give background information to prepare the reader and leave the point for the end
- c) Other, please, specify.....

Options	N	%
a	12	20
b	48	80
Total	60	100

Table 4.26. Students' Strategies in Writing Paragraphs

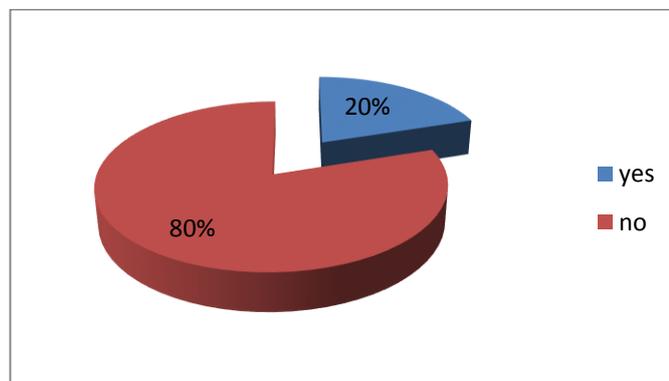


Figure 4.25. Students' Strategies in Writing Paragraphs

The greater number of respondents (80%) indicate that they tend to start by giving background information and leave the point of the paragraph to the end. This is not exactly how the English paragraph is developed. In English, a topic sentence is first given to introduce the overall idea, followed by supporting sentences to give more information about the main idea, and wrapped up with a

concluding sentence to summarize the details that have been presented. Students' strategy in constructing paragraphs is, therefore, closer to what is common in Arabic where the inductive and circular styles are favoured.

Question Twenty-eight:

When you want to use a Proof (citation) in your English writing, do you (you can tick more than one box)

- a) Use verses from the *Qur'an*
- b) Use *Hadith* by the Prophet (PBUH)
- c) Use a Proverb
- d) Use a famous saying
- e) Other, please, specify.....

Options	N	%
a	13	21.67
b	10	16.67
c	44	73.33
d	50	83.33
e (poetry)	01	1.67

Table 4.27. Students' Use of Citation

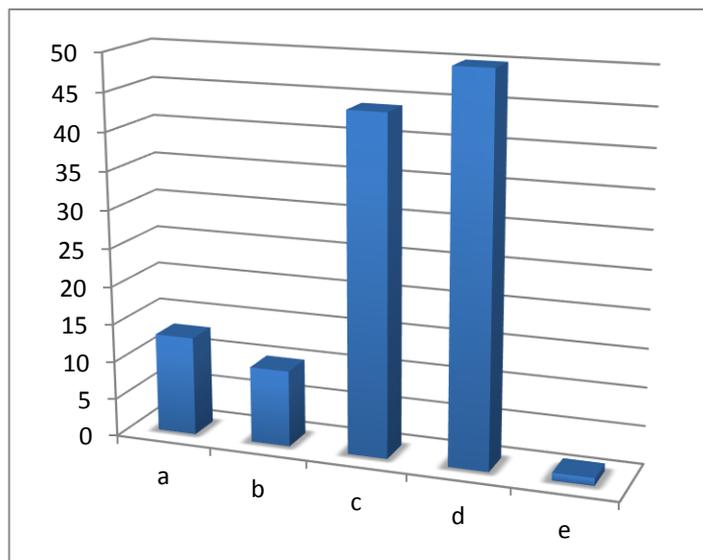


Figure 4.26. Students' Use of Citation

Table (4.27) displays that 21.67% of students use verses from the *Qur'an*, 16.67% use *Hadith* by the Prophet (PBUH) and 1.67% use poetry in English writing in order to clarify their ideas or to reinforce their arguments. More frequently, students use sayings (83.33%) and proverbs (73.33%) as a proof in writing. The issue here is not related to the use of religious and culture-specific expressions in writing. The problem, however, emerges when students do not use authentic-English expressions but rather translate to English those expressions belonging to the Arabic language and the Islamic religion. The results of this tendency are vague combinations of words not conveying the same meaning, beauty and eloquence and most likely misleading the reader who does not share the same cultural and religious backgrounds.

Section Four: Further Suggestions

Question Twenty-nine:

Please, add any comments/suggestions you see relevant to the aim of the questionnaire

Thirty³ students (30) added comments and suggestions to be classified as follows:

1. Comments

1.1. Comments related to the questionnaire

- Eleven students find the questionnaire quite interesting in that it draws their attention to many aspects related to their writing practices. They see that it will help them to develop their writing and will offer their teachers with adequate knowledge concerning their level and needs.
- Two students report that the questions they have answered are pertinent to their real problems and weaknesses in writing.
- Two students comment that the questionnaire is particularly beneficial because it tries to explore the first language influence on target language writing which is something new for them to be introduced to.

³ It is highly appreciated that 30 students provide further suggestions. The reason behind this is that the researcher spent the whole year with them as their writing teacher and was present while administering the questionnaire emphasizing its importance (the participants have been chosen randomly out of the groups taught by the researcher). Furthermore, the students appreciated this topic of first language negative influence as one of their main sources of difficulty in target language writing.

1.2. Comments related to students' writing

- Two students point out that their biggest problems in writing are their shortage of vocabulary and inability to generate ideas, and that teachers of other modules are as responsible as writing teachers for this deficiency.
- One student holds that his/her main difficulty is related to extended writing (paragraph/essay) rather than sentence writing.

2. Suggestions

2.1. Suggestions related to the questionnaire

- One student suggests that the questionnaire has had more open-ended questions and not be limited by multiple choice questions to freely express their opinions.
- One student articulates that it should have given more attention to grammar.
- One student implies that it should have discussed more issues related to writing, not only the first language influence.
- Another student proposes comparing French and English writing as well.

Of course some of the above cited suggestions come from students' unawareness about the aim of the questionnaire and the criteria for designing one, but it is for integrity to mention their thoughts the way they expressed them.

2.2. Suggestions related to students' writing

- Four students emphasize having more practice opportunities as the most effective way to develop their writing.

- One student suggests being allowed more production time in order to write at ease and reflect on what they write.
- One student recommends doing a lot of reading to enhance writing performance and enrich vocabulary background.
- One student proposes the adoption of new teaching methods that rely basically on technology.
- The last one alleges that for students to improve their writing, teachers should motivate them and create competition between them.

4.5. Discussion of the Results

Students' answers to the first section provide satisfactory information about their background in terms of gender, years spent in learning English as well as secondary education stream. The conclusion to draw from this section is that the chosen sample for this study is quite representative in that it reflects the increasing number of girls (83.33%) over boys (16.67%) in the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1 (Q1). In terms of years spent in learning English, they range from eight (8) to ten (10) years divided between middle, secondary school and university where the majority of participants have nine (9) years in total (71.67%). This period of time during which students have been in touch with the English language is fairly sufficient for their responses to be of great value as regards their rhetorical and conventional performance in the writing activity. Finally, the participants represent all the main streams that allow majoring in English at university, namely Languages, Letters and Sciences.

The analysis of section two (the writing skill) unveils significant information about students' perception of the writing course and the time allotted to it (Q4, Q5, Q6 & Q7). 63.33% of the respondents see that three hours a week are not enough for developing their writing while 58.33% are not satisfied with the "Written Expression" programme they are studying. Besides, it allows us to know the most significant and the most difficult aspects for students in writing from their own perspective. They believe that effective writing depend mostly on accurate grammar and effective vocabulary (Q8) and consider them as well the most difficult aspects in writing (Q12).

Section three which is directed to gauging students' awareness about rhetorical differences between Arabic and English in addition to their rhetorical tendencies in target language writing discloses very important findings related to the aims of this study and to the validity of the experimental work. Despite the fact that students demonstrate some awareness of Arabic-English differences, most of this awareness is related to writing at the sentence level. On the other hand, students are not well-aware of discourse differences and rhetorical patterns (Q15, Q22). Furthermore, they are not aware that this difference would have a negative influence on their target language writing (Q16, Q17) which makes them see no harm in making recourse to their first language traits while writing in the target language (Q13, Q23, Q25, Q26, Q27, Q28). Finally, respondents' answers to questions in this section exhibit that writing teachers do not effectively draw their attention to cross-language/culture rhetorical differences (Q18) and focus their help and feedback on vocabulary and grammar. This is believed to be one of two main reasons for students' lack of awareness, the other one is the absence of writing coursebooks and manuals addressing explicitly this conundrum.

Section four which is a free space for students to add any comments or suggestions related to the aim of the questionnaire shows that they appreciate a lot this kind of questionnaires, especially because it targets a new topic for them manifested in the first language influence on the target language writing. Furthermore, this section gives a clear idea about how students perceive writing, their areas of difficulty and the measures that need to be taken for them to achieve better writing performance.

Conclusion

All in all, the analysis of the students' questionnaire reveals that they give more importance in writing to grammar and vocabulary over style, organization and rhetorics. Furthermore, it becomes clear that students lack the necessary awareness of Arabic-English rhetorical differences mainly because their teachers do not highlight this issue in the classroom. Therefore, results obtained from the analysis of the questionnaire go in the same direction of the research assumption in that students are not well-aware of the rhetorical differences between the first and target languages, and that this lack of awareness leads them to make recourse to the first language rhetorical traits. Besides, results give a solid starting point to the practical work which is based on raising students' awareness for better rhetorical performance.

CHAPTER FIVE**EXPERIMENT IMPLEMENTATION**

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CHAPTER FIVE

EXPERIMENT IMPLEMENTATION

Introduction

This chapter comprises the description of the quasi-experimental research design, its implementation and the different procedures to test the research hypotheses. It introduces and analyzes the research situation, population, data collection process, instruction, target of investigation as well as the different steps of the present inquiry.

5.1. The Research Design

The investigation carried out in this research work is based on a two-way comparison of 180 compositions written by students. Students' compositions make three groups depending on the language of writing and the experimental phase with 60 compositions each:

- The first group comprises English compositions written before the treatment,
- The second group is composed of Arabic compositions written before the treatment, and finally
- The third group consists of English compositions written after the treatment.

The first comparison is made between essays written by students in English and Arabic in the pre-test to determine whether their TL writing attains the criteria of acceptability of the English style or it remains indistinguishable from their L1 Arabic writing. The second comparison is made between English texts written in the pre-test and those written in the post-test to assess the effectiveness of awareness-raising in helping students enhance their rhetorical performance.

L1/L2 Comparison

Comparing students' L1 writing to their L2 writing is a commonly used method in contrastive rhetoric investigations that has been proved to be efficient in identifying the first language influence on target language composition (cf. Smith, 2005; Ismail, 2010; Stapa & Irtaimeh, 2012). For Connor and Moreno (2005), this kind of analysis does not give a clear idea about the distinguished rhetorical features of each language; nevertheless, it is helpful in identifying where the first language rhetorical conventions have been transferred or translated into the target language texts. It is particularly useful for the present research as it is the best method to investigate how frequently students rely on Arabic rhetoric to write in English.

Pre-test/Post-test Comparison

The second comparison is made between students' English texts written before the treatment and those written after the treatment. This allows for gauging their level of progress in the use rhetorical devices and conventional norms as a result of awareness-raising during the period of the treatment. It helps to determine whether students are capable of adopting successfully the target

language conventions and whether awareness-raising is an effective way to achieve this endeavour.

5.2. Participants

Sixty (60) second-year students chosen randomly from the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1 took part in this study. Each student had to perform three writing tasks (the total number of essays analyzed is 180) and answer the questionnaire. The quasi-experimental investigation did not take place until after reinforcing students' basic writing skills studied in the first-year¹, introducing to them the concept of 'essay'², and providing them with ample opportunities of practice and feedback during the first semester of the second-year.

At the beginning of the second semester of the academic year 2012/2013, students performed the first two writing tasks (Arabic and English essays) to serve as a tool for rhetorical comparison and as a pre-test for the quasi-experimental investigation. In the following session, students answered the questionnaire to gauge their level of awareness before beginning formal instruction. At the end of the semester, they wrote their final assignment for post-test analysis.

The reason behind choosing second-year students as the population under examination in this study is because they start producing extended pieces of writing in this year, and this makes it possible to investigate beyond-sentence

¹ In the first-year writing programme, students deal with sentence structure, writing mechanics, paragraph structure, and the different types of paragraph development.

² The second-year writing programme is devoted to essay writing, basically the expository essay with different types of development.

features. Furthermore; if it is necessary to address the first language influence, it should be done at an early stage of students' learning how to write since they have many things to develop in their writing and the influence of the first language should be the last thing they need to worry about. Finally, students in their third-year will have to choose one of three options³ within their major. During this year, the focus of the writing course and its content vary from one option to the other. Therefore, it seems more suitable to deal with second-year students throughout their general course of writing where the findings would be more generalizable.

5.3. Target of Investigation

The rhetorical aspects chosen for this research analysis are selected from a broader list identified in the literature as the most common rhetorical differences between Arabic and English. Chapter two has discussed a number of these differences whereas the aspects to be investigated in this work have been narrowed down to eight (8) features. The selected features are believed to incorporate the most feasible elements for empirical investigation, the most noticed in students' writing and those that reflect different levels: conventional, stylistic and cultural.

³ The Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1 offers three options for third-year students to acquire their BA in one, and after that for the Master and the Doctorate degrees. The three options are: Language Sciences, Applied Language Studies and British and American Studies. For the writing course, students of the three options spend the whole year mainly with the argumentative essay. However, each option adapts writing according to its specialism. For instance, in British and American Studies, there is a tendency towards literary writing; in Applied Language Studies, there is a tendency towards scientific writing, etc.

The Use of “and”

The coordinating conjunction ‘*wa*’ is the most used connector in Arabic which is well-matched with the English connector ‘*and*’. According to Qaddumi (1995), “the *wa* is the most common particle used to join words, phrases, sentences and even paragraphs without altering the meaning or the beauty of the Arabic text” (p. 186). Conversely, English relies on a variety of markers to link the different parts of speech and to make the transition between ideas.

The Overall Use of Connectors

According to Shaheen (1991: 88), coherence in English is “maintained by means of the logical relations which bind sentences [together]” whereas in Arabic, each sentence has to be linked to the following and the preceding one by means of explicit markers. Thus, Arabic relies heavily on explicit connectors while English favours implicit logical relations.

Coordination vs. Subordination

Arabic writers have a preference for coordination over subordination which is quite the opposite for native-English writers. Abu Radwan (2012) stresses that “while Arabic is predominantly additive, English is basically a subordinative language” (p. 374). Similarly, Koch (1987) holds that “Arabic authors use a great deal of coordination, and very little of the subordination which is so highly valued in English...writing” (p. 85).

Repetition

Even though repetition is a cohesive device in both languages, Arabic recognizes more instances of repetition than English. Apart from the four types identified by Halliday and Hassan (1976), namely same word repetition, synonym, general word or superordinate; Arabic entails more types of repetition⁴ such as lexical-pattern repetition that could be:

1. Using words that are identical or that have similar morphological patterns:

- الظواهر و الحوادث
- AlĎawaAhir. wa AlHawaAdiΘ.
- Phenomena and events

2. Making a combination of synonyms and antonyms:

- جئت للتكلم و التحدث معكم
- jiÿ.tu liltakal~umi wa AltaHad~uΘi maçakum.
- I came to speak and converse with you

Collectiveness

Native-English speakers are characterized by a high level of individualism, whereas native-Arabic speakers are distinguished by their high level of collectiveness. In this matter, Feghali (1997) argues that “social life in the Arab region is characterized by ‘situation-centeredness’, in which loyalty to one’s extended family and larger ‘in-group’ takes precedence” as opposed to “U.S.

⁴ Other types of repetition unique to Arabic include: root repetition, suffix repetition and phrase repetition. This study treats only lexical-pattern repetition as the most common type in students’ writing and the most feasible one for statistical measurements.

Americans' self-reliant and 'individual-centered' approach to life" (p. 352). This type of collectiveness is demonstrated in students' writing in the use of pronouns such as "we", "our" and "us" to show their group orientation and unity with their classmates in particular and members of society in general.

Religious and Culture-specific Expressions

The cultural and religious dimensions manifest themselves in Arab-Muslim students' writing through the use of culture-specific expressions (idioms, proverbs, sayings, quotations, etc.) which might be vague when translated into English, especially when read by a non-native-Arabic speaker. Furthermore, Arab students' writing demonstrates a constant reference to God and a frequent use of verses from *Qur'an* and *Prophet* (peace be upon him) sayings (cf. Smith, 2005; Ismail, 2010).

5.4. Instrument and Data Collection

5.4.1. The Pre-test

The participants took the first writing assignment in the English Department in a classroom. They were asked to write a one-page single-spaced essay (an introduction, three developmental paragraphs and a conclusion) so that their writing could be quantitatively compared. The topic selected for the essay is: "*There are different ways of spending leisure time. Develop this idea providing three examples of how you spend your leisure time.*" This topic was chosen because students are supposed to have ideas on, so they would not spend the whole assignment's time generating ideas since more interest is placed on textual features rather than content itself. After an hour break, students wrote another

essay in Arabic on the same topic and in the same conditions. Some students requested to take a look at their rough papers from the first assignment and they were allowed.

After the two writing assignments, students took the rest of the day off. In order not to perform the tasks with boredom and lack of interest, students were notified beforehand that they will not have classes for the rest of the day. However, they were not given details about the nature of the writing assignments; particularly, they were not told that they will write in Arabic.

It is highly unlikely that the short interval between the two writing activities would have undesirable effects on the results of the comparison. First, the focus is not placed on ideas and how participants could remember them due to practice effect; it is rather on the conventional and stylistic aspects of writing. Besides, the English essay is written first. This eliminates any suspicion of transfer since the language source of students' transfer is used next. Finally, we believe it advantageous for this research work that students write the two essays in such a short notice. Regardless to ideas, the short interval will help us to determine whether students will shift the writing conventions and strategies with the shift of the writing language or not.

5.4.2. Instruction

The number of students participating in this study (N=60) made it necessary to divide them into two subgroups for effective instruction and more practice opportunities under the teacher's supervision. Along with the division, every necessary measure was taken so students will receive instruction in the

exact same conditions and avoid any rival hypothesis that could affect one subgroup without the other such as tiredness, loss of focus or interest, etc. Therefore, the timing, the classrooms and even the week days were the same where the two experimental sub-groups exchanged sessions. For example, if subgroup 1 starts the week on Sunday at eight o'clock, subgroup 2 will start the next week on Sunday at eight o'clock and receive the same course that was given to subgroup 1.

The instruction of the treatment entailed the explanation of some English formal rules and stylistic aspects with reference to those of Arabic, followed by activities to reinforce the knowledge gained. Yet, in several occasions, the only thing the instructor needed to do was to start a debate about a certain rhetorical aspect of difference. It was noticed that the students got directly involved in the discussion admitting that some of the textual features they use, indeed, make sense in Arabic but not in English. In general, those lessons and discussions were followed by handouts containing examples of how texts are created in both languages focusing on one rhetorical aspect at a time.

The texts given to students for comparison are written by very famous authors in the two languages. The purpose of this was to show them that the existence of some typical rhetorical features whether in English or Arabic is a sign of authenticity and eloquence, not the opposite. After analyzing texts and having sometimes to count the number of occurrences of certain elements, students were given extracts of rhetorical deviations selected from their pre-test compositions and were asked to correct them through group work and after that through the whole class participation.

Before getting started with instruction, the students were thoroughly enlightened that different languages and cultures have different rhetorical features emphasizing that no rhetoric is superior to the other. Instruction for most of the targeted elements followed the coming steps:

1. Identifying the rhetorical aspect.
2. Explaining how it works in English through formal rules, lessons and examples if necessary.
3. Explaining how it works in Arabic through formal rules, lessons and examples if necessary.
4. Specifying the elements of difference and/or similarity between the two languages for each aspect.
5. Providing students with model texts in the two languages to compare the use and frequency of the specified feature.
6. Providing students with instances of randomly chosen rhetorical deviations from their pre-test compositions and correcting them through group work and whole classroom participation.
7. Giving students two activities: one related to the manipulation of language items (fill in the blanks, linking sentences using the appropriate connector, etc.), the second is a free writing activity where the focus is placed on the learned rhetorical item and how it is appropriately used in English.

Concerning the use of “*and*”, students were first given a grammar lesson on the use of connectors in English⁵. The reason behind this was to explain the different functions of the most common English connective expressions and to show that “*and*” is not always used as “*wa*” in Arabic. Then, students were provided with three paragraphs in English and another three in Arabic to compare the frequency of occurrence and the stylistic use of this connector across the two languages. After that, students performed two activities: first, joining pairs of clauses using the appropriate connector; second, writing a short passage using as many connectors as possible. While students were performing the activities, the teacher was moving around and giving them feedback on their writing, especially on the use of connectors.

In a related matter and as regards the overall use of connectors, students were lectured on how to make the link between sentences and ideas coherently through punctuation marks and transition signals in order to reduce their exaggerating use of explicit discourse markers. First, students were given an overview of the main English punctuation marks and how to use them properly. Second, they were provided with an extended list of transition signals classified according to their grammatical function and meaning with an adequate number of examples. Then, two texts (one in Arabic, the other in English) were suggested for students to compare them in terms of frequency of connective expressions. In practice, students were given an English text without connectors and were asked to make connections between ideas on the bases of what they have learned.

⁵ Lessons, texts and activities are attached in Appendix (4).

Regarding coordination and subordination, students were instructed on the two joining patterns and the different strategies of formulating them. Next, they were shown how the choice of the right pattern allows expressing meaning accurately as intended by the writer emphasizing that subordination is the favoured pattern in English. After that, they were given a set of clauses within their context to be joined using the most appropriate pattern depending on the importance of clauses, and a free writing activity requiring to use more subordination than coordination.

In relation to repetition, students were introduced to the four types of repetition identified by Halliday and Hassan (1976) which are common between Arabic and English with illustrative examples. Furthermore, other types of repetition unique to Arabic were explained with plenty of examples as well. Eventually, students came to realize that the two languages share some sorts of repetition, and that other sorts are unique to Arabic. Besides, they became conscious through practice that using the Arabic patterns of repetition in English will not work and will result in inadequate writing.

For collectiveness and individualism, participants were given extracts from their writing out of context and they were asked to determine to whom some collective expressions refer. Even the students who produced these extracts did not provide a satisfactory clarification. Subsequently, students' use of collective expressions is just a habit they developed in their writing without any grammatical or contextual foundation. After the students' failure in this activity, they were given the whole context and were asked to replace those expressions in order to

make the meaning more precise. This activity made them more careful about the use of expressions such as “we”, “us”, “our” vaguely.

The instruction related to culture-specific expressions was not limited by a given number of sessions; it was rather continuous during the whole treatment period. In the first session of instruction, students were introduced to the most common types of culture-specific fixed expressions. Since then and as an opening of every session, the teacher gave two culture-specific expressions (idioms, proverbs, sayings, quotations, etc.) with their explanation and an example on each. Before explaining them, the teacher asked students each time to try to guess the meaning and find the equivalent in Arabic, if there was any. Students, on the other hand, were supposed to do the same; i.e., provide two expressions with their meaning, examples and equivalents. The result of this warm-up activity that took ten to fifteen minutes at the beginning of each session was four culture-specific expressions at each encounter and over a hundred (100) at the end of the instruction period.

As far as the use of religious expressions (Verses from *Qur'an*, etc.) is concerned, it was explained to students that when this kind of discourse is read by a non-native Arabic speaker who does not share the same beliefs and religious background -especially if poorly translated- would be a little difficult to grasp. On this basis, they were given paragraphs of their own production to replace religious arguments with logical arguments.

The period of instruction took the whole second-semester with a total of twenty-four sessions in two months and a half. Some aspects required more time than others; nevertheless, every aspect was given due importance, time and

practice. For instance, connectivity (the use of “*and*”, the overall use of connectors and coordination vs. subordination) necessitated nine (9) sessions to be explained and practiced efficiently because it entailed more than one grammar lesson and many activities to cover all the aspects. On the other hand, the matter of collectiveness vs. individualism was wrapped up in two (2) sessions because the only thing necessary was to draw students’ attention to this matter and then put it directly into practice. The only criterion that allowed us to move from one aspect to the other was students’ understanding and implementation of the instruction.

In the twenty-first session, students finished their instruction and the three left sessions were used for recapitulation, group work and individual writing activities. They were provided with a checklist containing all the covered aspects and they were aided by the teacher through all the stages of text production.

During the period of instruction, students were progressively getting involved and interested in the content. They admitted that they discovered many new things concerning writing in the two languages and that they became aware of the source of their rhetorical tendencies in target language writing which were unexplainable for them before.

5.4.3. The Post-test

After the period of formal instruction which took a semester (12 weeks with 24 sessions), the study participants took the post-test written assignment in the same exact conditions concerning timing, place and the nature of task performed as in the pre-test. Students wrote another expository essay developed by examples

in a one-page single-spaced essay on the following topic: “*social life is becoming very fragile these days. According to you, what are the essentials of a long-lasting relationship?*”

5.5. Contrastive Rhetoric *Tertium Comparationis*

The concept of *tertium comparationis* is rigorous when it comes to contrastive rhetoric studies and an important one “at all levels of research: in identifying texts for corpora, in selecting textual concepts to be studied in the corpora, and in identifying linguistic features that are used to realize these concepts” (Connor & Moreno, 2005: 154). Based on a study by Ana Moreno in 1998, Connor and Moreno (2005), in a very significant article in the field entitled “*Tertium Comparationis: A vital Component in Contrastive Research Methodology,*” establish six phases as a standard for any contrastive study:

1. Independent description of two parallel comparable corpora of expert L1 texts;
2. Identification of comparable textual concepts (e.g., coherence relations, premise-conclusion);
3. Operationalization of the textual concepts into linguistic features appropriate in each language;
4. Quantitative text analyses;
5. Juxtaposition of the analyzed corpora;

6. Explanation of the similarities and differences using contextual information about the languages and cultures in question (Connor & Moreno, 2005: 155).

What comes next is a wider list of the necessary steps for consisting parallel corpora in contrastive rhetoric studies:

1. Formulating clear hypotheses about the relationship between writing cultures and how textual meanings are expressed.
2. Defining the population of accomplished, or expert, L1 texts that can be considered comparable and specifying the basis of the similarity constraints.
3. Selecting a representative sample of that population in each writing culture compared.
4. Identifying comparable textual units (e.g. moves, such as establishing the territory or creating a niche, discourse functions such as defining or evaluating, pragmatic functions such as requesting or apologizing, or relational functions, i.e. coherence relations, such as cause-effect or claim support).
5. Validating those units of analysis as recognizable functional or pragmatic discursive units by language users in each culture either through literature review or further research (e.g. through interviews with L1 informants). This would allow the researcher to propose these units as language/textual universals, which can be taken as qualitative constants for the two (or more) languages compared, and therefore, allow juxtaposition of comparable rhetorical phenomena.
6. Quantifying the occurrence of these textual universals in each corpus. This may allow the researcher to propose these categories as quantitative constants if they occur with similar frequency in both languages.
7. Devising objective criteria to describe the textual realizations of the universals proposed in the two languages. This phase would imply designing specific criteria that do not privilege one language over the other. In other words, the criteria should not be biased towards any particular descriptive model of any of the languages compared.
8. Applying the devised analytical criteria to the description of the two corpora independently.
9. Juxtaposing the taxonomies.
10. Contrasting the quantitative results for each comparable qualitative category.
11. Interpreting the significance of quantitative similarities and differences by statistical analysis.
12. Drawing conclusions about the relation between writing cultures and how textual meanings are expressed on the basis of the comparative results.

Table 5.1. Steps toward Establishing *Tertium Comparationis* (Connor, 2004: 299)

All the above steps have been followed in gathering texts for rhetorical comparison starting by identifying the population under investigation to the matching of writing genre and topics, settings of the assignment, etc. Furthermore, the rhetorical features for comparison have been specified at the beginning based on a wealth of theoretical and empirical well-known studies in the field that reflect the most common conventional, stylistic and cultural areas of difference between Arabic and English.

5.6. Data Analysis

The paired sample *t*-test is used to look for similarities in the use of each of the rhetorical features in students' Arabic and English pre-test compositions at the level of $p > 0.05$. The *t*-test is also used to analyze the quasi-experimental research data by comparing the calculated *t* for each aspect to the critical value of *t* in order to accept or reject the *null hypothesis*.

Conclusion

In short, the quasi-experimental research design is based on comparing students' Arabic texts to their English texts in order to trace the first language influence on the one hand, and on comparing pre-test texts to those of the post-test to evaluate the role of awareness-raising in enhancing students' rhetorical performance on the other hand. This chapter is a description of the research design and experiment implementation as the second part of the practical work of this study besides the questionnaire. The next chapter is devoted to the analysis of the obtained results and their interpretations.

CHAPTER SIX**DATA ANALYSIS****The Effectiveness of Awareness-raising in Enhancing Target
Language Rhetorical Performance**

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CHAPTER SIX

DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

After coming to the conclusion that students make recourse to their first language traits mainly because they lack the necessary awareness of Arabic-English rhetorical differences and English writing conventions¹, this chapter provides an evaluation of the pre-test and post-test achievements. It starts by discussing students' rhetorical transfer through the comparative analysis of their Arabic and English compositions to measure the effects of first language on target language writing. Then, it examines the effectiveness of awareness-raising in helping students to overcome the first language influence and to enhance their rhetorical performance in the target language.

6.1. The Pre-test

The aim of this first section related to pre-test analysis is twofold. On the one hand, it sets data at the starting point of the treatment to measure students' level of progress through awareness-raising activities. On the other hand, it investigates the extent to which students rely on their Arabic knowledge to write in English and the consequences of this choice.

¹ Results obtained from the analysis of the students' questionnaire (see Chapter 4).

6.1.1. Computation

The frequency of occurrence of the investigated features has been counted in the two languages and submitted to the ‘*p* value’ online calculator. The reason behind this is to check whether there would be a difference in the use of rhetorical features across the two languages at the level of $p \leq 0.05$ or a similarity at the level of $p > 0.05$ ². Each set of data has been submitted to more than one ‘*p* value’ online calculators³ and all of them displayed the same results. The following table represents a sample of data presentation for students’ use of connective expressions:

N	Arabic				English			
	And(1)	And(2)	Other	Total	And(1)	And(2)	Other	Total
1	18	14	9	23	17	17	13	30
2	19	17	4	21	12	12	9	21
3	14	13	5	18	10	9	7	16
4	16	14	9	23	11	10	8	18
5	14	12	16	28	17	16	13	29
6	18	14	9	23	10	10	7	17
7	16	6	6	12	9	9	8	17
8	11	7	12	19	5	5	9	14
9	9	5	6	11	7	7	11	18
10	4	2	14	16	14	14	9	23
11	7	6	12	18	10	10	10	20
12	13	11	4	15	14	14	4	18
13	13	11	6	17	14	14	12	26

² When $p \leq 0.05$, it means that there is a significant difference between the two groups. When $p > 0.05$, it means there is no significant difference between the two groups.

³ <http://www.graphpad.com/quickcalcs/ttest1/>
<http://www.socscistatistics.com/pvalues/tdistribution.aspx>
<http://easycalculation.com/statistics/p-value-t-test.php>
<http://www.danielsoper.com/statcalc3/calc.aspx?id=8>

14	6	6	6	12	10	10	9	19
15	9	8	4	12	12	12	8	20
16	10	7	12	19	9	9	17	26
17	20	15	9	24	19	16	6	22
18	17	13	12	25	8	8	7	15
19	21	15	10	25	14	14	13	27
20	22	18	8	26	12	12	12	24
21	19	16	10	26	16	16	17	33
22	11	8	3	11	11	11	8	19
23	14	8	7	15	13	12	7	19
24	18	16	5	21	7	7	5	12
25	15	13	7	20	9	9	4	13
26	20	19	5	24	13	13	6	19
27	17	11	8	19	13	13	10	23
28	4	4	5	9	7	7	6	13
29	10	8	4	12	13	13	10	23
30	14	14	4	18	9	9	9	18
31	16	15	1	16	11	11	11	22
32	9	5	8	13	7	7	5	12
33	11	9	11	20	13	13	1	14
34	21	17	10	27	10	10	7	17
35	18	13	7	20	12	12	8	20
36	8	7	5	12	11	11	5	16
37	15	13	8	21	18	18	8	26
38	18	18	2	20	5	5	8	13
39	8	8	3	11	13	13	2	15
40	15	13	7	20	12	12	9	21
41	19	13	6	19	16	16	3	19
42	12	6	5	11	6	6	8	14
43	18	13	10	23	6	6	6	12
44	14	12	4	16	14	14	10	24
45	14	14	8	22	8	8	6	14
46	11	9	4	13	12	12	6	18
47	9	7	17	24	5	5	10	15
48	14	10	11	21	6	6	8	14
49	18	15	10	25	11	11	14	25
50	6	4	12	16	7	7	8	15
51	11	4	8	12	7	7	7	14
52	12	8	15	23	8	8	8	16
53	14	14	8	22	11	11	4	15

54	16	14	5	19	12	12	14	26
55	18	14	15	29	14	13	5	18
56	17	16	3	19	14	14	5	19
57	16	13	3	16	11	11	8	19
58	18	15	20	35	8	8	10	18
59	19	18	2	20	6	6	8	14
60	14	13	11	24	11	11	11	22
		59.17%	40.83%	100%		56.37%	43.63%	100%

Table 6.1. Data Presentation for Students' Use of Connectivity in Arabic and English Compositions⁴

The Use of “and”

Concerning the counting procedure for “and” in English compositions and its counterpart “wa” in Arabic compositions, all their occurrences have been taken into consideration at first, regardless to function or place of occurrence. For example, students begin many of their sentences and paragraphs with “and” which might be considered grammatically inappropriate and meaningless in English. Yet, these instances have been part of the counting as this kind of use comes from the influence of Arabic where this phenomenon is perfectly natural.

Assignment	N	Mean	SD
Arabic Compositions	60	14.13	4.44
English Compositions	60	10.83	3.42
$t=5.257, p=0.000$			

Table 6.2. Frequency of Occurrence of “and” in Arabic and English Compositions(1)

⁴ Data presentation tables for the other investigated features are attached in Appendix (3).

When initially counted, the frequency of occurrence of “and”⁵ came significantly higher in Arabic compositions compared to English compositions ($t=5.257, p=0.000$). The reason behind this excessive use in Arabic is that besides using it alone, students tend to precede many other connectors by “and” resulting in expressions such as: “and but; *و لكن* wa lakin.”, “and as; *و كما* wa kamaA”, “and since; *و بما أن* wa bimaA Âan~a”, “and even; *و حتى* wa Hat~ay”, “and if; *و إذا* wa ÄiðaA”, “and because; *و لأن* wa liÂan~a”, “and that is why; *و لذلك* wa liðalika”, etc. This kind of use is also noticed in students’ English compositions but to a very less extent compared to Arabic ones as illustrated through the following examples⁶:

- And since the options are diversified, each one of us has the complete freedom to spend his time the way he likes.

- وبما أن الخيارات متعددة، لكل منا الحرية التامة لقضاء وقته كيفما شاء.

- wa bimaA Âan~a AlxayaAraAt mutaçad~idaħ, likulĩ min~aA AlHur~iyahu Alt~amaħu liqaDA'i waqtihi kayfamA šA'..

- The best way to spend leisure time is reading because it makes the reader dive in the world of knowledge, and that is why each time people read, they would be more curious to look for new things.

- إن أفضل وسيلة لقضاء وقت الفراغ هي المطالعة لأنها تجعل القارئ يغوص في عالم المعرفة،

ولهذا كلما طالع الإنسان، زاد فضولا للبحث عن أشياء جديدة.

⁵ “and” refers to both *and* in English and *wa* in Arabic.

⁶ All examples have been taken from the students’ English texts as the target of investigation of the present study and then translated literally into Arabic. The reason behind this is to show that the specified utterances make more sense in Arabic and that their use in English is due to L1 influence.

- Āin~a Āafdala wasilaḥī liqaDA'i waqti AlfarAγ. hiya AlmuTalaçaḥu liĀan~aha tajçalu AlqaAriÿa yaγwuSu fi çaAlami Almaç.rifaḥi, wa lihaḌA kul~amA TaAlaça AlĀin.sanu, zaAda fuduwlaĀã lilbaHØi çan. ĀašyA'a jadidaḥ.
- And because I like reading books and learning foreign languages, I find myself always looking for new words to learn and enrich my vocabulary.
- ولأنني أحب قراءة الكتب وتعلم اللغات الأجنبية، أجد نفسي دائما أبحث عن كلمات جديدة لأتعلمها و أنثري مفرداتي.
- wa liĀan~ni ĀuHib~u qirA'aḥa Alkutubi wa taçal~uma AlluÿaAti AlĀjnabiy~ati, Ājidu nafsi daAÿimaĀã Āb.HaØu çan kalimaAtī jadidaḥī liĀataçalamahaA wa ĀuØri mufradaAti.
- And as everybody knows, football is the most popular sport in the world.
- وكما يعلم الجميع، كرة القدم هي الرياضة الأكثر شعبية في العالم.
- wa kamaA yaçlamu Aljamiÿu, kuraḥu Alqadami hiya AlriyaADaḥu AlĀak.Øaru šaç.biyahã fi AlçaAlami.

When following Halliday and Hassan's (1976) principle that when two connective expressions are combined, they carry the function of only one (in all cases here, the one coming after “*and*”), we come to the following results:

Assignment	N	Mean	SD
Arabic Compositions	60	11.35	4.26
English Compositions	60	10.70	3.27
$t=1.076, p=0.285$			

Table 6.3. Frequency of Occurrence of “*and*” in Arabic and English Compositions(2)

The *t*-test results shown in Table (6.3) reveal no significant difference between the participants’ performance in the two tasks (Arabic and English compositions) with regard to the frequency of use of functional “*and*” ($t=1.076, p=0.285$). Furthermore; even after eliminating the instances where “*and*” is combined with another connector, its rate of occurrence remains higher than all the other connectors combined together (see Table 6.4).

	Arabic Compositions 60	English Compositions 60
Connectors	Percentage 100%	Percentage 100%
And	59,17%	56,37%
Other Connectors	40,83%	43,63%

Table 6.4. Percentage of Use of “*and*” and Other Connectors in Arabic and English Compositions⁷

⁷ Henceforth, all the calculation procedures involving “*and*” will take into account only the occurrences where this connector has been used on its own, excluding the other cases where it has been combined with another connector.

It is not unusual that “*and*” is used in such a rate in Arabic compositions since it is the most commonly used conjunctive device in the Arabic language. However; for English compositions, this similar use creates peculiarity in writing where “*and*” does not carry the same various functions as in Arabic. The secret behind students’ overuse of “*and*” in their Arabic texts is that it can convey a wide range of relations among ideas. In English, however, a different connector would serve the meaning better (see example 1). Moreover, it is often unnecessarily placed like in the beginning of a new paragraph (see examples 2&3). This finding supports Fareh’s (1998) assertion that “*and*” is sometimes redundant⁸ in Arabic and can be dispensed without affecting the meaning, especially when translating from Arabic to English.

Example1:

- The internet is a good space to get together with my friends and chat with them and (but) this does not prevent me from meeting new ones from different countries.

- تعتبر الانترنت فضاءا جيدا للقاء الأصدقاء و التحدث معهم و (لكن) هذا لا يمنعني من التعرف على آخرين جدد من مختلف البلدان.

- tuç.tabaru AlAin.tarnit faDaA'aAã jayidAã liliqaA'i AlÂSdiqaA'i wa AltaHad~uØi maçahum. wa (lakin.) haðaA laA yamnaçunyi mina Altaçar~ufi çalaý Āxaryina judud. min mux.talafi Albul.daAn..

⁸ Fareh (1998) classifies “*redundance*” as one of the main functions of “*wa*”.

Example2:

- And among the other ways that I prefer to spend my leisure time through is watching scientific programmes.

- و من الطرق الأخرى التي أحب قضاء وقتي بها هي مشاهدة البرامج العلمية.

- wa mina AlTuruqi AlÂuxrayí Al~atiy ÂuHib~u qaDaA'a waqti bihaA hiya mušaAhadaĥu AlbaraAmij. Al çilimiy~aĥ.

Example 3:

- And as a conclusion I can say that some of us do not give time its real value.

- و كخاتمة يمكنني القول أن البعض منا لا يعطي للوقت قيمته الحقيقية.

- wa kaxaAtimaĥ yum.kinuniy Âlqaw.l Âan~a Albaç.Da min~aA laA yuçTiy lilwaqti qimatahu Alhaqiqiy~aĥ.

Eventually, students used “*and*” more than all the other connectors combined, employed it redundantly and attached it to many other connectors. In most cases, these kinds of use worked pretty well for students’ Arabic writing without creating any awkwardness or incoherence. The problem, though, is that students’ habits with regard to the use of “*and*” were similar in English compositions leading to an undesirable impact on writing quality. In other words, students’ tendencies in the use of “*and*” were transferred to their English writing affecting negatively its quality.

In the students' English compositions, twenty four (24) other connective expressions and transition signals are used along with “and” to combine ideas together. Yet, those 24 expressions all together have occurred less than “and”⁹.

	Connector	Total Number of Occurrences	Percentage
1	Because	111	22.33%
2	Also	89	17.91%
3	Or	83	16.70%
4	But	55	11.07%
5	So	41	8.25%
6	That's why ¹⁰	19	3.82%
7	In order to ¹¹	17	3.42%
8	As	16	3.22%
9	However	11	2.21%
10	Besides	10	2.01%
11	Moreover	09	1.81%
12	In addition to	08	1.61%
13	So that	05	1.01%

⁹ The connective expressions found in students' compositions (coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs or transition signals) have been selected according to Oshima and Hogue's (2006) list. This list has been later given to students in detail as a part of the instruction to enlarge their connectivity background (see Appendix 4). From the list provided by Oshima and Hogue (2006), subordinating words such as *whether*, *who*, *which*, *when* have been excluded from the counting simply because they are not conjunctions. Furthermore, paragraph transitions have not been counted since our aim is to investigate the Arabic influence on students' English writing where Arabic is typically known by an overuse of sentence connectors.

¹⁰ This connector does not appear in Oshima and Hogue's (2006) list; nevertheless, we have to mention it because it is used 19 times in students' compositions.

¹¹ In Oshima and Hogue (2006), it is “in order that” but it is used 17 times by students as “in order to”.

14	Therefore	03	0.60%
15	Yet	03	0.60%
16	Either...or	03	0.60%
17	Although	03	0.60%
18	For that	02	0.40%
19	Since	02	0.40%
20	Due to	02	0.40%
21	Furthermore	02	0.40%
22	Consequently	01	0.20%
23	As a result	01	0.20%
24	Though	01	0.20%
		497	100%

Table 6.5. Distribution and Frequency of Connective Expressions other than “*and*”

Table (6.5) displays the distribution and percentage of occurrence of connectors other than “*and*”. *Because, also, or, but* and *so* take the highest frequencies of occurrence with 22.33%, 17.91%, 16.70%, 11.07%, 8.25% respectively. On the other hand, at the bottom of the table, other connective expressions are used even fewer times. In the students’ sixty (60) compositions; *therefore, yet, either...or* and *although* are used three (3) times each. *For that, since, due to* and *furthermore* are used twice each. *Consequently, as a result* and *though* are used only once each.

If their percentages are calculated as regards the overall number of connective expressions (including “*and*”), we get the following: *and*=56,37% / *because*=9.75% / *also*=7.81% / *or*=7.29% / *but*=4.83% / *so*=3.60%. These results give more evidence on the position of “*and*” in our students’ English writing:

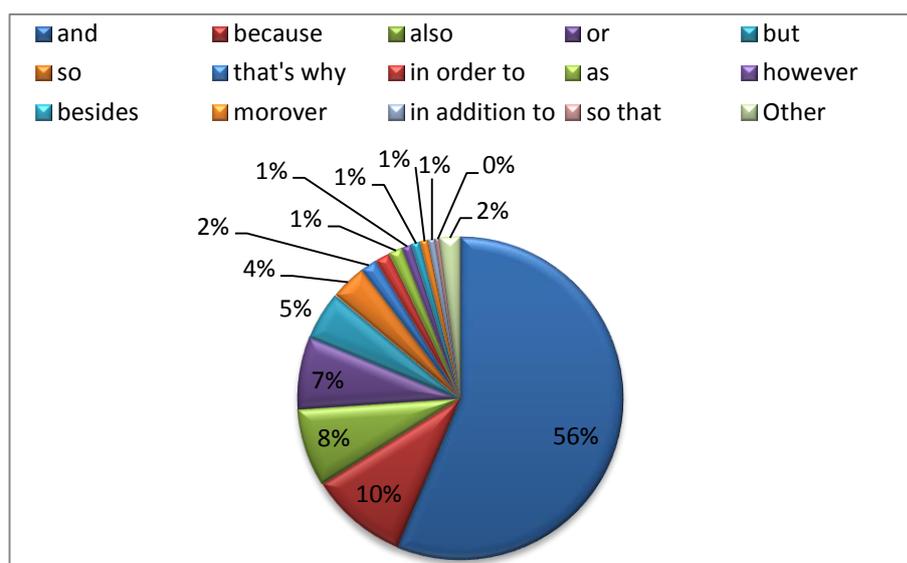


Figure 6.1. Distribution of Connective Expressions¹²

The Overall Use of Connectors¹³

As it is relied on a very famous book in the field: “*Writing academic English*” by Oshima and Hogue (2006) in selecting English connectors and judging their correctness, the same thing is done for Arabic connectors. The very well-known spelling and grammar dictionary: “*muġjam AlĀiġrAb. wa AlĀimla'*.” by Emil Badi' Yakoub (1983) has been chosen to be a reference vis-à-vis the use of Arabic connectivity.

¹² The connective expressions represented together are those with the lowest number of occurrences. Only the sum of them occurs; otherwise, they would not appear at all in the chart (see Table 6.5 for details).

¹³ Throughout the practical part of this thesis, the terms connectors or connective expressions refer to all coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions, conjunctive adverbs or transition signals found in students' writing.

Assignment	N	Mean	SD
Arabic Compositions	60	19.18	5.42
English Compositions	60	18.98	4.88
$t=0.244, p=0.807$			

Table 6.6. Frequency of Occurrence of Connective Expressions in Arabic and English Compositions

As there is a similarity between students' Arabic and English texts in the use of “*and*”, there is also a similarity between them in the overall use of connective expressions. The paired sample *t*-test (Table 6.6) indicates that there is no significant difference in the frequency of use of connective expressions between Arabic and English texts written by the same students ($t=0.244, p=0.807$).

Coordination vs. Subordination

With respect to coordination and subordination, some instances of misuse have been noticed in the students' Arabic and especially English compositions. This misuse is related to punctuation, basically the comma, the semicolon and the full stop. For the comma and the semicolon, they are occasionally omitted or misplaced before and after coordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs. This kind of inadequate use is tolerated and included within the counting because it does not influence the meaning as in example (1). The cases of full stop inconvenient use, on the other hand, are not taken into consideration in the counting. Students have this propensity to separate their main clauses or main clause and subordinate clause with a full stop, and this contradicts

the principle of coordination and subordination in joining two clauses (example 2).

Example1:

- We all have many works to do every day during the week consequently we need to have some rest in weekends.

- لدينا جميعا الكثير من الأعمال لنقوم بها كل يوم خلال الأسبوع بناء على ذلك نحتاج إلى بعض الراحة في عطلة نهاية الأسبوع.

- ladaynaA jamiçaAã Alkaθiyru mina AlaçmaAli linaquwma bihaA kul~a yaw.mĩ xilaAla AlÂusbuwçi binA'ã çalaý ðalika naHtaAju Āilaý baçDi AlraAHahi fi çuT.lati nihaAyañi AlAlÂusbuwç. .

Example2:

- Reading is my second choice for spending my leisure time. Because it helps me discover many things about the world I live in.

- تعتبر القراءة اختياري الثاني لقضاء وقت فراغي. لأنها تساعدني علي اكتشاف أشياء كثيرة عن العالم الذي أعيش فيه.

- tuçtabaru AlqiraA'añu AixtiyaAriy AlθaAni liqaDA'I waçti faraAyi. liĀan~ahaA tusaAçiduniy çalaý Aik.tišaAfi ĀašyaA'a kaθiyrañ çani AlçaAlami Al~ði Āaçiyšu fih. .

Feature	Arabic Compositions 60			English Compositions 60			
	Percentage	Mean	SD	Percentage	Mean	SD	
Coordination	86.01%	15.37	4.79	74.14%	14.72	3.69	$t=0.951$ $p=0.345$
Subordination	13.99%	2.50	2.01	25.86%	5.13	2.73	$t=6.174$ $p=0.000$

Table 6.7. Frequency of Coordination and Subordination in Arabic and English Compositions

It is true that students used coordination similarly in their Arabic and English compositions ($t=0.951$, $p=0.345$) but not subordination ($t=6.174$, $p=0.000$). However, their writing remains closer to the Arabic style and very much influenced by their L1 writing strategy. This influence is reflected in the overwhelming use of coordination over subordination. Even if students used more subordination in their English texts ($Mean = 5.13$) than their Arabic ones ($Mean = 2.50$), they used coordination in a similar rate and also used more coordination than subordination in both languages.

Due to the exaggerating use of coordination, some unusual combinations of sentences have been noticed in students' writing in the two languages. In some instances, students coordinated a long list of clauses to one (example 1). In others, they made series of coordination i.e., two clauses are joined by coordination; another couple of clauses are also joined by coordination and at the same time coordinated to the first set and so on (example 2).

Example1:

- Praying is very necessary in our life because it erases our sins and strengthens our relation with Allah and adds to our good deeds and brings us closer to Heaven and keeps us away from bad deeds.

- إن الصلاة هي جد ضرورية في حياتنا لأنها تمحو ذنوبنا و تقوي صلتنا بالله عز و جل و تزيد في ميزان حسناتنا و تقربنا من الجنة و تبقينا بعيدين عن الأعمال السيئة.

- Āin~a AlSalaAha hiya jidu Ďaruwriyahĩ fi HayaAtinaA liĀan~ahaA tamHuw ğunuwbanaA wa tuqaw~iy SilatanaA biAll~ahi çaz~a wa jal. wa tazidu fiy miyzaAni HasanaAtinaA wa tuqar~ibunaA mina Aljan~ahi wa tubçidunaA çani AlĀaçmaAli Alsay~iyahi.

Example2:

- Practising any kind of sports is effective to fix and ameliorate our mood but for those with cultural tendencies, joining clubs of poetry and writing is an important and a positive step to develop special skills and gain knowledge and get to know other cultures and concerning technology in our days, it invaded all fields and areas whether cultural or entertaining....

- إن ممارسة أي نوع من الرياضة كفيلا بتعديل و تحسين مزاجنا لكن بالنسبة لذوي الميولات الثقافية فالانخراط في النوادي الخاصة بالشعر و الكتابة خطوة مهمة و ايجابية لتنمية المهارات الخاصة و اكتساب المعرفة و التعرف على ثقافات أخرى و فيما يخص التكنولوجيا في عصرنا الحالي فقد غزت جميع المجالات و الميادين منها التثقيفية و الترفيهية....

- Āin~a mumaArasaħa Āay~i naw.çĩ mina AlriyaADahi kafiyluũ bitaç.diyli wa taHsiyni mizaAjinaA lakin. biAlnis.baħi liğawiy AlmuyuwlaAti AlğaqaAfiy~ahi faAlin.xiraATu fi AlnawaAdiy AlxaAS~ahi biAlšič.ri wa AlkitaAbahi xut.wahũ muhim~ahũ wa AijaAbiy~ah litan.miyahi Al

mahaAraAti AlxaAS~aḥi wa Aik.tisaAbi Almaç.rifaḥi wa Alt~açar~ufi
çalaý ŒaqaAfaAt Âux.raý wa fimaA yaxuS~u Altiknuwluwj.ya fi
 çaS.rinaA AlHaAliy faqad. γazat. jamiyça AlmajaAlaAt wa AlmayaAdiyn.
 minhaA AltaŒ.qiyfiy~aḥ wa Altarfihiy~aḥ....

Repetition

Repetition is only investigated in terms of lexical-pattern repetition because it is the most convenient type for empirical investigation and the most noticed in students' Arabic and even English compositions (despite the fact that it is unique to Arabic). This kind of repetition is demonstrated in students' writing through the use of adjectives, adverbs, nouns or verbs. Almost each time students use one of these parts of speech, they follow it by a synonym or a near-synonym, yet adding nothing to the meaning (see the examples below).

Assignment	N	Mean	SD
Arabic Compositions	60	5.30	2.41
English Compositions	60	4.98	2.55
<i>t=0.761, p=0.449</i>			

Table 6.8. Frequency of Occurrence of Lexical-pattern Repetition in Arabic and English Compositions

Table (6.8) shows that the frequency of occurrence of lexical-pattern repetition -as a landmark rhetorical feature of the Arabic rhetoric- is quite high in students' English compositions as well. This feature is used similarly in Arabic and English writing as if it is a part of the English rhetoric ($t=0.761, p=0.449$). The following are examples taken from students' texts:

- Leisure time must be for entertaining and having fun.
- يجب تخصيص وقت الفراغ للتسلية و المتعة .
- yajibu taxSiySu waqti AlfaraAyi lil.tas.liyahi wa Almutçahi.
- Our daily life is full of pressure and stress.
- إن حياتنا اليومية مليئة بالضغط و الإجهاد.
- Âin~a HayaAtanaA Alyaw.miy~aħa maliyyâhũ biAlDay.Ti wa AlÂijhaAd. .

Collectiveness

Concerning collectiveness, the counting includes the subject pronoun (we), the possessive adjective (our) and the object pronoun (us) for English. For Arabic, collectiveness is exhibited in the use of the subject pronoun (نحن, nahnu, we) in addition to ‘nuwn AljamaAçah’ (نون الجماعة).

Assignment	N	Mean	SD
Arabic Compositions	60	3.40	3.52
English Compositions	60	4.20	4.39
$t=1.179, p=0.242$			

Table 6.9. Frequency of Occurrence of Collective Expressions in Arabic and English Compositions

Table (6.9) reveal that there is no significant difference in the use of collective expressions in students’ Arabic and English compositions ($t=1.179, p=0.242$). Despite the fact that students were given a personal topic: “*There are different ways of spending leisure time, develop this idea providing three*

examples of how YOU spend YOUR leisure time;” they relied mostly on collective expressions to speak for themselves. Students’ use of these expressions creates vague sentences not allowing the reader to know for sure to whom the used expressions refer. For instance, by “we” and “our” in “we have a lot of responsibilities to do in our daily life,” the student does not make clear which population he/she means: students, adults, men, women or human beings in general.

- Most of us spend their time doing very important things that define most of the time our future and our life pattern making our daily life a series of duties which expose us to pressure and stress; therefore, we need to do what relieves us.

- يمضي معظمنا أوقاته في القيام بأعمال ذات أهمية كبيرة تحدد في أغلب الأوقات مستقبلنا و نمط معيشتنا مما يجعل حياتنا اليومية سلسلة من الواجبات التي تعرضنا للضغط و التوتر؛ لهذا، نحتاج للقيام بما يجعلنا يرتاح.

- yumDiy muçĎamunaA Âaw.qaAtahu fi AlqiyaAmi biÂaç.maAl. ðaAt Âaham~iyah kabiyrah tuHad~du fi Âÿ.labi AlÂawqaAti mustaq.balanaA wa namaTa maçiyšatinaA mim~aA yajçalu HayaAtanaA Alyaw.miyah sisilah mina AlwaAjibaAt Al~atiy tuçar~iDunaA lilD~ay.Ti wa Altawat~uri; lihaðaA, naHtaAju lil.qiyaAmi bimaA yaj.çalunaA nar.taAHu.

Culture-specific Expressions

Despite the fact that the use of culture-specific expressions is common in both languages, students rely frequently on those belonging to Arabic when writing in English. Consequently, only Arabic-authentic expressions have been part of the counting as originally used in Arabic and as translated into English.

Assignment	N	Mean	SD
Arabic Compositions	60	0.75	0.93
English Compositions	60	0.35	0.80
<i>t=2.836, p=0.006</i>			

Table 6.10. Frequency of Occurrence of Culture-specific Expressions in Arabic and English Compositions

As indicated in Table (6.10), the frequency of use of culture-specific expressions is higher in students' Arabic compositions than their English counterparts ($t=2.836$, $p=0.006$). By conventional criteria, this difference is considered to be statistically significant. Nevertheless, their use in English in the first place is problematic. Students do not employ English-authentic fixed expressions but rather literally translate those belonging to Arabic.

The culture-specific expressions used in students' compositions entail proverbs, sayings, famous quotations and idiomatic expressions. The use of the previously mentioned expressions in students' Arabic writing is successful and adds to the beauty of texts. Besides, it helps a lot in expressing ideas accurately using such widely known and shared expressions. Yet, while making literal translations of them into English writing, even with the most accurate translation,

the result is vague expressions not carrying the same meaning as in Arabic.

Examples of those expressions are as follows:

- "Time is like a sword: if you don't cut it, it cuts you."
- "الوقت كالسيف إن لم تقطعه قطعك."
- "Alwaq.tu kas~ay.fi Āin. lam. taq.Taçhu qaTaçak. ."
- "A nation that reads is a nation that will never get hungry or enslaved."
- "شعب يقرأ، شعب لا يجوع ولا يستعبد."
- "šaç.bũ yaqraĀu, šaç.bũ la yajuwçu wa laA yustaç.bad. ."

Other aspects of culture that could not be quantitatively compared and that do not affect students' rhetorical performance (yet evident in their Arabic and English writing) incorporate culture-related habits, community-bound beliefs and stories from the ancient Arab heritage. Examples of these cultural aspects include visiting the family regularly and how girls should learn to cook in order to be successful housewives; thus, regarding cooking as a very essential requirement for an Arab girl in order to get married:

- As any Algerian girl in my age, I have to prepare myself for marriage by learning how to cook especially traditional meals like "Chakhchoukha".
- ككل فتاة جزائرية في سني، يجب أن أحضر نفسي للزواج بتعلم الطبخ خاصة الأطباق التقليدية مثل الشخشوخة.
- kakul~i fataAhĩ jazaAÿiriy~ah fi sin~iy, yajibu Āan. ĀuHaD~ira naf.siy
lil.zawaAji bitaçal~umi AlTab.xi xaASahã AlĀaTbaAq. Altaq.liydiy~h
miOl Alšax.šuwxaħ.

- From the best stories I like to read are tales from “One Thousand and One Nights” in addition to romantic stories like “qays wa layla.”
- من أفضل القصص التي أحب قراءتها هي حكايات من “ألف ليلة وليلة” بالإضافة إلى قصص رومانسية كـ “قيس وليلى.”
- min. Âaf.Dali AlqiSaSi Al~ati ÂuHibu qiraA'atahaA hiya HikaAyaAt min “Âal.f lay.la wa lay.la” biAlĂiDaAfaĥi Ăilay qiSaSĭ ruwmaAnsiy~aĥ ka “qay.s. wa lay.lay.”

Religious Expressions

In terms of religious expressions, only *Islam*-specific expressions that do not exist in other religions have been taken into consideration in the counting. These *Islam*-specific expressions incorporate, for instance, the concept of monotheism expressed in the word *Allah* which means *the only one God* in addition to other worships and habits that are unique to *Islam* like fasting.

Assignment	N	Mean	SD
Arabic Compositions	60	0.78	1.62
English Compositions	60	0.83	1.79
$t= 0.239, p= 0.811$			

Table 6.11. Frequency of Occurrence of Religious Expressions in Arabic and English Compositions

With regard to the use of religious expressions, Table (6.11) shows that students used the targeted features in a similar pattern ($t=0.239, p=0.811$). This similarity comes from Algerian-Muslim students hanging on their religion and the

fact that many *Islam*-related expressions are known for students in English. The religious expressions used in students' Arabic writing and also translated to their English writing could be categorized as follows:

- Muslims' worshiping habits such as Praying, reciting *Qur'an*, etc.:
- Getting closer to Allah and worshiping are very useful whether in this life or in the Afterlife. I do this in my spare time, I recite Qur'an which gives reassurance and develops knowledge; furthermore, praying and fasting are among the ways that bring me closer to Allah....

- التقرب من الله عز وجل و العبادة مفيد جدا سواء في الدنيا أو الآخرة. أفعل هذا في أوقات فراغي فأقرأ القرآن الذي يبعث الطمأنينة و ينمي المعرفة؛ علاوة على ذلك، فالصلاة و الصوم من بين السبل التي تقربني من الله....

- Altaqar~ubu mina All~ahi çaz~a wa jal~a wa AlçibaAdaĥu mufidũ jidAã sawaA'ũ fiy Aldun.yaA awi AlĀxiraĥ. Âf.çalu haðaA fi ÂawqaAti faraAÿiy faÂaqaAû Alqur.Āna Al~aĥiy yabçaOu ALTumaÂ.niynaĥa wa yunam~iy Almaç.rifaĥa; çilaAwaĥã çalayı ðalika, faALSalaAĥu wa AlSaw.mu min. bay.ni Alsubuli Al~ati tuqar~ibuniy mina All~ah.

- Principles and teachings of *Islam*:
- Visiting relatives is an ethical behaviour recommended by the Prophet (PBUH).

- زيارة الأقارب سلوك أخلاقي أوصى به الرسول صلى الله عليه و سلم.

- ziyaAraĥu AlĀqaArabi suluwkũ ÂaxlaAqiy ÂawSaý bihi Alr~asuwl
Sal~aý All~ahu çalayhi wa sal~am. .

- Verses from *Qur'an* and Prophet's (PBUH) Sayings:
 - "Two blessings a lot of people are deprived from: health and free time."
 - "نِعْمَتَانِ مَغْبُوتُونَ فِيهِمَا كَثِيرٌ مِنَ النَّاسِ: الصِّحَّةُ وَالْفَرَاغُ."
 - "niç.mataAni may.buwnũ fihimaA kaØiyrũ mina Aln~aAsi: AIS~iH~aħu wa AlfaAγ. ."

Though religious expressions are not used very frequently (Arabic compositions, *Mean* = 0.78; English compositions, *Mean* = 0.83), they are used with regularity. In other words, most of the students who targeted a religious aspect or used a religious argument in their English writing, they did the same in their Arabic writing as the following excerpts shall demonstrate:

..... A another example in spending leisure time is praying, and it is the most thing that people do in their life because praying can..... debate your mistake that you have done in your life. Then praying makes you in strange relation with god. After that praying it is working for the other life that we have after death. And finally we can say that praying makes you happy in your life and that's why many people spend their leisure time in praying.....

Paragraph number 4 from student 17 English pre-test composition

..... كَمَا لَمْ يَخْلُصْ لَدَيْنَا الْهَلَاةُ وَالصَّلَاةُ فِي الشَّيْءِ الْجَدِّ حَرُورِي فِي هَذِهِ الْحَيَاةِ لِأَنَّهَا تَعْتَبِرُ عِمَادَ الدِّينِ وَتَمَعُّو الدِّينَ بِهَا وَتَقْوِي صِلَتَنَا بِاللَّهِ عَزَّ وَجَلَّ وَتَقْرِبُنَا إِلَيْهِ وَالصَّلَاةُ تَزِيدُ فِي مِيزَانِ حَسَنَاتِنَا وَتَقْرِبُنَا مِنَ الْجَنَّةِ وَتُبَعِدُنَا عَنِ الْأَعْمَالِ السَّيِّئَةِ وَتَعْتَبِرُ كَعَمَلِ نَقُومِ بِهِ فِي حَيَاتِنَا الدُّنْيَا وَبِنَاءِ آخِرَتِنَا هَذَا مَا يَدْفَعُ الْكَثِيرَ مِنَ الْأَنْتَهَامِ إِلَى الصَّلَاةِ فِي أَوْقَاتِ فُرَاغِهِمْ

Paragraph number 4 from student 17 Arabic pre-test composition

.....second {reading coran is my favorite thing, because
 when I finish reading time passed faster} {things in my head
 became clearer} I feel like {coran really refresh my soul} and
 {make me think positively in serious situations}.....

Paragraph number 3 from student 28 English pre-test composition

ثانياً {قراءة القرآن} ، فقد هذا الر من يجعل وقتي يمر بسرعة {
 وكذلك} {لجعل ذهني ما فيها} من كل الثواب التي كانت تغلوني
 من قبل {و يجعل روعي للجدد} ، كذلك {أفكر بطريقة ايجابية في
 الجد من الأمور الجديدة}

Paragraph number 3 from student 28 Arabic pre-test composition

6.1.2. Overall Analysis

The analysis of students' compositions reveals a relative similarity in the use of the investigated rhetorical items across their first and target languages. For some aspects, no statistically significant difference has been recorded at the level of $p > 0.05$ between Arabic and English, namely the use of "and" ($p=0.285$), the overall use of connective expressions ($p=0.807$), coordination ($p=0.345$), repetition ($p=0.449$), collectiveness ($p=0.242$) and the use of religious expressions ($p=0.811$). For the other aspects, namely the use of subordination ($p=0.000$) and culture-specific expressions ($p=0.006$), there has been a statistical difference between Arabic and English texts.

With regard to subordination, there has been no significant similarity between students' compositions in the two languages because it is typically an English feature. The impact of Arabic, however, is demonstrated in the rate of use of coordination over subordination. Both joining patterns are common in the two languages. Nevertheless, Arabic employs more coordination than subordination, whereas, in English, subordination is more commonly used and more valued. Therefore, students' English writing is influenced by their Arabic convention as they used more coordination than subordination in the two languages (Arabic: coordination=86.01%, subordination=13.99% / English: coordination=74.14%, subordination=25.86%).

The second feature with a statistical difference between students' performance in Arabic and English is culture-specific expressions. It is true that the frequency of occurrence of these items is not similar across the two languages, yet even the minor use is problematic and due to L1 influence. The culture-specific expressions taken into consideration in the counting comprise Arabic-authentic ones. This means that when used in English texts (usually translated literally), they are likely to lose their meaning and probably confuse the reader.

In view of the fact that the study participants wrote in English before writing in Arabic, it is highly unlikely that they transferred the specified rhetorical strategies from their target language to their first language due to the short interval between the assignments and practice effect. The only explanation that makes sense is that students originally relied on their Arabic rhetorical strategies to write in English even before knowing that they have an Arabic essay to write.

In short, all the examined typical features of Arabic discourse have been identified in the students' English writing. As shown through examples, this kind of use, most of the time, does not conform to the English language rhetorical traditions and contradicts its standards of use regardless to grammatical and lexical correctness. For this, it is fair to say that these findings go in the same direction of the first research hypothesis that when students write with no consideration of discourse differences between Arabic and English, they will fall into rhetorical deviation at conventional stylistic and cultural levels.

6.2. The Post-test

Post-test analysis is devoted the examination of students' development as regards their rhetorical and conventional performance due to awareness-raising. In this section, we will look for significant differences in the use of the examined rhetorical features as compared to students' pre-test performance to reject or accept the *null* hypothesis.

Before starting any computational procedure, it is necessary first to decide whether the experiment is for related or unrelated samples (paired or unpaired) and whether it is a one-tailed or a two tailed test¹⁴. Since our experiment entails one group with two assignments (two samples: one before and one after), it means that the *t*-test that is going to be used is for dependent groups. On the other hand, it is a one-tailed test because we predict a certain outcome. In other words, we

¹⁴ The difference between a one-tailed and a two-tailed *t*-test has nothing to do with the computation itself; it is rather related to the interpretation of the obtained *t* value. In a two-tailed test, the obtained *t* value is compared to the critical value of *t* that is associated with the specified degree of freedom. Whereas in a one-tailed test, the obtained *t* is compared to the critical value of *t* divided by 2.

expect that the treatment would probably have a positive impact on students' rhetorical performance.

6.2.1. Computation

The data we have for computation represent the frequency of occurrence of rhetorical features gathered from pre-test and post-test compositions. For Miller (2005), the *t*-test computation for related samples should go through the following general procedures:

1. Calculate the difference, *d*, between each pair of scores: ($X_1 - X_2$). Subtract consistently and be sure to record the minus signs.
2. Calculate the mean difference using:

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d}{N}$$

3. Calculate the standard deviation of the differences using the formula:

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2}{N} - \bar{d}^2}$$

4. Substitute the values of the mean difference (\bar{d}) the standard deviation of the differences (S_d), and the sample size (*N*) in the following formula and calculate *t*:

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d / \sqrt{N-1}}$$

5. Find the critical value of t for the desired level of significance using the t -table. This value will depend on (1) the number of degrees of freedom ($N-1$ in this test) and (2) whether the direction of the difference between the two conditions was predicted before the experiment.
6. If the observed value of t is equal to or greater than the critical value, reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternate hypothesis i.e., conclude that the independent variable has had an effect on behavior (Miller, 2005: 80).

The Use of “and”

I.

	Pre-test	Post-test	Differences ($X_1 - X_2$)	Differences squared
N	X_1	X_2	d	d^2
1	17	9	8	64
2	12	7	5	25
3	9	5	4	16
4	10	7	3	3
5	16	6	10	100
6	10	6	4	16
7	9	3	6	36
8	5	5	0	0
9	7	5	2	4
10	14	5	9	81
11	10	6	4	16
12	14	2	12	144
13	14	6	8	64
14	10	2	8	64
15	12	5	7	49
16	9	4	5	25
17	16	10	6	36
18	8	12	-4	16
19	14	4	10	100

20	12	9	3	9
21	16	5	11	121
22	11	8	3	9
23	12	13	-1	1
24	7	12	-5	25
25	9	8	1	1
26	13	9	4	16
27	13	6	7	49
28	7	6	1	1
29	13	11	2	4
30	9	5	4	16
31	11	3	8	64
32	7	6	1	1
33	13	5	8	64
34	10	8	2	4
35	12	5	7	49
36	11	9	2	4
37	18	10	8	64
38	5	7	-2	4
39	13	12	1	1
40	12	10	2	4
41	16	13	3	9
42	6	11	-5	25
43	6	11	-5	25
44	14	12	2	4
45	8	6	2	4
46	12	3	9	81
47	5	12	-7	49
48	6	9	-3	9
49	11	16	-5	25
50	7	12	-5	25
51	7	11	-4	16
52	8	11	-3	9
53	11	9	2	4
54	12	11	1	1
55	13	8	5	25
56	14	3	11	121
57	11	6	5	25
58	8	5	3	9
59	6	8	-2	4

60	11	8	3	9
			$d=181$	$d^2=1849$

Table 6.12. Data Presentation for the Use of “and”

II. Calculating the mean difference:

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d}{N} = \frac{181}{60} = 3.01$$

III. Calculating the standard deviation:

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2}{N} - \bar{d}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1849}{60} - (3.01)^2} = \sqrt{30,81 - 9,06}$$

$$= 4.66$$

IV. Calculating t :

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d / \sqrt{N-1}} = \frac{3.01}{4.66 / \sqrt{59}} = \frac{3.01 \times 7.68}{4.66} = 4.96$$

V. Using t -table: there is no corresponding t value to 59 degrees of freedom for the 5 per cent significance; there is, however, for 50 and 60. In this case, Dietz and Kalof (2009) recommend “to be cautious and use a t for fewer degrees of freedom than we actually have...” (p. 352). Therefore, we are going to use the value 50 as a degree of freedom. For 50 degrees of freedom, the value of t required for 0.05 level of significance in a one-tailed test is 1.0043 (2.0086 divided by 2).

VI. *Conclusion:* as the obtained value of t is greater than 1.0043, we can conclude that there is a significant difference between students’ performance in the pre-test and the post-test. Therefore, awareness-raising has had a positive influence on students’ writing as regards the use of “and”.

The Overall Use of Connectors

I. Data presentation is attached in Appendix (3)

II. Calculating the mean difference:

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d}{N} = \frac{157}{60} = 2.61$$

III. Calculating the standard deviation:

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2}{N} - \bar{d}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{2503}{60} - (2.61)^2} = \sqrt{41.71 - 6.81}$$

$$= 5.90$$

IV. Calculating t :

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d / \sqrt{N-1}} = \frac{2.61}{5.90 / \sqrt{59}} = \frac{2.61 \times 7.68}{5.90} = 3.39$$

V. *Conclusion*: as the obtained value of t is greater than 1.0043, we can conclude that awareness-raising has had a positive influence on students' writing as regards the overall use of connectors.

Coordination

I. Data presentation is attached in Appendix (3)

II. Calculating the mean difference:

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d}{N} = \frac{191}{60} = 3.18$$

III. Calculating the standard deviation:

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2}{N} - \bar{d}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1725}{60} - (3.18)^2} = \sqrt{28.75 - 10.11}$$

$$= 4.31$$

IV. Calculating t :

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d/\sqrt{N-1}} = \frac{3.18}{4.31/\sqrt{59}} = \frac{3.18 \times 7.68}{4.31} = 5.66$$

V. *Conclusion:* as the obtained value of t is greater than 1.0043, we can conclude that awareness-raising has had a positive influence on students' writing as regards the use of subordination.

Subordination

I. Data presentation is attached in Appendix (3)

II. Calculating the mean difference:

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d}{N} = \frac{-77}{60} = -1.28$$

III. Calculating the standard deviation:

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2}{N} - \bar{d}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{687}{60} - (-1.28)^2} = \sqrt{11.45 - 1.63}$$

$$= 3.13$$

IV. Calculating t :

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d/\sqrt{N-1}} = \frac{-1.28}{3.13/\sqrt{59}} = \frac{-1.28 \times 7.68}{3.13} = -3.14$$

As opposed to the other aspects which are considered as typical Arabic features and their frequency should decrease in students' English texts, subordination was reinforced to increase in their writing as it is the favoured English joining pattern over coordination. Therefore, it is perfectly natural to have a negative t value where Miller states:

The *negative* value of t is of no particular significance. If we had defined the difference as $X_2 - X_1$ instead of $X_1 - X_2$, the t value would have come out positive. The t value is treated as positive when it is compared with the critical value required for significance

(Miller, 2005: 81)

VI. *Conclusion:* as the obtained value of t is greater than 1.0043, we can conclude that awareness-raising has had a positive influence on students' writing as regards the use of subordination.

Repetition

I. Data presentation is attached in Appendix (3)

II. Calculating the mean difference:

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d}{N} = \frac{133}{60} = 2.21$$

III. Calculating the standard deviation:

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2}{N} - \bar{d}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{863}{60} - (2.21)^2} = \sqrt{14.38 - 4.88}$$

$$= 3.08$$

IV. Calculating t :

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d/\sqrt{N-1}} = \frac{2.21}{3.08/\sqrt{59}} = \frac{2.21 \times 7.68}{3.08} = 5.51$$

V. *Conclusion:* as the obtained value of t is greater than 1.0043, we can conclude that awareness-raising has had a positive influence on students' writing as regards repetition.

Collectiveness

I. Data presentation is attached in Appendix (3)

II. Calculating the mean difference:

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d}{N} = \frac{166}{60} = 2.76$$

III. Calculating the standard deviation:

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2}{N} - \bar{d}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1868}{60} - (2.76)^2} = \sqrt{31.13 - 7.61}$$

$$= 4.84$$

IV. Calculating t :

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d/\sqrt{N-1}} = \frac{2.76}{4.84/\sqrt{59}} = \frac{2.76 \times 7.68}{4.84} = 4.37$$

V. *Conclusion:* as the obtained value of t is greater than 1.0043, we can conclude that awareness-raising has had a positive influence on students' writing as regards collectiveness.

Culture-specific Expressions

I. Data presentation is attached in Appendix (3)

II. Calculating the mean difference:

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d}{N} = \frac{13}{60} = 0.21$$

III. Calculating the standard deviation:

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2}{N} - \bar{d}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{51}{60} - (0.21)^2} = \sqrt{0.85 - 0.04}$$

$$= 0.9$$

IV. Calculating t :

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d / \sqrt{N-1}} = \frac{0.21}{0.9 / \sqrt{59}} = \frac{0.21 \times 7.68}{0.9} = 1.79$$

V. *Conclusion:* as the obtained value of t is greater than 1.0043, we can conclude that awareness-raising has had a positive influence on students' writing as regards the use of culture-specific expressions.

Religious Expressions

I. Data presentation is attached in Appendix (3)

II. Calculating the mean difference:

$$\bar{d} = \frac{\sum d}{N} = \frac{38}{60} = 0.63$$

III. Calculating the standard deviation:

$$S_d = \sqrt{\frac{\sum d^2}{N} - \bar{d}^2} = \sqrt{\frac{242}{60} - (0.63)^2} = \sqrt{4.03 - 0.39}$$

$$= 1.90$$

IV. Calculating t :

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\bar{d}}{s_d/\sqrt{N-1}} = \frac{0.63}{1.90/\sqrt{59}} = \frac{0.63 \times 7.68}{1.90} = 2.54$$

V. *Conclusion*: as the obtained value of t is greater than 1.0043, we can conclude that awareness-raising has had a positive influence on students' writing as regards the use of religious expressions.

The following table summarizes the results obtained for all the investigated aspects:

Aspect	Obtained t	Alpha	Critical value of t
The use of “and”	4.96	0.05	1.0043
The Overall use of connectors	3.39		
Coordination	5.66		
Subordination	3.14		
Repetition	5.51		
Collectiveness	4.37		
Culture-specific expressions	1.79		
Religious expressions	2.54		

Table 6.13. Summary of Findings

6.2.2. Overall Analysis

The analysis of students' post-test compositions unveils a significant decrease in the occurrence of Arabic rhetorical features in their English writing as compared to the pre-test. Furthermore, some other features of the English rhetoric have increased over those of Arabic (for example, coordination vs. subordination). These findings show that students are abandoning their first language rhetoric for that of the target language. Subsequently, their overall rhetorical performance would be enhanced.

Finally, as the obtained value of t is higher than the critical value for all the investigated features (Table 6.12), it can be concluded that awareness-raising has had a positive impact on students' achievement as regards their use of rhetorical strategies. Therefore, we reject the *null* hypothesis that the difference is due to chance and accept the alternate hypothesis that the difference between students' performance before and after the treatment is caused by the independent variable; i.e., raising students' awareness of rhetorical differences between their first and target languages for better rhetorical performance.

Conclusion

The comparison of students' Arabic and English compositions in the pre-test discloses that their Arabic rhetorical features are evident in their English writing resulting in awkwardness and incoherence. This finding corroborates the first research hypothesis that if students write with no consideration of discourse differences between Arabic and English, they will fall into rhetorical deviation at conventional stylistic and cultural levels. In the second section related to the post-

test analysis, it has become clear that the occurrence of Arabic rhetoric has significantly decreased in students' English writing. Therefore, the second research hypothesis that if students are made aware of rhetorical differences, their writing performance would be enhanced is confirmed as well.

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CHAPTER SEVEN

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

Results obtained from the analysis of the students' questionnaire and the multiple written assignments unveil four main findings. First, students lack the necessary awareness of Arabic-English rhetorical differences. Second, this lack of awareness leads them to rely on the first language traits to write in the target language without any restriction. Third, when doing so, students will deviate from the target language conventions of use. Finally, awareness-raising proves to make an effective course of action for diminishing the first language influence and aiding students to achieve more effective writing. This chapter attempts to provide some pedagogical implications and recommendations on the role of contrastive rhetoric and its contribution to developing students' writing. It also presents some suggestions for further research actions and projects.

7.1. Contrastive Rhetoric

Through almost half a century of development, contrastive rhetoric has become a very influential formal discipline in the area of foreign language writing with well-established research methods and theories. After Kaplan's (1966) original investigation of paragraph development in five languages, a wealth of research has been carried out in the field exploring other rhetorical features of different language, writing genres and contexts. Therefore, the literature in the realm of contrastive rhetoric is very rich and ready to be explored by teachers

along with knowledge derived from other neighboring disciplines, primarily discourse analysis.

Teachers of foreign language writing are not supposed to conduct contrastive rhetoric studies of their own. They are rather asked to formulate an idea about the most discussed rhetorical differences between their students' first and target languages; then, they should identify the most recurrent L1 features in TL writing. It is only through this that teachers can put a finger on the major aspects of negative transfer for a particular group of students in order to devote them a part of the writing course.

7.2. Awareness-raising

When students lack a clear understanding of the target language discourse functions as well as the rhetorical and cultural tendencies bound-up with that discourse, they are likely to transfer their own native patterns into target language writing. This kind of transfer results in awkwardness and stylistic deviation. Yet, this does not necessarily reflect a student's low intelligence or faulty logic; it is rather a natural phenomenon for anybody writing in a second or a foreign language. Therefore, composition teachers should consider their job as more than the explanation of grammar rules, mechanics and writing conventions. They should sensitize students to get rid of their native rhetoric and adopt the target language rhetoric which could be developed through intensive reading and comparative studies in contrastive rhetoric.

As dirt is defined by *Lord Palmerston* as matter in the wrong place¹, so is the use of alien rhetoric. It can sully a nice piece of writing. Students should first understand that their Arabic rhetoric is not inferior to that of English, but the use of L1 rhetoric in TL writing is not appreciated and affects its quality. Consequently, raising students' awareness of cross-culture rhetorical differences should start by teaching them to appreciate their native rhetoric. The advantage of doing so through contrastive rhetoric, argues Mok (1993), is that it helps students and even teachers to realize that they come from different rhetorical traditions which have been shaped by a different culture and lowers sensitivity towards cross-culture differences.

After making students appreciate their L1 rhetoric, they are to be introduced gradually to the TL rhetoric. Teachers should draw their students' attention to the TL rhetorical tendencies with reference to those of the L1. In this case, teachers can make use of the students' L1 knowledge and experience to uncover the cross-culture differences. What has been observed from the instruction given as a part of the experimental work of this study is that some aspects need a lot of time to be explained and practiced, while others simply require a discussion to be started. Each time a rhetorical feature is debated, students get directly involved. They overtly talk about their rhetorical strategies and admit that some of their writing habits are in fact unexplainable according to the TL conventions and modes of operation.

¹ Brewer, E. Cobham. "Dirt." *Dictionary of Phrase and Fable*. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus, 1898; Bartleby.com, 2000. www.bartleby.com/81/. Retrieved January 06, 2014.

In the same vein, teachers must aid their students make a smooth transition to the TL rhetoric. Students, on their part, should strive to become part of the target language discourse community. They need to bear in mind that when writing in a language that is not theirs, they are writing for a different discourse community with unique cultural knowledge, experiences, assumptions, and expectations. Subsequently, students have to put aside their L1 writing habits in favour of those of the TL.

In a nutshell, raising students' awareness of rhetorical differences between their first and target languages in a foreign language learning situation should follow these three steps:

1. Teach students to appreciate their first language rhetorical traditions.
2. Draw their attention to rhetorical differences.
3. Help them make a smooth transition towards the target language rhetoric.

7.3. A Model of Instruction

Any instruction related to contrastive rhetoric must begin with explaining to students the reasons why different languages and cultures have different rhetorical conventions. The language-related aspects are to be clarified with reference to formal structures and logic of the language using lessons of syntax, grammar, lexis, mechanics, etc. For the culture-related aspects, teachers must elucidate how students' experiences and cultural backgrounds affect their language use and that some linguistic usages are more valued/appropriate than others in a given culture. On the basis of what has been dealt with in this research work, the following steps are proposed for a rhetoric lesson:

1. Identifying the rhetorical aspect and determining the origins of its use, whether it is purely a linguistic phenomenon or something that has been shaped by the cultural backgrounds of a given society.
2. Explaining how it works in the target language through formal rules/lessons and examples if necessary.
3. Explaining how it works in the first language through formal rules/lessons and examples if necessary.
4. Specifying the elements of difference and/or similarity between the two languages for the treated rhetorical aspect.
5. Providing students with model texts in the two languages to compare the use and frequency of the specified feature.
6. Providing students with instances of common rhetorical deviations from their written productions and correcting them through the whole classroom participation.
7. Giving students activities to reinforce the appropriate use of the learned feature according to target language conventions. Activities should include both manipulation tasks and free writing tasks.

The problem that may be raised here is that not all EFL teachers have a good knowledge and a good command of the Arabic language. Yet, this would not make a big issue since the proposed strategy (awareness-raising) does not require a deep involvement in the Arabic language rhetoric as it does for the English language rhetoric. If the teachers' Arabic language knowledge seems to hamper their duty, there are two alternatives. A possibility is to include the study of

rhetoric in tutoring activities to be performed periodically by more proficient teachers in Arabic. Another possibility is to incorporate contrastive rhetoric within the ‘Themes and Versions’ course which is mainly taught by teachers who possess a high degree in Translation.

7.4. Reading

Reading helps students become better writers whether in a first language or in a second/foreign language. It is particularly important for those who are supposed to write in a TL because they will be writing in an unfamiliar context and style. Therefore, the more non-native students read in the TL, the more they get acquainted with the rhetorical styles of that language.

At the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1, there is no independent course for reading or reading strategies. The only reading done by students in the classroom takes place in modules such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Literary Texts (LT). Most of the texts studied in ESP, for instance, are scientific in nature and characterized by straightforwardness, objectivity and focus on the material presented rather the language itself. On the other hand, LT reading comprises basically novels and short stories by well-known and sophisticated writers. These texts can be too much rhetorical for students at this level to grasp and try to reproduce their features. Furthermore, most of the reading done in an ESP course does not focus on holistic features of texts as it focuses on some technical words to be acquired and scientific notions to be explained. In LT, a great deal of reading is left for home where students are supposed to read novels and short stories to summarize them, discuss their plot, characters, etc. All this can be found on the internet, so students may skip the

reading phase. Therefore, since not all the students read outside the classroom and other courses cannot provide effective reading practice, it is indispensable to have an independent reading course to enhance students' reading ability and rhetorical performance.

7.5. An Adapted Process Genre Approach

Despite the absence of an official academic and administrative agreement on the approach to be used in teaching writing for second-year students at the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1, the product approach -sometimes in combination with the process approach- is the most commonly used. Even if teachers do not necessarily opt for this approach, they find themselves obliged to rely on it due to the nature of the writing programme. Students in their second-year are introduced to the principles of essay writing in general with focus on the expository type of essay in particular. Subsequently, model texts play a crucial role in providing examples of organizational patterns and stylistic features specific to different types of essay development for students to replicate afterwards. Moreover, the focus on linguistic features is more than necessary at this level because students maintain some deficiency regarding their grammatical and lexical knowledge. The process approach is employed at a later stage when students attain a clear understanding of essay writing techniques and start producing texts of their own.

Among the four main approaches to teaching writing, namely the product, process, genre and process-genre; the latter is the most suitable for achieving contrastive rhetoric endeavours. The process-genre approach to teaching writing provides students with the opportunity to study models of different genres and

writing contexts. Consequently, they will be able to perceive and specify the textual features unique to each genre. Besides, they will develop an awareness of how modes of organization vary according to purpose and audience. All this is achieved without neglecting the linguistic and grammatical knowledge. Since the first language influence might take place unconsciously, especially in the drafting stage, it is necessary that students revise carefully to correct their grammatical mistakes and rhetorical deviations. During the period of the present experiment, revising has been proved to be very efficient for students in eliminating instances of rhetorical deviation and alien rhetoric usages when provided with related checklists.

Taking what has been said above into account, it becomes clear that the process-genre approach is an effective framework for contrastive rhetoric in that it focuses on linguistic and rhetorical input as well as the role of imitation in learning. It also recognizes students' own contribution to the writing class and acknowledges that writing takes a place in a social situation and that it is closely tied to a particular purpose. Above all, the process-genre approach can become more efficient with regard to awareness-raising and the teaching of rhetoric with the following additions:

1. Giving students the opportunity to read an adequate number of authentic texts before starting to write.
2. Incorporating first language readings occasionally where it can take place in tandem with that of the target language to offer students sound models of comparison.

3. Focusing on the linguistic characteristics of texts as well as their rhetorical features and communicative purposes.
4. Writing teachers should devote a part of their corrective feedback to rhetorical aspects of writing.
5. As there are checklists for grammar and writing mechanics, students should be provided with rhetoric checklists.
6. Discussions about students' rhetorical strategies have been proved effective in drawing their attention to what is acceptable in English and what is not. Thus, encouraging students to speak about their writing habits and beliefs can give an idea about their main areas of difficulty and interference and help directing them to the right conventions of the target language use.
7. Writing teachers should work to recognize the most common areas of interference from Arabic in the very first students' assignments and work on diminishing this influence through awareness-raising.

7.6. Recommendations for Further Research

Despite the fact that contrastive rhetoric has emerged more than forty-five years ago, it is still a fertile area of research in second/foreign language teaching. There are always interesting aspects to be investigated in relation to the different variables involved in the target language writing that include proficiency level, learning context, first language background, writing genre, writing purpose, audience, etc. All these topics make relevant research areas for contrastive

rhetoric when explored with the right population using the appropriate methodology.

As regards the Algerian context, the area of contrastive rhetoric is not receiving due interest despite its relevance to the EFL learning situation and its efficiency in explaining non-native students' problems in writing. Accordingly, it is high time to start investigating the impact of Arabic on the English writing of Algerian learners and seek to find the best measures that can diminish this influence. Contrastive rhetoric can offer more for the Algerian context than most of the other Arab-speaking countries contexts. English is considered as a third or a second foreign language for Algerians; therefore, the influence on EFL writing can be caused by either Arabic or French, and maybe both. Topics for further research may include the impact of French on students' English writing, Arabic and French influence on other types of essay writing (argumentative, for instance) as well as other genres within an academic setting such as research articles and research reports.

Conclusion

All in all, awareness-raising has been proved to be effective in helping students to overcome the first language influence on target language writing. This awareness should be built progressively in symbiosis with the first language rhetoric. Teachers should be cautious not to deliver the wrong message. They should explain more than once that no rhetoric is superior to another and that no language is more communicative than another. Moreover, it is the duty of writing teachers to start considering their job as more than the explanation of grammatical and conventional aspects to deal with stylistic patterns and rhetorical tendencies. It

is necessary for them to analyze the most recurrent instances of rhetorical deviations caused by students' first language and work on them during the writing course. Besides, teachers should consider intercultural differences while planning writing activities for their students and while assessing their written performance.

General Conclusion

Writing in English in an academic context has always been a difficult and a challenging skill to be developed efficiently. It requires much time, effort and practice because of the many aspects involved and the criteria of acceptability that need to be attained. As this activity is difficult for native speakers of the language, it is even harder for ESL/EFL learners. In addition to the many requirements of writing, non-native learners are supposed to write in an unfamiliar rhetorical style. When these learners do not possess an awareness of the target language styles and conventions, they cannot but transfer those belonging to their first language. Doing so would result in target language inconvenience and rhetorical deviation.

Contrastive rhetoric has emerged particularly for two main reasons: (1) identifying problems in composition encountered by second/foreign language writers and (2) attempting to explain them by referring to the rhetorical strategies of their first language. After years of research in the area, contrastive rhetoric has developed from explaining students' rhetorical deviations to start seeking solutions for this problem. Many contrastive rhetoric researchers (cf. Mok, 1993; Davies, 2004; Smith, 2005; Stapa & Irtaimah, 2012) argue that the best measure to diminish non-native students' problems in writing is developing a cross-culture awareness between their first and target languages.

Arabic is one of the five languages investigated by Kaplan (1966) in his article which gave birth to contrastive rhetoric. Kaplan found out that Arabic and English differ mainly as regards the use of repetition, parallelism and coordination vs. subordination. After Kaplan's seminal study, the area of Arabic-English contrastive rhetoric research has attracted an increased attention revealing many

other aspects of difference. As an answer to the first research question, it could be stated that discourse differences between Arabic and English are generally classified under three main headings:

- I. Conventional or mechanical differences (punctuation, capitalization, etc.),
- II. Stylistic differences (strategies of persuasion, use of repetition, connectivity, coordination vs. subordination, etc.) and,
- III. Cultural differences (collectiveness vs. individualism, logical argument vs. religious argument, etc.).

We have attempted throughout this research to (1) explore the field of contrastive rhetoric between Arabic and English, (2) identify the areas of Arabic influence on students' English writing, (3) examine the consequences of their recourse to their L1 traits while writing in the TL and (4) measure the effectiveness of awareness-raising in enhancing the students' rhetorical performance. In the course of our quest, other aims have emerged and a number of questions arise in search for sound academic answers.

The starting point of the practical investigation lies in gauging students' level of awareness about cross-culture rhetorical differences. As it is assumed, the interpretation of the participants' answers to the questionnaire as well as the analysis of their pre-test written assignments in the two languages reveal that they are not acutely aware of discourse differences between Arabic and English. This unawareness is expected since most teachers do not take the matter of rhetoric and L1 interference into account during the writing class. Furthermore, the available writing manuals and teachers' handouts do not tackle these issues at all. As a

consequence, students find no harm in using their Arabic rhetoric to write in English, especially as they have not yet developed an adequate understanding of the English rhetoric. The result of this tendency, which has been obtained from the comparative analysis of students' Arabic and English pre-test compositions, is target language rhetorical deviation and an overall poor writing quality. In relation to this, it could be concluded that the English writing of students at their second-year of university remains pretty much influenced by their Arabic rhetorical tendencies. Despite the fact that this influence does not necessarily affect the correctness of students' grammatical and lexical usages, it has an impact on the effectiveness of their writing reflected in instances of alien rhetoric features in terms of use and frequency. These findings go in the same direction of the first research hypothesis in that students write with no consideration for rhetorical differences between Arabic and English, and this leads them to deviate from the target language conventions of use.

Finally, the second research hypothesis stating that awareness-raising will help to diminish the first language influence and aid students to improve their target language writing has been confirmed through the quasi-experimental research design. The participants recorded a significant statistical difference between their performance before and after the treatment. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers of written expression should allot a part of their course to rhetorics and draw their students' attention to cross-culture differences in the use of stylistic patterns and conventional norms.

Although every possible effort has been made to avoid research design flaws, this study cannot claim to be totally devoid of limitations. The results and recommendations of the present study cannot be generalized unless a number of variables have been taken into consideration.

Probably the main limitation of the present study is that it does not include texts written by native-English speakers in the rhetorical comparison. Participants' English compositions were compared to their Arabic ones in the pre-test to measure the consequences of L1 rhetorical tendencies on target language writing. After the period of treatment (awareness-raising), the same compositions (pre-test English compositions) were compared to post-test English compositions. Therefore, the study is axed on gauging the students' level of progress in the use of TL rhetorical features through comparing their pre-test performance to that of the post-test. However, it overlooked the improvement of the students' writing as compared to what is common in the target language as reflected in the writing of its native speakers.

The reason for not relying on native-English speakers' writing is absolutely practical. The researcher has been unable to get writing samples personally whether from inside or outside the country on the one hand. On the other hand, the texts received by email or found on the internet are unreliable because they do not correspond to a particular population and there is no way to make sure that they are really written by native speakers. Nevertheless, every possible measure has been taken to compensate for this shortcoming whether practically in the research design or theoretically by gathering a relatively adequate amount of data

that extensively illustrates the differences between English and Arabic, and empirically by citing many previous reliable academic studies in the field.

It is worth stressing that this research work has investigated the rhetorical writing of second-year English majors and proved that their L1 stylistic features are evident in their TL writing and that awareness-raising is an effective measure to diminish, if not to eradicate, that negative influence. Yet, recent research in the area of contrastive rhetoric has demonstrated through empirical evidence that the L1 influence decreases when the TL proficiency increases. Proficiency level, therefore, has not been a variable in the present research because we wanted to target a wider population since not all the students will reach that level where their writing becomes to some extent closer to that of native speakers¹.

Finally, the texts subject of analysis in this study comprise students' compositions in an academic context in one particular essay type which is the expository essay developed by examples. This choice limits the treated rhetorical aspects. Other essay types may involve other rhetorical features (strategies of persuasion for the argumentative essay, for instance), and other genres require different organization patterns. Expository writing has been opted for because it is the main genre learned during students' second-year and the most common one when it comes to TEFL and contrastive rhetoric.

In spite of these limitations, the present research work unveils a number of issues related to the invaluable contribution that contrastive rhetoric can bring to the fields of language teaching and learning. Above all else, contrastive rhetoric is

¹ For instance, Al-Qahtani (2006) and Ismail (2010) treated the writing of Arab ESL doctoral students and authors of research articles and found that at this level their writing does not demonstrate the same differences in the use of rhetoric as compared to less proficient writers.

incontestably quite central to all linguistic research, especially Theoretical Linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Interlanguage Analysis, Second Language Acquisition, Universal Grammar, Interlingual Translation, Contrastive Linguistics, Discourse Analysis and Contrastive Composition Studies. In a nutshell, contrastive rhetoric is an invaluable field of study that should, in no way, be estranged from any pedagogical practice.

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APPENDIX 01

Students' Questionnaire

STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Student,

You are kindly requested to fill in this questionnaire to express your attitudes towards the writing skill, the influence of discourse differences as well as the importance of rhetorical awareness in writing. Your answers are very important for the reliability of the research we are undertaking. As such, we hope that you will give us your full attention and interest.

Please, tick (\surd) the appropriate box(es) and/or give full answer(s) on the broken lines.

May I thank you in advance for your cooperation and the time devoted to answer the questionnaire.

Mr. Mokhtar HAMADOUCHE

Department of Letters and English Language

University of Constantine 1

Section One: General Information

1. Please specify your gender

a- Male

b- Female

2. What type of Baccalaureate do you hold?

a- Languages

b- Sciences

c- Letters

d- Other, please, specify.....

3. How long have you been studying English? (including primary, secondary and higher education)

.....Year(s)

Section Two: The Writing Skill

4. Do you think that three hours a week are enough for improving your writing?

a- Yes

b- No

5. If “No”, please, explain

.....
.....
.....

.....
.....

6. Do you think that the “Written Expression” programme you are studying is enough to improve your level in writing?

a- Yes

b- No

7. If “No,” is it because (you can tick more than one box)

a- It contains many theoretical aspects without enough practice opportunities

b- It contains too much literature to be dealt with in one year

c- It involves no sufficient writing strategies

d- It involves no writing rules

e- Other, please, specify.....

.....

8. According to you, good writing is (please number the options from 1 to 5)

a- Accurate grammar

b- Precise vocabulary

c- Good ideas

d- Efficient style and organization

e- Proper use of writing mechanics

9. How often does your teacher give you writing tasks to do in classroom?

- a- Often
- b- Sometimes
- c- Never

10. Does he/she help you when you write in classroom?

- a- Yes
- b- No

11. If “Yes”, does he/she help you edit/correct (you can tick more than one box)

- a- Grammar
- b- Vocabulary
- c- Content/ideas
- d- Style and organization
- e- Mechanics and conventions of writing
- f- Other, please, specify.....
.....

12. Which aspect constitutes the most crucial problem for you in writing?

(you can tick more than one box)

- a- Grammar
- b- Vocabulary
- c- Content/ideas

- d- Style and organization
- e- Mechanics and conventions of writing
- f- Other, please, specify.....

Section Three: Rhetorical Awareness

13. When you write in English, do you

- a- Find ideas in Arabic and write them in English
- b- Think in English and write in English
- c- Form sentences/expressions in Arabic and translate them into English

14. Do you believe that Arabic writing has the same organizational patterns and conventional norms as English?

- a- Yes
- b- No

15. If "No", they differ mainly in: (you can tick more than one box)

- a- Vocabulary
- b- Mechanics of writing
- c- Sentence structure
- d- Discourse structure
- e- Style and organization modes
- f- Other, please, specify.....

16. If you have answered “No” to question (14), do you think that this difference would have a negative influence on your English writing?

- a- A lot
- b- A little
- c- Not at all

17. Do you consider the Arabic-English differences when you write in English?

- a- Always
- b- Sometimes
- c- Never

18. Does your teacher focus on discourse differences between languages during the Written Expression course?

- a- Always
- b- Sometimes
- c- Never

19. Outside university, do you have any opportunities to write for native speakers of English?

- a- Yes
- b- No

20. If “Yes”, do you write for them in the same way you write for an Algerian teacher/classmate?

a- Yes

b- No

21. If you don't write to native English speakers in the same way you do to Algerian teachers/classmates, please explain how

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

22. Does connectivity operate in the same way in English and Arabic?

a- A lot

b- A little

c- Not at all

23. Name three of the connectors you use most in English and three in Arabic

English: 1.....2.....3.....

Arabic: 1.....2.....3.....

24. Do you think that the use of punctuation marks is similar in Arabic and English?

a- Yes

b- No

25. Are there any punctuation marks you never use or rarely use in your English writing?

a- Yes

b- No

26. If “Yes”, please mark them in the list below (you can tick more than one box)

a- Question mark ?

b- Exclamation mark !

c- Ellipses ...

d- Dash —

e- Parenthesis ()

f- Brackets []

g- Apostrophe ’

h- Hyphen –

i- Semicolon ;

j- Other, please, specify.....

27. When writing paragraphs in English, do you

- a- Go straightforward to the point
- b- Give background information to prepare the reader and leave the point
for the end
- c- Other, please, specify.....
.....

**28. When you want to use a Proof (citation) in your English writing, do
you (you can tick more than one box)**

- a- Use verses from the *Quran*
- b- Use *Hadith* by the Prophet (PBUH)
- c- Use a Proverb
- d- Use a famous saying
- e- Other, please, specify.....
.....

Section Four: Further Suggestions**29. Please, add any comments/suggestions you see relevant to the aim of
the questionnaire**

.....

.....

.....

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.....

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.....

.....

Thank you

APPENDIX 02

A Sample of

Students' Compositions

Pre-test English Compositions

Topic: "There are different ways of spending leisure time. Develop this idea providing three examples of how you spend your leisure time."

In the world wide, each one has it own way to spend time out of work, studies etc. And gain his time by doing things useful, benefit and at the same time entertaining. For me, I use many ways to pass my leisure time. For instance, I like listening to music, reading books and practicing sport.

Firstly, most of my acquaintance think that listening to music is a wast of time but it's my choice and I believe that is a good way for entertaining. However, listening to kind of music depend on my mood. when I am very sad, I try to listen to sentimental music. but when I am very happy, I always listen to music that can make me dance. And when I am in my normal mood I listen to music in general.

To sum up, I can listen to all kind of music in my time without exception but it depends only on my mood.

Secondly, which is very important, benefit and it makes people more cultive is reading books. It is one way of entertaining. It is not boring at all. you can also learn a lot of new vocabularies that can help you in your daily life. Beside, reading the Holly coran is very effective and it can also make you feel good and makes you far from stress. In general, reading books is very good way to pass your time; you should only know how to choose the best books.

finally, the most important thing way I use it to spend my leisure time is practicing sport. From one side it is entertaining, from other side it is very benefit and healthful. practicing sport is always benefit for every one in their hole life.

Each one has different ways of spending leisure time. The most important thing is to not let emptiness destroy you because it is very dangerous. However gaining time is a very useful thing and it is good for us.

Every one in life has a quiet life, has a talent and habits he likes to do it in his daily life, but as we know the day is full of work, may be we spend all the day out for work or for staying, so we have no time for them selves only in the week end, for this we must profit as much as we can to do what we like in this time, for me there are a lot of ways to spending my free time, one way is, practice sport, chatting on the net or reading books. Practicing sport is a good choice for every one to spending leisure time because sport has a lot of benefits for health and for growing brain, is good for once who have over weight and other diseases like (heart-diseases and Atheme-diseases...) more over sport is make the person less stressed then those who do not practice sport. In the other hand we find in Korean many version advices us to practice sport like swimming and horring.

A further I like spend my time chatting in the net with my friends from different places and different personalities, for me I think chatting is good because it give me the opportunity to open my mind to new ideas and new cultures, also I can realize the and distinguish the different between the nations in traditions, customs and way of thinking. More over chatting allow me to improve my English language and other languages.

The third way which attract me a lot to spend my time is reading books, is the best and most benefit way to make my free time more worth. Reading books increase my knowledge and culture in all fields, improve my way of writing and vocabulary. More over reading let me learn more words about the language, also learn from the experiences of other people in life. On the other hand reading books make me more aware about make decisions, and about how I must deal with persons in my daily life.

In conclusion every one should spend his time with benefit things, which help us to make our life better, also try always to find a free time for ourselves to make our mood good to do our works as well as we have to do.

Studying or working every day is really difficult for that every person need a time leisure in order to relax and enjoy the day. ~~There~~ there are many various ways or things that a person may do to enjoy spending his leisure time. For me, spending more times in my studies make me feel ~~very~~ stressed. Therefore, I usually spend my leisure time doing things that I love, things such as writing songs and stories, listening to the music, and having some great lovely moment with my family.

Writing songs and stories is one of the most important things that I do to spend my leisure time. Writing songs and stories became a habit that I do for almost six years now. Writing can improve the writing skills of a person, but this is not the reason for why I love writing. For me to write may be because I don't like people to put some lines for me, may be because writing give me the freedom to say what I want, no rules, no limits, endlessly far away from grammatical sentences and limits. Deep writing is a world of imagination that makes me relax and why not, sometime even more. And that's what make me love to spend my leisure time writing songs and stories.

Another thing that I love to do in my leisure time, is listening to the music. When I say music, I mean all types of music, the strange thing is I don't really care about the language Arabic, French, English, Korean... as long as there is a sweet, lovely sounds that's goes with the beat. The amazing thing is I can choose the music according to my mood. Listening to music is not only to enjoy sounds, it is also to get ~~out~~ out of stress and forget about studies and this is a great reason for me to spend my leisure time listening to music.

In addition to this, what is a leisure time without some lovely sweet moment with our families. Spending my leisure time with my family is unforgettable moments. I love playing jokes, and telling funny stories to my families about what have happen to me during the day. Exchanging point of views, watching TV... what really matter is to make a powerful bond with my family. And that's what leisure time is about sweet moment for yourself, myself and my family to forget all about studies and enjoy life.

Writing songs or stories, listening to the music or having some great moments with my family are things that I love to do in order to spend my leisure time. but still they are not the only things that I do. what really matter is to have a moment which is mine and which I can spend it on what I want and with the people that I like.

Time management has something to deal with how we organize our works according to time in order to avoid wasting it. This division of time has two main parts; the first is for working and making our duties and the second one is to relax and have fun which is called: Leisure Time. People differ in their ways of passing their free time; for me personally I prefer to read books, cook and to chat.

First, reading books during my leisure time makes me feel relaxed and takes tiredness away, besides this practicing such a good activity is really beneficial because it is considered as one of the most important exercises that improves our minds and makes our knowledge richer.

Secondly, cooking remains one of the hardest challenges for girls* that is why I like to cook some new kinds of dishes in order to be skillful cook, also being in the kitchen helps me to change my mood from the bad to the nice because its atmosphere is totally different from the one we are living in when we are busy.

Finally, chatting is ~~not~~ a special than the two previous activities that I practice during my leisure time, and this specially due to how much it makes me feel happy and have fun, because it allows me to make new relationships with strangers from different ages and nationalities and at the same time chatting makes me see the world by a bigger eye and some times it changes my mind about some points in life.

To conclude, the way people pass their free time reflects their personality and how much positive they are. That is why I believe that I might be a useful, positive individual by practicing some good activities such as reading, cooking and chatting.

There are lot of preferred things I like to do after finishing work I have in the house & out side. Actually, there are lot of examples of these things that I really love to do when I am free. In fact, there are many different ways of how I spend my leisure time. One example is watching TV, other example is praying and another example is reading.

Watching TV represents the first example. really, I like it very much. I like watch him especially at night after finishing my homeworks and revisions. I like to see movies, series, and because really there are factual events that is taken from the real world living reality in societies, and there is a moral behind them. it makes ~~you~~ know more about what happening in the world, have an idea about new inventions and things I do not know before. watching TV is the most thing I do in my free time.

the second example is #1 of spending my leisure time is praying. really, I prefer praying a lot because it makes me feel relax and happy. It is the most beneficial thing that we have to do, really it the only way that makes me feel that I am close to God. After praying, I like to read Quran, it is very useful ~~from~~ and important to learn it, and also to know the stories of God's prophets. spending time by praying a wonderful thing when I am free.

Reading ~~is~~ represents the third example. I like reading very much, because it helps me to learn new vocabulary. it is very beneficial to especially before you sleep to read a book, a novel, a magazine. because it helps to enlarge knowledge. ~~it is~~ reading such things is really a tool for entertainment, when I read them I feel enjoy and entertain. Reading is very important for me as I am a student.

Watching TV, praying, and reading are examples of the most things that I prefer doing in my leisure time. really, it is very important to pass of the free time by doing useful things. So, these are ~~the ways~~ ^{some} of them.

Time is precious. We should not waste it, and as we know all people have a free time after doing their works. Everyone spend his/her leisure time doing things or practising their hobbies for eg. drawing, ~~the~~ writing poems etc. So, there are different ways, but for me I like reading novels, watching TV and chatting.

Reading novels is the first example that I like to do in my spare time, because I feel rest when I carry a novel and I start reading. Then I enjoy when I learn new words and expressions besides, I acquire a lot of information which make me a cultivated person. All people will agree with me that reading novels is a best way to spend my free time, but watching TV is also important and has its role.

Watching TV is a second example of spending my leisure time and I like to do it because it help me to escape stress and resting. Also, watching TV help me to know what is happening in the world and to know news in different domains. Finally, it makes me not feel boring. But is watching TV the only way that make me feel boring?

not Absolutely no, because chatting is also a way of spending my free time and makes me feel happy. I know new friends from different countries and different cultures and this make me feel proud especially when I chat and talk with foreigners and native speakers because I learned from them. Next, chatting is a great way of spending free time because I enjoy and learn in the same time. So, there are different ways of spending leisure time, but this are my best way to do that I prefer to do them.

reading novels, watching TV and chatting are my best ways that I prefer and adore to do them in my free time.

We all know that in our daily life, the majority of people always work and study and do many things. It can make them tired and stressed and that push them to search for free times spend it do what they want like eating, sleeping... etc. For me I have many different ways to spend my leisure time but I prefer to mention three examples such as = watch TV, reading and practicing sport.

Watch TV is the first way of spending my leisure time. One thing make me watch it which is the rich information that can give me, because I need to know more things about the culture of many countries. Then, there are a lot of programmes important and I love the scientific ones and many channels give a lot of exciting courses in English help me in my studies. After that, I like to watch the English movies to improve my spelling and pronunciation of words.

The second way to spend my leisure time is reading. I like to read books of all languages, especially the English ones because after any reading I evaluate myself and I find that I acquire many important things like speaking even I read in short time. Also, my reading become well.

Finally, the third way to spend my leisure time is practicing sport. I do it regularly in every free time because I find it important for my body and my health also sport helps me grow strong and good. In addition to this sport make me good person with good health without any problem.

Watch TV, reading and practicing sport are the best examples for spending my leisure time because I find that time is important and we should ~~use~~^{spend} it in good things can help us in life, so we can make time beneficial for us.

Anyone has twenty-four hours a day, but not everyone spend them the same way. First of all, these hours are divided between day and night. It is obvious that night hours are mostly for sleeping. However, when it comes to day hours, each person has his own interests. Some people divide their journey into two parts work time and leisure time. As for me, it is divided between study time and leisure time. Speaking about the latter, I prefer to spend it on three meaningful things: reading books, drawing and cooking.

One of the preferable things I like to do during my leisure time is reading books. It is like a habit I acquired since I was young. In reading books, especially novels and magazines, I find a real pleasure. It feels like discovering the world, reading about ancient history and wondering how life is going to be in the future. To be candid, each time I read a book, it motivates me to become a writer.

In addition to reading books, I enjoy also drawing. Each time I feel empty and there is nothing for me to do, I directly take a sharpened pencil and a blank paper and start drawing or sketching my pictures that pops to my mind. Generally all what I draw refers to my inner feeling in that moment.

With regard to reading and drawing, cooking is no less importance. If I measure my freetime, I will totally find that the kitchen has the biggest part. While I am home especially on the weekends, I like being on the kitchen. Each time I feel bored, the first thing I think about is making some sweets and as a rule, I have set, I do not make the same recipe more than twice, the first is a trial the second for pleasure. Usually the second comes out better.

In brief, the point from having free time are as it is mentioned above leisure time is for enjoying your personal life away from the daily pressure. And as for me reading books, drawing and cooking are the most enjoyable things a person can do have a funny leisure time.

Life is just a period from the beginning to the end and between the two last there is something called the time which is very expensive and important for all of us to achieve our existence, so that when we have a free time, we should ^{not} waste it on empty, useless things and spend it for what is good. Therefore, there are different ways to spend my leisure time such as fishing, cooking, and shopping.

Fishing is one of my different ways to spend my leisure time. Whether I go with my grandparent or by myself, to see the wonderful view of the beach especially if I have problems I really forget them and fishing makes me enjoy myself and spend my big free time in a short moments.

Cooking also considered as one of my different ways to spend my free time. It makes me feel good and happy. I love spending my time cooking instead to watching TV. so I can prepare a new meal in short time, and by time I get skill. Also I am always trying to prepare a traditional meals so that I can not feel that time is passing till the time like that no free time to me.

Shopping is the most favorite way to spend my free time. it gives me the chance to buy many things that makes my life easier than it was, and these things it can be modern or traditional one which let's me know more about my culture or about technology, so that I spend my leisure time learning. Also as a girl when I am shopping I can not feel at all that time is passing quickly so like that I spend it without recognize.

Fishing, cooking and shopping are my different ways to spend my leisure time without noticed, and change my free time to a benefit one that can gives me what I need. So we must spend our time for what is good for us.

All the human beings have a leisure time which is very important for some people and it has no meaning for others, for example they spend it in very ridiculous things or in sleeping. But others spend the free time in benefited things. For me, I prefer to spend it in very crucial things in my life such as avoiding stress, reading, and worshipping.

I am always getting stressed in my free time that's why I try to avoid this stress. Because this stress lets me doing wrong things, so I avoid it by practising some sports which helps me getting tranquility, forgetting about the bad things and makes me healthy. Playing games also very beneficial for my mind, like chess to improve my intelligence and memory, then watching TV just to relax and to sleep because it helps me to doze. So, avoiding my stress let me very comfortable and makes me forgetting my free time.

In addition, to avoiding stress I prefer reading anything, for me. For example books especially scientific ones, it gives me a huge knowledge which benefits me in my life. News papers also had a very important role because it makes me know a lot of things about my country and the other countries, and magazines which I enjoy reading them to entertain and acquire some good things from. Reading helps me to be a cultivate person.

And the important way is worshipping besides avoiding stress and reading. In worshipping also there are ways like reading Quran which gives me a tranquility and praying which is like ~~sports~~ doing sports in every time I want. I want to do that things especially in weekends because I feel that I have more free time. Listening to Quran also very beneficial instead of listening to music. Worshipping combine both of reading and avoiding stress, and it helps me very well.

As we know each one of us has his ways to spend his leisure time, and for example me, as I said before I want to spend it avoiding my stress, reading and worshipping.

In my life I spent all most my time in the University for studying and learning new things in different modules by dividing my time equally to have a good results in the other hand we have my leisure time when I go home in the evening. I spend my leisure time doing different activities for example: watching T.V., reading books, and practicing sports.....

..... when I went back home after a long period of studying I prefer to watch some programmes to entertain and cultivate my knowledge. First, I like to watch some new programmes in different domains to know extra informations about these topics, also to learn how they speak and communicate with strange people. In addition to that, I enjoy my time in front of the T.V., when I watch something make me laugh, happy and forget studies for a while. That's why, I prefer to watch T.V. to entertain and I feel better to start reading books.....

..... After watch T.V. I found myself want to read new things because it help me to have a good base in my studies. I begin with, I want to read some books to appreciate my level in English, to know new words of vocabulary. Moreover, I cultivate my memory in different topics according to know things, the teacher cannot give it to me, and I need it in my life in general. For these reasons, I prefer to have a part of my leisure time to read extra informations in different books.....

..... In addition to both activities I practice it in my leisure time, also I practice sports in the club to have a good health. In the beginning, I go every weekend to the club to play some sports, because it is very helpful to have a strong heart, and make my circulatory system work in a normal way. Also, it protect my body from a hard diseases. To sum-up, I find practicing sports is the only one.....

..... hygiene to save and protect my health from the difficult diseases.....

..... watching T.V., reading books, and practicing sports are the most activities I do it in my leisure time to change my routine of studying a long time per day and to feel better, happy, and more healthier for the rest of my life.....

Since I have joined University, my daily life become very busy, I study all the time along the week and I barely find spare time to relax and rest. So, whenever I come home I spend my leisure time doing the most three thing that I love which are: Surfing on the internet, reading books and sleeping.

First, Surfing on the internet is one of the most helpful ways to enjoy my spare time. Through it I can enjoy my time by chatting with my friends, playing games and downloading music and movies. Also it is a useful way to keep me on date about world general news and facts. For me, Surfing on the internet is a good way to spend my time.

Reading books is my favourite way to spend time. When I get bored and lonely, I go to our book shelf and pick a book. Instantly I start diving in it without even noticing time passing. Besides, spending time in Book reading is a very effective way to increase my vocabulary and refresh my memory.

Finally, what I enjoy the most and find it a great way to spend leisure time is sleeping. Sleeping helps me all the time to recharge my batteries and start fresh. It is the only simple way to relax and have a healthy body. Sleeping lights all the pressure that I feel during the daily life. It helps me to get my energy back and to have a good mood for tomorrow.

These are my three different ways of spending my leisure time. Surfing on the internet, reading books and sleeping ~~and~~ help me all the time to get rid of daily pressure and tiredness, ~~and~~ they make my life a lot more easier and happier.

Pre-test Arabic Compositions

الموضوع: "هنالك طرق مختلفة لقضاء وقت الفراغ، تناول هذه الفكرة معطيا ثلاثة أمثلة

عن كيفية قضائك لوقت فراغك."

يبتدئ جميع البشر بطبع محددة في الشكل لكنها تختلف في المضمون. فجميعهم لديهم أوقات فراغ لكن كيفية قضاء وقت الفراغ تختلف من شخص لأخر. فتجد من لديه هواية معينة يحاول أن يشغل نفسه بها لقضاء وقته. بالنسبة لي قضاء وقت الفراغ شيء مهم جداً وسأحاول جعله لحياتي على شيء لا يبتعد. فأنا دائماً أحاول جعل وقت الفراغ بشيء مفيد لي كقراءة الكتب، الصلاة، وممارسة الرياضة. في الحقيقة، إن قراءة الكتب شيء مفيد وسأحاول أن أحسن اختيار الكتب المناسبة فهو خير صديق للإنسان أولاً لأنه يساعدنا دائماً على تعلم ما هو جديد سواء كان باللغة الأم أو بلغة أجنبية. كما أنه يحفزنا دائماً على المطالعة فتكون دائماً متلهفين لما هو جديد من أنواع الكتابات. وأخيراً، القراءة مفيدة لأنها تساعد على تطوير قدرة الإنسان وتذمبة مهارات التذكر. من هذا كله نذكر أن للقراءة دور فعال في مساعدة الإنسان بشيء الواسع من جهة أخرى. هناك الصلاة فهي فريضة من عند الله تعالى فرضها على عباده لأن هناك بواطن محددة يستطيع الإنسان قضاءها من جهة لذاتها تساعد على طمأنينة الروح وسكونها. كما أنها تساهم في كسب الأجر والثواب للإنسان من جهة أخرى. والمهم دائماً في الصلاة أنها تسبح للإنسان بالتقرب من الله عز وجل والتعب إليه. وهذا نستنتج أن تادية الصلاة أنجح الوسائل وأكثرها إفادة. وأخيراً، نجد للممارسة الرياضية فهي مفيدة للغاية في حياة الفرد كما أنها مفيدة. وهناك بعض الرياضات التي تساهم في تنمية العقل كالشطرنج مثلاً. من جهة أخرى فهي مفيدة جداً وممتعة. كما أنها تساعد على توازن جسم الإنسان وإبطاءه شيئاً. من هنا نقول أن الرياضة هامة في حياة الإنسان بل إن الأطباء ينصحون به على سواء المريض أو الأصحاء. من هنا نستنتج من كل ما سبق أن طرق قضاء وقت الفراغ مختلفة من شخص لأخر لكنها بالنهاية مفيدة وتساعد كثيراً كما أن هناك مقولة عن الوقت: "الوقت كالسيف إن لم تقطه قطعك" يعني أن الوقت ذهب جيداً ويجب أن نحاول قضاءه في شيء مفيد.

كل شخص منا يذهب لهظم وقته في جلد قوت يومه لعيننا كريم دون استباح
أحد، ولكن رغم مشاغله الدنيا ومتاعبها يستجوب على كل واحد تخصيصه وقت فراغ
لنفسه لترفيه عن نفسه بفعل أشياء يهواها كموسيقى أو كعبادة تذكسه بعبادته يومه،
فهناك طرق مختلفة لملا أوقات الفراغ، فمنهم من يقرأ، فمنهم من يمشي، فمنهم من يركب
فراغها في ممارسة الرياضة، المحادثات على الإنترنت أو المطالعة.

ممارسة الرياضة هي أسمى الأشياء في حياة الإنسان لتدعيمه وقت الفراغ فهي جهة
هي ~~مطلوبة~~ مفيدة لصحة الجسم والعقل كما يقال «**الجسم السليم في العقل السليم**»،
وإذا رجعنا للقرآن الكريم نجد أن الله ورسوله أوصوا بممارسة الرياضة كقول رسول
الله صلى الله عليه وسلم «**دعوا أولاكم الرياضة والسباحة وركوب الخيل**»، فهذا دليل
على أن الرياضة تحمي من الكثير من الأمراض، كما أنها مفيدة للصحة البدنية
العديد منها كحساسة الوزن، وما يسببه من أمراض خطيرة. كما أن ممارسة الرياضة تقلل من
(~~كثرة ممارسة الرياضة تقلل من الضغط النفسي نتيجة العمل بالأسطول المصنوع اليومي~~)
نتيجة العمل بالإستقرار.

من جهة أخرى أحب تمشية وقتي في المحادثات على الإنترنت، فالتحسين لي أوجه أهتمامنا
في التعرف على أشتات من بلدان ونسب مختلف، فهذا يسمح لي بالتعرف على
ثقافات عادات وتقاليد الكثير من (البلدان) بلدان العالم، وخصوصاً تبادل الأفكار حول
الديانات ومعتقدات المجتمعات. وأجد فخراً كبيراً في اقتناعهم بأن الدين الإسلامي
هو دين حق لا ياطل، وأن محمد هو آخر الأنبياء والرسول. كما أن المحادثات على الإنترنت
تكسبني أصدقاء مثقفين يحسنون لغاتي الأجنبية خاصة الإنجليزية بالإستمرارها
اختصاصي، ويعطونني منحة كبيرة في التحدث معهم.

أما المطالعة أجدها من أسمى وأقلى هواية أمتعها بها ووقت فراغي، فهي تزود
من ثروتها اللغوية وثقافتني في جميع المجالات من طين اقتصاد وتاريخ وتربية
قراءة الكتب تسمح لي بالإطلاع على تجارب علماء تامن كتاب وفلاسفة وعلماء،
والإطلاع على تاريخ أجدادنا وبطلان شهدائنا. وإذا رجعنا للقرآن الكريم نجد أن
أول آية نزلت في القرآن الكريم هي «**اقرأ باسم ربك**»، وكقول رسول الله صلى
الله عليه وسلم «**أطلبوا العلم من المهد إلى المهد**»، فالله تعالى تشبه القراءة
كالجهاد في سبيل الله، فهي أحسن خيار للرجل وقت الفراغ لدينا.

(~~أشعر وليس أقرأ يستجوب على كل واحد تخصيصه وقت فراغ لممارسة هواياته~~)
وأخيراً وليس آخراً يستجوب على كل واحد تخصيصه وقت فراغ لممارسة هواياته
واعطاءه فرصة لإكتشاف مواهبه، ويجعل وقت فراغه مليئاً بعبادات تفيد عقله
وجسمه وتحسنه نفسيته ومزاجه لبداية يوم جديد خالٍ من الكد والقلق.

لابد للمرء ان يخصص بعض الوقت لنفسه للخروج من جو الضغوطات النفسية التي يتعرّف لها في اوقات العمل، لذلك يحتاج الى اوقات فراغ تمتعت بها الترفيت عن نفسه.

ان توقيت قضاء وقت الفراغ يختلف من شخص الى آخر، اعتمادا على حالته النفسية، فهناك من يفضل قضاء اوقات فراغه بالقيام بأشياء مفيدة تنمي مهاراته الفكرية، اما البعض الاخر فيفضل اللهو والمرح عوضا عن القيام بالأشياء التي تذكره بالعمل، بالنسبة لي، ليس هنالك أشياء محددة أقوم بها في وقت فراغي، كل ما هنالك ان تمتعت اوقات الفراغ وتعتمد على مزاجي، احتياجي، ومدة صعوبة اليوم الذي أمرت فعلى سبيل المثال: اذا كنت في مزاج جيد واداءت روح المنسوية عالية فإذني انصرفت وقت فراغي للاصقائي وعائلتي، فهناك الكثير من الأشياء التي يمتد القيام بها كالذهاب الى التسوق أو التنزه، تبادل أطراف الحديث... فمثل هذه الامور البسيطة تشعرني بمسئولية محبوبة لا مثلكي الفرح والسرور والسعادة وفرحي مع الاشخاص الذين احبهم واعزهم. اما اذا كنت في مزاج سيء فأفضل ان اذهب الى الموسيقى فهي تساعدني على التخلص من الارتباك والتوتر، فالموسيقى تنمي المرء همومه وأشغاله، وأحيانا الحما إلى الكتابة، ليس مهما لهذا أكتب، انما المهم ما أشعر به بعد الكتابة، فالكتابة تمتدني من التعبير عما أشعر به و أحترق فيه، فهي أفضل وأسرع طريقة تظهر عا بالي عندما أكون في مزاج سيء. وان وقت الفراغ لا يعني اللهو والمرح والترفيت عن النفس، لذلكنا لأفضل تخصيص اوقات الفراغ، فليس من الجيد توزيع الوقت فالوقت يبقى وقت يبقى ولو كان وقت فراغ، بمنعنا تخصيصها للوقت للدراسة فعلى سبيل المثال القيام بالعبادات والتفكير وذلك لتنمية حاسة التفكير لدينا، القيام بأعمال لغوية... فالغرض من هذه الاعمال تنمية العقل، وتدريب الذاكرة ولا تنسى العبادة فقد نهر من نسي بعض الأجر ~~الذي~~ في وقت الفراغ. ان وقت الفراغ وقت تمتع المرء ان يجيد، استغللت في أشياء مفيدة منها للهوايات فقد عيب في اللهو والمرح ولكن الوقت يبقى وقتا.

قيل أن الوقت كالسيف إن لم تقطعه ضلّك، ومن أبل ذلك عرف الإنسان منذ
الازل بصاولة لتدعيم وقته ففاديا للهباع تلك الهبة الثمينة، غالباً
يسعون وراء أعمالهم وانشغالهم من أجل تحقيق أهدافهم السامية في الحياة
لكن هذا الموضع أن يكون لهم مجال للاستمتاع بقسط من الراحة بعد أعين
من التفكير بالأعمال والأعمال والأشغال. وهذه الأمور في بوقت الفراغ حيث
يجتهد الناس في نوع من أنواعها. أما أنا شخصياً فأجيد ممارسة
المطالعة في جانب اللبغ والدراسة عن أنت.

تعد المطالعة أحد أهمها الهوايات الممتعة من أجل تنمية الفكر
الذي للإنسان، في جانب هذا فهو يساعد على القضاء على
الإنهاك والملل الناتج عن نشاطات اليومية، وقد عرف عن
ممارسة قراءة الكتب بكونها الرقيب الصالح وتورد ذلك في
سابق قول دكتور فيق في الأناص كتابه،

وقد أضيف إلى ممارستها المطالعة أثناء أوقات الفراغ؛
تعلم فن اللبغ حيث أن الجو السائد في المطبخ يختلف تمام الاختلاف
عن الذي اعتدته منارجاً أثناء الدراسة، ولهذا الدسالم أن تركز
على ممارستها فهو يجعل الفتاة تكتسب مهارات يمكنها
الأخرى إملاكها أو بالأحرى قد يستعمل ذلك مما يؤهلها لتكون
الفتاة المثالية.

في جانب ما جئت على ذكره سابقاً، أريد أن أدرسته عن أنت مراراً
ناجحة لتدعيمه أوقات الفراغ، فهو وكما تعلم نسمح للفرد بالتفرغ على
أناسيه بعد من أعمار وأحاسيس مختلفة، فكنديرة لذلك يمكن صراحتي
ويصبح الفرد منفرداً على العالم الخارجي وأكثر من التفرغ

المبريك والإحداث التي تأخذ بالمدوث مؤخرًا
في نائمة الكرم، أو التأكيد على أن صفا قيمة الفرد ليست
متمودة، وموتيرة كمن! نظارته، بل تنمها إلى كيفية تقيته أوقات
فراغه، فإن أنجز ذلك وفق عقولته وترزق بممارسة صيد
كالمطالعة واللبغ وممارسة الدراسة على أنت كما أودت سابقاً.
لأن الوقت من ذهب إن لم تستفد منه عما يجب ذهب.

كما في شذوذهما الآخر، لدي الكثير من الأشياء المسلمية والمفضلة
 التي أحب القيام بها بعد الفراغ من الواجبات اليومية
 المهمة، وطقاً قضاء أوقات الفراغ بمتنفس مما خرد لا آخر،
 بالاطلاع في الحقيقة، لدي الكثير من الأمثلة عن أكثر
 الأشياء التي أفعل القيام بها عند ما أكون حرة. المثال
 الأول معظم الناس يعتبرون التلغاف وسيلة المفضلة الوقت،
 لكنني لا أعتقد، بالنسبة لي، هو ليس كذلك. فمعظم
 وقت فراغي أفعله في مشاهدة التلغاف، أحب مشاهدة
 الأفلام، المسلسلات، متابعة البرامج الاجتماعية، الرياضية و
 الدينية. أحسن أن معظم الأفلام مستوحاة من الواقع المعاش.
 أما البرامج فتطلعنا على حقائق كثيرة كنا نمر عليها من قبل و
 أجزء تطلعنا من تفاصيل أحداث تجرى في العالم.
 أيضاً أحب المطالعة جداً. فهي تنمي الفكر وتوسع الثقافة
 والمخيلة. هي وسيلة جيدة لتغذية المصطلحات اللغوية في
 كل اللغات. أيضاً تعتبر وسيلة للترفيه عند الذخيرة ربحاً، القصة
 والزوايا، يمكن أن نستعملها أيضاً للهروب من الواقع الأثقل
 نغمات التراكيز وتوسع المخيلة.
 وفي ذلك، من أكثر الأشياء التي أحب فعلها هي وقت فراغي،
 العبادة. أحب قضاء وقتي أهلياً، التواضع، ارتداء القرآنة،
 أدعو الله، أستمع للحمد لله والأناشيد النبوية. إنه حقا شيء
 جميل أنه تحسنت أنك قريب من الله سبحانه وأن تعلم
 حقائق دينية ودينية كثيرة.
 من الجيد أنه أفهم وقت فراغي بالقيام بأشياء مفضلة
 كالمطالعة، الصلاة، وغيرها التي تجعلنا نشعر بالراحة و
 الهدوء والابتهاج.

الوقت من ذهب لأن لم نختمه ذهباً. إن هذه العبارة تدل على أهمية الوقت في حياتنا اليومية لذا يجب علينا قضاءه في ممارسة أشياء زمنية وكما هو معلوم فإن لكل شخص وقت فراغ يريد أن يستغل فيه أو يمارس فيه هواياته كالرسم وكتابة الشعر... الخ ومنه فإن لكل واحد منا طريقة الخاصة لقضاء وقت فراغه. فمثلاً أنا أرغب في قضاءه أقرأ بعض الروايات، أستاذ الدلفان وظنني ذلك الدردشة مع الأصدقاء من خلال استعمال الإنترنت.

قراءة الروايات مثال عن كيفية قضاء وقت فراغي، وأنا أختيرها مرعياً خاصاً خاصة أنني أتعلم بعض العبارات والكلمات واستعملها في الترفية أسلوبي في الكتابة والحدث والمضافة إلى ذلك فإنني أتعلم تفكير يريفندي في دراستي فأنا حقا أستعير بالسعادة عندما أتلجج الرواية وأسرع في قراءتها. لكن هذا لا يعني أنني أقرأ الروايات هو الشيء الوحيد الذي أراه في وقت فراغي فأنا أيضاً أقضاءه أمام التلفاز.

مشاهدة التلفاز أيضاً طريقة أخرى أتعلم بها وقت فراغي فعني تطلعتني من الاحساس بالجمال والبهجة خاصة عند مشاهدة بعض المصنفات المصنوعة أو أفلام الكرتون، ظنني ذلك مشاهدة التلفاز تجعلني من تيممة ومطلعة على أحداث وأخبار العالم من خلال مشاهدة الأخبار في معدلة الميادين (إسياسية، اقتصادية، ثقافية) إضافة إلى انعكاسه نرى أحوال الطقس من خلال النشرة الجوية التي تعرض في التلفاز. تكون هل يعتبر التلفاز الوسيلة الوحيدة التي ترفقه عيني في وقت فراغي؟

بالطبع لا، فالمجرب واستعمال الإنترنت طريقة جديدة لقضاء وقت الفراغ، حيث يمكن الدردشة مع أصدقائي ومعرفة أحوالهم الشخصية كما أن لي القدرة على رؤيةهم من خلال استعمال الكاميرا وهذا لا يمنعني من التعرف على أصدقاء جدد من بلدان مختلفة مما يجعلني أكثر فاعلية وعادتهم وتكاليفهم فأنا أعتبر استعمال الإنترنت طريقة ناجحة لقضاء وقت فراغي فهي تسليتي وجعلني أكتب مطرمان سني.

ومن هنا يمكن القول بأن لكل شخص طريقة خاصة لقضاء وقت فراغه فأنا مثلاً لي طريقة من خلال مشاهدة التلفاز واستعمال الإنترنت لأنني أحس هذه الأشياء تنزل على الاحساس بالجمال والتعرف على لا بد أن عملي يجد.

لأننا نعرف أن في حياتنا اليومية أن أغلب الناس يعملون ويدرسون، وهذا ما يجعلهم متعبين وقلقين، مما يدفعهم للبحث عن أوقات فراغية يروحون بها قلقهم وتعبهم، فهناك من يذهب للأكل وهناك من يفضل القراءة وهناك من يفضل النوم... الخ المهم أن تكون أشياء غير متعبة ولا تستحق أي جهد. أما بالنسبة لي فأنا أملك طرقاً مختلفة لقضاء أوقات فراغية، ولكن هناك ثلاثة أمثلة أعتبرها مهمة ومفيدة في نفس الوقت وهي: مشاهدة التلفاز، القراءة ومارسة الرياضة.

أما التلفاز هو أول شئ أفضّل به قضاء وقت فراغي فهو بالنسبة لي شئ ممتع لا يمكن الاستغناء عنه، لأنه غني بالبرامج المفيدة التي تجعلني أكسب العديد من المعلومات الهامة التي تساعدني في حياتي وخاصة دراسي، فمشاهدة للشرطة العلمية ككنية من معرفة حياة الكائنات الحية بصفة عامة وحياة الإنسان بصفة خاصة، وأيضاً مستأحدثي للأفلام العربية يجعلني من متقاني اللغة إلى تجليزها بطريقة حسنة وخاصة أنها مختصاصة بالرياضة على هذا الروس للغة التي تبثها بعض القنوات الفضائية مما يجعلني أعلم العديد من القواعد.

أما بالنسبة للقراءة فأنا أعتبرها رفيقاً دائماً، فالقراءة المتواصلة تحسن من مستواي وتجعلني أقرأ الكتب والنصوص بطريقة جيدة سريعة، خالية من الأخطاء كما تمكنتي من ذلك الكلمات بسهولة من دون أي لبكة أو كوترة، وأنا أعتبر قراءة القرآن وقصص الأنبياء لها أفضل شئ أفضي به وقت فراغي لأنها تنفعني من جهة كما تجعلني مريحة، مطمئنة وتزيل عني القلق والتعب من جهة أخرى.

أخيراً وأما أدت الحديث عن الرياضة فأستطيع القول أن فوائد كثيرة وهذا ما يجعلني أتردد عليها في أوقات فراغي، فهي تجعل الجسم هوجياً كما تجعل النفس مريحة وها دثة، فأنا أمارسها لأنها تعطيني جسمي لهما جيداً وأيضاً تجعلني العديد من الأصدقاء خدعاً هذا فهي تجعلني أفضي أوقاتاً مريحة وتجعلني سعيدة.

أستطيع القول أن الوقت شئ مقيم وغني ويجب على كل إنسان أن يعرف كيف يستغل أوقات فراغه في أشياء مفيدة وناجحة، لأنه كما نرى أن فقدانها لا يجد مرة أخرى، كما أنه يفيدنا في حياتنا فلا يجب الاستغناء عنه وأنا أعتبر أن التلفاز، القراءة ومارسة الرياضة هي مهمة ومفيدة في نفس الوقت، أفضي بها وقت فراغي وتمكنتي من اكتساب المعرفة والعلم.

حياتنا اليومية نشاقة ومليئة بالمناعب، فمنا من يعمل طوال اليوم ومنا من يعمل منصفه، منا من لديه أولاد يلطمهم ومنا من لديه والدان يهتم بهما فكل شخص على هذا الكوكب لديه مهام يقوم بها، وكهالذبة جامعية، تمثل الدراسة محوراً أساسياً في حياتنا، لكن بغض النظر عن كل هذه الأعمال والمهام يوجد دوام وقت مخصص للراحة أو بالأحرى للحياة الشخصية، ولقد جاء هذا الوقت فوجد طرق عدة بحيث تختلف باختلاف الشخص، فالمبسطة لنا مثلا، أهدأ ومضاه معظم أوقات فراغنا في أشياء مفيدة لأني دائما أعتبر الوقت زحمة، شيئا لا يمكن تضييعه في أشياء لا طائل منها فأكثر تشغلي أستطيع الإستفادة منه نحو المذاكرة أو الرسم وكذلك الألبخ وهدغ الحلويات.

قد يتساءل أي شخص، لماذا المذاكرة؟ ألم تعلموا من الدراسة طوال اليوم؟ بكل بساطة الجواب سيكون: طالب العلم لا يضيع فرصة قد تعود بالنفع عليه، فلهذا المذاكرة أستمتع بوقتتي وبالهداية أكسب المعرفة. كما أن المذاكرة من أفضل هواياتي المهادنة ليس الهواية الوحيدة التي تلهيني وتنشئ كدر العلم والدراسة. فمن كل مرة أكون جالسة من غير تشغل مشاغل أهد نفسي قد سللت ورقة جدياء وقلم رصاص وأبدأ في رسم أي هورة قد خطر على بالي معبرة على ذلك عن كل جوانبها الإخيلية.

في كل مرة يذكر وقت الفراغ يجب أن يهاجبه المطبخ. فمن أهم وأكثر الأشياء التي أحب القيام بها في معظم وقت الفراغ نهاية الأسبوع هي الألبخ وهدغ الحلويات. فكل مرة أتصفح الأنترنت أو أشاهد حصة ألبخ يجب أن أعيد تطبيقها على أرض الواقع. ففي هدغ الحلويات أهد منة ليست لها مثيل، تنسني كهدوم الدنيا أو أي شئ عويهن قد مر على ذلك الأسبوع. إذا بدأت الكتابة من كهدية قضاء أوقات فراغنا فهد أظن أن ورقة واحدة تستتسع لذلك وبكل إختصار ذكرت ثلاثة من أكثر الأشياء التي أقوم بها وتشعرنا حان هذا حقا وقت مخصص لي وحدي. قد تكون هذه الأشياء مهلة أو هج في بعض الأحيان متعبة لكن الهدف المنشودة منها هو الإستمتاع بحياتك اليومية، وبما أن الوقت من أغلى ما وهد في الدنيا، وكما يقال الوقت من ذهب، إن لم تستغله ذهب. فعلى كل شخص أن يعرف ما هو أنفع له مما لا يندم على إهدار وقتته لاحقا.

إنَّ الحياة مجرد به أية ونهاية تتخللها حياة حنية معينة معتم وقت بالوقت. وهذه الإخمرة تعتمد هامة في حياة أي إنسان في أوقات الوجود والسعي الخقيق الصموت والنات، وعليه فإن كل واحد من هؤلاء به العلم بيقنة الرضاخنة لقضاء أوقات فم لينة، أمَّا لتعلم أشياء جديدة كان يحفلها أو لمجرد قضاءه هذا الوقت. وهنا أتسائل ما عني هذه الطرق التي تعلمني من قضاء أوقات فم اغني؟

صيد المسلك يعتبر من أروع الطرق لقضاء أوقات الفراغ، سواءً ذهبت مع الأصدقاء أو بعمدي، فيجسد الشعور بأن هناك مشكلة عالقة بالمثارة يجني أن وقتي لم يذهب سدى. وهذا قد ظهر تأملات التعلم، حتى التمتع بالمتنظر الطبيعي بخلق صفة في ذهني وهذه أقد كليا الشعور بالوقت إلى حين العودة، ونحن هل هذه العلم بيقنة الوحيدة لقضاء أوقات الفراغ؟

الطبخ أيضا من بين الطرق المفضلة لقضاء أوقات فم اغني، فهو يجعلني فحمة ومستمتعة بوقتي ولعنا أتتسي قول أحب الغلا مسفة القول السعادة بتكمه في لذة البهجة. كذلك التعلم وحيات حمله كانت أم تقليدية يكسني المعارة في التنافس مع الوقت، وهذه أقد أيضا من حسن بالوقت إلى حية تقديم الأكل ولعنا أتمد غلبا على هذه العلم بيقنة في كسب المعرفة والوقت في آن واحد.

أمَّا العلم بيقنة أفضل له في لقضاء معظم أوقات فم اغني هي المشوق الذي يعتبر أقرب للأعمال المصيبة إلى قلب المرأة، وبصفتي فتاة تحت المشوق فإن الوقت يجب أن مجرد دقائق حمت. والمشوق ليس فقط وقت أخصيب وإنما معرفة أكسبها من خلال التعلم علم تقدم العلوم من جهة والتعلم والمعرفة أكثر عن الثقافة والتاريخ من خلال الأشياء العتيقة التي تباع من جهة أخرى.

وبناء على كل هذا فإن الوقت يعتبر ذو قيمة عالية وحين علمنا استقلاله في أفضل لقول إن الوقت كالسيف إن لم تقطه قطعته. جعلنا الخلبغ والصيد والمشوق، إنما هم مجرد وسائل نسعى بها لتحقيق رغباتنا والقضاء على أوقات الفراغ. ويبقى لكل حين العلم بيقنة الرضاخنة لتحقيق ذلك وعليه فإن العلم بيقنة متعددة والغاية واحدة ألم وهما قضاء أوقات الفراغ.

”الوقت كالسيف إن لم تقطعه قطعك“ هذه المقولة تنطبق تماما على هذين وقت الفراغ في أمور طائل منها، وهذا يستدعي تدقا كبيرا عند هؤلاء الأشخاص الذين يستولون به في مثل هذه الأمور بعد سيطرة شيء ما أو عدم تحققه بعد جهد من الإحراق. لذلك نجد على كل إنسان التحلي في وقت فراغه ومعرفة استغلاله حتى لا يدمر أمله على ذلك وهذا بين الطرق التي أتت بها للمصنعية وقد فراغني فيما يعيدني التفرقة من الله عز وجل قراءة كتب أو روايات أو محاولة لفتح أزمته التلق.

التفرقة من الله عز وجل أو العبادة سلع ذو حدين، فهو معنيدي لي في دنياي وفي آخرة. أفعل هذا خاصة عند أوقات فراغي القليلة لتلاية الأسماع آخر المصروف الشريف الذي يعيدني في الطمأنينة وينبغي معرفة حول ماهية هذا العمل الذي نعيش فيه أما المعرفة والصوم فهما أكثر الأعمال التي تدققني من الله فأمرهم على فعلها بعد المسطوع أي وقتما استطع، وهما أيضا معيدان للمعرفة وساعدان ليسر على نفسي توازنه ففعله الأشياء البسيطة لمحتلني سكرية في كل وقت.

القراءة لذلك لها فوائد عظيمة فهي تبعث القور وترفع من الذم وتبطلني أهل من كل العلوم ففراءة الكتب الاجتماعية تساعدني على التعامل مع الناس ومعرفة حقائق بعض الأمور أما الروايات فتكسبني أمورا عن الدهر وعن الإسلام، أما الحرائد والمجربون فهي للتسلية والترفيه أقرأها حين يتعلمون لي وقد فراغ قهين وأفضل ففراءة كتابي وتعلم لكه واجته على البقاء دون فعل شيء.

أما أهم شيء بالنسبة لي هو تحطمي أزمته العلق التي تدفعني إلى الحيوان فأصبح إنسانا آخر مخلقة عن المادة، فثباتي هذه متايلة الناس أو أيا كان لدي أسمي حيا هدية لأنال من هذه الطماننة القاسية وذلك بالقيام ببعض الأعمال التي تساعدني على تحطمي هذه الأزمته والنساء همة أفضل أو أقوم ببعض الأعمال الفكرية كالسهرنج التي تساعدني على تعرفين الذكاء والذاكرة، وأخيرًا الجلوس أمام التلفاز همة ممتنة وهذا بعد التخلص من الإجهاد البدني أعانيه.

فالعناية بالقراءة والتفكير أزمته القاسية لمحتلني أنسي وقد فراغني وكيف أمتنيتها وهل لي وقد فراغ التحيد أن أمته وأفمن أن هذه هي الطرق الوحيدة لعطاء وقت الفراغ في أمور معنيدي لي في جميع الميادين.

الكثير من الأشخاص في مجتمعنا يعتقدون أنها قضاء وقت الفراغ في ممارستها مختلف الأشخاص والهدايا هو أمر غير مهم يعود على الشخص بتضييع الوقت المناسب للدراسة وهو المسبب الرئيسي في الرسوب وعدم الحصول على نتائج جيدة. أما بالنسبة لي فهذا الاعتقاد خاطئ لأن وقت الفراغ هو وقت المناسب للإعداد على مجال الدراسة للترفيه عن النفس والحصول على الفرص المناسبة للتنمية الهوائية الخاصة بي فمن بين الأشخاص الذين مارسوا لقضاء وقت فراغي مثلاً: مشاهدة التلفاز، قراءة بعض الكتب وممارسة الرياضة.

عند عودتي إلى البيت في المساء بعد عناء طويل من الدراسة أفضل مشاهدة برامج مختلفة للترفيه عن نفسي وتهدئة ثقافتي في مختلف المجالات لأنني أعتبر مشاهدة التلفاز أشعر بالراحة التي أفقدها طوال اليوم المطول بالتوتر والتعب الذهني. فبعض البرامج تعطني أفكاراً لفترة. ومن جهة أخرى أرى مشاهدة برامج تلفزيونية مهمة جداً لإكتساب معلومات تهيئ الثقافة الخاصة بالشخص وتجعله فرحاً وفخوراً بنفسه. لهذا أفضل مشاهدة التلفاز لفترة كل يوم في وقت فراغي لأنك تجعلني أجد معنى جديد للدراسة ومزاج إيجابي.

كما ذكرت في الأعلى مشاهدة التلفاز وحده غير كافٍ وممل في بعض الأحيان لهذا أفضل قراءة بعض الكتب المختلفة المواضيع لأنها تساعدني على الحصول على أفكار جديدة تنمي هويتي في المطالعة وتفيدني في استيعاب الأفكار الرئيسية في أقل وقت ممكن وكل هذا يساعدني في استوار في الدراسة وحيا على اليوميات.

بالإضافة إلى كل هذا ممارسة الرياضة مفيدة للصحة وتحمي الجسم من العزلة للمراحم المزمنة والتعب منها، وتجعلك أكثر نشاطاً وحيوية وتشعر بفرحة وإبتهاج بعد العودة إلى البيت. ممارسة الرياضة تجعل لك عقل سليم في جميع سلبيات.

وأخيراً مشاهدة التلفاز، المطالعة وممارسة الرياضة في وقت الفراغ لها فائدة كبيرة في حياة الإنسان لأنها تجعله أكثر صحة ونشاطاً، شخص مثقف ومزاج إيجابي لهذا أصرح بمارستها واستعملها على نتائج مفيدة في الحياة اليومية.

هكذا أن التفتت بالجامعة أصبحت أدرس طوال الوقت ولم يصنع حذما وقت فراغ التسلية والراحة ولكن كلها أخذ بعين اِسوفت عند رجوعي للمنزل أفضل قضاء وقت فراغي في مثل تلك الأشياء التي أحبها الأكثر ولما كنت تصفح الانترنت ، قراءة الكتب والنوم . ووضوح الانترنت هو احد الطرق الساجعة التي تساعدني على قضاء وقت ممتع وهما وسيلة ترفيهية لتضية وقت رايح حديثا أدرس مع الاصدقاء غير الهوايخ الاجتماعية أو تحميل الموسيقى والاقلام بالهواتف الى انها وسيلة لتوثيق تيقظي على اطوار حياتي مع الاصدقاء والوقائع دما تساعدني في بعوننا والواجبات اليومية . يادني الصحف كما انترنت هو عقا وسيلة جديدة لتضية وقت الفراغ .

احد الطرق المفيدة عندني لتضية الوقت خاصة عندما أشعر بالملل والوحدة هي قراءة الكتب اجد في هذه الهواية مدقة خاصة وراحة كبيرة وتنسبني تعب اليوم ، فتي كل مرة أختار كتابا و أتعلم في قراءة الى درجة أنني اجد بضرورة الوقت كما أن مطالعة الكتب هاربعة رائعة للتثاقيف وتنمية اللغة و تقوية الذاكرة لذا اجدها من أفضل الطرق لقضاء الوقت .

وأخيرا أفضل وأروع الطرق لتضية الوقت كما انطلق في النوم النوم اشره يمكنه أن يغلبه انة الافضل فهو جزء لا يجزأ من الحياة القاسية الهائلة ، كلما بينتها يومى الارساء وأكون متعبه و لست قادرة على فعل أي شئ ، اذ تذهب الى النوم فالنوم هو هاربعة الوحيدة التي تجعلك ترتطم من التعب وتعيد لي النشاط حيث يمكنني مواصلة العمل النوم هو حقا سر الحياة السعيدة فوسادتي تمنحني شعور ليس له مثيل بالسعادة والطمانينة فهي قصة حب لا تنسى ، وسادتي هي صديقتي ورفيقتي أحلمني وكم أعزني لحظة فراقنا في الصباح الباكر لكن تيقني هو اية القوم هي الأمل والاروع والأفضل على الاطلاق .

وبهذا فكلها ضاقت بابي الحياة وتألقت في الحياة الروتينية واللام الامتنامية للدراسة والعمل استعمل هذه الطرق لتثاقيف وتوحي على الانترنت وقراءة الكتب والنوم فهي تجعلني في كل مرة شخصاً أفضل .

Post-test English Compositions

Topic: "Social life is becoming very fragile these days. According to you, what are the essentials of a long-lasting relationship?"

People are living in society that have very essential traditions and customs. They are used to control their behaviours. For instance, these traditions have many aspects. One of those aspects is the social life, it is very important; it helps people to built their own steps of living in a good way, besides, making some essential rules for good relationships. If I take the relation between me and my mother as example. It needs among all the qualities: respect, trust and tolerance.

From my point of view, the respect is one of the essential things which is obligatory in any relation. Firstly, because this relation is between young and adult. Honestly, I always respect my mother. The very interesting thing is that she is giving back to me the same behaviour. Then, this respect will make our relation stronger. It is impossible for any one to cut it. However, respect alone cannot be enough. In my relation with my mother, I need another thing which is trust.

Trust is one of the interesting rules that they are needed in relations. For me, my relation with my mother is full of trust. She is always trusting in me even if I am not right. She gives me advices but she always lets me choose my way by myself. If she asks me to do some thing, I never discussed her because I know that she is doing her best to send me to the right way. I think that any relation is built on trust from both partners, is a good one, even if it contrast some times in their point of view.

Finally, the most important rules or the essential one is tolerance. In any relation, I think that every should respect the point of view of his partner. For me, I am too tolerant, I try always to listen to my mother views and their arguments, though I am not convinced. Besides, my mother is doing the same thing. This is matter of respect.

So, At the end, I can say that among all the qualities of a good relationships, these three, are the most important and essential ones because it makes the relation stronger.

The life is like a school school has a lot of effects on the person from many sides, it give me the enough experience to distenquish between good and ~~more~~ bad things moreover it give me the ability to know the ~~good~~ best characteristics of good persons by mean the principles must containe in each person to made real relationships, for me strong personality, good e education and high level of education are the main essential things make the relationships good.

The most important thing make the relationship good is the strong personality, so when the person have a strong personality he can control his self ~~his~~ beha, his behaviours, his emotions and his desires, he can find the best decisions in all situations, he can reduce the stress, and for all this things give him the opportunity to gain trust of people as well as made a strong relations.

The other interest principle characteristic of best relationship is the good education, The good education start from very small age within the family by parents, they learn them the best characteristics honest, faithful which will change their future life and the life thus who relat them. Persons with a good education know how must deal with people with different personalities, so all this things will built a very strong relationships with others every where.

The third basic essential beaver made strong relationships is high level of education this has a relation with a culture by mean when a person read a lot of books, such a high levels of education, communicate much people from different religions and different cultures, he have the enough wisdom to know people inside, so he can make his relationships very strong according to his wide experience.

Finally every one should choose his friends indeperce their behavers as well as their prinupls, every one should be honest with him self before be honest with others.

Life is too long to live it alone; therefore, it is very important to find the persons who are going to share with you every second of your life. Bad and good memories are there to be shared. It is not hard to create a relationship between people, the hardest thing is to maintain them; therefore, there are some essential things in which a good relationship should be raised on. Such as honesty, love and dedication.

Honesty is one of the keys to a good relationship. I think that, a person should be honest with him (her) self before engaging into it, because this last one is based on trust and honesty. Relationships are made to make you comfortable with yourself and with others. Acting and pretending one to be avoided, because there are no benefits in a relation raised on lies, consequently they want last for a long time.

Another thing which is very essential in a relationship is love. I don't think that a person would engage into a relation with a person who dislike; that's why, it is better to know how to love the other for who she (he) is, his attitude, behaviours... without given a big importance to his (her) back ground. Sharing your love; emotion; feeling does really create a good, beautiful relationship which make it unbreakable. Because love does not only bond two people, he also make them learn how to forgive and to understand.

The last thing is dedication, which has a big role in maintaining a relationship. For me, dedication is time. In other word, if you give your time to another person is like giving him (her) your life. (Giving all you have, without being selfish enough to take without give). an e-mail, a message, a little bit of attention and care, will really make a true bond between people, that make them know how much they matter for you.

In this world there are a lot of relationship that want last for ever. but that does not mean that every relationship is a bad ones. Some become experience and others make you who you are. That is what life is about.

Social life has become so fragile because of the problems facing relationships during the daily life. These problems are because of the absence of (especially) the essentials of a good relationship: as respect, trust and (love) faith love.

Respect is the most important, required quality to make a relationship work, that is why when the individuals are being rude while dealing with each other, many issues will appear. Moreover, the lack of respect means that people look uncivilized in their way of behaving.

Secondly trust represents a rule that keeps prevents relations from being broken up easily especially for couple - man and woman -. The reason is that if we do trust someone means we do believe in him as a good person which makes him think that he should be faithful to us in order to respect the trust we have already given him.

Finally, love is the guide of relations because humans respect and trust only those they love. This is obvious and shown in our life through many experiments; for example a person who doesn't like somebody can't be able to deal and build a relationship with him. Besides this when we love a person we are always ready to help, forgive and look after him.

No one can live alone because we were born into a world based on social life by nature. That is why we should look for the qualities that helps us to build good relations. Otherwise, we will be alone and stressed all the time.

As it is known, man is social by nature. It is very important to have neighbors, acquaintances, and friends because he cannot live without contacting others. It is good to create relations with people in order to exchange ideas and to be in contact with them. According to me, before making any relationship, there are many essentials that they should be existed to have a good one.

Honesty is very essential in making relations. It makes the relationship stronger between one and my partner. Whoever the person are, they should be honest with me to be more clear for me, to know about them more, and to avoid doubt. They should advice me, show me what is good and what is bad. Even if I do bad things, I try to be honest; the same thing for them. I prefer to be honest than telling lies, or being hypocrist.

Respect is one of the essentials of a good relationship. if ~~respe~~ it is exchanged with people, they would have been always in a good image. It is very important to respect each other. if I respect my self, people will respect me. Whenever there is respect, there is a good relationship. I like the person who accept the opinion of others, who respect the others' desires.

In addition to those previous essentials; for me, confidence is the main one. It is very important within family, between couples, between friends, etc. Whenever there is confidence, there is a strong relationship. It is the basic of any relation. because doubt destroy them, you should believe in your partner.

before making any relation you have to choose a good company, try to be good within your family, with people outside. these basics are very important to have a good relationship. I believe in these essentials because they are the basic.

All humans are preferring to live in social (do not like to live in own) have a strong friendship. However the latter is becoming so fragile nowadays, because of the absence of essentials. Although, every one can maintain a good friendship if he knows the qualities of it, like: honesty, being helpful and respectful.

Since honesty is the essential thing for a strong friendship, I advise friends to acquire it. Because it is the basic. If honesty disappears, friendship will break. For example: if I not tell the truth [lie] to my friend and she discover that I lie on her, she will get far from me, our friend relationship will be fragile. Maybe I lose my friend for ever!

Is being a helpful person essential to maintain a good friendship? Absolutely yes! If my friend need a help or she is in difficult situation I have to be with her, which makes her feel that she has a good friend. This support my relation, which make it strong because the real friend is in the difficult situations.

Respect is a good or essential for strong friendship, but does it exist between friends? yes, otherwise no one can have friendship. I believe that it is good quality to gain a strong relation with my friend. So I have to respect my friend's point of view and make her feel that she has a respectful friend: I do not impose my views only or to be authoritative with her. This is lack of respect which make my relation weak. Since friendship is crucial, I should have a good qualities: honesty, helpful and being respectful which make my friendship strong.

Weekdays I live in society full of problems, difficulties. I face many difficulties in many domains, but I find that my social life is very good with people, especially my friends because it is the backbone of any perfect relationship if it is good, which make me try to apply a lot of steps in order to get nice relationship with friends. I consider them as essential in built any great relationship which are: honesty, forgive and confidence.

First, I see that the word - relationship - has a big value in social life which make me honest with others, especially friends because when I will be honest, I will get the confidence of every one, that's why my friends love me. In addition, when I tell the truth I feel very happy and I find the right way for get solution to my problems, however, if I say any thing false I become dishonest, all people hate me, my friends cannot make me as a good friend.

I consider that forgive is the second main essential of a good relationship, since every friend of me can make small mistakes, I will give her or him another chance. Also, forgive between people is a nice thing to do because in "the Quran" I have read many verses, Hadith of the home prophet Mohamed - P.B.U.H. - After that, I always make mistakes and my friends forgive me.

The last important thing in built any good relationship is confidence. For me, I like this word because it make people love each other; In spite, when I make the confidence in my friend I will give her everything has relation with my life, I can tell her my problems, my sadness also I can give her all my secret. I find confidence important because I consider it as the development of relationship between friends and people.

To sum up, the term "relationship" has a big and important thing in my life which make the social life more strong and development, but all this needs to follow the essentials of a good relationship.

Human is social by nature, this fact is well known among everybody. Decades ago, people used to live separately; most of them were isolated. Ages later, they started associated with each other, living together and building strong relations. Consequently, societies were build; relationships were developed. Nevertheless, one should bear in mind that to build such a bond, human should possess some special qualities. From a personal point of view, I believe the most important requirements of a good relationship are: Trust, honesty, respect.

Trust is the backbone of any relationship. It is the reason that bonds between people are not broken. To trust someone is tell him ~~everything~~ without having the slightest doubt because you know your secrets are safe with him. A person you trust will have your back all ups and downs without even thinking for a moment why. On the other hand, you will entrust about everything in your life. However, if there is no trust, people will start suspecting; Everyone will think only about himself.

Honesty is no less important than trust. As a matter of fact, it is considered as one of its ingredients. An honest person says only the truth and never lies. He is sincere both with people and himself. As a result, they believe every word he says without questioning him. Usually, honest persons are trustworthy and make friends easily.

Another aspect that relations are based on is respect. Respect is great quality between humans; words cannot describe its deep meaning. Generally, to respect someone is to treat him with admiration, listen when he talk ~~with~~ without judging him recklessly. Respects revolves around all life aspects. Respect the way of thinking, respect point of views, respect beliefs and feelings, etc.

To conclude, social life is becoming fragile this age; relations are broken easily. As a solution people should do their best to keep the basis along with the qualities of the good relationship. Three of the most important aspects are: Trust, honesty and respect.

Social life is changing, where there are many things becoming less important than it was, by time it can lose their worth. The relationship is considered as one of these things that have started to lose its features and flexibility. As I know, relationship is linked to two people from different sex; it can be between mother and son, teacher and student or director and insistence, etc. Therefore to make a good relationship, it needs to follow or to put some steps as follows: honesty, conversation and understand the other one.

The first thing to build a good relationship is honesty. Honest can take the relationship far from than the one thought, it works only if taking off lying and telling or saying the truth. Furthermore, by time honest will give and bring a lot of features to the two couple like more trust and confidence and that the reason which makes it more strong than it was.

The second thing to have a good relationship is to make a lot and deep conversations between the two. It is considered as one of the helpful steps to get an extremely amazing relationship. More than that, conversation makes the both know more about each way of thinking, what they like and they don't, what the one want from the other to give, and what he should give to. Therefore, I think more conversations gives better relationships.

The most important thing to get a good relationship is to understand the other one. Because sometimes this is the center of the problem between the two; especially between man and woman, when I know that even women can not understand herself, her actions and emotions, so if the man try to understand what she want, he will own the whole world. Moreover, understand the other one it is mean that you are collaborative and helpful. This what exactly the relationship needs.

From the previous helpful things, I think it is not difficult to make it works, since I know that man needs to communicate, I believe that he must get a strong relationship. All of all, I can say that the relationship is a mystery, to know it you have try it.

Nowadays, relationships are very crucial in our social life, because it based on them. However, there are different relationships; each one has its value. The main one is friendship, because when you have a real friend I feel that his is my whole family. Since, this friend is like my relatives, I must chose it according to the following bases: respect, honesty, education.

Respect is the most important condition must be between friends. Because if the partners lack this basic the relationship will disappear; However, when they are respectful, they will love each other more. For example one of them likes to impose his views, or do not want to accept his friends ideas in this case he is unrespectful person.

Honesty also is from the bases of getting a successful friendship. Since, each one is like the family for his friend, there must be a trust, because the friend is the second heart of the person; he holds all his sad and happy things. Also, the friend the partner is a key, when he go, the other person lose all his securities with him. In addition to that, no one will chose a lyer person.

Education is another important basic in friendship. The partners cannot be together if one of them is impolite person. Because, if one of the friends is uneducated, people will consider the other partner as his friend. For example, when he misbehaved he ~~walking~~ to insult or laugh and shout in public places. Also, when the friend one of them need the other friend, he will find him to help, and he will not leave him alone even if he cannot help him.

Our society is not interested by these relationships, people ~~do~~ make friends just when they need something - just for ~~prof~~ personal profit. - That's why we should avoid this thing and try to make a good and strong friendship with taking the essentials of his relation into consideration.

Nowadays, relationships build between the members of all the societies all over the world. It is something very important, to achieve let a successful social life, when people build it with their real values. Friendship is a relation build between me and my friends, but to make it stronger I insist to have these three qualities in the relation: loyalty, honesty, and humanity.

A real friendship must contain the value of loyalty. Since my friends are passing a long time together, I must help them when they fall in troubles. More than this, a real friend must keep all the time with their friends in good, or in bad situations because in life we also can face a problem, too. Moreover, when I give help; search with them about the solutions, I am aware, they help me when I face troubles.

In addition to loyalty, to save my strong relationship, I must tell them the truth. First of all, friendship based on communication, so, most of the time, when I speak with them I keep my self have the value of honesty. Because telling the truth makes me feel happy; comfortable. Furthermore, the real events let my friends do the something with me. In this case, friendship build correctly (which take a long time); contains a full of happiness.

As I mentioned before, friendship requires the quality of humanity. At the beginning, I want to mention that, each member of my friendship should have humanity. Because it helps them to feel about the others emotions, for example: when one of them feel sad, I help him to escape this sadness. As I know friendship make between human beings, so I share all the good and bad time with them.

At the end I wish all the friends respect these qualities of friendship: loyalty, honesty, and humanity. To make sure about your friendship, it build strongly; takes a long time of your life with a full of happiness.

Nowadays, It became so hard to have a good friendships because most of these are lately deceiving and based on profits; It is rare to find someone that you can trust. Since friendship is one of the most important relations to have but so difficult to ~~be~~ find, for me, trust and honesty are the major elements that can only make a good friendship lasts.

Trust is the most important element but also the absent one in most of these days friendships. A friend, first, that I trust is the one I can rely on and who won't drop ^{me} and turn his back. The second I have problems. Second, friendship will be fake if the friend I choose to have is selfish and only care about his own profits because the most beautiful thing about friendship is to be loyal towards the other; to be able to share and help one another. So trust must exist between my friend and me.

There is no working relationship with it not based on honesty. And friendship requires necessarily this aspect. To be honest is to be faithful and true ~~to~~ regarding my partner because an honest friend should be always true to me, whatever the circumstances are; a liar friend is a puppet, unreliable person who will only drag the relationship into failure. Then, a bad friend with two faces holds me always back from my goals and dreams and try all the time to break my spirit. Therefore, I think that honesty makes great friends and helps you to see what a good friend is really made of.

In conclusion, Every person has to make choices in this life and for me the best one is about good friends because no matter what, only a good friend can make me a better person with great values because friendship shows you really who you are but only if it is based on trust and honesty.

APPENDIX 03

Data Presentation

Data Presentation of Arabic/English Compositions Comparison

Coordination

N	Arabic	English
1	18	17
2	20	14
3	13	6
4	22	17
5	22	17
6	16	13
7	9	13
8	16	8
9	12	14
10	8	17
11	12	9
12	10	16
13	18	20
14	11	10
15	11	17
16	17	14
17	25	18
18	22	14
19	24	19
20	23	15
21	22	27
22	9	15
23	14	16
24	14	11
25	19	13
26	22	14
27	19	14
28	10	12
29	12	17
30	16	14
31	13	16
32	15	10
33	23	14

34	23	15
35	19	16
36	18	16
37	19	21
38	14	9
39	10	12
40	15	14
41	14	13
42	11	13
43	19	14
44	14	17
45	17	12
46	11	16
47	18	9
48	18	12
49	17	20
50	12	14
51	10	15
52	11	13
53	16	14
54	14	22
55	20	16
56	12	19
57	6	15
58	10	17
59	7	8
60	10	20

Subordination

N	Arabic	English
1	3	8
2	1	7
3	3	13
4	3	5
5	2	6
6	3	5
7	2	6
8	3	6

9	0	4
10	9	5
11	3	13
12	0	3
13	1	4
14	1	6
15	2	6
16	1	13
17	4	5
18	4	4
19	3	9
20	1	4
21	4	9
22	3	2
23	2	2
24	2	3
25	3	3
26	2	3
27	3	7
28	1	8
29	2	9
30	0	7
31	0	4
32	3	4
33	2	5
34	7	7
35	3	4
36	0	3
37	2	3
38	2	2
39	0	4
40	4	7
41	4	2
42	0	4
43	2	5
44	2	3
45	2	3
46	3	3
47	4	8
48	5	3

49	1	6
50	0	2
51	3	2
52	3	4
53	2	4
54	1	5
55	5	6
56	2	0
57	1	3
58	11	3
59	2	7
60	3	7

Repetition

N	Arabic	English
1	9	9
2	6	5
3	3	6
4	7	1
5	7	5
6	9	0
7	4	5
8	6	3
9	2	9
10	2	6
11	8	7
12	6	3
13	4	10
14	5	2
15	8	4
16	4	4
17	1	0
18	7	6
19	10	6
20	11	10
21	6	7
22	1	6
23	4	4

24	7	6
25	2	7
26	8	6
27	5	5
28	1	3
29	3	7
30	4	3
31	6	8
32	5	4
33	5	5
34	4	4
35	8	7
36	3	5
37	7	6
38	6	3
39	6	5
40	6	3
41	6	10
42	3	5
43	7	3
44	5	11
45	7	4
46	3	6
47	3	2
48	3	4
49	4	5
50	7	2
51	1	3
52	7	1
53	4	4
54	6	7
55	4	7
56	11	6
57	7	8
58	3	0
59	5	2
60	6	4

Collectiveness

N	Arabic	English
1	3	1
2	3	6
3	4	1
4	5	1
5	1	2
6	0	2
7	1	2
8	13	5
9	5	3
10	8	4
11	1	3
12	0	6
13	0	14
14	0	10
15	0	1
16	2	0
17	8	9
18	1	1
19	1	0
20	0	8
21	4	2
22	2	12
23	10	19
24	3	0
25	7	16
26	3	0
27	0	4
28	4	4
29	10	0
30	4	4
31	1	1
32	5	1
33	2	13
34	3	4
35	3	7
36	4	4
37	0	2

38	0	3
39	14	2
40	3	11
41	4	1
42	8	0
43	3	1
44	3	2
45	9	7
46	0	11
47	2	4
48	0	3
49	5	7
50	5	8
51	5	8
52	3	2
53	0	3
54	1	2
55	1	0
56	13	3
57	3	1
58	0	0
59	1	0
60	0	1

Culture-specific Expressions

N	Arabic	English
1	0	0
2	0	0
3	0	0
4	2	0
5	1	0
6	3	0
7	0	0
8	0	0
9	1	1
10	2	0
11	0	1

12	1	0
13	1	0
14	0	0
15	0	0
16	0	0
17	0	0
18	0	0
19	0	0
20	0	0
21	1	0
22	0	1
23	0	0
24	0	0
25	1	0
26	3	0
27	2	0
28	1	1
29	0	0
30	0	0
31	0	0
32	1	0
33	2	3
34	1	2
35	0	0
36	2	0
37	0	1
38	1	0
39	0	0
40	2	0
41	2	0
42	1	0
43	1	0
44	3	0
45	1	0
46	0	0
47	0	2
48	0	0
49	1	0
50	0	1
51	1	1

52	3	2
53	0	0
54	0	0
55	1	0
56	0	1
57	1	0
58	0	0
59	0	0
60	2	4

Religious Expressions

N	Arabic	English
1	1	0
2	0	0
3	3	4
4	4	1
5	0	4
6	0	0
7	2	0
8	0	0
9	0	0
10	0	0
11	0	0
12	1	0
13	4	2
14	0	2
15	0	0
16	0	2
17	6	5
18	0	0
19	0	0
20	0	6
21	0	0
22	2	7
23	3	3
24	0	0
25	0	0

26	1	0
27	0	0
28	3	5
29	0	0
30	0	0
31	1	0
32	0	0
33	0	0
34	0	0
35	0	0
36	0	0
37	0	0
38	1	0
39	0	0
40	1	1
41	1	0
42	8	2
43	0	0
44	0	0
45	0	0
46	0	0
47	0	0
48	0	0
49	0	0
50	0	0
51	1	0
52	0	0
53	0	0
54	0	0
55	0	0
56	4	6
57	0	0
58	0	0
59	0	0
60	0	0

Data Presentation of Pre-test/Post-test Computations

The Overall Use of Connectors

	Pre-test	Post-test	Differences ($X_1 - X_2$)	Differences squared
N	X_1	X_2	d	d^2
1	30	17	13	169
2	21	22	-1	1
3	16	11	5	25
4	18	17	1	1
5	29	21	8	64
6	17	12	5	25
7	17	15	2	4
8	14	18	-4	16
9	18	8	10	100
10	23	12	11	121
11	20	19	1	1
12	18	11	7	49
13	26	10	16	256
14	19	13	6	36
15	20	17	3	9
16	26	20	6	36
17	22	21	1	1
18	15	23	-8	64
19	27	14	13	169
20	24	17	7	49
21	33	18	15	225
22	19	12	7	49
23	19	22	-3	9
24	12	15	-3	9
25	13	11	2	4
26	19	22	-3	9
27	23	16	7	49
28	13	7	6	36
29	23	24	-1	1
30	18	15	3	9
31	22	11	11	121
32	12	13	-1	1

33	14	8	6	36
34	17	19	-2	4
35	20	15	5	25
36	16	15	1	1
37	26	18	8	64
38	13	14	-1	1
39	15	21	-6	36
40	21	15	6	36
41	19	24	-5	25
42	14	21	-7	49
43	12	23	-11	121
44	24	19	5	25
45	14	12	2	4
46	18	7	11	121
47	15	16	-1	1
48	14	14	0	0
49	25	24	1	1
50	15	16	-1	1
51	14	22	-8	64
52	16	23	-7	49
53	15	16	-1	1
54	26	23	3	9
55	18	13	5	25
56	19	18	1	1
57	19	13	6	36
58	18	16	2	4
59	14	17	-3	9
60	22	16	6	36
			$d=157$	$d^2=2503$

Coordination

	Pre-test	Post-test	Differences ($X_1 - X_2$)	Differences squared
N	X_1	X_2	d	d^2
1	17	16	1	1
2	14	14	0	0
3	6	8	-2	4
4	17	13	4	16

5	17	13	4	16
6	13	10	3	9
7	13	10	3	9
8	8	19	-11	121
9	14	6	8	64
10	17	7	10	100
11	9	15	-6	36
12	16	10	6	36
13	20	11	9	81
14	10	10	0	0
15	17	13	4	16
16	14	14	0	0
17	18	17	1	1
18	14	15	-1	1
19	19	10	9	81
20	15	15	0	0
21	27	12	15	225
22	15	9	6	36
23	16	12	4	16
24	11	8	3	9
25	13	8	5	25
26	14	15	-1	1
27	14	9	5	25
28	12	7	5	25
29	17	15	2	4
30	14	13	1	1
31	16	8	8	64
32	10	9	1	1
33	14	9	5	25
34	15	12	3	9
35	16	11	5	25
36	16	12	4	16
37	21	11	10	100
38	9	9	0	0
39	12	13	-1	1
40	14	12	2	4
41	13	15	-2	4
42	13	12	1	1
43	14	12	2	4
44	17	11	6	36

45	12	9	3	9
46	16	6	10	100
47	9	12	-3	9
48	12	13	-1	1
49	20	12	8	64
50	14	11	3	9
51	15	14	1	1
52	13	15	-2	4
53	14	9	5	25
54	22	14	8	64
55	16	10	6	36
56	19	13	6	36
57	15	10	5	25
58	17	12	5	25
59	8	10	-2	4
60	20	12	8	64
			$d=191$	$d^2=1725$

Subordination

	Pre-test	Post-test	Differences (X1-X2)	Differences squared
N	$X1$	$X2$	d	d^2
1	8	5	3	9
2	7	11	-4	16
3	13	12	1	1
4	5	8	-3	9
5	6	14	-8	64
6	5	6	-1	1
7	6	9	-3	9
8	6	6	0	0
9	4	4	0	0
10	5	5	0	0
11	13	5	8	64
12	3	2	1	1
13	4	3	1	1
14	6	6	0	0
15	6	12	-6	36

16	13	9	4	16
17	5	4	1	1
18	4	5	-1	1
19	9	11	-2	4
20	4	5	-1	1
21	9	9	0	0
22	2	7	-5	25
23	2	6	-4	16
24	3	5	-2	4
25	3	6	-3	9
26	3	10	-7	49
27	7	8	-1	1
28	8	3	5	25
29	9	10	-1	1
30	7	3	4	16
31	4	6	-2	4
32	4	7	-3	9
33	5	4	1	1
34	7	8	-1	1
35	4	9	-5	25
36	3	6	-3	9
37	3	5	-2	4
38	2	6	-4	16
39	4	5	-1	1
40	7	4	3	9
41	2	8	-6	36
42	4	9	-5	25
43	5	5	0	0
44	3	4	-1	1
45	3	6	-3	9
46	3	2	1	1
47	8	3	5	25
48	3	5	-2	4
49	6	7	-1	1
50	2	3	-1	1
51	2	9	-7	49
52	4	6	-2	4
53	4	8	-4	16
54	5	6	-1	1
55	6	5	1	1

56	0	7	-7	49
57	3	5	-2	4
58	3	4	-1	1
59	7	7	0	0
60	7	7	0	0
			$d=-77$	$d^2=687$

Repetition

	Pre-test	Post-test	Differences ($X1-X2$)	Differences squared
N	$X1$	$X2$	d	d^2
1	9	6	3	9
2	5	4	1	1
3	6	1	5	25
4	1	3	-2	4
5	5	2	3	9
6	0	2	-2	4
7	5	0	5	25
8	3	3	0	0
9	9	2	7	49
10	6	2	4	16
11	7	5	2	4
12	3	3	0	0
13	10	2	8	64
14	2	1	1	1
15	4	3	1	1
16	4	3	1	1
17	0	1	-1	1
18	6	1	5	25
19	6	2	4	16
20	10	4	6	36
21	7	1	6	36
22	6	4	2	4
23	4	7	-3	9
24	6	6	0	0
25	7	4	3	9
26	6	4	2	4

27	5	5	0	0
28	3	1	2	4
29	7	3	4	16
30	3	1	2	4
31	8	0	8	64
32	4	1	3	9
33	5	1	4	16
34	4	2	2	4
35	7	4	3	9
36	5	3	2	4
37	6	3	3	9
38	3	4	-1	1
39	5	5	0	0
40	3	6	-3	9
41	10	3	7	49
42	5	2	3	9
43	3	6	-3	9
44	11	2	9	81
45	4	1	3	9
46	6	0	6	36
47	2	6	-4	16
48	4	0	4	16
49	5	6	-1	1
50	2	2	0	0
51	3	3	0	0
52	1	6	-5	25
53	4	1	3	9
54	7	4	3	9
55	7	1	6	36
56	6	1	5	25
57	8	3	5	25
58	0	1	-1	1
59	2	0	2	4
60	4	3	1	1
			$d=133$	$d^2=863$

Collectiveness

	Pre-test	Post-test	Differences ($X_1 - X_2$)	Differences squared
N	X_1	X_2	d	d^2
1	1	0	1	1
2	6	0	6	36
3	1	0	1	1
4	1	1	0	0
5	2	2	0	0
6	2	0	2	4
7	2	2	0	0
8	5	1	4	16
9	3	1	2	4
10	4	4	0	0
11	3	0	3	9
12	6	0	6	36
13	14	0	14	196
14	10	0	10	100
15	1	0	1	1
16	0	0	0	0
17	9	1	8	64
18	1	0	1	1
19	0	2	-2	4
20	8	6	2	4
21	2	1	1	1
22	12	7	5	25
23	19	1	18	324
24	0	2	-2	4
25	16	0	16	256
26	0	8	-8	64
27	4	11	-7	49
28	4	0	4	16
29	0	1	-1	1
30	4	3	1	1
31	1	0	1	1
32	1	0	1	1
33	13	0	13	169
34	4	7	-3	9
35	7	0	7	49

36	4	0	4	16
37	2	3	-1	1
38	3	1	2	4
39	2	0	2	4
40	11	0	11	121
41	1	0	1	1
42	0	1	-1	1
43	1	0	1	1
44	2	2	0	0
45	7	2	5	25
46	11	0	11	121
47	4	4	0	0
48	3	2	1	1
49	7	0	7	49
50	8	6	2	4
51	8	1	7	49
52	2	0	2	4
53	3	1	2	4
54	2	0	2	4
55	0	0	0	0
56	3	0	3	9
57	1	2	-1	1
58	0	0	0	0
59	0	0	0	0
60	1	0	1	1
			$d=166$	$d^2=1868$

Culture-specific Expressions

	Pre-test	Post-test	Differences (X1-X2)	Differences squared
N	$X1$	$X2$	d	d^2
1	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	0
6	0	0	0	0

7	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0
9	1	0	1	1
10	0	0	0	0
11	1	0	1	1
12	0	0	0	0
13	0	0	0	0
14	0	0	0	0
15	0	0	0	0
16	0	0	0	0
17	0	0	0	0
18	0	0	0	0
19	0	0	0	0
20	0	0	0	0
21	0	0	0	0
22	1	0	1	1
23	0	0	0	0
24	0	0	0	0
25	0	0	0	0
26	0	0	0	0
27	0	0	0	0
28	1	0	1	1
29	0	0	0	0
30	0	1	-1	1
31	0	0	0	0
32	0	0	0	0
33	3	0	3	9
34	2	1	1	1
35	0	1	-1	1
36	0	0	0	0
37	1	0	1	1
38	0	0	0	0
39	0	0	0	0
40	0	0	0	0
41	0	2	-2	4
42	0	0	0	0
43	0	1	-1	1
44	0	1	-1	1
45	0	1	-1	1
46	0	0	0	0

47	2	0	2	4
48	0	0	0	0
49	0	0	0	0
50	1	0	1	1
51	1	0	1	1
52	2	0	2	4
53	0	0	0	0
54	0	0	0	0
55	0	0	0	0
56	1	0	1	1
57	0	0	0	0
58	0	0	0	0
59	0	0	0	0
60	4	0	4	16
			$d=13$	$d^2=51$

Religious Expressions

	Pre-test	Post-test	Differences (X1-X2)	Differences squared
N	$X1$	$X2$	d	d^2
1	0	0	0	0
2	0	3	-3	9
3	4	0	4	16
4	1	0	1	1
5	4	0	4	16
6	0	0	0	0
7	0	1	-1	1
8	0	0	0	0
9	0	1	-1	1
10	0	0	0	0
11	0	0	0	0
12	0	0	0	0
13	2	0	2	4
14	2	0	2	4
15	0	0	0	0
16	2	0	2	4
17	5	1	4	16

18	0	0	0	0
19	0	0	0	0
20	6	0	6	36
21	0	0	0	0
22	7	0	7	49
23	3	0	3	9
24	0	0	0	0
25	0	0	0	0
26	0	0	0	0
27	0	0	0	0
28	5	0	5	25
29	0	0	0	0
30	0	0	0	0
31	0	2	-2	4
32	0	0	0	0
33	0	0	0	0
34	0	0	0	0
35	0	0	0	0
36	0	0	0	0
37	0	1	-1	1
38	0	0	0	0
39	0	0	0	0
40	1	0	1	1
41	0	0	0	0
42	2	0	2	4
43	0	0	0	0
44	0	0	0	0
45	0	0	0	0
46	0	0	0	0
47	0	0	0	0
48	0	0	0	0
49	0	0	0	0
50	0	0	0	0
51	0	0	0	0
52	0	0	0	0
53	0	2	-2	4
54	0	1	-1	1
55	0	0	0	0
56	6	0	6	36
57	0	0	0	0

58	0	0	0	0
59	0	0	0	0
60	0	0	0	0
			$d=38$	$d^2=242$

APPENDIX 04

Instruction¹

¹ The present section includes only the lessons and materials that have been prepared beforehand based on the literature review of the study. Further explanations have been given and other activities have been performed on the spot based on students' reactions and understanding.

Connectors²

Step One: Meaning and Use

1. Addition: and, also, and also:

E.g.1: Birds and insects are animals.

E.g.2: Go home and rewrite your paragraph.

E.g.3: The shops have closed, and everybody has gone home.

2. Opposition:

but/or/either...or/neither...nor/however/nevertheless/yet:

E.g.1: Your paper is short but written in good English.

I came early, but there was nobody.

E.g.2: You or your sister can apply for the job.

They can travel or buy books with the money they won.

E.g.3: The winners will either travel or buy books.

E.g.4: Neither girls nor boys should stay out late.

E.g.5: The roads were blocked with snow; however (nevertheless/yet)
the cars were running.

3. Contrast: Although/even though/though:

E.g.1: Although they knew it was going to snow, they went to school.

E.g.2: The race went ahead even though they knew there were going to be

² A course designed by Professor Farida Abderrahim originally for the second-year grammar curriculum.

demonstrations. (Emphasis)

E.g.3: Though they arrived late, they were allowed in. (Less formal)

Note: Despite/in spite of + N are Prepositions:

E.g.1: Despite the weather, all the flights took off.

E.g.2: In spite of their situation, all the children did higher studies.

E.g.3: In spite of the fact that they had difficulties, they won.

4. Consequence: “So”:

E.g.: They got the highest marks, so they were given the first choice.

5. Reasons and Purposes: As/since/because/because of/due to/in order to/in order that/so as to/so that:

E.g.1: I often listen to music as (while) I drive back home.

E.g.2: Since all the roads were blocked, the exams were postponed.

E.g.3: I could not sleep because the music was full blast.

E.g.4: Because of the frost, all the fruits fell to the ground.

E.g.5: Due to her quick reaction, she was saved from drowning.

E.g.6: He has to climb ten flights of stairs in order to (so as to) get home every day.

E.g.7: He signed up for a one-year contract so that (in order that) he can test his ability to teach.

Step Two:

- Write about what you have been doing during the past holidays.

- Use as many connectors/conjunctions as possible (addition, opposition, contrast, consequence, reasons and purposes).

Coordination and Subordination

Coordination and subordination are the two major ways in which sentences are combined in English.

I- Coordination is used to connect two ideas (clauses) of equal weight and importance. In other words, coordination gives equal attention to two items.

Examples:

- a) The dog ate Marvin's favorite tie. The cat rubbed white hair on Marvin's black suit.
- b) The dog ate Marvin's favorite tie, **and** the cat rubbed white hair on Marvin's black suit.
- a) The bird was injured. It survived.
- b) The bird was injured, **but** it survived. Or: - The bird was injured; **however**, it survived.

❖ Coordination is made by:

1- Using coordinating conjunctions: and, but, for, or, nor, yet, and so

F	A	N	B	O	Y	S
For	And	Nor	But	Or	Yet	So

Examples: Main Clause+ . + Coordinating conjunction + Main clause

- I am smarter than my brother, **yet** he still got a higher grade on the test.
- It is raining outside today, **so** I think I will wear my raincoat.
- Ram likes tea, **but** Anthony likes coffee.

2- Using a semicolon

Example: Main Clause + ; + Main clause

- a) I want to buy a new jacket. It is too expensive.
- b) I want to buy a new jacket; it is too expensive.

3- Using a semicolon followed by a conjunctive adverb (*however, therefore, consequently, in addition, etc.*)

Example: Main Clause + ; + Transition + , + Main Clause

- a) She studied all weekend. She passed the test.
- b) She studied all weekend; **consequently**, she passed the test.

II- Subordination is the most common way to join sentences in written English because it allows the writer to show which *sentence has greater significance* in a text. In other words, *subordination* involves identifying one idea as *less important* than another.

Examples:

- a) Marvin tried to clean his suit. He was late to the interview.
- b) **Since** Marvin tried to clean his suit, he was late to the interview.
- a) Sarah hates public speaking. She gave a speech in honor of her favorite charity.
- b) **Although** Sarah hates public speaking, she gave a speech in honor of her favorite charity.

❖ Subordination is made by:

- **Using a subordinating conjunction** (after, although, as, because, before, even though, if, even if, in order that, since, so that, though, unless, when, whenever, while, etc.)

Example 1: Subordinating Conjunction + Subordinate Clause + Main Clause

Because I already had plans, I could not babysit for Suzanne

Example 2: Main Clause + Subordinating Conjunction + Subordinate Clause

Joe went to the store **because** he needed some orange juice.

Punctuation³

1- The Period (full stop)

- ❖ A period [.] is used at the end of a sentence that makes a statement.
- ❖ Use a period at the end of a command:
 - Hand in the poster essays no later than noon on Friday.
 - In case of tremors, leave the building immediately.
- ❖ Use a period at the end of an indirect question:
 - The teacher asked why Maria had left out the easy exercises.
 - My father used to wonder why Egbert's ears were so big.
- ❖ Use a period with abbreviations:

Dr. Espinoza arrived from Washington, D.C., at 6 p.m.

Notice that when the period ending the abbreviation comes at the end of a sentence, it will also suffice to end the sentence. On the other hand, when an abbreviation ends a question or exclamation, it is appropriate to add a question mark or exclamation mark after the abbreviation-ending period:

³ A lesson in punctuation was deemed necessary after noticing students' mistakes in the use of punctuation marks to formulate coordination and subordination. Though the comma and the semicolon are the main marks for making the two joining patterns, the other marks were recapitulated so students would not confuse them. Furthermore, this overview of punctuation marks was given for students to link sentences and clauses, and diminish their excessive reliance on connective expressions.

Did you enjoy living in Washington, D.C.?

2- The Comma

❖ Use a comma [,] to separate the elements in a series (three or more things):

- He hit the ball, dropped the bat, and ran to first base.

❖ Use commas to separate independent clauses in a sentence, for example:

- *The game was over, but the crowd refused to leave.*
- *Yesterday was her brother's birthday, so she took him out to dinner.*

❖ Use commas after introductory words, phrases, or clauses that come before the main clause:

- *While I was eating, the cat scratched at the door.*
- *If you are ill, you ought to see a doctor.*

❖ Introductory words that should be followed by a comma such as: however, moreover, yet, furthermore, in addition, finally, etc.

- *Therefore, I threw away my cigarettes.*
- *As a result, I feel terrible right now.*

❖ Use a comma to set off parenthetical elements:

- The Founders Bridge, *which spans the Connecticut River*, is falling down.

By "parenthetical element," we mean a part of a sentence that can be removed without changing the essential meaning of that sentence.

❖ Use commas if they prevent confusion:

- *To George, Harrison had been a sort of idol.*
- “For most, the year is already finished” *Instead of:* “For most the year is already finished”

3- The Semicolon [;]

❖ Use a semicolon [;] to join two independent clauses connected by a transitional word (*however, consequently, otherwise, moreover, nevertheless*).

- *I need to write better; however, grammar bores me.*

❖ Use a semicolon to separate two independent clauses not joined by a coordinating conjunction:

- *Some people prefer to pay cash; others prefer credit cards.*
- *Call me tomorrow; I will give you my answer then.*

❖ Use the semicolon to separate units of a series when one or more of the units contain commas.

- *This conference has people who have come from Boise, Idaho; Los Angeles, California; and Nashville, Tennessee.*
- *We had four professors on our committee: Peter Wursthorn, Professor of Mathematics; Ronald Pepin, Professor of English; Cynthia Greenblatt, Professor of Education; and Nada Light, Professor of Nursing.*

4- The Colon

❖ Use a colon [:] To put emphasis on something:

- Joe has only one thing on his mind: profit.

❖ To introduce a list:

- Julie went to the store for some groceries: milk, bread, coffee, and cheese.
- *I want an assistant who can do the following: input data, write reports, and complete tax forms.*
- *There are three ways a waitress can make a good impression on her boss and her customers:*
 - (a) *Dress appropriately.*
 - (b) *Calculate the bill carefully.*
 - (c) *Be courteous to customers.*

❖ Use a colon between two sentences when the second sentence explains or illustrates the first:

- *I enjoy reading: novels by Kurt Vonnegut are among my favorites.*

❖ Use the colon to introduce a direct quotation:

- The boss says: “nobody is above the law.”

5- The Question Mark

❖ Use a question mark [?] after a direct question:

- *Will you go with me?*
- *“Do you want to go?” Patty asked.*
- *How much money did you transfer?*

❖ Use a question mark after a tag question:

- You know where she lives, don't you?
- You're French, aren't you?

❖ When writing a series of questions, use a question mark for each item, even if items are not complete sentences:

- The board members had to decide on a new course of action for the company. Expand? Sell out? Consider new financial reforms?

6- The exclamation Mark

❖ Use an exclamation mark [!] to indicate a strong emotion or emphatic declaration:

- Look out, there's an elephant running behind you!

❖ Use the exclamation point to show emphasis or surprise:

- *I'm truly shocked by your behavior!*
- Stop! I really don't want to get wet, don't throw me in the pool!

7- The Ellipses

❖ Use an ellipsis [...] to indicate that a list goes on beyond those items actually spelled out in the text:

- *An evil witch, a tap-dancing scarecrow, flying monkeys, an emotionally unstable lion, disturbing Munchkins . . .*

❖ Use ellipsis marks when omitting a word, phrase, line, paragraph, or more from a quoted passage:

- *The regulation states, "All agencies must document overtime..."*

8- Parentheses

❖ Use parentheses () to enclose words or figures that clarify:

- *I expect five hundred dollars (\$500).*

❖ Use parentheses to enclose **numbers or letters used for listed items:**

- *We need an emergency room physician who can (1) think quickly, (2) treat patients respectfully, and (3) handle complaints from the public.*

❖ Use parentheses to include material that you want to **de-emphasize** or that wouldn't normally **fit into the flow of your text** but you want to include nonetheless:

- *Thirty-five years after his death, Robert Frost (we remember him at Kennedy's inauguration) remains America's favorite poet.*
- *I will meet John (who went to school with me).*

❖ To show that a word could be either singular or plural:

- *Please write the name(s) of your guest(s) in the section below.*

9- **Brackets**

❖ Use brackets [] to include **explanatory words or phrases within quoted language:**

- *She said: "I helped Richard with his memos [in fact, she wrote them all] when he was pressed for time."*

❖ **To add information that explains the text:**

- *It was the 13th chapter of the novel [John Grisham's *The Firm*] I was reading.*
- *The two teams in the finals of the first FIFA Football World Cup were both from South America [Uruguay and Argentina].*

10- Apostrophe❖ **Use the apostrophe ['] to show possession (ownership):**

- *Ben's party and yesterday's weather.*

❖ **Use an apostrophe to show the omission of letters in a contraction:**

I am = I'm	you are = you're	she is = she's	it is = it's
do not = don't	she would = she'd	he would have = he would've	
let us = let's	who is = who's	she will = she'll	they had = they'd

11- Hyphen❖ **Use a hyphen [-] in compound words:**

- *mother-in-law; Chinese-speaking; a one-way street; hair-raiser; computer-aided; sugar-free.*

❖ Use a hyphen between two or more adjectives when they come before a noun and act as a single idea:

- *a friendly-looking man ; a well-known author; chocolate-covered peanuts; an up-to-date account.*

❖ Use a hyphen with compound numbers:

- *forty-six; sixty-three.*

❖ Use a hyphen with the prefixes **ex-** (meaning former), **self-**, **all-**, **mid-**:

- *ex-husband; self-assured; mid-September; all-inclusive.*

12- Dash

❖ Use a dash [—] to emphasize a word or phrase:

- *The president stated that we had one week – one week only – to make a decision.*
- *You are the friend—the only friend—who offered to help me.*

❖ Use a dash to mark limits between dates, numbers, places, and times:

- *The admissions office is open 9:00 – 4:30 daily.*
- *Read pages 22 – 40.*
- *The years 2001–2003.*
- *January–June.*

Repetition

Types of Repetition Shared between Arabic and English

1. Repetition (same-word-repetition)

What we lack in a newspaper is what we should get. In a word, a 'popular' newspaper may be the winning ticket.

2. Synonym

You could try reversing the car up the slope. The incline isn't all that steep.

3. Superordinate

Pneumonia has arrived with the cold and wet conditions. The illness is striking everyone from infants to the elderly.

4. General Word

A: Did you try the steamed buns?

B: Yes, I didn't like the things much.

Types of Repetition Unique to Arabic

1. Root Repetition

- Using words of the same form-family: repetition of the same morphological root in close proximity within a text.

- كتب كتابا

- kataba kitaAbā

- He wrote a book

- يختلف اختلافا كبيرا -
- yaxtalifu Ax.tilafaAã kabiyaAã
- It differs a big difference
- درسنا هذا الدرس -
- daras.naA haðaA Aldar.s.
- We studied this lesson

2. Lexical-Pattern Repetition

- Repetition of the same pattern:

- كان يحسُّ من أمه رِحمَةً ورأفةً -
- kaAna yuHis~u min. Âum~ihi raH.maḥã wa raÂ.fahã
- He experienced much tenderness and consideration from his mother
- الظواهر و الحوادث -
- AlDawaAhir. wa AlHawaAdiØ.
- Phenomena and events

- Combination of synonyms and antonyms:

- البضائع المستوردة أو المصدرة أو المرسلة -
- AlbaDaAÿiç. Almustaw.radaḥ aw. AlmuSad~arah aw. Almur.salah
- Goods being imported and exported or in transit
- جئت للتكلم و التحدث معكم -
- jiÿ.tu liltakal~umi wa AltaHad~uØi maçakum.
- I came to speak and converse with you

3. Suffix Repetition

➤ Repetition of the plural suffix:

- الموجبات و المعاملات الجمركية

- AlmuwjabaAt. wa AlmuçaAmaAlat. Aljum.rukiy~aḥ.

- Customs regulations and formalities

- التطورات و التقلبات

- AltaTaw~uraAt. wa Altaqal~ubaAt.

- Developments and changes

➤ Pronominalization:

- المدرسة و موظفيها و ممتلكاتها و موجوداتها و أموالها

- Almad.rasaḥu wa muwaḌ~afiyhaA wa mum.talakaAtihaA wa
maw.juwdaAtihaA wa Âam.waAlihaA

- The school, its staff, funds, properties, and assets

4. Phrase Repetition

➤ It is like the one-word repetition; however, it includes the repetition of a phrase or even a clause:

Chart of Connecting Words and Transition Signals (*adapted from*
Oshima and Hogue's (2006) "Writing academic English")

Coordinating Words

Coordinating conjunctions

Conjunction	Function	Example
for	Connects a reason to a result	I am a little hungry, for I didn't eat breakfast this morning.
and	Connects equal similar ideas	John likes to fish and hunt.
nor	Connects two negative sentences	She does not eat meat, nor does she drink milk.
but	Connects equal different ideas	I like to eat fish but not to catch them.
or	Connects two equal choices	Do you prefer coffee or tea?
yet	Connects equal contrasting ideas	It is sunny yet cold.
so	Connects a result to a reason	I did not eat breakfast this morning, so I am a little hungry.

Paired (correlative) conjunctions

Conjunction pairs	Example
both...and	Both San Francisco and Sydney have beautiful harbors.
not only...but also	Japanese food is not only delicious to eat but also beautiful to look at.
either...or	Bring either a raincoat or an umbrella when you visit Seattle.
neither...nor	My grandfather could neither read nor write, but he was a very wise person.
whether...or	The newlyweds could not decide whether to live with her parents or to rent an apartment.

Subordinating Words

Subordinating Conjunctions for Adverb Clauses

Time (When?)	
after	After we ate lunch, we decided to go shopping.
as, just as	Just as we left the house, it started to rain.
as long as	We waited as long as we could.
as soon as	As soon as the front door closed, I looked for my house key.
before	I thought I had put it in my coat pocket before we left.
since	I have not locked myself out of the house since I was 10 years old.
until	Until I was almost 12, my mother pinned the key to my coat.
when	When I turned 12, my mother let me keep the key in my pocket.
whenever	I usually put the key in the same place whenever I come home.
while	While I searched for the key, it rained harder and harder.
Place (Where?)	
where	I like to stop where prices are low.
wherever	I try to stop wherever there is a sale.
anywhere	You can find bargains anywhere you stop.
everywhere	I use my credit card everywhere I shop.
Manner (How?)	
as, just as	I love to get flowers, as most women do.
as if	You look as if you didn't sleep at all last night.
as though	She acts as though she doesn't know us.

Distance (How far? How near? How close?)	
as + adverb + as	<p>We will hike as far as we can before it turns dark.</p> <p>The child sat as close as she could to her mother.</p> <p>The child sat as close to her mother as she could.</p>
Frequency (How often?)	
as often as	I call my parents as often as I can.
Reason (Why?)	
as because since	<p>I can't take evening classes, as I work at night.</p> <p>I can't take evening classes because I work at night.</p> <p>I can't take evening classes since I work at night.</p>
Purpose (For what purpose?)	
so that in order that	<p>Many people emigrate so that their children can have a better life.</p> <p>Many people emigrate in order that their children can have a better life.</p>
Result (With what result?)	
so + adjective + that so + adverb + that such a(n) + noun + that so much / many / little / few + noun + that	<p>I was so tired last night that I fell asleep at dinner.</p> <p>She talks so softly that the other students cannot hear her.</p> <p>It was such an easy test that most of the students got A's.</p> <p>He is taking so many classes that he has no time to sleep.</p>
Condition (Under what condition?)	
if unless	<p>We will not go hiking if it rains.</p> <p>We will not go hiking unless the weather is perfect.</p>

Partial contrast	
although	I love my brother although we disagree about almost everything.
even though	I love my brother even though we disagree about almost everything.
though	I love my brother though we disagree about almost everything.
Contrast (Direct opposites)	
while	My brother likes classical music, while I prefer hard rock.
whereas	He dresses conservatively, whereas I like to be a little shocking.

Subordinating Words for Adjective Clauses

To refer to people	
who, whom, whose, that (informal)	<p>People who live in glass houses should not through stones.</p> <p>My parents did not approve of the man whom my sister married.</p> <p>An orphan is a child whose parents are dead.</p>
To refer to animals and things	
which	My new computer, which I bought yesterday, stopped working today.
that	Yesterday I received an e-mail that I did not understand.
To refer to a time or a place	
when	Thanksgiving is a time when families travel great distance to be together.
where	An orphanage is a place where orphans live.

Subordinating Words for Noun Clauses

<i>That Clauses</i>	
that	Do you believe that there is life in outer space?
<i>If/Whether Clauses</i>	
whether	I can't remember whether I locked the door.
whether or not	whether or not I locked the door.
whether...or not	whether I locked the door or not .
if	I can't remember if I locked the door.
if...or not	if I locked the door or not .
<i>Question Clauses</i>	
who, whoever, whom	Whoever arrives at the bus station first should buy the tickets.
which, what, where	Do you know where the bus station is?
when, why, how	We should ask when the bus arrives.
how much, how many	Do not worry about how much they cost.
how long, how often, etc.	He didn't care how long he had to wait.

Conjunctive Adverbs

Conjunctive Adverb	Examples
To add a similar idea	
also	Community colleges offer preparation for many jobs; also , they prepare students to transfer to four-year colleges or universities.
besides	; besides,
furthermore	; furthermore,

in addition moreover	; in addition, ; moreover,
To add an unexpected or surprising continuation	
however nevertheless nonetheless still	The cost of attending a community college is low; however, many students need financial aid. ; nevertheless ; nonetheless, ; still,
To add a complete contrast	
in contrast on the other hand	Most community colleges do not have dormitories; in contrast, most four-year colleges do. ; on the other hand,
To add a result	
as a result consequently therefore thus	Native and nonnative English speakers have different need; as a result, most schools provide separate classes for each group. ; consequently, ; therefore, ; thus,
To list ideas in order of time	
meanwhile afterward then subsequently	Police kept people away from the scene of the accident; meanwhile, ambulance workers tried to pull victims out of the wreck. The workers put five injured people into an ambulance; afterward, they found another victim. ; then, ; subsequently,
To give an example	
for example	Colors can have different meanings; for example, white is the color of weddings in some cultures and of funerals in others.

for instance		; for instance,
To show similarities		
similarly	Hawaii has sunshine and friendly people; similarly , Mexico's weather is sunny and its people hospitable.	
likewise		; likewise,
To indicate “the first statement is not true; the second statement is true”		
instead	The medicine did not make him feel better; instead , it made him feel worse	
on the contrary		; on the contrary,
rather		; rather,
instead (meaning “as a substitute”)	They had planned to go to Hawaii on their honeymoon; instead , they went to Mexico.	
To give another possibility		
alternatively	You can live in a dorm on campus; on the other hand , you can rent a room.	
on the other hand		; alternatively,
otherwise (meaning “if not”)	Students must take final exams; otherwise , they will receive a grade of Incomplete.	
To add an explanation		
in other words	Some cultures are matriarchal; in other words , the mothers are the head of the family.	
that is		; that is,
To make a stronger statement		
indeed	Mangoes are a very common fruit; indeed , people eat more mangoes than any other fruit in the world.	
in fact		; in fact,

Transition Signals

Transition Signals and Conjunctive Adverbs	Coordinating Conjunctions and Paired Conjunctions	Subordinating Conjunctions	Others: Adjectives, Prepositions, Verbs
To list ideas in order of time			
first, ... first of all, ... second, ... third, ... next, ... then, ... after that, ... meanwhile, ... in the meantime, ... finally, ... last, ... last of all, ... subsequently, ...		before after until when while as soon as since	the first (reason, cause, step, etc.) the second... the third... another... the last... the final...
To list ideas in order of importance			
first, ... first of all, ... first and foremost,.. second, ... more important, ... most important, ... more significantly, ..			the first ... (reason, cause, step, etc.) an additional ... the second ... another ... a more important (reason, cause, step, etc.)

most significantly, .. above all, ... most of all, ...			the most important the most significant... the best/the worst ..
To add a similar or equal idea			
also, ... besides, ... furthermore, ... in addition, ... moreover, ... too as well	and both...and not only...but also		another... (reason, cause, step, etc.) a second ... an additional ... a final ... as well as ...
To add an opposite idea			
however, ... on the other hand, ... nevertheless, ... nonetheless, ... still, ...	but yet	although even though though	despite in spite of
To explain or restate an idea			
in other words, ... in particular, ... (more) specifically, that is, ...			
To make a stronger statement			
indeed, ... in fact, ...			

To give another possibility			
alternatively, ... on the other hand, ... otherwise, ...	or either...or whether...or		
To give an example			
for example, ... for instance, ...			such as an example to exemplify
To express an opinion			
according to ... in my opinion, ... in my view, ...			to believe (that) to feel (that) to think (that)
To give a reason			
for this reason, ...	for	because	as a result of because of due to
To give a result			
accordingly, ... as a consequence, ... as a result, ... consequently, ... for these reasons, ... hence, ... therefore, ... thus, ...	so		the cause of the reason for the cause the result (in) to have an effect on to affect

To add a conclusion			
all in all, ... in brief, ... in short, ... to conclude, ... to summarize, ... in conclusion, ... in summary, ... for these reasons, ...			
To show similarities			
likewise, ... similarly, ... also	and both...and not only...but also neither...nor		alike, like, just like as, just as as well as well as compared with or to in comparison with or to to be similar (to) too
To show differences			
however, ... in contrast, ... instead, ... on the contrary, ... on the other hand, ... rather, ...			instead of

Examples of Fixed Expressions

Expression	Meaning	Equivalent
To be on the same page	Thinking in a similar way	
To beat around the bush	To prevaricate and avoid coming to the point	
To see eye to eye	To agree about something with someone else	
I am all ears	Very eager to listen to what someone is going to say	كلي آذان صاغية
Walls have ears	Someone may be listening	الجدران لها آذان
Armed to the teeth	Heavily armed with deadly weapons	مدجج بالسلاح
A fox in not taken by the same snare twice	Wise people never commit the same mistake twice	لا يلدغ المؤمن من جحر مرتين
Once in a blue moon	Not very often	
A piece of cake	Something is very easy to complete	
To cost an arm and a leg	Something is very expensive	
To be between a rock and a hard place	To be between two very bad options	بين المطرقة و السندان
To add fuel to the fire	Whenever something is done to make a bad situation even worse than it is	يزيد الطين بلة
All roads lead to Rome	There can be many different ways of doing something	كل الطرق تؤدي إلى روما
You can lead a horse to water, but you cannot make it drink	You can present someone with an opportunity, but you cannot force them to take advantage of it	
You cannot teach an old dog new tricks	It is difficult to make someone change the way they do something when they have been doing it in the same way for a long time	

Texts and Paragraphs

A Sample of Paragraphs

English Paragraphs

We live in the age of technology. Every day, new technology appears, ranging from mini-CDs that contain entire encyclopedias of information to giant space telescopes that can send photographs of distant stars back to Earth. Of all the new technological wonders, personal computers have probably had the greatest influence on the daily lives of average people. Through computers, we can now talk to people in any country; research any topic as well as entertaining our selves.

"The teenage years are a period of separation." A well-known developmental psychologist asserts. During this period, children separate themselves from their parents to become independent. Teenagers express their separateness most vividly in their choice of clothes, hairstyle, music, in addition to vocabulary.

Travelling to a foreign country is always interesting, especially if it is a country that is completely different from your own. You can delight in tasting foods, seeing new sights, and learning about different customs, some of which may seem very curious. If you were to visit my country, for instance, you would probably think that my people have some very strange customs.⁴

⁴ Taken from the second-year writing course at the Department of Letters and English Language, University of Constantine 1

And the Yemeni minister confirmed that the government will not run any hotels or industrial institutions, and the economy will follow open market strategies. And he confirmed that the government declared yesterday the formation of two committees, and they will carry out the transformation.⁵

Arabic Paragraphs

كلنا قرأ قصة ليلي والذئب أو الثعلب وأنها في النهاية لم تسمح للذئب أن يأكلها وما أكثر الذئاب في وقتنا الذين يحومون حول ليلي ويرادونها عن نفسها وهي إما أن تسعى في إرضاء رغبته أو أن تدافع عن شرفها وشرف عائلتها ..وتتمسك بدينها حتى لا تغبن أو تخدع.

الوقت كالسيف إن لم تقطعه قطعك لذلك يجب أن يستغل كل منا وقت فراغه لان الوقت الذي يمضى لا يعود وبحسب من عمر الإنسان لذلك فان أهميه الوقت تجعلنا نعمل بكل جد وإخلاص لاستغلالها في كل لحظه و من ذلك من الضروري علينا جميعا أن نحافظ على وقتنا و نستثمره للأفضل.

يعد الفراغ من المشكلات المهمة في مرحلة المراهقة، حيث إن الفراغ مفسدة، وإن أوقات الفراغ إذا لم تشغل بما هو خير ونافع فإنها ستشغل حتما بما هو ضار وشرير. فكما هو معروف فإن لكل إنسان دوافع وحاجات أساسية تلح عليه من أجل التعبير عنها وإشباعها، ولكن القيود الاجتماعية في كثير من الأحيان تجعل من الصعب التعبير عن هذه الدوافع والحاجات، وتكون مشكلة التعبير عنها أقصى عند المراهق. ولهذا فإن تنظيم أوقات الفراغ

⁵ A literal translation by Abu Radwan (2012) of an excerpt from a political article in *Asharq-Al-Awsat* newspaper number issued on November 25th, 1994.

عند المراهق ذو أهمية كبيرة من أجل إشباع رغباته وانفعالاته وقدراته الإبداعية من خلال الهوايات والأنشطة اليدوية والاجتماعية التي يمارسها.

وأكد الوزير اليمني أن الحكومة لن تقوم بتشغيل أي فنادق أو مؤسسات الصناعية، وأن الاقتصاد سوف تتبع استراتيجيات السوق المفتوحة. وأكد أن الحكومة أعلنت أمس عن تشكيل لجنّتين، وأنها ستنفذ هذا التحول⁶.

⁶ Original text translated by Abu Radwan (2012).

A Sample of Essays

English Essays

Description of a Desert

Ann Plato

It is difficult to form a correct idea of a desert, without having seen one. It is a vast plain of sands and stones, interspersed with mountains of various sizes and heights, without roads or shelters. They sometimes have springs of water, which burst forth, and create verdant spots.

The most remarkable of deserts is the Sahara. This is a vast plain, but little elevated above the level of the ocean, and covered with sand and gravel, with a mixture of sea shells, and appears like the basin of an evaporated sea.

Amid the desert there are springs of water, which burst forth and create verdant spots, called Oases. There are thirty-two of these which contain fountains, and Date and Palm trees; twenty of them are inhabited. They serve as stopping places for the caravans, and often contain villages.

Were it not for these no human being could cross this waste of burning sand. So violent, sometimes, is the burning wind that the scorching heat dries up the water of these springs, and then frequently, the most disastrous consequences follow.

In 1805, a caravan, consisting of 2,000 persons and 1,800 camels, not finding water at the usual resting place, died of thirst, both men and animals. Storms of wind are more terrible on this desert than on the ocean. Vast surges and clouds of red sand are raised and rolled forward, burying every thing in its way, and it is said that whole tribes have thus been swallowed up.

The situation of such is dreadful, and admits of no resource. Many perish victims of the most horrible thirst. It is then that the value of a cup of water is really felt.

In such a case there is no distinction. If the master has not, the servant will not give it to him; for very few are the instances where a man will voluntarily lose his life to save that of another. What a situation for a man, though a rich one, perhaps the owner of all the caravan! He is dying for a cup of water—no one gives it to him; he offers all he possesses—no one hears him; they are all dying, though by walking a few hours further, they might be saved.

In short, to be thirsty in a desert, without water, exposed to the burning sun, without shelter, is the most terrible situation that a man can be placed in, and one of the greatest sufferings that a human being can sustain; the tongue and lips swell; a hollow sound is heard in the ears, which brings on deafness, and the brain appears to grow thick and inflamed.

If, unfortunately, any one falls sick on the road, he must either endure the fatigue of traveling on a camel, (which is troublesome even to healthy people,) or he must be left behind on the sand, without any assistance, and remain so till a slow death come to relieve him. No one remains with him, not even his old and faithful servant; no one will stay and die with him; all pity his fate, but no one will be his companion.

Dealing with Overwhelm

Joshua Millburn

Throughout my thirty years on this earth, I have struggled with one emotion more than any other: the feeling of overwhelm. That changed this year though.

Until this year, I was overwhelmed by my job. I was overwhelmed by the amount of email in my inbox. I was overwhelmed just thinking about hitting the gym in the evening. I was overwhelmed by the Internet. I was overwhelmed by my smartphone. I was overwhelmed by the phone calls and emails and text messages and instant messages and BlackBerry Messenger messages and Twitter updates and Facebook statuses and all the millions of discrete bits of info hurled in my direction every day.

I became neurotic—I was overwhelmed, so I worried about everything. What if I don't respond to that email today? What if I don't return that voicemail in time? What if I fail? What if he doesn't like me? What if she stops loving me? What if, what if, what if...

Overwhelm is a heartless [enemy] who makes us doubt ourselves into oblivion. And it's easy to let him into our lives. Overwhelm seems like the natural reaction to the barrage of information with which we're faced every day of our lives. But there is a way to have an amicable separation from overwhelm, a way to deny her access to your life.

Minimalism allowed me to deal with overwhelm in ways I never thought possible. Minimalism taught me we don't get overwhelmed by the million bits of information whizzing at us at all hours of the day; rather, we get overwhelmed because of those million bits. In other words, the reason we get overwhelmed is because there is too much going on in our lives. The overwhelm is a warning sign.

I finally realized that this year. I realized that overwhelm was there to help me, not hurt me. She was standing over my shoulder saying, "hey, dummy, you're trying to do too many things," and "hey, stupid, you have too much crap in you life," and "hey, you idiot, yeah, you, don't you realize that what you're doing isn't that important?"

Overwhelm was actually there to help me, to get me on the right track, to make me feel the pain of accepting too many unnecessary responsibilities, the pain of accepting too much superfluous stuff in my life, the pain of the status quo. Once I realized this I was able to get rid of my old routine, to develop habits I loved instead of meaningless, tedious tasks that filled up my day, to focus on doing important things and live a more meaningful life.

This year, I quickly whittled away anything that wasn't important in my life. No more "to do" list. No more daily emails. No more TV. No more Internet at home. No more unneeded bills. No more unnecessary phone calls. No more clocks (no more time). Now I focus on what's important to me: my relationships, my health, my passion, growing as individual, and contributing to others in a meaningful way.

At first, I thought people wouldn't understand me, I thought that my friends and family would reject my change, I thought they would be offended when I didn't respond to their emails within 24 hours, when I didn't call them back within an hour, when I didn't conform to the status quo of my yesteryear, but I discovered that the important people in my life respected my newfound lifestyle, my newfound underwhelm, my calmer, more focused life. Once I set the expectation with them, they respected my decision—the people who really matter did. Some of these people even began implementing aspects of my lifestyle into their daily rituals, experiencing a new life, a more fulfilling life, a life of underwhelm.

Native American Influences on Modern U.S. Culture **from Oshima and Hogue (2006)**

When the first Europeans came to the North American continent, they encountered the completely new cultures of the Native American peoples of North America. Native Americans, who had highly developed cultures in many respects, must have been as curious about the strange European manners and customs as the Europeans were curious about them. As always happens when two or more cultures come into contact, there was a cultural exchange. Native Americans adopted some of the Europeans' ways, and the Europeans adopted some of their ways. As a result, Native Americans have made many valuable contributions to modern U.S. culture, particularly in the areas of language, art, food, and government.

First of all, Native Americans left a permanent mark on the English language. The early English-speaking settlers borrowed from several different Native American languages words for places in this new land. All across the country are cities, towns, rivers, and states with Native American names. For example, the states of Delaware, Iowa, Illinois, and Alabama are named after Native American tribes, as are the cities of Chicago, Miami, and Spokane. In addition to place names, English adopted from various Native American languages the words for animals and plants found in the Americas. *Chipmunk*, *moose*, *raccoon*, *skunk*, *tobacco*, and *squash* are just few examples.

Although the vocabulary of English is the area that shows the most Native American influence, it is not the only area of U.S. culture that has been shaped by contact with Native Americans. Art is another area of important Native American contributions. Wool rugs woven by women of the Navajo tribe in Arizona and New Mexico are highly valued works of art in the United States. Native American jewelry made from silver and turquoise is also very popular and very expensive. Especially in the western and southwestern regions of the United States, native crafts such as pottery, leather products, and beadwork can be found in many homes. Indeed, native art and handicrafts are a treasured part of U.S. culture.

In addition to language and art, agriculture is another area in which Native Americans had a great and lasting influence on the peoples who arrived here from Europe, Africa, and Asia. Being skilled farmers, the Native Americans of North America taught the newcomers many things about farming techniques and crops. Every U.S. schoolchild has heard the story of how Native Americans taught the first settlers to place a dead fish in a planting hole to provide fertilizer for the growing plant. Furthermore, they taught the settlers irrigation methods and crop rotation. Many of the foods people in the United States eat today were introduced to the Europeans by Native Americans. For example, corn and chocolate were unknown in Europe. Now they are staples in the U.S. diet.

Finally, it may surprise some people to learn that citizens of the United States are also indebted to the native people for our form of government. The Iroquois, who were an extremely large tribe with many branches called "nations", had developed a highly sophisticated system of government to settle disputes that arose between the various branches. Five of the nations had joined together in a

confederation called “The League of Iroquois.” Under the league, each nation was autonomous in running its own internal affairs, but the nations acted as a unit when dealing with outsiders. The league kept the Iroquois from fighting among themselves and was also valuable in diplomatic relations with other tribes. When the 13 colonies were considering what kind of government to establish after they had won their independence from Britain, someone suggested that they use a system similar to that of the league of Iroquois. Under this system, each colony or future state would be autonomous in managing its own affairs but would join forces with the other states to deal with matters that concerned them all. This is exactly what happened. As a result, the present form of government of the United States can be traced directly back to Native American model.

In conclusion, we can easily see from these few examples the extent of Native American influence on our language, our arts forms, our eating habits, and our government. The people of the United States are deeply indebted to Native Americans for their contributions to U.S. culture.

Arabic Essays

نجار ونجار

أحمد أمين

استأجر دكانًا أمام منزلي الأسطى حسن النجار. وهو شاب في نحو الثلاثين من عمره، مهزول الجسم، أصفر الوجه، ينتعل نعلًا بالية، ويلبس ثيابًا رثة، وعلى رأسه طربوش أسفله أسود، وأعلاه أحمر، قد دفعه إلى الوراء ليظهر ((قُصَّته)) من شعره، فرعها فروعا ورفعها إلى السماء لتتاطح السحاب. ينظر إليك بعين مُنتفخة كأنه قريب العهد دائمًا بنوم طويل ثقيل، ويمشي متطرحا كأن في رأسه دائمًا فضلة خُمَار، وعلى وجهه غيرة كأن الماء لم يمسه أبدًا؛ أقوى شيء فيه لسانه في السباب، وصوته في النزاع. ليس لفتح دكانه أو إغلاقه موعد، ولا لعمله وراحته وقت محدد، يحلو له أحيانًا أن يغلقه في الصباح ويفتحه في الظهر إذا بدأ الناس يقيلون، وأحيانًا يسره أن يتركه مغلقًا طول النهار ويفتحه ليلا حيث يبدأ الناس في النوم، فيضيء مصباحه، ويخرج عدده وأدواته في الشارع، ويأخذ في نجارته ما حلّى له ذلك، فحينًا إلى الفجر، وحينًا إلى الصباح؛ تحاول أن تصده عن ذلك وتنصحه فيظهر الطاعة ثم يستمر في خطته؛ وأحيانًا تتقلب دكانه في الليل حانة يجتمع وأصحابه فينتادمون ويتشاربون؛ حتى إذا تمشت الخمر في مفاصلهم، ودبت في عظامهم، ذهبت بهم كل مذهب، وأخذت منهم كل مأخذ، فيتغنوا أحيانًا، ووقع الغناء في نفوسهم أحسن وقع، وصاحوا جميعًا بصوت واحد: آه ! ممدودة ما طاوعتهم أنفاسهم – وأحيانًا يعدلون عن الغناء إلى تبادل النكات، ويعقبون كل نكتة بضحكة عالية تُسرُّ نفوسهم وتخرق أذان جيرانهم .

وإذا فتح الدكان نهارًا فمعرض غريب، لا لجودة المصنوعات، ولا دقة المعروضات، ولكن لأصحاب الحاجات قد أتوا يطالبون بإنجاز أعمالهم، والشكوى من تأخير طلباتهم؛ ثم يصل الأمر في أغلب الأحيان إلى تدخل البوليس، وأحيانًا يكون ما هو أدهى وأمر، إذ يكون قد سلم إليه صاحب حاجة دولابه أو كرسيه لإصلاحه، فلم يجد دولابه ولا كرسيه، لأن الأسطى حسن اضطرته الحاجة الملحة فباعه وأضاع ثمنه. وهكذا أصبح شارعنا بحمد الله معرضًا في النهار للسباب والمنازعات والخصومات والبوليس، ومنندي جميلًا ليلاً لأهل السَّماح الملاح، إلى الصباح. وأخيرًا: عدت من عملي يومًا فرأيت الزحام شديدًا على دكان الأسطى حسن، وإذا جَلَبَةٌ وضوضاء، وصياح يملأ الأذان، وإذا المنادى ينادى لبيع عدد النجارة وأدواتها: منشار في حالة جيد ! عشرة قروش – أحد عشر – اثنا عشر. ألا أونا – ألا دو – ألا تريه. وهكذا حتى تم بيع كل ما في الدكان، وفاءً لأجرتها خمسة شهور تأخرت على الأسطى حسن. وكان شعوري إذ ذاك مزيجًا من غبطة وألم، وحزن وفرح؛ فقد ألمتني خاتمته، وأفرحني ما منيت به نفسي بعد ذلك من نوم هادئ سعيد. ودعوت ربي جاهدًا ألا يرغب في الدكان مستأجر بعد، فإن كان ولا بد فكواه أو عطار، لا نجار ولا بائع فراخ ولا مبيض نحاس؛ وقصرت شكواي على الله بعد أن جربت البوليس فوجدته لا يأبه لهذه السفاسف، وليس له من الزمن ما يلفته لهذه الصغائر.

ولكن أباي القدر أن يستجيب دعوتي – وكأن الدكان وقف على سُكْنَى النجارين – فقد سكنها هذه المرة أيضًا نجار، ولكنه من صنف آخر، هو نجار رومي، لم أشعر بسكناه إلا بعد شهر، إذ لم يكن في عمله شيء غير عادي، فهو يفتح دكانه وقت العمل، ويغلقها عند الغروب، وينجر فتندمج أصوات دقاته ونجارته في أصوات البائعين وحركات المارين. دعوته يوما لإصلاح دولاب، فإذا شاب يشترك مع الأسطى حسن في سنه، ويختلف عنه في

كل شيء آخر، جميل الهمدَام، وإن لم يكن ثمينه، صفف شعره في أنافة ولمعان، بينما اعتنى الأسطى حسن ((بقصته)) فقط – عمل له في هدوء وإتقان، وكأنه يحترم نفسه ويحترم عمله، ويقدر نوع معيشته وما يلزم لها، فطلب ضعف ما كان يطلبه زميله فدفعته راضيًا له في جوارنا ستة أشهر أو تزيد، لم أسمع صوته، ولم أسمع شاكياً من تأخر موعد أو تصرف سيء؛ ولم يقلق راحتي كما أقلقها من كان قبله، فهو وإن لم يكن كواءً أو عطارًا كالذي رجوت، فليس شرًا منهما، وتبين بعد أن الأمر ليس نوع الصناعة، وإنما هو نوع الصانع.

تلك التفاحة أحلام مستغانمي

منذ سنة أو أكثر، بدأ الوزراء اللبنانيون جلستهم الوزارية بقضم تفاحة، دعماً لتفاح لبنان، الذي كان معرّضاً آنذاك للكساد بسبب مقاطعة إحدى الدول المغاربية له بعد أن كانت سوقه الأولى. قرأت أنّ التفاح بقي أمراضاً كثيرة، وأنّ تفاحة واحدة في اليوم كافية لدعم صحتك، وإذا بالتفاح نفسه يحتاج إلى إنقاذ، ولا تتوقف الحملات لدعم صحته الاقتصادية. آخرها، حملة قامت بها إحدى المؤسسات اللبنانية، رافعة شعار "بديّاتنا (أي بأيدينا) نقطف تفاحاتنا"، قصد تشجيع الشباب اللبناني على المشاركة في عملية قطافه.

وإن كان لا أجمل من يد قنّية تقطف ثمرة من شجرة، فلا أخطر على الثورة من لحظة دخول الدودة إلى قلب الثمرة. لذا أشفق على الفلسطينيين، الذين بعد أن سرّقت منهم إسرائيل برتقال يافا وعنب الخليل، اكتشفوا أنّ دودة دخلت تفاحتهم، التي تمّ قضمها سرّاً من قبل الذين كانوا يوزعون بالتساوي الشعارات الواعدة على الجائعين، والتفاح على المسؤولين. حمداً لله أنّ العراقيين وفّروا على أنفسهم هموم التفاح، مذ جاءهم بستاني، يتولى في البيت الأبيض زراعة وقطاف كل ما تحبل به أرض العراق.

وبينما كان مطربنا رابح درياسة يغني "يا التفاحة.. يا التفاحة قولي لي وعلاش الناس والعة بيك"، كان ناظم الغزالي يستبِق المصاب ويستعدُّ لزمان لن يجد فيه عراقي تفاحة يهديها إلى حبيبته: "وتريد مني التفاح وأنا ما عندي تفاح". وعندما اكتشف العراقيون أن "لا تفاح لمن تنادي"، انخرطوا في حزب البرتقالة، وسلطوا علينا مخلوقاً يُرِيد على مدار النهار "يا برتقالا اة" "يا برتقالا اة". بربكم، لولا عقم نخيل العراق حزناً، أكان لأغنية كهذه أن تنصّر الأغاني العراقية رَوَاجاً؟

مناسبة الحديث عن التفاح، أنني قبل أسبوع قمت بدعم التفاح اللبناني وأنا في المطار، قاصدة الجزائر، فارتأيت أن أشتري لأمي منه صندوقاً صغيراً، لعلمي بانحيازها إليه. البائع الشاب في محل "غوديز" في المطار، الذي سبق في إحدى الرحلات أن تعرّف إليّ، فأهديته كتاباً لي كان في حوزتي، أسرع إلى خدمتي، وتفتأ في عرض أكثر من فاكهة عليّ. لكنني بقيت على وفائي للتفاح. قلت له وهو يرافقتي إلى الصندوق، إنّ لي قرابة بالتفاح، مستشهادة بمقولة أمين نخلة: "ولد الفن يوم قالت حواء لأدم ما أجمل هذه التفاحة، بدل أن تقول له: كل هذه التفاحة."

ولأننا كنّا في رمضان، احتفظت لنفسي بخاطرة جارتني الجميلة شهرزاد، التي حوّلت التفاح من فاكهة للخطيئة إلى ثمرة للتقوى، حين قالت: "كلّما رأيت أمامي تفاحة، رددت في داخلي: سأتقاسمها معك في الجنة بإذنه تعالى". ولأنّ التفاح ثمرة التأمل، ارتأيت أن أكتب لكم هذه الخواطر استناداً إلى قول جميل احتفظت به بين أوراقها، للرائعة غادة السمان: "لو شاهدت التفاحة وهي تسقط من الشجرة، وفكرت في قانون الجاذبية، فأنت عالم، لو أخذت التفاحة وبعثتها فأنت تاجر، لو التهمت التفاحة فأنت واقعي، لو أحنزك موت التفاحة فأنت شاعر، لو انحزت إلى الأفعى ضدّ آدم فأنت سياسي، أما لو فكرت في كل ذلك، ولم تملك إلا أن تكتبه فأنت كاتب وروائي". اعذروني إذن، إن كنت أحتاج إلى كلّ هذه الروايات لأحدتكم عن تفاحة.

الفن والثقافة

أيمن اللبدي

هنالك أكثر من رابط عضوي أزلي بين هذين العنوانين العريضين ، ولعل محاولة الوصول إلى هذه الروابط كانت وبلا شك محط محاولات عديدة على مر العصور ومادة خصبة للبحث والدراسة ، ومنذ أرسطو وتلميذه سقراط والمحاولات ما فتأت دؤوبة تارة لدى الفلاسفة وتارة لدى الأدباء والنقاد وأطوارا أخرى لدى العديد من مفكري الإنسانية ومنتبعي الشأن الثقافي والتراث الإنساني المتجدد دائما مع حركة الحياة وإبداعات الإنسان .

ولعل أرسطو في كتابه " الشعر " وكذا فعل كثيرا تلميذه أفلاطون في جمهورياته المتعددة قد دأبا على وضع الفنون الإنسانية تالية للفلسفة في المقام إلا انهما لم يفقدا إيمانهما بأن الشعر والأدب عموما موهبة ربانية والهام الهي تجود به ربة الشعر على هؤلاء الشعراء فينطقون بلسانها كما في مؤلفه أيون (Ion) ، وهكذا ذهب معظم ناقدتي عصور النهضة الأوروبيون وعلى رأسهم شيلي Shelly في كتابه دفاعا عن الشعر ، وهي نظرة الكلاسيكيين من النقاد في أوروبا .

ولكن العرب وهم أهل القول والكلمة في مناحي الأدب المختلفة ومجالاته وبعيدا عن الفلسفة القديمة أبقوا الشعر والفن عموما في دائرة الموهبة طبعاً ولكنهم زادوا بان الدربة تؤدي إليه ، ولعل ذلك ما استشف من حديثهم حول أحد أروع شعراء العرب عندما حكم عليه نقاد زمانه بأنه ما زال يهذي حتى قال الشعر ! والأمر بالأمر يذكر فان كثيرا من الأحكام النقدية في مجالس التحكيم النقدي منذ عكاظ ومرورا بمجالس الخلفاء العامرة كانت وبلا شك تحتكم في جزء مما تراه إلى حقيقة ثقافة الشاعر أو الأديب ومدى اطلاعه .

وان جاز لنا أن نجمل في هذا الموضوع رأياً نقول بان الفن مبتداه موهبة بلا شك ولكنها ترتكز إلى الثقافة والاطلاع كي ترقى إلى مراتب أعلى وتصبح أكثر جمالا وإقناعا بل وان بمقدورها حتى أن تصل إلى مستوى الإنسانية " ما يدعونه هذه الأيام بالعالمية " متجاوزة حاجز اللغة والتجربة الخاصة .

إن الثقافة فقط يمكنها أيضا أن تزيد من الذائقة الأدبية لدى المتلقي كي يصبح مستعدا للانتشاء في حضرة الفن الكبير وبدونها يبقى عاجزا عن التواصل الحميمي اللهم إلا استدراك واستشعار وخزات هلامية وبدائية يكفلها سيف الفن لكل متلق مهما كانت ثقافته ومستواها .

ومن هنا نضع لنا هدفا في هذه النافذة لا يمس فقط المواهب التي نحن بصدد إعطائها الأولوية في الخطاب والمكاشفة بل إنما هو لكل المتلقين بلا منازع لكي يصبح ميدانا عاما للتفاعل والاستفادة مما هو متاح وممكن وبذا يمكننا الاطمئنان إلى أننا سنحرك ولو قليلا عجلة تشكيل ذوق أدبي من نوع جديد يحسن التعامل مع الإرث الغني كما يحسن صيانة الواقع القائم وينظر بعين أكثر إبصارا إلى موطئ قدميه في المستقبل المرتقب .

RÉSUMÉ

La première langue a toujours un rôle à jouer dans l'acquisition d'une deuxième langue. En écrit, l'influence de la première langue est manifestée à des niveaux différents commençant par le vocabulaire et la grammaire et terminant par l'organisation du discours et des diapositifs rhétoriques. La présente recherche a pour but d'examiner le problème de transfert rhétorique comme reflété dans les productions écrites des étudiants de la deuxième année du Département des Lettres et de la Langue Anglaise, à l'Université de Constantine 1. La recherche effectue une analyse de rhétorique contrastive des compositions descriptives Arabes et Anglaises des étudiants pour identifier leurs déviations stylistiques et améliorer leur écrit académique dans la langue cible. Les hypothèses avancées prévoient que les différences entre l'arabe et l'anglais ont un impact négatif sur l'écrit rhétorique des étudiants en anglais et que la sensibilisation sur les différences des discours améliorera la qualité d'écriture des étudiants. Trois outils de recherche principaux ont été utilisés pour tester les hypothèses: un questionnaire pour les étudiants, une analyse comparative des compositions Arabes et Anglaises et une conception de recherche quasi-expérimentale. Les résultats corroborent les hypothèses de recherche dans un sens que les différences rhétoriques entre la première langue et la langue cible mènent aux difficultés et que le manque de sensibilisation cognitive concernant ces différences chez les étudiants conduit à un transfert négatif de la première langue et une déviation rhétorique de la langue cible aux niveaux de la connectivité, la répétition, le fait d'être collectif et la transculturalité. Tant que les participants du groupe expérimental ont enregistré un progrès statistique significatif comme mesuré par

le 't-test', on pourrait conclure que l'arabe exerce une influence négative apparente sur le raisonnement des étudiants et que la sensibilisation de la rhétorique contrastive représente un moyen effectif pour stimuler leur performance d'écriture. Finalement, vu que ce problème de transfert linguistique génère des problèmes de communication, les enseignants devraient instruire leurs étudiants sur les aspects différents de la rhétorique contrastive pour améliorer leur compétence communicative interculturelle.

ملخص

تلعب لغة الطلبة الأولى دورا كبيرا في اكتساب لغة ثانية، ففي ما يخص مهارة الكتابة، يتجلى تأثير اللغة الأولى في مستويات عدة بدءا بالاستعمالات المفرداتية، والنحوية والصرفية وصولا إلى نظام الخطاب والأساليب البلاغية. ويهدف هذا البحث للتحقيق في مسألة التداخل البلاغي في كتابة طلبة السنة الثانية ليسانس في قسم الآداب واللغة الإنجليزية، جامعة قسنطينة 1 من خلال إجراء دراسة بلاغية مقارنة لمقالاتهم باللغتين العربية والإنجليزية من أجل تحديد انحرافاتهم الأسلوبية وتحسين كتابتهم الأكاديمية في اللغة الهدف. لذلك، نفترض بأن الاختلافات بين العربية والإنجليزية يكون لها تأثير سلبي في كتابة الطلبة في اللغة الإنجليزية وأن توعيتهم حيال الاختلافات النصية من شأنه تطوير مستواهم البلاغي. وقد استخدمت ثلاث أدوات بحث رئيسية لاختبار الفرضيات: استبانة للطلبة، تحليل مقارن لمقالاتهم بالعربية والإنجليزية، بالإضافة إلى تصميم بحث شبه تجريبي. وقد أكدت النتائج المتحصل عليها فرضيات البحث، بمعنى أن الاختلافات البلاغية بين اللغة الأولى واللغة الهدف ينتج عنها صعوبات، وأن عدم وعي الطلبة بهذه الاختلافات يؤدي إلى تداخل سلبي للغة الأولى و انحراف بلاغي في اللغة الهدف يبرزان على عدة مستويات. وبما أن الطلبة المشاركين في المجموعة التجريبية سجلوا تقدما ذا دلالة إحصائية يقاس من خلال اختبار الطلبة ' $t-test$ '، فيمكن أن نخلص إلى أن اللغة العربية تمارس تأثيرا سلبيا واضحا في تشكيل أفكار الطلبة وأن التوعية حول الاختلافات البلاغية تمثل وسيلة فعالة لتحسين أدائهم الكتابي. وفي نهاية المطاف، ولأن هذه المعضلة عادة ما تؤدي إلى اختلال في التواصل، ينبغي على مدرسي التعبير الكتابي على مستوى الجامعة توجيه طلبتهم إلى الجوانب المختلفة للبلاغة من أجل تحسين كفاءتهم التواصلية عبر الثقافات.